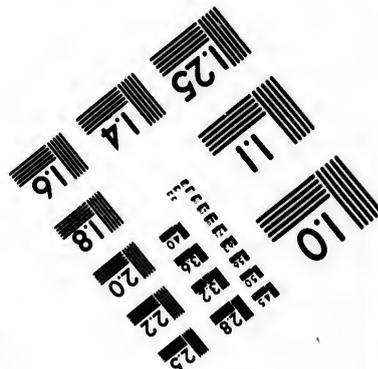
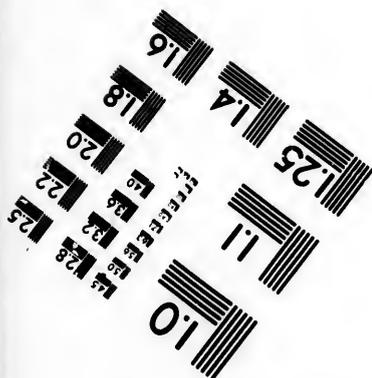
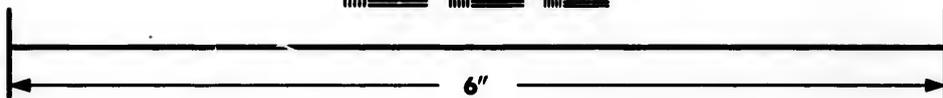
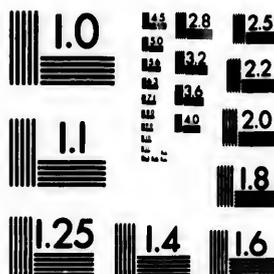


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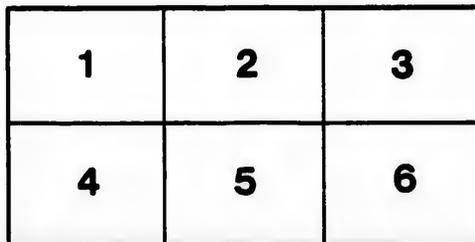
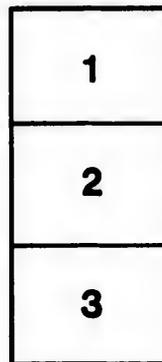
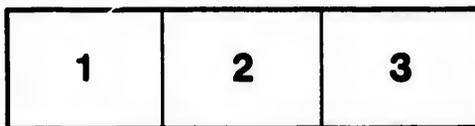
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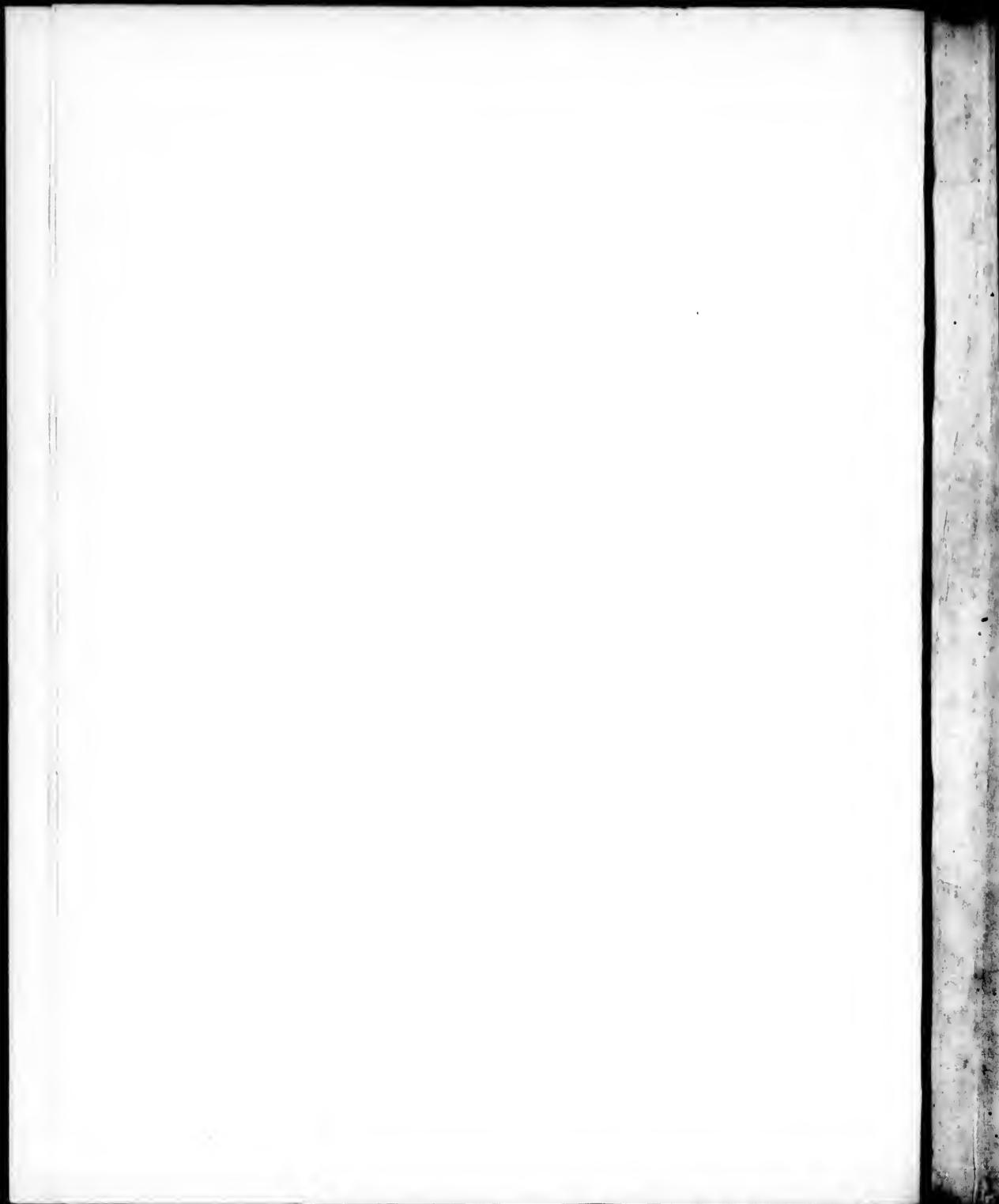
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T H E

P R E F A C E.

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

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

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distinguishes

## P R E F A C E.

distinguishes them from the lower ranks of men in all other countries. To promote and advance this improvement, is the principal design of our present undertaking. No subject appears more interesting than that which we have chosen, and none seems capable of being treated in a manner that may render it more generally useful.

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

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

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ner. Neither is this to be altogether imputed to the fault of geographical writers. The greater part of travellers, acting solely under the influence of avarice, the passion which first induced them to quit their native land, were at little pains, and were indeed ill qualified to collect such materials as are proper for gratifying curiosity, or affording instruction. The geographer, then, who could only employ the materials put into his hands, was not enabled to give us any important information. In the course of the present century, however, men have begun to travel from different motives. A thirst for knowledge, as well as for gold, has led many into distant lands. These they have explored with a philosophic attention; and by laying open the internal springs of action, by which the inhabitants of different regions are actuated, exhibit to us a natural and striking picture of human manners, under the various stages of barbarity and refinement. Without manifest impropriety, we could not but avail ourselves of their labours, by means of which, we have been enabled to give a more copious, and a more perfect detail of what is called Political Geography, than has hitherto appeared.

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

We are sensible, that a reader could not examine the present state of nations with much entertainment or instruction, unless he was also made acquainted with their ancient situation, and with the various revolutions and events, by the operation of which they have assumed their present form and appearance. This constitutes the Historical part of our Work; a department which we have endeavoured to execute in a manner entirely new. Instead of fatiguing the reader with a dry detail of news-paper occurrences—occurrences no way connected with one another, or with the general plan of the whole, we have mentioned only such facts as are interesting, either in themselves or from their relation to objects of importance. Instead of a meagre index of incoherent incidents, we have drawn up a regular and connected epitome of the history of each country—such an epitome as may be read, we hope, with pleasure and advantage, and which may be considered as a proper introduction to more copious accounts.

## P R E F A C E.

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

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

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

As to particular parts of the work, we have treated them more or less diffusely, in proportion to their importance to us as men, and as subjects of Great Britain. Our own country, in both respects, deserved the greatest share of our attention. Great Britain, though she cannot boast of a more luxuriant soil or happier climate than many other countries, has advantages of another and superior kind, which have made her the delight and envy of the world: these are the equity of her laws, the freedom of her political constitution, and the moderation of her religious system. With regard to the British empire, we have therefore been singularly copious.

## P R E F A C E.

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

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

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

America, whether considered as an immense continent inhabited by an endless variety of different people, or as a country intimately connected with Europe by the ties of commerce and government, deserves very particular attention. The bold discovery and barbarous conquest of this New World, and the manners and prejudices of the original inhabitants, are objects, which, together with the description of the country, deservedly occupy no small share of this performance.

Next

In

## P R E F A C E.

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

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

CON-

## ADVERTISEMENT.

**T**HE nature and design of this work is explained in the original preface, which immediately follows this advertisement: but it is proper that our readers should be apprised of the numerous improvements made in this enlarged edition.

The fifth edition, which immediately preceded this, was much enriched by information borrowed from the new works of Robertson, Rennel, Coxe, Morse, and other writings of acknowledged authenticity. But amidst the rapid advances of geographical science, and the adventurous spirit of British navigators and travellers, so many new publications are continually coming from the press, that, within the short space of only two years, a great mass of geographical materials has been created, of which we have endeavoured fully to avail ourselves in the present volume.

By a comparison of this edition with the last, it will be found that there is no country in Europe, the description of which is not much improved, and scarcely a single page, in which there is not some considerable melioration. Among the numerous travellers who have enriched our work, Smirnhove, Confett, Townsend, Bourgoanne, Watkins, and Gray, have afforded valuable communications concerning Russia, Sweden, Lapland, Finland, Denmark, Spain, Switzerland, and Italy.

Great additions have been made to the description of India: its geography, religion, laws, literature, and commerce, have been examined with particular care: and many new articles have been added concerning the manners of the inhabitants, their languages, allegories, writing materials, pagodas, funerals, mausoleums, &c. drawn chiefly from lieutenant Moor's accurate Narrative, and that highly ornamented work, Mr. Hodges' Travels. Major Dirom's account of the campaign, which terminated the war with Tippoo Sultan in 1792, with other publications equally authentic, have enabled us to bring down the history of India to the present time. The Abbé Grosier's History of China, and Mr. Franklin's Travels in Persia, have afforded their guidance in traversing those vast regions of Asia.

As the stock of our *African* geography is small, great attention has been paid to the new works on that subject; from which valuable information has been derived.

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To Mr. Morfe we owe an *enlarged* edition of the geography of America. His information is the more to be depended on, as he maintained an extensive correspondence with men of letters, and visited in person the several states in the Union. From him, we have learned many important particulars; among others, the *latest* division of the several states into districts, counties, towns, &c. together with the actual condition of the new-formed states of Vermont, the country N. W. of the Ohio, Kentucky, and the country of the Ohio, or the Tennessee government.

It remains to name one gentleman, to whom this edition is under peculiar obligations,—Bryan Edwards, esq. of the island of Jamaica, from whose History of the British Colonies in the West Indies, a new description of these islands in general, and a circumstantial account of the British possessions, particularly Jamaica, have been extracted; containing articles of information too various to be distinctly specified in this short address. In treating this important part of our subject, we have borrowed the accurate and elegant language of Mr. Edwards, who has surveyed and depicted with an animated eye and an energetic pencil the sublime scenes displayed in those tropical regions.

The present publication comprehending history as well as geography, the variety and magnitude of some recent transactions have rendered numerous alterations or additions requisite in the historical part of our undertaking. The history of each country is brought down to the present time; that of Great Britain is considerably enlarged; and the calamitous events in a neighbouring nation are related with such circumstances as cannot fail to make every honest Briton cherish the well-poised constitution of government in his own happy island; a constitution formed and improved by the accumulated wisdom of ages.

To make room for these important insertions, great pains have been employed in abridging diffusiveness, and lopping off redundancy; yet the new materials lately brought to light have unavoidably swelled this edition far beyond the last, and much more beyond all preceding editions.

October, 1795.

THE

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I N T R O.

# I N T R O D U C T I O N .

## P A R T I .

### O F A S T R O N O M I C A L G E O G R A P H Y .

#### S E C T . I .

#### O f t h e P L A N E T S , t h e C O M E T S , t h e F I X E D S T A R S , a n d t h e d i f f e r e n t S Y S T E M S o f t h e U N I V E R S E .

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

The earth was long considered as one extensive plane, of no remarkable thickness, and the regions below it were supposed to be the habitations of spirits. The heavens, in which the sun, moon, and stars appeared to move daily from east to west, were conceived to be at no great distance from it, and to be only designed for the use or ornament of our earth: several reasons, however, occurred, which rendered this opinion improbable; and we have now a sufficient proof of the figure of the earth, from the voyages of many navigators who have sailed round it, particularly from that of Magellan's ship, which was the first that surrounded the globe, sailing east from a port in Europe in 1519, and returning to the same, after a voyage of 1124 days, without apparently altering his direction, any more than a fly would appear to do in moving round a ball of wax.

The roundness of the earth being established, a way was naturally opened for the discovery of its motion; for while it was considered as a plane, mankind had an obscure notion of its being supported, like a scaffolding, on pillars, though they could not conceive what supported these. But the figure of a globe is much better adapted to motion. This is confirmed by considering, that, if the earth did

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not move round the sun, not only the sun, but all the stars and planets, must move round the earth. Now, as philosophers, by reckonings founded on the surest observations, have been able to judge pretty nearly of the distances of the heavenly bodies from the earth, and from each other, just as every one that knows the first elements of mathematics can measure the height of a steeple or any object placed on it; it appeared that if we conceived the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, we must suppose them endowed with a motion or velocity so immense as to exceed all conception; whereas all the appearances in nature may be as well explained by imagining the earth to move round the sun in the space of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in the twenty-four hours.

To form a conception of these two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a bowling-green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green, not by sliding along like a plane upon wood, or a slate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre of the ball, and ending on its surface in two points called its poles. Conceiving the matter then in this way; and that the earth, in the space of 24 hours, moves from west to east, the inhabitants on the surface, like men on the deck of a ship, who are insensible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, will conceive that the sun and stars move from east to west in the same time, in which they, with the earth, move from west to east. This diurnal motion of the earth being once clearly conceived, will aid us in forming a notion of its annual motion round the sun; for as that luminary seems to have a daily motion round our earth, which is really occasioned by the daily motion of the earth round its axis, so, in the course of a year, he seems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to rise and set in different points of them, which is really occasioned by the annual motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the sun, which it completes in a year. Now as to the first of these motions we owe the difference of day and night, so to the second we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and in the seasons of the year.

THE PLANETS.} Thus much being premised with regard to the motion of the earth, which the smallest reflection may lead us to apply to the other planets, we must observe, before exhibiting our table, that, beside the seven planets already mentioned, which move round the sun, there are fourteen other bodies which move round four of these, in the same manner as they do round the sun; and of these our earth has one, called the moon; Jupiter has four, Saturn has seven\* (two of these having been lately discovered by Dr. Herschel), and is also encompassed with a broad ring†. The Georgium Sidus has two moons, as that excellent

\* See the lxxxth vol. of the Philosophical Transactions.

† The space between the ring and the globe of Saturn is supposed to be rather more than the breadth of the ring, and the greatest diameter of the ring to be in proportion to that of the globe as 7 to 3. It puts on different appearances to us, sometimes being seen quite open, at others only as a line upon the equator. It is probable that it will at times cast a shadow over vast regions of Saturn's body. There is a paper by Dr. Herschel in the Philosophical Transactions for 1790, (vol. lxxx.) on the subject of Saturn, its ring and satellites, in which he hints his suspicion that the ring of that planet is composed of two rings, nearly, if not perfectly in the same plane, and concentric to one another, and separated by a very narrow space, which appeared to him like a black zone, or list, on the surface of the ring. He suspended, how-

ever, his opinion, till the planet in its orbit should give us a sight of the other edge of the ring, on which if the same appearance should be seen, it would amount to a pretty clear demonstration that what he saw was a separation of the ring.— Since the publication of that paper, the southern side of Saturn's ring has become visible to us; and the doctor tells us he has had several excellent opportunities of viewing that side of the ring to the greatest advantage, and has always seen the same black list, at the same distance from the edge of the ring, and of the same breadth, as nearly as he can judge, that it appeared to be on the northern side. He therefore thinks himself now authorised to say, that the planet Saturn has two concentric rings, of unequal dimensions and breadth, situated in one plane, and at a considerable distance from each other. Phil. Transactions for 1792, part I.

astronomer has shewn. These are called moons, from their agreeing with our moon, which was first attended to: and sometimes they are called *secondary* planets, because they seem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus, about which they move, and which are called *primary*.

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

A TABLE of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the several Planets in the Solar System.

Names of the planets.	Diameters in English Miles.	Mean distances from the sun as determined from observations of the transit of Venus in 1761.	Annual periods round the sun.			Diurnal rotation on its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of axis to orbit.
			y.	d.	h.				
Sun	890,000		d.	h.	m.				
Mercury	3,000	36,841,468	0	87	23	25 6 0	109,699	3,818	8° 0' 0"
Venus	9,330	68,891,486	0	224	17	24 8 0	80,295	43	75° 0' 0"
Earth	7,979	95,173,000	1	0	0	1 0 0	68,243	1,042	23° 29' 0"
Moon	2,180	ditto	1	0	0	29 12 44	22,290	9½	2° 10' 0"
Mars	5,400	145,014,148	1	321	17	0 24 40	55,287	556	0° 0' 0"
Jupiter	94,000	494,999,976	11	314	18	0 9 56	29,083	25,920	0° 0' 0"
Saturn	78,000	907,956,130	29	167	6	unknown.	22,101	unknown.	unknown.
Georgium Sidus	34,217	1,815,912,260	83	121	0	unknown.	unknown.	unknown.	0° 43' 35"

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

Though the Georgium Sidus was not known as a planet till the time of Dr. Herschel, yet there are many reasons for supposing it had been seen before, but had

then been considered as a fixed star; but, from the steadiness of its light, from its diameter being increased by high magnifying powers, and from the change which he had observed in its situation, he concluded that it was a comet; but in a little time, he, with others, determined that it was a planet, from its vicinity to the ecliptic, the direction of its motion, being stationary in the time, and in such circumstances as correspond with similar appearances in other planets. When the moon is absent it may be seen by the naked eye; and the discovery of two satellites on the 11th January, 1787, attending it, seems to confer upon it a dignity, and to raise it into a more conspicuous situation among the great bodies of our solar system. As the distances of the planets, when marked in miles, are a burden to the memory, astronomers often express their mean distances in a shorter way, by supposing the distance from the earth to the sun to be divided into ten parts. Mercury may then be estimated at four of such parts from the sun, Venus at seven, the Earth at ten, Mars at fifteen, Jupiter at fifty-two such parts, Saturn at ninety-five, and the Georgium Sidus at one hundred and ninety parts.

[THE COMETS.] The reader having acquired this information respecting the planets, must next turn his attention to the Comets, which, as they revolve round our Sun, make part of the solar system. These, descending from the far distant parts of the system with great rapidity, surprise us with the singular appearance of a train, or tail, which accompanies them; become visible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a short stay, go off again to vast distances, and disappear. Though some of the ancients had more just notions of them, yet as the erroneous opinion prevailed, that they were only transient meteors in the air, no care was taken to record their phenomena accurately, till of late. The general doctrine now is, that they are solid, compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the same laws of gravity, describing equal areas in proportional times by radii drawn to the common centre. They move about the sun in very eccentric ellipses, and are of a much greater density than the earth; for some of them are heated in every period to such a degree as would vitrify any substance known to us. Sir Isaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when nearest the sun, to be 2000 times hotter than red-hot iron, and that, being thus heated, it must retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period should be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only 575. It is believed that there are at least 21 comets belonging to our system, moving in all directions; and all those which have been observed have moved through the ethereal regions and the orbits of the planets, without suffering any sensible resistance in their motions, which proves that the planets do not move in solid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years: that which appeared in 1680 is the most remarkable; its greatest distance is about 11 thousand 200 millions of miles from the sun, while its least distance from the centre of the sun is about 490 thousand miles; within less than one third part of the sun's semidiameter from his surface. In that part of its orbit, which is nearest to the sun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; and the sun, as seen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, consequently 40,000 times as large as he appears to us. The astonishing distance that this comet runs out into empty space, naturally suggests to our imagination, the vast distance between our sun, and the nearest of the fixed stars, of whose attractions all the comets must keep clear, to return periodically and move round the sun. Dr. Halley, to whom every part of astronomy, but this in a particular manner, is highly indebted, has joined his labours to those of Sir Isaac Newton on this subject. Our earth was out of the way, when this comet last passed near her orbit; but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to determine whether it will always pass by us with so little effect;

effect; for it may be observed, that the comet, in one part of its orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of our earth: so that, in some revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very considerable, if not fatal effects upon it. See Newton, Halley, Gregory, Keill, M'Laurin, Derham, Ferguson, and Whiston.

**THE FIXED STARS.]** Having thus briefly surveyed the solar system, which, though great in itself, is small in comparison with the immensity of the universe, we next proceed to the contemplation of those other vast bodies called the *fixed Stars*; which being of infinite use in the practice of geography, claim a particular notice in this work. These fixed stars are distinguished by the naked eye from the planets, by being less bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the stars. This arises from their being so small, that the interposition of the least body, of which there are many constantly floating in the air, deprives us of the sight of them; when the interposed body changes its place, we again see the star, and this succession being perpetual, occasions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed stars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their situation, with regard to each other, as the planets, from what we have already said, must evidently be always changing their's. The stars which are nearest to us seem largest, and are therefore called of the first magnitude. Those of the second magnitude appear less, being at a greater distance; and so proceeding on to the sixth magnitude, which includes all the fixed stars that are visible without a telescope. As to their number, though in a clear winter's night, without moonshine, they seem to be innumerable, which is owing to their strong sparkling, and the consequent confusion in our sight; yet when the whole firmament is divided, as was done by the ancients, into signs and constellations, the number that can at any time be seen by the bare eye, exceeds not a thousand. Since the invention of telescopes, indeed, the number of the fixed stars may be deemed indefinite; because the greater perfection we arrive at in our glasses, the more stars always appear to us. Mr Flamsteed, late royal astronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about 3000 stars. These are called telescopic stars, from their being invisible without the assistance of that instrument. Dr. Herschel, to whose ingenuity and allduity the astronomical world is so much indebted, has evinced what great discoveries may be made by improvements in the instruments of observation. In speaking here of his discoveries, I shall use the words of M. de la Lande. "In passing rapidly over the heavens with his new telescope, the universe increased under his eye; 44,000 stars, seen in the space of a few degrees, seem to indicate that there were seventy-five millions in the heavens." But what are all these, when compared to those that fill the boundless fields of ether? Who can say how far the universe extends, or point out those limits, where the Creator stayed. "his rapid wheels," or where he "fixed the golden compasses!"

The immense distance of the fixed stars from our earth, and from each other, is of all considerations the most proper for expanding our ideas of the works of God. For notwithstanding the great extent of the earth's orbit or path (which is at least 190 millions of miles in diameter) round the sun, the distance of a fixed star is not sensibly affected by it; so that the star does not appear to be any nearer us when the earth is in that part of its orbit nearest the star, than it seemed to be when the earth was at the most distant part of its orbit, or 190 millions of miles farther removed from the same star. The star nearest us, and constantly the largest in appearance, is the dog-star, or Sirius. Modern discoveries make it probable that each of these fixed stars is a sun, having planets and comets revolving round it, as our sun has the earth and other planets revolving round him. Now the dog-star appears 27,000 times less than the sun; and as the distance of the stars must be greater in proportion as they seem less, mathematicians have computed the distance of Sirius from us.

to be two billions and two hundred thousand millions of miles. The motion of light, therefore, which though so quick as to be commonly thought instantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the stars to us, than we do in making a West-India voyage. A sound would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years; which, next to light, is considered as the quickest body we are acquainted with. And a cannon ball, flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

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

It is not credible that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wisdom, should create so many glorious suns at such immense distances from each other, without placing proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences. Whoever imagines that they were made only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, must have a very superficial knowledge of astronomy\*, and a mean opinion of the Divine Wisdom; since, by an infinitely less exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one single additional moon.

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

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

Since the fixed stars are prodigious spheres of fire, like our sun, and at inconceivable distances from each other, as well as from us, it is reasonable to conclude they are made for the same purposes that the sun is; to bestow light, heat, and vegetation on inhabited planets, moving around them in their respective orbits.

What an august, what an amazing conception, if human imagination can conceive it, does this give of the works of the Creator! Thousands of thousands of suns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immense distances from each other, attended by ten thousand times ten thousand worlds, all in rapid motion, yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths prescribed

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

them;

them; and these worlds peopled with myriads of intelligent beings, formed for endless progression in perfection and felicity.

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

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

[DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE UNIVERSE.] Mankind must have long reflected on the motions of the heavenly bodies, before they could so far disengage themselves from the prejudices of popular opinion, as to believe that the earth upon which we live was not immovable. We find accordingly, that *Thales*, the Milesian, who, about 580 years before Christ, first taught astronomy in Europe, had calculated eclipses, or interpositions of the moon between the earth and the sun, or of the earth between the sun and the moon (the nature of which may be easily understood, from what we have already observed.) *Pythagoras*, of Samos, flourished about 50 years after *Thales*, and considering eclipses with more attention, conceived an idea, which there is no reason to believe had ever been thought of before, namely, that the earth itself was in motion, and that the sun was at rest. He found that it was impossible, in any other way, to give a consistent account of the heavenly motions. This system, called the *PYTHAGOREAN SYSTEM*, was not widely diffused, till many ages after. The philosophers of antiquity, despairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reason, endeavoured to adapt the one to the other, and to form a reconciliation between them. This was the case with *Ptolemy*, an Egyptian philosopher, who flourished 138 years after Christ; and the hypothesis which he invented is called from him the *PTOLEMAIC SYSTEM*. He supposed, with the vulgar, that the earth was fixed immovably in the centre of the universe, and that the seven planets, considering the moon as one of the primaries, were placed near to it; above them was the firmament of fixed stars, then the crystalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and, lastly, the *cælum empyrium*, or heaven of heavens. All these orbs he supposed to move round the earth once in 24 hours; and to explain the particular motions of the planets, supposed a number of circles, called *excentrics* and *epicycles*, intersecting each other. This system was universally maintained by the *Peripatetic* philosophers, who formed the most considerable sect in Europe from the time of *Ptolemy* to the revival of learning in the sixteenth century.

At length, *Copernicus*, a native of Poland, adopted the *Pythagorean*, or true system of the universe, and published it to the world in the year 1530. This doctrine had been so long in obscurity, that the restorer of it was considered as the in-

ventor;

ventor; and the system obtained the name of the Copernican philosophy, though only revived by that great man.

Europe was still immersed in ignorance; and Copernicus had many opponents. Tycho Brahe, in particular, a noble Dane, sensible of the defects of the Ptolemaic system, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured, about 1586, to establish a new system, called the *Tychonic System*, which was still more perplexed and embarrassed than that of Ptolemy. It allows a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the centre of its orbit, and it makes the sun to be the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The sun, however, with all the planets, is supposed to be whirled round the earth in a year, and even once in the twenty-four hours. This system, notwithstanding its absurdity, met with its advocates. Longomontanus, and others, so far refined upon it, as to admit the diurnal motion of the earth, though they insisted that it had no annual motion.

About this time, after a darkness of many ages, the dawn of learning and taste appeared in Europe. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate astronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, about the year 1610, introduced the use of telescopes, which afforded new arguments in support of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The fury and bigotry of the clergy had almost checked this flourishing bud: Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican system, as a damnable heresy. The Reformation, however, placed a great part of Europe beyond the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the scriptures were not given for explaining systems of natural philosophy, but for a nobler purpose, to inspire piety and charity: that instead of opposing the word of God, which, in speaking of natural things, suits itself to the prejudices of weak mortals, we employed our faculties in a manner acceptable to our Maker, in tracing the nature of his works, which, the more they are considered, afford us the greater reason to admire his attributes of power, wisdom, and goodness. From this time, therefore, the *Copernican System* prevailed against all opposition, and has been received by the greatest mathematicians and philosophers that have since lived, as *Kepler*, *Galileo*, *Descartes*, *Gassendus*, and *Isaac Newton*; the last of whom has established this system on such an everlasting foundation of mathematical and physical demonstration, as can never be shaken, and none who understand him can hesitate about it. From this time the most noble discoveries were made in all the branches of astronomy. The motions of the heavenly bodies were not only clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was discovered and illustrated by the immortal *Newton*. This law is called *Gravity*, or *Attraction*, and is the same principle by which heavy bodies fall to the ground, when disengaged from what supported them. It has been demonstrated, that this same law which keeps the sea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the surface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the universe, confines the planets in their orbits, and maintains, unimpaired, the harmony of nature.

## S E C T. II.

### Of the Doctrine of the SPHERE.

**H**AVING, in the foregoing Section, treated of the *UNIVERSE* in general, in which the earth has been considered as a planet, we now proceed to the Doctrine of the *SPHERE*, which ought always to be premised before that of the *Globe* or earth, as we shall see in the next Section. In discussing this subject, we shall consider the earth as at rest, and the heavenly bodies, as performing their revolutions round it.

This

This method cannot lead the reader into error, since we have previously explained the true system of the universe, and shewn that it is the *real* motion of the earth which occasions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is besides attended with the advantage of corresponding with the information of our senses. The imagination, therefore, is not put on the stretch; the idea is easy and familiar, and, in delivering the elements of science, this object cannot be too much attended to\*.

The ancients observed, that all the stars apparently turned round the earth, from east to west, in twenty-four hours; that the circles, which they describe in those revolutions, were parallel to each other, but not of the same magnitude; those passing over the middle of the earth, being the largest, while the rest diminished in proportion to their distance from it. They also observed, that there were two points in the heavens, which always preserved the same situation. These points they termed celestial poles, because the heavens seemed to turn round them. In order to imitate these motions, they invented what is called the *Artificial Sphere*, through the centre of which they drew a wire or iron rod, called an *Axis*, whose extremities were fixed to the immoveable points called *Poles*. They first observed, that on the 20th of March, and 23d of September, the circle described by the sun was at an equal distance from both the poles. This circle, therefore, divided the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the *Equator* or *Equaller*. It was also called the *Equinoctial Line*, because the sun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having also observed, that from the 21st of June to the 22d of December, the sun advanced every day towards a certain point, and having arrived there, returned towards that from whence he set out, from the 22d of December to the 21st of June: they fixed *these points*, which they called *Solstices*, because the direct motion of the sun was stopped at them, and represented the bounds of the sun's motion, by two circles, which they named *Tropics*, because the sun no sooner arrived there than he turned back. Astronomers observing the motion of the sun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree (or the 360th part) of a great circle in the heavens, every 24 hours. This great circle is called the *Ecliptic*, and it passes through certain constellations, distinguished by the names of animals, in a zone called the *Zodiac*. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one side, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely at an angle of 23 degrees 29 minutes, the sun's greatest declination. To express this motion, they supposed two points in the heavens, equally distant from, and parallel to, this circle, which they call the *Poles of the Zodiac*, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, describe the *two polar circles*. In the artificial sphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles, by two other circles called *Colures*, which serve to mark the points of the solstices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients also observed, that when the sun was in any point of his course, the people inhabiting directly north and south, as far as the poles, have noon at the same time. This gave occasion to imagine a circle passing through the poles of the world, called a *Meridian*, and immoveable in the artificial sphere. The horizon is another immoveable circle representing the bounds betwixt the two hemispheres, or half spheres, viz. that which is above it, and that which is below it.

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

## S E C T. III.

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

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

[**FIGURE OF THE EARTH.**] Though in speaking of the earth, along with the other planets, it was sufficient to consider it as a spherical or globular body; yet it has been discovered, that this is not its true figure, and that the earth, though nearly a sphere or ball, is not perfectly so. This occasioned great dispute between the philosophers of the last age, among whom sir Isaac Newton, and Cassini, a French astronomer, were the heads of two parties. Sir Isaac demonstrated, from mathematical principles, that the earth was an *oblate sphere*, or that it was flatted at the poles, and juted out towards the equator; so that a line, drawn through the centre of the earth, and passing through the poles, which is called a diameter, would not be so long as a line drawn through the same centre, and passing through the east and west points. The French philosopher asserted the contrary. But the dispute was terminated by the French king, in 1736, who sent out a company of philosophers towards the north pole, and likewise towards the equator, in order to measure a degree, or the three hundred and sixtieth part of a great circle in these different parts; and from their report, the opinion of sir Isaac Newton was confirmed beyond dispute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been considered as more flat towards the poles than the equator. The reason of this figure may be easily understood, if the reader comprehends what we observed, with regard to the earth's motion; for if we fix a ball of clay on a spindle, and whirl it round, we shall find that it will project towards the middle, and flatten towards the poles. This is exactly the case with regard to our earth, only that its axis, represented by the spindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not perfectly spherical, the difference from that figure is so small, that it may be represented by a globe, without any sensible error.

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

[**AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.**] The **AXIS** of the Earth is that imaginary line passing through its centre, on which it is supposed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the **Poles** of the Earth; one in the north, and the other in the south, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the north and south poles. The knowledge of these poles is of great use to the geographer in determining the distance and situation of places; for

the poles mark the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator; so that the nearer one approaches to the poles, the farther he removes from the equator; and, in removing from the poles, he approaches the equator.

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

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

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

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

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

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

- |  |  |   |
|--|--|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Aries ♈ — — March</li> <li>2. Taurus ♉ — — April</li> <li>3. Gemini ♊ — — May</li> <li>4. Cancer ♋ — — June</li> <li>5. Leo ♌ — — July</li> <li>6. Virgo ♍ — — August</li> </ol> |  | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>7. Libra ♎ — — September</li> <li>8. Scorpio ♏ — — October</li> <li>9. Sagittarius ♐ — — November</li> <li>10. Capricorn ♑ — — December</li> <li>11. Aquarius ♒ — — January</li> <li>12. Pisces ♓ — — February.</li> </ol> |
|--|--|---|

**COLURES.]** If you imagine *two great circles* passing both through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra, and the other through the solstitial points Cancer and Capricorn, these are called the Colures, the one the Equinoctial, the other the Solstitial Colure. They divide the ecliptic into four equal parts or quarters, denominated according to the points through which the Colures pass, viz. the first points of Aries, Libra, Cancer, and Capricorn, called the cardinal points: and these are all the *great circles*.

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

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

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

The *torrid zone* is that portion of the earth between the tropics, and called by the ancients *torrid*; because they believed, that, being continually exposed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the sun, it was rendered through heat barren and uninhabitable. This notion, however, has long since been refuted. It is found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which generally prevail in the torrid zone, render it not only habitable, but highly fruitful. All sorts of spices and drugs are almost solely produced there; and it furnishes the most perfect metals, precious stones, and pearls. This Zone comprehends the East and West Indies, Philippine Islands, those of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Madagascar, great part of South America and Africa, and almost all east. Cook's discoveries, including the northern parts of New Holland.

The *frigid zones* are those regions round the pole, where the sun does not rise for some days in the winter, nor set for some days in the summer. The two poles are the centres of these zones, which extend from these points to twenty-three degrees and a half nearly; that is, they are bounded by the northern and southern parallels of latitude of sixty-six degrees and a half. The part that lies in the northern hemisphere is called the north frigid zone, and is bounded by a parallel, called the arctic or polar circle; and that in the southern hemisphere, the south frigid

frigid zone, and the parallel of latitude which bounds it, is called the antarctic, or polar circle.

The northern *frigid zone* comprehends Nova Zembla, Lapland, part of Norway, Baffin's Bay, part of Greenland, and part of Siberia. The southern *frigid zone* has no land known to us; and from the observations of captain Cook, who in the years 1772, 1773, 1774, and 1775, disproved the notion of a southern continent, we have reason to think that there is no land belonging to the southern frigid zone. That great navigator having traversed the southern hemisphere between the latitudes of 40° and 70°, in such a manner as not to leave a possibility of the existence of any continent within the reach of navigation.

The *two temperate zones* are the spaces contained within the tropics and polar circles.

The *northern temperate zone* contains almost all Europe, the greater part of Asia, part of Africa, the United States of America, and the British Colonies.

The *southern temperate zone* comprehends the south part of New Holland (including Botany Bay) Cape of Good Hope, and Cape Horn.

**CLIMATES.]** The division of the earth into hemispheres and zones, though it serves to let us know in what quarter of the world any place lies, is not sufficiently minute. The first step taken for determining more accurately the relative situation of places, was to divide the earth into what are called Climates. It was observed, that the day was always twelve hours long on the equator, and that the longest day increased in proportion as we advanced north or south on either side of it. By the length of the day at different places, the ancients ascertained their distance from the equator, or what is called their Latitude; and conceiving a number of circles parallel to the equator, and bounding the length of the day at different distances from it, they called the spaces contained between these circles Climates, because they declined from the equator towards the pole. This new division of the earth, more minute than that of zones, still continues in use; though, as we shall shew, the design which first introduced it, may be better answered in another way. There are 30 climates between the equator and either pole. In the first twenty-four the days increase by half hours; but in the remaining six, between the polar circle and the poles, the days increase by months. This the reader will be convinced of, when he becomes acquainted with the use of the globe: in the mean time we shall insert a table, which will serve to shew in what climate any country lies, supposing the length of the day, and the distance of the place from the equator, to be known.

C.	Latitude.		Breath.		Long.		Day.	Names of Countries and remarkable Places situated in every Climate, north of the Equator.
	D.	M.	D.	M.	H.	M.		
1	8	25	8	25	12	30	I. Within the first Climate lie the Gold and Silver Coasts in Africa; Malacca in the East-Indies; Cayenne and Surinam in Terra Firma, S. America.	
2	16	25	8		13		II. Here lie Abyssinia in Africa; Siam, Madras, and Pondicherry, in the East Indies; Straits of Darien, between N. and S. America; Tobago, the Granades, St. Vincent and Barbadoes in the W. Indies.	
3	23	50	7	25	13	30	III. Contains Merca 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 Guadalupe, in the West Indies.	
4	30	25	6	30	14		IV. Egypt, and the Canary Islands, in Africa; Delhi, capital of the Mogul Empire in Asia; Gulf of Mexico, and East Florida, in North America; the Havanna, in the West Indies.	
5	36	28	6	8	14	30	V. Gibraltar, in Spain; part of the Mediterranean sea; the Barbary coast, in Africa; Jerusalem, Ispahan, capital of Persia; Nankin, in China; California, New Mexico, West Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America.	

6	41	22	4	54	15	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; Pekin in China; Corea and Japan; Williamsburgh, in Virginia; Maryland, and Philadelphia, in North America.	
7	45	29	4	7	15	30	VII. Northern provinces of Spain; Southern ditto of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome, in Italy; Constantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caspian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York, Boston in New England, North America.
8	49	1	3	32	16	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, and Tartary; Warsaw, in Poland; Labrador, and New South-Wales, in North America.	
11	56	37	2	10	17	30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen; Moscow capital of Russia.
12	58	29	1	52	18	XII. South part of Sweden; Tobolki, capital of Siberia.	
13	59	58	1	29	18	30	XIII. Orkney Isles, Stockholm, capital of Sweden.
14	61	18	1	20	19	XIV. Bergen in Norway; Peterburgh in Russia.	
15	62	25	1	7	19	30	XV. Hudson's Straits, North America.
16	63	23		57	20	XVI. Siberia, and the fourth part of West Greenland.	
17	64	6		44	20	30	XVII. Drontheim, in Norway.
18	64	49		42	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	6		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 North America.
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	5			5	Months	XXIX. Spitzbergen or East Greenland.
30	90				6	Months	XXX. Unknown.

**LATITUDE.]** The distance of places from the equator, or what is called their *Latitude*, is easily measured on the globe by means of the meridian above described. As latitude is reckoned from the equator towards the poles, a place on the northern side of the equator is said to be in north latitude, and a place on the southern side in south latitude. The nearer the poles the greater the latitude; and no place can have more than 90 degrees of latitude, because the poles respectively are at that distance from the equator.

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

**LONGITUDE.]** The *longitude* of a place is its situation with regard to its first meridian, and consequently reckoned towards the east or west: in reckoning the longitude there is no particular spot naturally preferable to another; but for the sake of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the most westerly of the Canary Islands, was considered as the first meridian in most globes and maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be so many degrees east or west of the meridian of Ferro. The modern globes fix the first meridian, from which the degrees of longitude are reckoned, in the capital city of the different kingdoms where they are made, viz. the English globes date the first meridian from London or Greenwich, the French globes from Paris, &c. The degrees of longitude are marked on the equator. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, because, the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be remote from another

above

above half that distance; but many foreign geographers improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal like those of latitude, but diminish in proportion as the meridians incline, or their distance contracts in approaching the pole. Hence in 60 degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and so of the rest. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, are exhibited in the following table:

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

LONGITUDE AND LATITUDE ON THE ARTIFICIAL GLOBE FOUND.] To find the Longitude and Latitude of any place, we need only bring that place to the brazen meridian, and we shall find the degree of longitude marked on the equator, and the degree of latitude on the meridian. So that, to find the difference between the latitude or longitude of two places, we have only to compare the degrees of either, thus found, with each other, and the reduction of these degrees into miles, according to the table above given, and, remembering that every degree of longitude at the equator, and every degree of latitude all over the globe, is equal to 60 geographic miles, or 60 English, we shall be able to determine the distance between any places on the globe.

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

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

HOUR

**HOUR CIRCLE.]** This is a small brass circle fixed on the brazen meridian, divided into 24 hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

**PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.**

**PROB. 1.** *THE diameter of an artificial globe being given, to find its surface in square, and its solidity in cubic measure.*

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

**PROB. 2.** *To rectify the globe.*

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

**PROB. 3.** *To find the longitude and latitude of any place.*

For this see above.

**PROB. 4.** *The longitude and latitude of any place being given, to find that place on the globe.*

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

**PROB. 5.** *The latitude of any place being given, to find all those places that have the same latitude.*

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

**PROB. 6.** *To find the Sun's place in the Ecliptic at any time.*

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

**PROB. 7.** *The month and day being given, as also the particular time of that day, to find those places of the globe to which the Sun is in the meridian at that particular time.*

The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the place where you are, bring the said place to the brazen meridian, and setting the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day, in the given place, or where you are, turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure XII. which done, fix the globe at that situation, and observe what places are exactly under the upper hemisphere of the brazen meridian, for those are the places desired.

I N T R O D U C T I O N .

**PROB. 8.** *To know the length of the day and night in any place of the earth at any time.*

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

**PROB. 9.** *To know what o'clock it is by the globe in any part of the world, and at any time, provided you know the hour of the day where you are at the same time.*

Bring the place in which you are to the brazen meridian, the pole being raised *(a)* according to the latitude thereof, and set the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day at that time. Then bring the desired place to the brazen meridian, and the index will point out the present hour at that place wherever it is.

**PROB. 10.** *A place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find those two days of the year in which the sun shall be vertical to the same.*

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

**PROB. 11.** *The month and the day being given, to find by the globe those places of the North Frigid Zone, where the sun begins then to shine constantly without setting: as also those places of the South Frigid Zone, where he then begins to be totally absent.*

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

**PROB. 12.** *A place being given in the North Frigid Zone, to find by the globe what number of days the sun constantly shines upon that place, and what days he is absent, as also the first and last day of his appearance.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and observing its latitude *(c)* elevate the globe accordingly; count the same number of degrees upon the meridian from each side of the equator as the place is distant from the pole; and making marks where the reckonings end, turn the globe, and carefully observe what two degrees of the ecliptic pass exactly under the two points marked in the meridian; first for the northern arch of the circle, namely that comprehended between the two degrees marked, being reduced to time, will give the number of days

days that the sun constantly shines above the horizon of the given place; and the opposite arch of that circle will give the number of days in which he is totally absent, and also will point out which days those are. In the interval he will rise and set.

**PROB. 13.** *The month and day being given, to find those places on the globe, to which the sun, when on the meridian, shall be vertical on that day.*

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

**PROB. 14.** *The month and day being given, to find upon what point of the compass the sun then rises and sets in any place.*

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

**PROB. 15.** *To know by the globe the length of the longest and shortest days and nights in any part of the world.*

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

**PROB. 16.** *The hour of the day being given in any place, to find those places of the earth where it is either noon or midnight, or any other particular hour at the same time.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and set the index of the hoary circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn the globe till the index point at the upper figure of XII. and observe what places are exactly under the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian, for in them it is mid-day at the time given. Which done, turn the globe till the index point at the lower figure of XII. and what places are then in the lower semicircle of the meridian, in them it is midnight at the given time. After the same manner we may find those places that have any other particular hour at the time given, by moving the globe till the index point at the hour desired, and observing the places then under the brazen meridian.

**PROB. 17.** *The day and hour being given, to find by the globe that particular place of the earth to which the sun is vertical at that time.*

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

**PROB.**

**PROB. 18.** *The day and hour at any place being given, to find all those places where the sun is then rising, or setting, or on the meridian; consequently, all those places which are enlightened at that time, and those which are in the dark.*

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

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

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

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

**PROB. 19.** *The month and day being given, with the place of the moon in the zodiac and her true latitude, and to find thereby the exact hour when she shall rise and set together with her southing, or coming to the meridian of the place.*

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

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

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them will be their true distance from each other, reckoning every degree to be 69½ English miles; or take the distance of the two places with a pair of compasses, and apply it to the equinoctial, which will give the number of degrees between them.

PROB.

**PROB. 21.** *To find all those countries in which an eclipse of the sun or moon will be visible.*

1. *Of the sun.* Find the place to which the sun is vertical at the time of the eclipse, by problem 17th, and bring it to the zenith or top of the globe; then to all those places above the horizon, if the eclipse be large, will the sun appear (in part) visibly obscured.

2. *Of the moon.* Bring the antipodes, or country, opposite to the place where the sun is vertical at the time of the eclipse, to the zenith, or top of the globe, and then the eclipse will be seen in all places above the horizon at that time.

**PROB. 22.** *A place being given on the globe, and its true distance from a second place, to find thereby all other places of the earth of the same distance from the given place.*

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

#### PROBLEMS solved on the CELESTIAL GLOBE.

The equator, ecliptic, tropics, polar circles, horizon, and brazen meridians, are exactly alike on both globes. Both also are rectified in the same manner. *N. B.* The sun's place for any day in the year stands directly over that day on the horizon of the celestial globe, as it does on that day of the terrestrial.

The *latitude* and *longitude* of the stars, or of all other celestial phenomena, are reckoned in a very different manner from the latitude and longitude of places on the earth; for all terrestrial latitudes are reckoned from the equator; and longitudes from the meridian of some remarkable place, as, of London by the British, and of Paris by the French. But the astronomers of all nations agree in reckoning the latitudes of the moon, stars, planets, and comets, from the ecliptic; and their longitudes from the equinoctial colure, in that semicircle of it which cuts the ecliptic at the beginning of Aries; and thence eastward, quite round the same semicircle again. Consequently those stars which lie between the equinoctial and the northern half of the ecliptic, have north declination and south latitude; those which lie between the equinoctial and the southern half of the ecliptic, have south declination, and north latitude; and all those which lie between the tropics, and the poles, have their declinations and latitude of the same denomination.

**PROB. 1.** *To find the right ascension and declination of the sun, or any fixed star.*

Bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the brazen meridian; then that degree in the equinoctial which is cut by the meridian, is the sun's *right ascension*; and that degree of the meridian which is over the sun's place, is his *declination*. Bring any fixed star to the meridian, and its right ascension will be cut by the meridian in the equinoctial, and the degree of the meridian that stands over it is its declination. So that the right ascension and declination on the celestial globe are found in the same manner as longitude and latitude on the terrestrial.

**PROB. 2.** *To find the latitude and longitude of any star.*

If the given star be on the north side of the ecliptic, place the 90th degree of the quadrant of altitude on the north pole of the ecliptic, where the twelve semicircles meet, which divide the ecliptic into twelve signs; but if the star be on the south side of the ecliptic, place the 9th degree of the quadrant on the south pole of the ecliptic. Keeping the 9th degree of the quadrant on the proper pole, turn the quadrant about, until its graduated edge cuts the star; then the number of degrees

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in the quadrant, between the ecliptic and the star, is its latitude; and the degrees of the ecliptic, cut by the quadrant, is the star's longitude, reckoned according to the sign in which the quadrant then is.

**PROB. 3.** *To present the face of the starry firmament, as seen from any given place of the earth, at any hour of the night.*

Rectify the celestial globe for the given latitude, the zenith, and sun's place, in every respect, as taught by the problem for the terrestrial; and turn it about till the index points to the given hour; then the upper hemisphere of the globe will represent the visible half of the heavens for that time; all the stars upon the globe being then in such situations, as exactly correspond to those in the heavens. And if the globe be placed duly north and south by means of a small sea-compass, every star in the globe will point to the like star in the heavens, by which means the constellations and remarkable stars may be easily known. All those stars which are in the eastern side of the horizon, are then rising in the eastern side of the heavens; all in the western, are setting in the western side; and all those under the upper part of the frozen meridian, between the south point of the horizon and the north pole, are at their greatest altitude, if the latitude of the place be north; but if the latitude be south, those stars which lie under the upper part of the meridian, between the north point of the horizon and the south pole, are at their greatest altitude.

**PROB. 4.** *The latitude of the place, and day of the month being given, to find when any star will rise, or be upon the meridian, or set.*

Having rectified the globe, turn it about until the given star comes to the eastern side of the horizon, and the index will shew the time of the star's rising; then turn the globe westward, and when the star comes to the brazen meridian, the index will shew the time of the star's coming to the meridian of your place; lastly, turn on until the star comes to the western side of the horizon, and the index will shew the time of the star's setting. *N. B.* In northern latitudes, those stars which are less distant from the north pole than the quantity of its elevation above the north point of the horizon, never set; and those which are less distant from the south pole than the number of degrees by which it is depressed below the horizon, never rise: and *vice versa* in southern latitudes.

**PROB. 5.** *To find at what time of the year a given star will be upon the meridian, at a given hour of the night.*

Bring the given star to the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian, and set the index to the given hour; then turn the globe, until the index points to XII. at noon, and the upper semicircle of the meridian will then cut the sun's place, answering to the day of the year sought; which day may be easily found against the like place of the sun among the signs on the wooden horizon.

#### *Methods for finding the LATITUDES and LONGITUDES of Places from CELESTIAL OBSERVATIONS.*

It being a matter of vast importance to navigators to know the situation of any place they may touch at, or in what part of the ocean they are, in other words, to know their longitude and latitude; the methods of finding them are here pointed out.

I. OF FINDING THE LATITUDE.] As the latitude of a place is an arch of the meridian intercepted between the zenith and the equinoctial, which is always equal to the height of the visible pole above the horizon, it follows that if the meridional altitude, or its complement, the zenith distance of any celestial object, whose place in the heavens is known, can be found, the latitude is easily discovered. Thus if the heavenly object be in the equinoctial, the zenith distance will be equal

to the latitude, which will be either north or south, according as the observer is situated either to the northward or southward of the object. But if the sun or star hath either north or south declination, that is, if its apparent diurnal motion be either to the northward or southward of the equinoctial, the declination must either be subtracted from, or added to the zenith distance, according as the zenith distance and declination are of the same or different denominations. The method is this:

1. Observe by a quadrant the meridional distance of the sun from the zenith, which is always the complement of his meridian altitude; correct for the DIP of the horizon, and REFRACTION; and add to this the sun's declination, when the sun and the place are on the same side of the equator; or subtract the declination, when they are on different sides; the sum in the former case, and the difference in the latter, will be the *latitude* required. But when the declination of the sun is greater than the latitude of the place, which is known from the sun's being nearer to the elevated pole, than the zenith of the place is, as it frequently happens in the torrid zone, then the difference between the sun's declination, and his zenith distance, is the *latitude* of the place.

If the sun or star have no declination, but move in the equinoctial that day, then the elevation of the equator will be equal to his meridian altitude, and consequently his meridian altitude is the complement of the *latitude* to 90. This method is best accommodated to the uses of navigation, as being practicable at sea; but for observations at land, another method may be pointed out.

2. The altitude of the pole, it has been already shewn, is always equal to the *latitude*; for which reason the *latitude* might be best found by observing the pole's height; but as the pole is only a mathematical point, and no ways to be observed by our senses, its height cannot be determined in the same manner as that of the sun and stars, &c. for which reason another manner has been contrived.

In order to this, a meridian line is first drawn. Place a quadrant on this line, so that its plane may be in the plane of the meridian; then take some star near the pole, v. gr. the pole-star (which never sets), and observe both its greatest, and least altitude: half of the difference deducted from the greatest altitude, or added to the least, will give the altitude of the pole above the horizon, which is equal to the latitude of the place.

II. OF FINDING THE LONGITUDE.] To find exactly the *longitude* at sea, is a problem that has extremely perplexed the mathematicians of these two last centuries; and for the solution of which, great rewards have been publicly offered by the English, French, Dutch, and other nations, this being almost the only thing wanting to render navigation perfect.

In the year 1598, Philip the Third, king of Spain, offered a reward of 1000 crowns for the solution of this problem; this example was followed by the States General, who offered 10,000 florins. In 1635, John Morrin, professor of mathematics at Paris, proposed his discovery of the longitude to Cardinal Richlieu; the commissioners, who were appointed to examine this method, judged it insufficient, on account of the imperfection of the lunar tables; but Cardinal Mazarin, in 1645, procured for its author a pension of 2000 livres. In 1714 an act was passed by the British parliament, appointing and empowering certain commissioners to make out a bill for a sum not exceeding 2000l. towards making necessary experiments; and also granting a reward of 10,000l. to the person who should determine the *longitude* at sea to one degree of a great circle, or 60 geographical miles; 15,000l. if the longitude be determined to two-thirds of that distance; and 20,000l. if it be determined to half that distance.

It should be observed that the difference of longitude between any two places, might be determined, by knowing the difference between the times that any re-  
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markable appearance in the heavens was seen in those places. For since the sun and fixed stars appear to move round the earth, or, which is the same thing, the earth revolves about its axis in twenty-four hours; it follows, that in every hour there passes over the meridian one twenty-fourth part of 360 degrees, or of the whole circumference of the equator, equal to 15 degrees; and a proportional part in a greater or lesser time.

The heavenly bodies afford frequent opportunities of making observations of this kind. For as these appearances consist in the appulses, that is, the approaches of the heavenly bodies to each other, or their passing by each other; and these appulses when they happen, are seen at the same instant of absolute time in all parts of the earth where they are visible; therefore by knowing the relative times of the day when such appearances are seen in two distant places, the difference between those times is known, and consequently the difference of longitude between those two places; always observing that for every hour of time you must allow 15 degrees of longitude either east or west, according as the time is either sooner or later than the time marked out for such appearances to happen at Greenwich, for instance, from whence the first meridian commences.

Several ephemerides or almanacs are annually published, in which the times when the eclipses of the sun, moon, and Jupiter's satellites; the rising, setting, and southing of the planets; the appulses of the moon to certain fixed stars; and other celestial appearances, are determined with regard to some meridian. By the help of one of these books, and a careful observation of these appearances, the longitude may be determined.

Eclipses of the moon, when they happen, afford one method of finding the difference of longitude. For as these eclipses are occasioned by an interposition of the earth between her and the sun, and consequently she is immerged in the sun's shadow, the moment any part of her body is deprived of the solar rays, it is visible to all those people who can see her, at the same instant of absolute time. Hence by observing the beginning, middle, or end of the eclipse of the moon in any part of the world, noting the apparent time of these phenomena, and comparing it with the calculations of the same eclipse adapted to some other meridian, the difference of time, and consequently the difference of longitude between those two places, will be known.

Suppose for instance the beginning of an eclipse of the moon happened at London sixteen minutes after two in the morning, and at thirty-four minutes twenty seconds after nine in the evening at Boston in New England; then will the difference of time be four hours, forty-one minutes, forty seconds, equal to seventy degrees, twenty-five minutes, the difference of longitude; and because the time is later at Boston, than at London; for when it is past two in the morning at London, it is only a little after in the preceding evening at Boston; in other words, Boston is about four hours and three quarters later in coming to the meridian than London, the difference of longitude will be west. Consequently if the longitude be reckoned from the meridian of London, the longitude of Boston will be seventy degrees twenty-five minutes west.—See Ferguson's Astronomy, sixth edit. p. 122. Also White's Ephemeris for 1794, p. 37.

The longitude of places may also be obtained from the observations of solar eclipses, but these being incumbered with the consideration of parallaxes, are much less adapted to that purpose than those of the moon.

But as the eclipses of the sun and moon happen but seldom, another expedient offers, viz. the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites. That planet has four moons or satellites, moving round him at different distances, and at different intervals of time; one or more of which is eclipsed almost every night: for they disappear either in going behind Jupiter, or in passing before him: and the instant of such immer-  
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may be seen by a refracting telescope of about eight or nine feet long, or a reflecting one of nine inches focal length.

The passage of the moon, or the superior planets over the meridian, affords another method of discovering the longitude; for by having the time in an ephemeris, when the moon or any of the planets pass the meridian of some place, and finding by observation the time when the object passes the meridian of another place, the longitude will be determined; for the difference of time converted into degrees, &c. will give the difference of longitude.

There is still another method, equally expeditious and certain, namely the appulses of the moon to certain fixed stars, and their occultations by reason of her body. For the moon finishing her revolution in twenty-seven days, seven hours, forty-three minutes, there are but few clear nights, when the moon does not pass over, or so near some fixed star, that the time of the nearest approach or the visible conjunction may be easily observed. Marking exactly the apparent time of these observations, and comparing that with the time of the place for which meridian they are calculated, will give you the difference of longitude between the two places.

It will be obvious to every reflecting reader, that as many of the above observations must be made by the telescope, the constant motion of a ship under sail, will render it impossible to make them accurately at sea. To remedy that inconvenience Mr. Christopher Irwin invented what he calls a marine chair. This chair was tried by Mr. Matkelyne, in his voyage to Barbadoes, who found it totally impracticable to derive any advantage from it. And besides, since all methods, which depend upon the phenomena of the heavens, have also this other defect, that they cannot be observed at all times, it became a great desideratum in navigation to discover some other method of ascertaining the longitude at sea.

It is well known that if a time-keeper could be made to go with perfect accuracy, by having such a clock or watch on board, the longitude might be easily determined; for by finding the time of the day at any other place, and comparing it with the time then shewn by such a machine, the difference of longitude between those places will be known. The ingenious Mr. Harrison a few years since completed such a time-keeper, which was found upon trial to answer even beyond the most sanguine expectations; and he accordingly received ten thousand pounds from government, as a reward for his discovery; but for some reasons, not generally known, the time-keeper has been hitherto kept from the public.

*The different MANNER by which some NATIONS and PEOPLE reckon TIME.*

The Babylonians, Persians, and Syrians, and the inhabitants of some part of Germany, begin their day at sun-rising.

The (ancient) Jews, Athenians, and Italians, reckon from sun-setting.

The Egyptians, like the English, &c. begin at midnight.

The astronomers and seamen begin the day at noon, and reckon 24 hours to the next day at noon; and according to this mode of reckoning are all the calculations of the sun, moon, and planets, made in the common almanacks.

*An ACCOUNT of the GREGORIAN or NEW STYLE.*

Pope Gregory XIII. made a reformation of the Calendar. The Julian Calendar, or Old Style, had, before that time, been in general use all over Europe. The year, according to the Julian Calendar, consists of 365 days and 6 hours; which 6 hours being one fourth part of a day, the common years consisted of 365 days, and every fourth year one day was added to the month of February, which made each of those years 366 days, which are usually called Leap years.

This computation, though near the truth, is more than the solar year by eleven minutes, which in 131 years amounts to a whole day. In consequence of this, the vernal equinox was anticipated ten days from the general council at Nice, held in the year 325 of the Christian *Æra*, to the time of pope Gregory, who therefore caused ten days to be taken out of the month of October, 1582, to make the equinox fall on the 11th of March, as it did at the time of that council. And to prevent the like variation in future, he ordered that three days should be abated in every four hundred years, by reducing the leap year at the close of each century, for three successive centuries, to common years, and retaining the leap year at the close of each fourth century only.

At that time this was considered as exactly conformable to the true solar year; but Dr. Halley makes the solar year to be 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, 54 seconds, 41 thirds, 27 fourths, 36 fifths; according to which, in 400 years, the Julian year of 365 days, 6 hours, will exceed the solar by one hour and 53 minutes (besides the three days already accounted for) which is nearly two hours, so that in 50 centuries it will amount to a day.

Though the Gregorian Calendar, or New Style, had long been used throughout the greater part of Europe, it did not take place in Great Britain and America till the 1st of January 1752; and in September following, the eleven days were adjusted, by calling the third day of that month the fourteenth, and continuing the rest in their order.

## G E O G R A P H I C A L O B S E R V A T I O N S .

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Hence, if two ships should set out at the same time from any port, and sail round the globe, one eastward and the other westward, so as to meet at the same port on any day whatever, they will differ two days in reckoning their time, at their

return. If they fail twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then six, &c.

## OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

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

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

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

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

isthmus, whereby two lands are joined, resembles a strait which unites one sea to another.

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

	Square Miles.	Islands.	Square Miles.	Islands.	Square Miles.
The Globe	148,510,627	Hispaniola	36,000	Skye	900
Seas and unknown Parts	117,823,821	Newfoundland	35,500	Lewia	880
The Habitable World *	30,666,806	Ceylon	27,730	Funen	768
Europe	2,749,349	Ireland	27,457	Yvica	625
Asia	10,257,487	Formosa	17,000	Minorca	520
Africa	8,506,208	Anian	11,900	Rhodes	480
America	9,153,762	Gilolo	10,400	Cephalonia	420
Persian Empire under Darius	1,650,000	Sicily	9400	Ambonya	400
Roman Empire in its utmost height	1,610,000	Timor	7800	Orkney Pomona	324
Russian	3,376,485	Sardinia	6600	Scio	300
Chinese	1,749,000	Cyprus	6300	Martinico	260
Great Mogul	1,116,000	Jamaica	6000	Lemnos	220
Turkish	960,057	Flores	6000	Corfu	194
British, exclusive of settlements in Africa and Gibraltar	809,996				
Present Persian	800,000	Ceram	5400	Providence	168
		Breton	4000	Man	160
		Socatra	3600	Bornhom	160
Borneo	228,000	Candia	3220	Wight	150
Madagascar	168,000	Porto Rico	3200	Malta	150
Sumatra	129,000	Corfica	2520	Barbadoes	140
Japan	118,000	Zealand	1935	Zant	120
Great Britain	72,926	Majorca	1400	Antigua	100
Celebes	68,400	St. Jago	1400	St. Christopher's	80
Manilla	58,500	Negropont	1300	St. Helena	80
Iceland	46,000	Teneriff	1272	Guernsey	50
Terra del Fuego	42,075	Gothland	1000	Bermudas	40
Mindinao	39,200	Madeira	950	Rhodes	36
Cuba	38,400	St. Michael	920		
Java	38,250				

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

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

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

}	}	Europe contains	—	153 Millions.
		Asia	—	500
		Africa	—	150
		America	—	150

Total 953

GENERAL

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS concerning HEAT and COLD \*.

That the presence of the sun is the principal source of heat, as well as of light, and its absence of cold, is too obvious ever to have been doubted.

The next source of heat is the condensation of vapour. It is well known, that vapour contains a quantity of the matter of heat, which produces no other effect but that of making it assume an aerial expanded state, until the vapour is condensed into a liquid; but during this condensation a quantity of sensible heat is let loose, which warms the surrounding atmosphere. This condensation is frequently caused by the attraction of an electrical cloud, and hence the fulminations we frequently experience before rain.

As the earth is the chief source of heat, in the atmosphere that surrounds it, distance from the earth is the source of cold; or, in other words, the greatest cold must prevail in the highest regions of the atmosphere, and so much the greater, as clear unclouded air seems to receive no heat whatsoever from the rays of the sun, whether direct or reflected. Thus if the focus of the most powerful burning glass be directed on mere air, it does not produce the smallest degree of heat.

Hence the highest mountains, even under the equator, are, during the whole year, covered with snow. Mr. Bouguer found the cold of Pinchinca, one of the Cordeliers, immediately under the line, to extend from seven to nine degrees under the freezing point, every morning before sun-rise; and hence at a certain height which varies in almost every latitude, it constantly freezes at night, in every season, though in the warm climates it thaws to some degree the next day: this height he calls the *lower term of congelation*: between the tropics he places it at the height of 15,577 feet.

At still greater heights it never freezes, not because the cold decreases, but because vapours do not ascend so high; this height Mr. Bouguer call the *upper term of congelation*, and under the equator he finds it at the height of 28,000 feet, at most. Under the equator there being very little variety in the weather, the height of both terms is nearly constant; under other latitudes the height is variable, both in summer and winter, according to the degree of heat which prevails on the surface of the earth.

The next general source of heat is *evaporation*; for the attraction of the particles of liquids decreases as their points of contact diminish, and thereby their capacity for receiving the matter of heat (which is the same as that of light) increases; by this increased capacity, the matter of heat or fire contained in the neighbouring bodies, which, like all other fluids, flows where it finds least resistance, is determined to flow towards the vapour; and consequently those bodies are cooled, though the vapour is not heated; because the re-action of its particles is barely equal to that which it had before its capacity was increased †.

From what has been already said, it follows, that some situations are better fitted to receive or communicate heat than other situations; thus, high and mountainous situations being nearer to the source of cold, must be colder than lower situations; and countries covered with woods, as they prevent the access of the sun's rays to the earth, or to the heaps of snow which they may conceal, and present more numerous evaporating surfaces, must be colder than open countries, though situated

\* Extracted from KIRWAN'S ingenious work, entitled, "An Estimate of the Temperature of different Latitudes," lately published.

† Heat is observed to diminish in ascending into the atmosphere, nearly in an arithmetical progression.

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	Square Miles.
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-	480
-	420
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-	300
-	260
-	220
-	194
-	168
-	160
-	160
-	150
-	150
-	140
-	120
-	100
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-	80
-	50
-	43
-	40
-	36

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53	Millions.
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GENERAL

in the same latitude; and since all tracts of land present infinite varieties of situation, uniform results cannot here be expected.

With respect to the annual temperature, we may remark,

1st. That within 10 degrees of the poles, the temperatures differ very little; neither do they differ much within 10 degrees of the equator.

2d. The temperatures of different years differ very little near the equator, but they differ more and more, as the latitudes approach the poles.

3d. It scarce ever freezes in latitudes under 35°, unless in very elevated situations, and it scarce ever hails in latitudes higher than 60°.

4th. Between latitudes 35° and 60°, in places adjacent to the sea, it generally thaws when the sun's altitude is 40°, and seldom begins to freeze, until the sun's meridian altitude is below 40°.—Hence we may observe,

That the month of January is the coldest in every latitude:—That July is the warmest month in all latitudes above 48°; but in lower latitudes, August is generally the warmest:—That December and January, and also June and July differ but little. In latitudes above 30°, the months of August, September, October, and November, differ more from each other, than those of February, March, April, and May. In latitudes under 30°, the difference is not so great. The temperature of April approaches more, every where to the annual temperature, than that of any other month; whence we may infer, that the effects of natural causes, that operate gradually over a large extent, do not arrive at their *maximum*, until the activity of the causes begins to diminish; this appears also in the operation of the moon on seas, which produces tides; but after these effects have arrived at their *maximum*, the decrements are more rapid than the increments originally were during their progress to that *maximum*.—That the differences between the hottest and coldest months, within 20° of the equator, are inconsiderable, except in some peculiar situations; but that they increase in proportion as we recede from the equator.—That in the highest latitudes we often meet with a heat of 70 or 80 degrees; and particularly in latitudes 59 and 60, the heat of July is frequently greater, than in latitude 51°.—That every habitable latitude enjoys a heat of 60 degrees at least for two months, which heat seems necessary, for the growth and maturity of corn. The quickness of vegetation in the higher latitudes proceeds from the long duration of the sun over the horizon. Rain is little wanted, as the earth is sufficiently moistened by the liquefaction of the snow, that covers it during the winter; in all this we cannot sufficiently admire the wise disposition of Providence.—It is owing to the same provident hand, that the globe of the earth is intersected with seas and mountains, in a manner, that on its first appearance seems altogether irregular and fortuitous; presenting to the eye of ignorance, the view of an immense ruin; but when the effects of these seeming irregularities, on the face of the globe, are carefully inspected, they are found most beneficial and even necessary to the welfare of its inhabitants; for, to say nothing of the advantages of trade and commerce, which could not exist without these seas; it is by their vicinity, that the cold of the higher latitudes is moderated, and the heat of the lower. It is for want of seas that the interior parts of Asia, as Siberia and Great Tartary, as well as those of Africa, are rendered almost uninhabitable; a circumstance which furnishes a strong prejudice against those who think these countries were the original habitations of man. In the same manner mountains are necessary, not only as the reservoirs of rivers, but as a defence against the violence of heat, in the warm latitudes: without the Alps, Pyrenees, Appennine, the mountains of Dauphinè and Auvergne, &c. Italy, Spain, and France would be deprived of the mild temperature they at present enjoy. Without the Balgate Hills, or Indian Appennine, India would have been a desert. Hence Jamaica, St. Domingo, Sumatra, and most other intertropical islands, are furnished with mountains, from which the breezes proceed that refresh them.

A VIEW

*A VIEW of the ANNUAL TEMPERATURE of different Places, according to the Order of their LATITUDES.*

	N. Lat. Deg. M.	Longitude. Deg. M.	Mean Annual Heat.
Wadso, in Lapland	70 5		36°00
Abo	60 27	22 18E.	40 00
Peteriburg	59 56	30 24E.	38 8
Upsal	59 51	17 47E.	41 28
Stockholm	59 20	18 00E.	42 09
Solykamski	59 0	54 00E.	36 2
Edinburgh	55 57	3 00W.	47 7
Francker	53 0	5 42E.	52 6
Berlin	52 32	13 31E.	49 0
Lyndon, in Rutland	52 30	00 3W.	48 3
Leyden	52 10	4 32E.	52 25
London	51 31	00 00	51 9
Dunkirk	51 2	2 7E.	54 9
Manhelm	49 27	9 2E.	51 5
Rouen	49 26	1 0W.	51 00
Ratibon	48 56	12 7E.	49 35
Paris	48 50	2 25E.	52 00
Troyes, in Champaigne	48 18	4 10E.	53 17
Vienna	48 12	16 22E.	51 53
Dijon	47 19	4 57E.	52 8
Nantes	47 13	1 28E.	55 53
Poitiers	46 39	0 30E.	53 8
Lausanne	46 31	6 50E.	48 87
Padua	45 23	12 00E.	52 2
Rhodes, in Gulegne	45 21	2 39E.	52 0
Bordeaux	44 50	0 36W.	57 6
Montpeller	43 36	3 73E.	60 87
Marfeilles	43 19	5 27E.	61 8
Mont Louls, in Roufflon	42 00	2 40E.	44 5
Cambridge, in N. England	42 25	71 00W.	50 3
Philadelphia	39 56	75 9W.	52 5
Pekin	39 54	116 29E.	55 5
Algiers	36 49	2 17E.	72 00
Grand Cairo	30 00	31 23E.	73 00
Canton	23 00	13 00E.	75 14
Tivoli, in St. Domingo	19 00		74 00
Spanish Town, in Jamaica	18 15	76 38W.	81 00
Manilla	14 36	120 58E.	78 4
Fort St. George	13 00	87 00E.	81 3
Pondicherry	12 00	67 00E.	88 00
		S. Lat.	
Falkland Islands	51 00	66 00W.	47 4
Quito	0 13	77 50W.	62 00

We cannot finish the doctrine of the earth, without considering Winds and Tides, from which the changes that happen on its surface principally arise.

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

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

It is likewise found, that in some parts of the Indian ocean, which are not more than two hundred leagues from land, there are periodical winds, called *Monsoons*, which blow half the year one way, and half the year another way. At the change of these monsoons, which always happens at the equinoxes, there are terrible storms of thunder, lightning, wind, and rain. It is discovered also, that in the same latitudes, there is another kind of periodical winds, which blow from the land in the night and good part of the morning, and from the sea about noon, till midnight; these, however, do not extend above two or three leagues from shore. Near the coast of Guinea in Africa, the wind blows always from the west, south-west, or south. On the coast of Peru in South America, the winds blow constantly from the south-west. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and south, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great-Britain, are more variable, though they blow often from the west than any other point. Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Verd and the easternmost of the Cape de Verd islands, there is a tract of sea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and such rains, that this sea has acquired the name of *the Rains*.

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

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

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

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

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

[TIDES.] By the *tides* are meant the regular motion of the sea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The doctrine of the Tides remained in obscurity till sir Isaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction; for having demonstrated that there is a principle in all bodies, within the solar system, by which they mutually draw or attract each other, in proportion to their distance; it follows, that those parts of the sea which are immediately below the moon, must be drawn towards it, and consequently wherever the moon is nearly vertical, the sea will be raised, which occasions the flowing of the tide there. A similar reason occasions the flowing of the tide in those places where the moon is in the nadir, and must be diametrically opposite to the former; for, in the hemisphere farthest from the moon, the parts in the nadir being less at

tracted by her than the other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate less towards the earth's center, and consequently must be higher than the rest. Those parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees distant from the zenith and nadir, will have low water; for as the waters in the zenith and nadir rise at the same time, the waters in the neighbourhood will press towards those places, to maintain the equilibrium; to supply the places of these, others will move the same way, and so on to the places ninety degrees distant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be lowest. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, we shall be sensible of the reason why the tides ebb and flow twice in the length of a lunar day, or about twenty-four hours, fifty minutes.

Hence we see the reason why the time of high-water is about fifty minutes later every day; that is, if it be high-water at eleven to day, it will not be high-water till near fifty minutes after eleven tomorrow.

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

**CURRENTS.]** There are frequently streams or currents in the Ocean, which set slips a great way beyond their intended course. There is a current between Florida and the Bahama Islands, which always runs from north to south.

This is called the *Gulph-stream*, which is probably generated by the great accumulation of water on the eastern coast of America between the tropics, by the trade winds which constantly blow there. This vast quantity of water runs down in a strong current through the West India Islands into the bay of Mexico, and from thence issuing through the gulph of Florida, proceeds along the coasts to the banks of Newfoundland, where it turns off towards, and runs down through the western islands. From the thermometer it appears that it is always warmer than the sea on each side of it. Nor is it to be wondered at, that so vast a body of deep warm water, several leagues wide, coming from between the tropics, and issuing thence into the northern seas, should retain its warmth longer than the twenty or thirty days spent in passing the banks of Newfoundland. The quantity of deep water is too great to be suddenly cooled by passing under a cooler air. The air immediately over it, however, may receive so much warmth from it as to be rarefied and rise, being rendered lighter than the air on each side of the stream; hence those airs must flow in to supply the place of the rising warm air, and thus countering each other, form those tornadoes and water-spouts frequently met with, and seen near and over the stream; and as the vapour from a cup of tea or the breath of an animal is scarcely visible in a warm room, but becomes immediately visible in the cold air, so the vapour from the gulph-stream, in warm latitudes,

is scarcely perceptible, but when it comes into the cool air from Newfoundland, it is condensed into the fogs for which those parts are so remarkable.

The power of wind to raise water above its common level in the sea, is known in America, by the high tides occasioned in all their sea-ports, when a strong north-easter blows against the gulph-stream.

The conclusion from these remarks is, that by consulting the thermometer, a vessel may avoid stemming a current that is against her to the value of three miles an hour, and thus shorten her passage from Europe to North America; and in her return to Europe, she may take advantage of the same current to accelerate her course\*.

A current runs constantly from the Atlantic, through the straits of Gibraltar, into the Mediterrann. A current sets out of the Baltic sea, through the Sound or Strait between Sweden and Denmark, into the British channel; so that there are no tides in the Baltic. About small islands and head-lands, in the middle of the ocean, the tides rise very little; but in some bays, and about the mouths of rivers, they rise from 12 to 50 feet.

[MAPS.] A map is the representation of the earth, or a part of it, on a plane surface. Maps differ from the globe in the same manner as a picture does from a statue. The globe truly represents the earth, but a map no more than a plane surface can represent one that is spherical. But although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet, by means of several, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the representation will not fall much short of the globe for exactness; because such maps, if joined together, would form a spherical convex nearly as round as the globe.

[SEA-CHARTS.] In some books of geography, particularly those where the voyages of navigators are described, the sea-coasts, islands, &c. are laid down by a method very different from common maps, both the meridians, and parallels of latitude being right lines. These are called Mercator's charts, from Gerard Mercator, who, about the year 1550, published a very incorrect chart of this kind, but without the least mention of the principles on which it was constructed. This was referred for Mr Edward Wright, who, in the year 1599, published a book entitled "Errors of Navigation detected and corrected," in which he shewed the method of constructing a true sea-chart, and explained the principles on which it is founded. It is necessary, in the practice of navigation, that the rhumbs should be straight lines, and this essential property cannot be obtained unless the meridians are parallel to one another, and the parallels of latitude cross them at right-angles. But as the meridians on the globe meet in the pole, and consequently the degrees of longitude become less and less, in advancing from the equator to the poles, a chart delineated in the above manner must be extremely inaccurate, unless some method can be found to balance the errors flowing from the very nature of the construction. This is performed by increasing the degrees of latitude as they approach the poles in the same proportion, as the degrees of longitude between any two meridians decrease on the terrestrial globe.

The principal difficulty in constructing a true sea-chart seems to have consisted in discovering a proper method of applying the surface of a globe to a plane, which is accomplished by the following ingenious conception.

Suppose a rectangular plane was rolled about a globe till the edges of the plane met, and formed a kind of concave cylinder inclosing the globe, and touching its equator. Conceive the surface of this globe to swell (like a bladder while it is blowing up) from the equator towards the poles, proportionally in latitude as it does in longitude, until every part of its surface meet that of the concave cylinder, and impress thereon the lines that were drawn on the globular surface. Then the cylinder,

\* The reader may see more upon this subject (extremely interesting to mariners) in Dr. Franklin's Philosophical Papers, where he will find a chart of this stream.

viz. the rectangular plane, being unrolled, will represent a sea-chart, whose parts bear the same proportion to one another, as the corresponding parts do on the globe.

For in this formation of the nautical chart, every parallel of latitude on the globe will be increased till it is equal to the equator; and so the distance of the meridians in those parallels will become equal to their distance at the equator; consequently the meridians on the chart will be expressed by right lines. Also because the meridians are lengthened as the parallels increase, therefore the distances between the parallels of latitude become wider and wider as they approach the poles: but these parallels are also right lines, and as the rhumb lines on the globe cut the meridians at equal angles, they will also on the chart cut the meridians at equal angles, and consequently be expressed by right lines, because none but right lines can cut several parallel right lines, at equal angles.

This chart is principally adapted to the practice of navigation, and in that particular may be justly discovered as one of the most useful discoveries that have been made since the revival of learning in Europe; because the conclusions resulting from it are accurate, and, at the same time, the rectilinearity of the rhumb lines is preserved. The bearings and distances of places are found on this chart, with the greatest ease and expedition, but the different parts of the globe are by no means represented in their true magnitudes. An island in the latitude of sixty degrees, for instance, will be represented in this projection, twice as large as it really is, and for this reason, we rarely meet with any of these maps in books of geography. The reader is referred, for an illustration of these remarks, to Mercator's chart, at the end of the set of maps given with this system of Geography.

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

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

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

The Russian verst is little more than  $\frac{1}{2}$  English.

The Turkish, Italian, and old Roman lesser mile is nearly 1 English.

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

The Scotch and Irish mile is about 1½ English.  
 The Indian is almost three English.  
 The Dutch, Spanish, and Polish, is about 3½ English.  
 The German is more than 4 English.  
 The Swedish, Danish, and Hungarian is from 5 to 6 English.  
 The French common league is near 4 English, and  
 The English marine league is 3 English miles.

## P A R T II.

*Of the Origin of NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, and COMMERCE.*

**H**AVING, in the following work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and even sometimes, in speaking of these countries, carried our historical researches beyond modern times; it was thought necessary, in order to prepare the reader for entering upon the particular history of each country we describe, to place before his eye a general view of the history of mankind, from the first ages of the world, to the reformation in religion during the 16th century. By a history of the world, we do not mean a mere list of dates, which, when taken by itself, is a thing extremely insignificant; but an account of the most interesting and important events which have happened among mankind; with the causes which have produced, and the effects which have followed from them. This we judge to be a matter of high importance in itself, and indispensibly requisite to the understanding of the present state of commerce, government, arts, and manners, in any particular country; which may be called commercial and political geography, and which, undoubtedly, constitutes the most useful branch of that science.

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

It appears, in general, from the first chapters in Genesis, that the world, before the flood, was extremely populous, that mankind had made considerable improvement in the arts, and had become extremely vicious in their morals. Their wickedness gave occasion to a memorable catastrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were destroyed. The deluge happened in <sup>2348.</sup> Before Christ, the 1656th year of the world, and produced a very great change on the soil and atmosphere of this globe, giving them a form less friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgment of the life of man, and that formidable train of diseases which hath ever since made such havoc in the world. A curious part of history follows that of the deluge, the recopying of the world, and the rising of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three sons of Noah, the first founders of nations, was long preserved among their several descendants. Japhet continued famous among the western nations, under the celebrated name of Japetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter-Hammon. It ap-

\* The Samaritan copy of the Bible makes the ante-diluvian period only 1307 years, 349 short of the Hebrew Bible computation; and the Septuagint copy stretches it to 2262 years, which is 666 years exceeding it; but the Hebrew chronology is generally acknowledged to be of superior authority.

pears that hunting was the principal occupation some centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beasts; and the great heroism of those times consisted in destroying them. Hence Nimrod acquired immortal renown; and being greatly admired for his courage and dexterity, was enabled to found at Babylon the first monarchy whose origin is particularly mentioned in history. Not long after, the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Assur; and in Egypt, the four governments of Thebis, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. That these events should have happened so soon after the deluge, whatever surprize it may have occasioned to the learned some centuries ago, need not excite the wonder of the present age. We have seen, from many instances, the powerful effects of the principles of population, and how speedily mankind increase when the generative faculty lies under no restraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incomparably more extensive than the first empires of Babylon, Nineveh, and Egypt; and yet these kingdoms are not supposed to have existed four centuries before the discovery of America by Columbus\*. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to separate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterated or obscured. This occasioned the calling of Abraham to be the father of a chosen people. From this period the history of ancient nations begins to dawn; and we learn several particulars of importance.

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

\* The more our knowledge improves, the more strongly is the scripture history confirmed. Of this we have a remarkable proof in the confirmation of the Mosiac account, of the dispersion of mankind, and peopling of the earth, from the languages and history of the east. See the Asiatic Researches, v. iii.

lets it be Ninus, the successor of Assur, who, fired with the spirit of conquest, extends the bounds of his kingdom, adds Babylon to his dominions, and lays the foundation of that monarchy, which attained its splendour under Semiramis, and distinguished by the name of the Assyrian empire, ruled Asia for many ages.

Javan, son of Japhet, and grand-son of Noah, is the stock from whom the people known by the name of Greeks are descended. Javan established himself in the islands on the western coast of Asia Minor, from whence small colonies passed over into Europe. The kingdom of Sicyon near Corinth, founded by the Pelasgi, is generally supposed to have commenced in the year before Christ 2090. To these first inhabitants succeeded a colony from Egypt, who, about 2000 years before the Christian era, penetrated into Greece, and under the name of Titans, endeavoured to establish monarchy in that country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil policy of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans soon perished, and the ancient Greeks, who seem at this time to have been as rude and barbarous as any people in the world, again fell back into their lawless and savage manner of life. New colonies, however, soon after sailed from Asia into Greece, and, by remaining in that country, produced a more considerable alteration in the manners of its inhabitants. The most ancient establishments were made by Inachus and

B. C. Ogyges; of whom the former settled in Argos, and the latter in Attica.

1850. We know very little of Ogyges or his successors. Those of Inachus endeavoured to unite the dispersed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpose were not altogether unsuccessful.

But the history of God's chosen people, the Israelites, is the only one of which we have clear and circumstantial accounts. The train of curious events, which occasioned the settling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt of which Tanis

B. C. was the capital, are universally known. That patriarch died, according to the Septuagint version, 1794 years before Christ; but according to the Hebrew chronology, only 1689 years, and in the year of the World 2315.

1689. This remarkable era terminates that period of time which the Greeks have greatly distinguished by their fabulous narrations. Let us consider then what we can learn from the sacred writings, with respect to the arts, manners, and laws of ancient nations.

It is a common error among writers on this subject, to regard all the nations of antiquity as being then on the same footing. They find some nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude, that all were equally so. They discover others acquainted with many arts, and hence they infer the wisdom of the first ages. There appears, however, to have been nearly as much difference in point of art and refinement, in those ages as at present. Noah was undoubtedly acquainted with all the science of the antediluvian world: this he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand it down to their posterity. Those nations, therefore, who settled nearest the original seat of mankind, and who had the best opportunities to avail themselves of the knowledge which their great ancestor possessed, early formed themselves into regular societies, and made improvements in the arts which are most subservient to human life. Agriculture appears to have been known in the first ages of the world. Noah cultivated the vine: in the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the instruments of husbandry, long before the discovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the sacred writings. It is hardly to be supposed, that the ancient cities, both in Asia and Egypt, whose foundation, as we have already mentioned, reaches the remotest antiquity, could have been built, unless the culture of the ground had been practised at that time. Nations who live by hunting or pasturage only, lead a wandering life, and seldom fix their residence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture; and though we cannot trace the steps by

which it was introduced among the ancient nations, we may, from detached passages in sacred writ, ascertain the progress which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know, from the history of civil society, that the commercial intercourse between men must be pretty considerable, before the metals come to be considered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the case even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations that establish this fact, that the use of money had not been of an ancient date; it had no mark to ascertain its weight or fineness; and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave silver, the metal is weighed in the presence of all the people. As commerce improved, and bargains of this sort became more common, this practice was hid aside, and the quantity of silver was ascertained by a particular mark, which saved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have happened till the time of Jacob, the second from Abraham. The *sephel*, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, stamped with the figure of a lamb, and of a precise and stated value. It appears, from the history of Joseph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Ishmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, who carried spices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. The same observations may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the best writers, was a native of Arabia Felix, and also a contemporary with Jacob. He speaks of the roads of Thema and Saba, i. e. of the caravans which set out from those cities of Arabia. If we reflect, that the commodities of this country were rather the luxuries than the necessaries of life, we shall have reason to conclude, that the countries into which they were sent for sale, and particularly Egypt, had already made considerable advances in civilization.

In speaking of commerce, we ought to distinguish between the species of it which is carried on by land, or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by sea: which last kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and slower in its progress. Had the descendants of Noah been left to their own ingenuity, and received no tincture of the antediluvian knowledge from their wise ancestors, it is not likely that they should have ventured on navigating the open seas so soon as we find they did. That branch of his posterity, who settled on the coast of Palestine, were the first people of the world among whom navigation was made subservient to commerce: they were distinguished by a word, which, in the Hebrew tongue, signifies *merchants*, and are the same nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful soil, they set themselves to improve their situation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their principal pursuit, and, with all the writers of pagan antiquity, they pass for the inventors of whatever served to improve it. At the time of Abraham they were regarded as a powerful nation: their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his last words to his children: and, according to Herodotus, the Phœnicians had by this time navigated the coasts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, suppose the knowledge of several others; astronomy, for instance, or a knowledge of the situation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is necessary both to agriculture and navigation; that of working metals to commerce; and so of other arts. In fact, we find that, before the death of Jacob, several nations were so well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to measure by them the duration of their year. It had been an universal custom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time into the portion of a week, or seven days: this undoubtedly arose from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for those nations who led a pastoral life, or who lived under a serene sky, to observe that the

various

various appearances of the moon were completed nearly in four weeks: hence the division of a month. Those people who lived by agriculture, and who were acquainted with the division of the month, would naturally remark, that twelve of these brought back the same temperature of the air, or the same seasons: hence the origin of what is called the *lunar year*, which prevailed every where in the infancy of science. This, together with the observation of the fixed stars, which, as we learn from the book of Job, must have been very ancient, naturally paved the way for the discovery of the *solar year*, which at that time would be thought an amazing improvement in astronomy. But with regard to those branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered, that they were peculiar to the Egyptians, and a few nations of Asia. Europe offers a frightful spectacle during this period. Who could believe that the Greeks, who, in later ages, became the patterns of politeness and every elegant art, were descended from a savage race of men, traversing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and sometimes to each other? This, however, is no more than what was to be expected. Those descendants of Noah, who had removed to a great distance from the plains of Shinar, lost all connection with the civilised part of mankind. Their posterity became still more ignorant; and the human mind at length sunk into an abyss of wretchedness.

We might naturally expect that, from the death of Jacob, and, as we advance forward in time, the history of the great empires of Egypt and Assyria would gradually brighten. But this is far from being the case: we only get a glimpse of them, and they totally disappear for ages. After the reign of Ninias, who succeeded Semiramis and Ninus in the Assyrian throne, we find an astonishing blank in the history of this empire, for no less than eight hundred years. The silence of ancient history, on this subject, is commonly ascribed to the softness and effeminacy of the successors of Ninus, whose lives afforded no events worthy of record. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the historian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wise princes pass unregarded. Sesostris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is supposed to have mounted the throne of Egypt after Amenophis, who was swallowed up in the Red Sea about the year before Christ 1492; by his assiduity and attention, the civil and military establishments of the Egyptians received great improvements. Egypt, in the time of Sesostris and his immediate successors, was in all probability the most powerful kingdom upon earth, and, according to the best calculation, is supposed to have contained twenty-seven millions of inhabitants. But ancient history often excites without gratifying our curiosity: for from the reign of Sesostris to that of Bocchoris, in the year before Christ 781, we have little knowledge of even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumstances, the country must still have continued in a very flourishing condition; for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into distant nations. Athens, that seat of learning and politeness, that school for all who aspire after wisdom, owes its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civilize the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the institutions which Cecrops established among the Athenians, it is easy to infer their condition before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are so barbarous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beasts of the field, were propagated by accidental connections, neither knowing nor caring who were their progenitors. Cranaus, who succeeded Cecrops in the kingdom of Attica, pursued the same salutary path, and endeavoured, by wise institutions, to bridle the keen passions of a rude people.

While these princes used their endeavours for civilising this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country, by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains,

mountains, and rivers, is divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the East, began to assume some appearance of regular policy. **B. C. 1496.** This engaged Amphictyon, one of those inventive minds who appear in the world for the benefit of the age in which they live, and the admiration of posterity, to think of some expedient by which he might unite in one confederacy the several independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from those intestine divisions, which rendered them a prey to each other, and exposed them defenceless to the first enemy who might choose to invade them. These reflections he communicated to the kings, or leaders of the different territories; and by his eloquence and address engaged twelve cities to unite together for their common preservation. Two deputies from each of these cities assembled twice a year at Thermopylae, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictyonic Council. In this assembly, whatever related to the general interest of the confederacy was discussed, and finally determined. Amphictyon likewise, sensible that those political connections are the most lasting which are strengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictyons the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the rich dedications which began to be sent from those who consulted the oracle. This assembly, constituted on such solid foundations, remained one great spring of action in Greece, while that country preserved its independence; and, by the union which it inspired, encouraged the Greeks to defend their liberties against all the force of the Persian empire.

Considering the circumstances of the age in which it was instituted, the Amphictyonic council is perhaps the most remarkable political establishment which ever took place among mankind. In the year before Christ 1322, the Isthmian games were celebrated at Corinth, and in 1303, the famous Olympic games by Pelops; which games, together with the Pythian and Nemean, have been rendered immortal by the genius of Pindar.

The Greek states, formerly unconnected, except by mutual inroads and hostilities, soon began to act with concert, and to undertake distant expeditions for the general interest of the confederacy. The first of these was the celebrated expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have been concerned. **B. C. 1263.** The object of the Argonauts was to open the commerce of the Euxine sea, and to establish colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ship Argo, which was the admiral galley, is the only one particularly named; though we learn from ancient writers, that several others were employed. The fleet of the Argonauts was, from the ignorance of those who conducted it, long tossed among different coasts. The rocks, at some distance from the mouth of the Euxine sea, occasioned much difficulty to the Argonauts: they sent forward a light vessel, which passed through, but returned with the loss of her rudder. This is expressed in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their sending out a bird which returned with the loss of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obscurity in which the other events of this expedition are involved. The fleet at length arrived at Aeon, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, considering the condition of the naval art during that age, was not less important than the circumnavigation of the world by our modern discoverers. From this expedition to that against Troy, which was undertaken to recover the fair **B. C. 1184.** Helena, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off by Paris, son of the Trojan king, the Greeks must have made a wonderful progress in arts, in power, and opulence: no less than twelve hundred vessels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. But these vessels were but half decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their construction. If we add to these circumstances, that the Greeks had

not the use of the saw, an instrument so necessary to the carpenter, a modern must form but a mean notion of the strength or elegance of this fleet.

Having thus considered the Grecian confederacy, let us examine the circumstances of its several members. This is of great importance to our present undertaking, because in this country only we can trace the origin and progress of government, arts, and manners. In their internal policy, the Grecian kingdoms nearly resembled each other. They were governed each by a king, or rather by a chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who presided in the administration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being absolute. In each society there were a number of other leaders, whose influence over their particular clans or tribes was not less considerable than that of the king over his immediate followers. These captains were often at war with each other, and sometimes with their sovereign; and each particular state was in miniature what the whole country had been before the time of Amphictyon. They required the hand of another delicate painter to shade the opposite colours, and to enable them to produce one powerful effect. The history of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which these states, that, for want of union, were weak and insignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Theseus, king of Attica, about the year B. C. 1234, had acquired great reputation by his generosity and valour. He saw the inconveniences to which his country, from being divided into twelve districts, was exposed; and conceived, that by means of the influence which his personal character, united to the royal authority with which he was vested, had universally procured him, he might be enabled to remove them. For this purpose he endeavoured to maintain, and even to increase his popularity among the peasants and artisans: he detached, as much as possible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them: he abolished the courts which had been established in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council-hall common to all the Athenians. Theseus, however, did not trust solely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of superstition; by establishing common rites to be performed in Athens, and by affording protection to all strangers who settled there, he raised this city from an inconsiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The splendor of Athens and of Theseus now totally eclipsed that of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the state was united in one city, and under one sovereign. The turbulent chiefs thus divested of influence and consideration, became humble and submissive; and Attica remained under the peaceful government of a monarch.

This is a rude sketch of the origin of the first monarchy of which we have a distinct account, and may, without much variation, be applied to the other states of Greece. This country, however, was not destined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence arose, which in a short time proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theseus had divided the Athenians into three distinct classes; the nobles, the artisans, and the husbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had bestowed many privileges on the inferior ranks. This policy was imitated by his successors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their sovereign, and partly from the progress of arts and manufactures, which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became considerable and independent. These circumstances were attended with a remarkable effect. Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, in the year B. C. 1070, the Athenians, become weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch who had devoted himself to death for the safety of his people, abolished the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter should be king of Athens.

This revolution in favour of liberty was so much the more remarkable, as it happened soon after that the Jews became unwilling to remain under the government of the true God, and desired a mortal sovereign, that they might be like unto other nations.

B. C.  
1095.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian states, much about the same time assumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phœnicia, had founded this city, which from that time had been governed by kings. But the last sovereign being overcome in single combat, by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans abolished royalty. Till the days, however, of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, a period of seven hundred years, the Thebans performed nothing worthy of the republican spirit. Other cities of Greece, after the example of Thebes and Athens, created themselves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival states, which, by means of the superiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deserve our principal attention. We have seen a tender shoot of liberty spring up in the city of Athens, upon the decease of Codrus, its last sovereign. This shoot gradually improved into a vigorous plant. The Athenians, by abolishing the name of king, did not at once abolish the regal authority: they established a perpetual magistrate, who, under the name of Archon, was invested with many royal prerogatives. At length they fancied the archontic office to be too lively an image of royalty for a free state. After it had continued, therefore, three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to lessen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by shortening its duration. The first period assigned for the continuance of the archonship in the same family, was ten years. But the desire of the Athenians for a more perfect degree of freedom, still continued to increase. They again demanded a reduction of the power of their archons; and it was at length determined, that nine annual magistrates should be appointed. These magistrates were not only chosen by the people, but accountable to them for their behaviour in office. These alterations were too violent not to be attended with some dangerous consequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the most unruly licentiousness. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens; and it was hardly possible that the ancient customs of the realm, which were naturally supposed to be in part abolished by the successive changes in the government, should sufficiently restrain the tumultuary spirits of the Athenians, in the first flutter of their independence. This engaged the wiser part of the state, who began to prefer any system of government to their present anarchy, to cast their eyes on Draco, a man of an austere but virtuous disposition, as the fittest person for composing a system of law, to bridle the furious passions of the multitude. Draco undertook the office, about the year 628, but executed it with so much rigour, that, in the words of an ancient historian, "his laws were written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiscriminate punishment of every offence; and the laws of Draco were found to be a remedy worse than the disease. Affairs again fell into confusion, which continued till the time of Solon, 594 B. C. Solon's wisdom, virtue, and accommodating manners, recommended him to the most important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. This employment was assigned him by the unanimous voice of his country, but he long deliberated whether he should undertake it. At length, the motives of public utility overcame all considerations of private ease, safety, and reputation, and determined him to enter an ocean pregnant with a thousand dangers. The first step of his legislation was to abolish all the laws of Draco, except those relative to murder. The punishment of this crime could not be too great; but to consider other offences as equally criminal, was to confound all notions of humanity and

B. C.  
1070.

B. C.  
694.

justice. Solon next proceeded to new-model the political law; and his establishments on this head remained among the Athenians, while they preserved their liberties. He seems to have set out with this principle, that a perfect republic, in which each citizen should have an equal political importance, was a system of government, beautiful indeed in theory, but not reducible to practice. He divided the citizens into four classes, according to the wealth which they possessed, and the poorest class he rendered incapable of magistracy. They had a voice, however, in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the last resort. But lest this assembly, which was composed of all the citizens, should, in the words of Plutarch, like a ship with too many sails, be exposed to the gust of folly, tumult, and disorder, he provided for its safety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The first of these courts consisted of four hundred persons, a hundred out of each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important business that came before the assembly of the people; the second, though but a court of justice, gained a prodigious ascendancy in the republic, by the wisdom and gravity of its members, who were not chosen, but after the strictest scrutiny.

Such was the system of government established by Solon, which, the more we examine it, will be the more approved. Upon the same plan most of the other ancient republics were established. To insist on all of them, therefore, would neither be entertaining nor instructive. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedæmon, had something in it so peculiar, that the great lines of it at least ought not to be omitted. Sparta, like the other states of Greece, was originally divided into a number of petty principalities, of which each was under the jurisdiction of its own immediate chieftain. Lelex is named as the first king, about the year

B. C. 1516. At length, the two brothers, Euristhenes and Procles, getting possession of Lacedæmon, became conjunct in the royalty; and, what is extremely singular, their posterity, in the direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years, ending with Cleomenes, anno 220 before the

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

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

B. C. we have so long lost sight. We have already mentioned in what obscurity  
791. the history of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Bocchoris. From this period, to the dissolution of their government by Cambyses of Persia, in the year B. C. 524, the Egyptians are chiefly celebrated for the wisdom of their laws

and

and political institutions. Several of these seem to have been dictated by the true spirit of civil wisdom, and were admirably calculated for maintaining good government in an extensive kingdom. The great empire of Assyria likewise, which had so long disappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the first instance we meet with in history, of a kingdom which fell afunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakness of its sovereigns. Sardanapalus, the last emperor of Assyria, neglected the administration of affairs, and shutting himself up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his subjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to lay hold of this opportunity of raising their own fortune on the ruins of their master's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Belshis, governor of Babylon, conspired against their sovereign, set fire to his capital, in which Sardanapalus perished, B. C. 826, and divided between them his extensive dominions. These two kingdoms, sometimes united under one prince, and sometimes governed each by a particular sovereign, long maintained the chief sway in Asia. Pul reviv'd the kingdom of Assyria B. C. 777, and Shalmaneser, one of his successors, put an end to the kingdom of Israel, and carried the ten tribes captive into Assyria and Media, B. C. 721. Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon, also B. C. 587, overturned the kingdom of Judah, which had continued in the family of David from the year 1055, and mastered all the countries around him. But in the year 538, Cyrus the Great took Babylon, and reduced Asia under the Persian yoke. The manners of this people as brave, hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus, in all its branches, are elegantly described by Xenophon, a Grecian philosopher and historian. It is not necessary that we should enter into the same detail upon this subject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. We have, in modern times, sufficient examples of monarchical governments; but how few are our republics? But the era of Cyrus is in one respect extremely remarkable, beside delivering the Jews from their captivity, because it terminates the history of the ancient empires, which have hitherto engaged our attention. Let us consider then the genius of the Assyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, in arts and sciences; and, if possible, discover what progress they had made in those acquisitions which are most subservient to the interests of society.

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

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

The history of Persia, after the reign of Cyrus, who died in the year B. C. 529, offers little, considered in itself, that merits our regard: but when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly interesting. The monarchs who succeeded Cyrus gave an opportunity to the Greeks to exercise those virtues which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of Lycurgus's institutions: Athens had just recovered from the tyranny of the Pisistratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and usurped the supreme power. Such was their situation, when the lust of universal empire, which seldom fails to torment the breast of tyrants, led Darius to send forth his numerous armies into Greece. But the Persians were no longer those invincible soldiers who, under Cyrus, had conquered Asia. Their manners has been corrupted by their rich conquests, and were debased by slavery. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great men, whose minds were animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, on the plains of Marathon, with ten thousand Athenians, overcame the Persian army of a hundred thousand foot, and ten thousand cavalry. His countrymen, Themistocles and Aristides, the first celebrated for his abilities, the second for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which will be for ever read and studied as the noblest monuments of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over servitude.

Xerxes, the son of Darius, came in person into Greece, with an army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted to two millions and one hundred thousand men. This account is perhaps somewhat exaggerated. The exact truth cannot now be ascertained: but that the army of Xerxes was extremely numerous, is the more probable from the great extent of his empire, and from the absurd practice of the eastern nations, of encumbering their camp with a superfluous multitude. Whatever the numbers of his army were, he was every where defeated, by sea and land, and escaped to Asia in a fishing-boat. Such was the spirit of the Greeks, and so well did they know that "wanting virtue, life is pain and woe; that wanting liberty even virtue mourns, and looks around for happiness in vain." But though the Persian war concluded

concluded gloriously for the Greeks, it is, in a great measure, to this war that the subsequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they suffered the loss of so many brave men, but those in which they acquired the spoils of Persia; it was not their enduring so many hardships in the course of the war, but their connection with the Persians after the conclusion of it, which subverted the Grecian establishments, and ruined the most virtuous confederacy that ever existed upon earth. The Greeks became haughty after their victories: delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel among themselves; their quarrels were fomented by Persian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them desirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponnesian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted as principals, and drew after them the other states of Greece. They continued to weaken themselves by these intestine divisions, till Philip king of Macedon (a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of this prince, became important and powerful) rendered himself the absolute master of Greece, by the battle of Cheronæa. But this conquest is one of the first we meet with in history which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his schemes so deeply, and by bribery, promises, and intrigues, gained such a number of considerable persons in the states of Greece to his interest, that another day would have put in his possession what Cheronæa had denied him. The Greeks had lost that virtue which was the basis of their confederacy. Their popular governments served only to give a sanction to their licentiousness and corruption. The principal officers in most of their states, were bribed into the service of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demosthenes, assisted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean, but more seductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, used the surest method of gaining their affections.

Philip had proposed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece: but he did not long survive the battle of Cheronæa. Upon his decease, his son Alexander was chosen general against the Persians, by all the Grecian states, except the Athenians, Lacedæmonians and Thebans. These made a feeble effort for expiring liberty: but they were obliged to yield to superior force. Secure on the side of Greece, Alexander set out on his Persian expedition, at the head of thirty thousand foot, and five thousand horse. The success of this army, in conquering the whole force of Darius, in three pitched battles, in over-running and subduing not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of Upper Asia, the very names of which had never reached an European ear, has been described by many authors both ancient and modern, and constitutes a singular part of the history of the world. Soon after this rapid career of victory and success, Alexander died at Babylon. His captains, after sacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided his dominions among them. This gives rise to a number of aras and events too complicated for our present purpose. After considering, therefore, the state of arts and sciences in Greece, we shall pass to the Roman affairs, where the historical deduction is more simple and more important.

The bare names of illustrious men, who flourished in Greece from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a large volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the highest pitch of perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned were but the dawns of this glorious day. Though the eastern nations had raised magnificent and stupendous structures, the Greeks were the first people in the world, who, in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympus, and the Ephesian Diana, are the first monuments of good taste. They were erected by the Grecian colonies, who settled in Asia Minor, before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias, the

the Athenian, who died in the year B. C. 432, is the first sculptor whose works merited immortality. Zeuxis, Parrhasius, and Timantheus, during the same age, first displayed the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Composition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Hesiod and Homer, who flourished 1000 years before the Christian era, the tragic poets Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the first great improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave perspicuity and elegance to profane writing. Isocrates gave it cadence and harmony; but it was left to Thucydides and Demosthenes to discover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not, however, in fine writing only, that the Greeks excelled. Every species of philosophy was cultivated among them with the utmost success. Not to mention the divine Socrates, the virtue of whose life, and the excellence of whose philosophy, justly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration; his three disciples, Plato, Aristotle\*, and Xenophon, may, for strength of reasoning, justness of sentiment, and propriety of expression, be put on a footing with the writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long course of years, has taught us many secrets in nature, with which these philosophers were unacquainted, and which no strength of genius could reach. But whatever some empirics in learning may pretend, the most learned and ingenious men, in all civilized countries of Europe, have acknowledged the superiority of the Greek philosophers, and have reckoned themselves happy in catching their turn of thinking, and manner of expression.

The Greeks were not less distinguished for their active than for their speculative talents. It would be endless to recount the names of their famous statesmen and warriors, and it is impossible to mention a few without doing injustice to a greater number. War was first reduced into a science by the Greeks. Their soldiers fought from an affection to their country, and an ardor for glory, and not from a dread of their superiors. We have seen the effect of this military virtue in their wars against the Persians; the cause of it was the wise laws which Amphictyon, Solon, and Lycurgus, had established in Greece. But we must now leave this nation, whose history, both civil and philosophical, is as important as their territory was inconsiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are more interesting, from the relation in which they stand to those of modern Europe.

The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman state, when we view  
 B. C. him as the leader of a few lawless and wandering banditti, is an object of ex-  
 753- treme insignificance; but when we consider him as the founder of an empire  
 as extensive as the world, and whose progress and decline have occasioned the two  
 greatest revolutions that ever happened in Europe, we cannot help being inter-  
 ested in his conduct. His disposition was extremely martial; and the political state  
 of Italy, divided into a number of small but independent districts, afforded a noble  
 field for the display of military talents. Romulus was continually embroiled with  
 his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his compa-  
 rions expected not only to aggrandize themselves, but even to subsist. In the  
 conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may observe the same max-  
 ims by which the Romans afterwards became masters of the world. Instead of de-  
 stroying the nations he had subdued, he united them to the Roman state, whereby  
 Rome acquired a new accession of strength from every war she undertook, and be-  
 came powerful and populous from that circumstance which ruins and depopulates  
 other kingdoms. If the enemies, with which he contended, had, by means of  
 the art or arms they employed, any advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that  
 practice, or the use of that weapon, and improved the military system of the Ro-

\* Olympiodorus and Ammonius say that Aristotle was the disciple of Socrates; but, from Eusebius, it appears that he began his studies under Plato.

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mans by the united experience of all their enemies. We have an example of both these salutary maxims, in the war with the Sabines. Romulus having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, instantly threw aside the latter, and made use of the Sabine buckler in fighting against other states. Romulus, though continually occupied in war, did not neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. He instituted what was called the Senate; a court originally composed of a hundred persons, distinguished for their wisdom and experience. He enacted laws for the administration of justice, and for restraining the fierce and unruly passions of his followers; and, after a long reign, spent in promoting the civil or military interests of his country, was, according to the most probable conjecture, privately assassinated B. C. 717.

The successors of Romulus were all extraordinary personages. Numa, who came next to him, established the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inspired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the soul of their military discipline. Tullus Hostilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priscus, and Servius Tullius, laboured each during his reign for the grandeur of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the seventh and last king, having obtained the crown by the execrable murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to support it by the most cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the insolence of his son Sextus Tarquinius, who, by dishonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occasioned the expulsion of the Tarquin family, and with it the dissolution of the regal government. As the Romans were continually engaged in war, they found it necessary to have some officer invested with supreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterprises. In the room of the kings, therefore, they appointed two annual magistrates called consuls, who, without creating jealousy, exercised all the royal functions. This revolution was extremely favourable to the Roman grandeur. The consuls, who enjoyed but a temporary power, were desirous of signalizing their reign by some great action: each vied with those who had gone before him, and the Romans were daily led out against some new enemy. When we add to this that the people, naturally warlike, were animated to deeds of valour by every consideration which could inspire them; that the citizens of Rome were all soldiers, and fought for their lands, their children, and their liberties, we need not be surprised that they should, in the course of some centuries, extend their power all over Italy.

The Romans, now secure at home, turn their eyes abroad, and meet with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This state had been founded or enlarged on the coast of the Mediterranean, in Africa, some time before Rome, by a colony of Phœnicians, B. C. 869, and, according to the practice of their mother country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatness.

Carthage, in this design, had proved wonderfully successful. She now commanded both sides of the Mediterranean. Besides that of Africa, which she almost entirely engrossed, she had extended herself on the Spanish side, through the Straits. Thus mistress of the sea, and of commerce, she had seized on the islands of Corsica and Sardinia. Sicily had difficulty to defend itself; and the Romans were too nearly threatened not to take up arms. Hence a succession of hostilities between these rival states, known in history by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage was a powerful republic, when Rome was an inconsiderable state; but she was now become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political constitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars; Rome, as we have already mentioned, was composed of soldiers. The first war with Carthage

lasted twenty-three years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the sea, with which they had been hitherto unacquainted. A Carthaginian vessel was wrecked on their coast; they used it for a model, in three months fitted out a fleet, and the consul Dullius, who fought their first naval battle, was victorious. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, may give us an idea of the spirit which then animated this people. Being taken prisoner in Africa, he is sent back on his parole, to negotiate a change of prisoners. He maintains in the senate, the propriety of that law, which cut off from those who suffered themselves to be taken, all hopes of being saved, and returns to a certain death.

Neither was Carthage, though corrupted, deficient in great men. Of all the enemies the Romans had to contend with, Hannibal was the most inflexible and dangerous. His father Hamilcar had imbibed an extreme hatred to the Romans, and having settled the intestine troubles of his country, he embraced an early opportunity to inspire his son, though but nine years old, with his own sentiments. For this purpose he ordered a solemn sacrifice to be offered to Jupiter, and leading his son to the altar, asked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition against the Romans; the courageous boy not only consented to go, but conjured his father by the gods present, to form him to victory, and teach him the art of conquering. That I will joyfully do, replied Hamilcar, and with all the care of a father who loves you, if you will swear upon the altar to be an eternal enemy to the Romans. Hannibal readily complied; and the solemnity of the ceremony, and the sacredness of the oath, made such an impression upon his mind, as nothing afterwards could efface. Being appointed general, at twenty-five years of age, he crosses the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and unexpectedly falls down upon Italy. The loss of four battles threatens the fall of Rome. Sicily sides with the conqueror. Hieronymus, king of Syracuse, declares against the Romans, and almost all Italy abandons them. In this extremity Rome owed its preservation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, despising popular clamour, and the military ardour of his countrymen, declines coming to an engagement. The strength of Rome has time to recover. Marcellus raises the siege of Nola, takes Syracuse, and revives the drooping spirits of his troops. The Romans admired the character of these great men, but saw something still superior in the young Scipio. The success of this young hero confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine origin, and held converse with the gods. At the age of four-and-twenty, he flies into Spain, where both his father and uncle had lost their lives, attacks New Carthage, and carries it at the first assault. Upon his arrival in Africa, kings submit to him, Carthage trembles in her turn, and sees her armies defeated. Hannibal, sixteen years victorious, is in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage is rendered tributary, given hostages, and engages never to make war, but with the consent of the Romans.

After the conquest of Carthage, Rome had inconsiderable wars but great victories; before this time its wars were great, and its victories inconsiderable. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; in the one fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated by those quarrels which had lasted since the death of Alexander the Great. Their scene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the East. The states of Greece had once more disengaged themselves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Etolians, Acheans, and Beotians; each of these was an association of free cities, which had assemblies and magistrates in common. The kings of Macedon maintained that superiority, which, in ancient times, when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally possessed over his neighbours. Philip, the reigning monarch, had

rendered himself odious to the Greeks, by some unpopular and tyrannical steps; the Etolians were most irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their assistance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garrisons were obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and the States of Greece became their dependents. The Etolians, discovering their first error, endeavoured to remedy it by another still more dangerous to themselves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece to defend them against king Philip, they now invited Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them against the Romans. The famous Hannibal too had recourse to the same prince, who was at this time the most powerful monarch in the East. But Antiochus did not follow his advice so much as that of the Etolians; for, instead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be most vulnerable, he landed in Greece with a small body of troops, and being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Asia. In this war the Romans made use of Philip for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of the Etolians for conquering Philip. They now pursue Antiochus, the last object of their resentment, into Asia, and, having vanquished him by sea and land, compel him to submit to a disgraceful treaty. B. C. 198.

In regulating the conquered countries, the Romans allowed the ancient inhabitants to retain their possessions; they did not even change the form of government; the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people, which denomination, under a specious name, concealed a condition very servile, and inferred that they should submit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on these easy conquests, we have reason to be astonished at the resistance which the Romans met with from Mithridates king of Pontus, for the space of twenty-six years. But this monarch had great resources. His kingdom, bordering on the inaccessible mountains of Caucasus, abounded in a race of men, whose minds were not enervated by pleasure, and whose bodies were firm and vigorous.

The different states of Greece and Asia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not a spirit to shake it off, were transported at finding a prince, who dared to shew himself an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully submitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, at last was compelled to yield to the superior fortune of Rome. Vanquished successively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length subdued by Pompey, and stripped of his dominions and of his life, in the year B. C. 63. In Africa, the Roman arms met with equal success. Marius, in conquering Jugurtha, made all secure in that quarter. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. B. C. 106. Gallia Narbonensis had been reduced into a province. The Cimbri, Teutones, and other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The same Marius, whose name was so terrible in Africa, then carried terror into Gaul. The Barbarians, less formidable than the Roman legions, retired to their wilds and deserts. B. C. 102. But while Rome conquered the world, there subsisted an eternal war within her walls. This war had subsisted from the first periods of the government. The descendants of the senators, who were distinguished by the name of Patricians, were invested with so many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependence, and became determined to shake it off. A thousand disputes on this subject arose betwixt them and the Patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty.

These disputes, while the Romans preserved their virtue, were not marked with blood. The Patricians, who loved their country, cheerfully parted with some of their privileges to satisfy the people; and the people, on the other hand, though

they obtained laws, by which they might be admitted to enjoy the first offices of the state, and though they had the power of nomination, always named Patricians. But when the Romans, by the conquest of foreign nations, became acquainted with their luxuries and refinements; when they became tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the eastern courts, and sported with every thing just and honourable, in order to obtain them, the state, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue on either side, became a prey to its own children. Hence the bloody seditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguishable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it easy for any turbulent demagogue, or proud patrician, to inflame them to outrage. The love of their country was now no more than a specious name; the better sort were too wealthy and effeminate to submit to the rigours of discipline, and the soldiers, composed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They had little respect for any but their commander; under his banner they fought, conquered, and plundered. He might command them to embue their hands in the blood of their country. They who knew no country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conquests, however, which required their keeping on foot several armies at the same time, retarded the subversion of the republic. These armies were so many checks upon each other. Had it not been for the soldiers of Sylla, Rome would have surrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

Julius Caesar at length appears. By subduing the Gauls, he gained his country the most useful conquest it ever made. Pompey, his only rival, is overcoming in the plains of Pharsalia. Caesar appears victorious, almost at the same time, all over the world: in Egypt, in Asia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain: conqueror on all sides, he is acknowledged master at Rome, and in the whole empire. Brutus and Cassius attempt to give Rome her liberty, by stabbing him in the senate-house. But though they deliver the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic does not obtain its freedom. It falls into the hands of Marc Anthony; Caesar Octavianus, nephew to Julius Caesar, wrests it from him by the sea-fight at Actium, and there is no Brutus nor Cassius to put an end to his life. Those friends of liberty had killed themselves in despair; and Octavius, under the name of Augustus, and title of emperor, remained the undisturbed master of the empire. During these civil commotions, the Romans still maintained the glory of their arms among distant nations; and, while it was unknown who should be master at Rome, the Romans were, without dispute, the masters of the world. Their military discipline and valour abolished all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Persian, the Grecian, the Assyrian, and Macedonian glory; they were now only a name. No sooner, therefore, was Octavius established on the throne, than ambassadors, from all quarters of the known world, crowd to make their submissions. Ethiopia sues for peace; the Parthians, who had been a formidable enemy, court his friendship; India seeks his alliance; Pannonia acknowledges him; Germany dreads him; and the West receives his laws. Victorious by sea and land, he shuts the temple of Janus.

The whole earth lives in peace under his power; and Jesus Christ comes into the world, four years before the common era.

Having thus traced the progress of the Roman government, while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to say a few words with regard to the arts, sciences, and manners of that people. In the infancy of the republic, and even long after the consular government was established, learning and the arts made little progress at Rome. Agriculture, and the cultivation of arms, principally engaged its attention. A memorable proof of this is the edict of Mummius, who, having destroyed the city of Corinth, ordered the pictures painted by the most eminent artists of

Greece, to be carried to Rome, with this remarkable caution, that if any were lost, the ship-masters should make good the damage. Nor were the sciences in more request at Rome. Some of the ablest philosophers of Greece coming there in the time of Cato the Elder, he ordered them to depart the city, lest the minds of the youth should be corrupted by philosophy. They had for a long series of years no written laws at Rome: those of Solon, brought from Greece, gave birth to the laws of the twelve tables. These constituted the civil law of the Romans. They were afterwards enlarged by various decrees of the senate, orders of the people, and edicts of the praetors.

After the destruction of Carthage, and the states of Greece, when the Romans had no rival to fear, they applied themselves to cultivate the arts of peace. The curious remains of Grecian magnificence which were sent to Rome inspired them with a desire of imitating such perfect models. Whatever was elegant, whatever was curious, whatever was beautiful, might be consulted without trouble or expence. But the Romans, though undoubtedly great artists, never equalled the finished models of their masters: Eloquence had been long studied in Rome, but it did not reach its greatest height till Cicero appeared. His orations are inferior only to those of Demosthenes. Cicero gave to eloquence all the graces of which it is susceptible, without lessening its dignity and gravity. He gave cadence and harmony to the Roman language, and enriched it with beauties before unknown. The poetry of Virgil is equal to any thing but the works of Homer, which he aspired to rival. But if Virgil fell short of Homer, Horace excelled all that went before him in his satires and epistles. His odes have not indeed the majesty and sublimity of Pindar; but they abound in beauties; a delicacy of sentiment, a smooth harmonious flow of verse, and the most lively images, conveyed in the correctest language.—In historians, Rome also abounded; and till Livy appeared, Sallust was placed at their head. His great work has perished; but in the pieces happily preserved, his descriptions, his characters, his harangues, are equally beautiful; he succeeds alike in all: nothing can be added to their force, spirit, and eloquence. Livy is one of those few writers who have rendered their names immortal. Throughout his whole history there reigns an eloquence perfect in every kind. His style, though varied to infinity, is every where equal; simple without meanness; elegant without affectation; uniting sweetness with strength. Tacitus did not flourish till after the reign of Augustus; nor has his style the purity of the writers in that age of literary competition. The part of his history which contains the reign of Tiberius, has always been considered as his master-piece. There was no necessity for the abilities of a great writer to paint the vices of Caligula, the stupidity of Claudius, or the cruelties of Nero; but to write the life of Tiberius required the genius of Tacitus, who could unravel all the intrigues of the cabinet, assign the real causes of events, and withdraw the veil of deception, which concealed from the eyes of the public the real motives of action. The Romans never applied themselves greatly to philosophy. Lucretius, who delivered in spirited versification the opinions of Epicurus, is the only philosopher, except Cicero, whose writings are worthy of study.—In tragedy, the Romans never produced any thing that can bear the least comparison with the immortal writers of Greece, Æschylus, Euripides, and Sophocles. At the head of their comic writers, Plautus and Terence are justly placed; but neither were possessed of the *vis comica*, or lively vein of humour, which is essential to comedy, and which distinguishes the writings of the comic poets of Greece, and of our Shakspeare.

We now return to our history, and are arrived at an era, which presents us with a set of monsters, under the name of emperors, whose transactions disgrace human nature. They did not indeed abolish the forms of the Roman republic, though they

they extinguished its liberties; and while they enslaved and oppressed their subjects, they themselves were the slaves of their soldiers. Rome, from the time of Augustus, became the most despotic empire that ever subsisted in Europe; and its affairs were generally directed with caprice and cruelty. But the list of the first Cæsars is adorned by the name of a Titus: and a succession of wise and good princes brightens the second century of the Christian æra.

When it is said that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civilized part of it, chiefly in Greece, Carthage, and Asia. A more difficult task still remained for the emperors, to subdue the barbarous nations of Europe: the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote inhabitants of Scotland. These nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the superiority of their discipline than of their courage, that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars with the Germans are described by Tacitus, and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is easy to discover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they submitted to a foreign yoke. From the obstinate resistance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in subduing the other nations of Europe. The contests were on both sides bloody; the countries of Europe were successively laid waste, the inhabitants perished in the field, many were carried into slavery, and but a feeble remnant submitted to the Roman power. This situation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happiness of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their intercourse with the Romans, acquired some taste for the arts, sciences, language, and manners of their new masters. These, however, were but miserable consolations for the loss of liberty, for being deprived of the use of their arms, for being overawed by mercenary soldiers kept in pay to restrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy.

The Roman empire, now stretched out to such an extent, had lost its spring and force. It contained within itself the seeds of dissolution; and the violent irruption of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, hastened its destruction. These fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the parts of Germany which had never been subdued by the Romans, or were scattered over the vast countries of the north of Europe, and north-west of Asia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the subjects of the Russian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country by that restlessness which actuates the minds of Barbarians, and makes them rove from home in quest of plunder, or new settlements. The first invaders met with a powerful resistance from the superior discipline of the Roman legions; but this, instead of daunting men of a strong and impetuous temper, only roused them to vengeance. They returned to their companions, acquaint them with the unknown conveniencies and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or blessed with a milder climate than their own; they acquaint them with the battles they had fought, or the friends they had lost, and warm them with resentment against their opponents. Great bodies of armed men, with their wives and children, and slaves and flocks, issued forth like regular colonies, in quest of new settlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deserted were occupied by more remote tribes of Barbarians. These in their turn pushed forward into more fertile countries, and like a torrent continually increasing, rolled on, and swept every thing before them. Wherever the Barbarians marched, their route was marked with blood. They ravaged or destroyed all around them. They made no distinction between what was sacred, and what was profane. They respected no age, or sex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon the period in the history of the world, during which the condition of the human race was most calamitous and afflicted, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Theodosius the Great, A. D.

395, to the establishment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The contemporary authors, who beheld that scene of desolation, labour, and are at a loss for expressions to describe the horror of it. *The scourge of God, the destroyer of nations*, are the dreadful epithets by which they distinguish the most noted of the barbarous leaders.

Constantine, who was emperor in the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced Christianity, changed the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople. In consequence of this event, the western and eastern provinces were separated from each other, and governed by different sovereigns, as independent empires. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the East, threw down the western barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders.

Rome, weakened by this division, becomes a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, is effaced, and Odoacer, a Barbarian chieftain, is seated on the throne of the Cæsars. But the immense fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages, and several centuries were employed in demolishing it. The military discipline of the ancient Romans, which was not yet totally forgotten or neglected, might have rendered them superior to their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the universal corruption of manners among the people.

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

From this period, till the 15th century, Europe exhibited a picture of most melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, science, taste, were words scarcely in use during these ages. Persons of the highest rank, and in the most eminent stations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not understand the brevity which they were obliged daily to recite: some of them could scarcely read it. The human mind neglected, uncultivated and depressed, sunk into the most profound ignorance. The superior judgment of Charlemagne, who, in the beginning of the 9th century, governed France and Germany, with part of Italy; and Alfred the Great in England, during the latter part of the same century, endeavoured to dispel this darkness, and gave their subjects a short glimpse of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and institutions. The darkness returned, and even increased; so that a still greater degree of ignorance and barbarism prevailed throughout Europe.

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

The usurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a state of actual servitude. All who were not soldiers, were peasants, fixed to the soil which they cultivated, and together with it were transferred from one proprietor to another, by sale or by conveyance. Every offended baron, or chieftain, huddled on his armour, and sought redress at the head of his vassals. His adversaries met him in like hostile array. The kindred and dependents

dependents

pendents of the aggressor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. In order to create some power that might counterbalance those potent vassals, who, while they enslaved the people, controlled or gave law to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privileges on towns. These privileges abolished all marks of servitude; and the inhabitants of towns were formed into corporations or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magistrates of their own nomination.

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

Various causes contributed to revive this spirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourse between different nations. Constantinople, the capital of the eastern or Greek empire, had escaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew that of the West. It was still a learned and a commercial city; and the crusades,

which were begun by the Christian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Saracens from Jerusalem, having opened a communication between Europe and the East, Constantinople became the general place of rendezvous for the Christian armies, in their way to Palestine, or on their return from thence. Though the object of these expeditions were conquest, and not commerce, and though the issue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent.

Soon after the close of the holy war, the mariners compass was invented, A. D. 1302. which facilitated the communication between remote nations, and brought them nearer to each other. The Italian states, particularly those of Venice and Genoa, began to establish a regular commerce with Egypt, and to draw from thence the rich productions of India. These commodities they disposed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire some taste of elegance, unknown to their predecessors, or despised by them. During the 12th and 13th centuries, the commerce of Europe was almost entirely in the hands of the Italians, more commonly known in these ages by the name of Lombards. Companies, or societies of Lombard merchants settled in every different kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe. One of these companies settled in London; and from hence the name of Lombard-street was derived.

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

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tions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky, but not less useful commodities of the North.

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

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

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

After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the rising power of the Turks, had checked their progress, the Christian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vast riches of the East Indies, inspired their countrymen with a desire of sailing thither. The Portuguese had long been distinguished by their application to maritime affairs; and to their discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, Great Britain is to this day indebted for her Indian commerce.

The first adventurers contented themselves with short voyages, creeping along the coast of Africa, discovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progress southward, Vasco de Gama, in the year 1497, first doubled the extreme cape, which opened a passage by sea to the eastern ocean, and all those countries known by the name of India, China, and Japan.

While the Portuguese were intent upon a passage to India by the east, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of sailing thither by the west. His proposal being condemned by his countrymen as chimerical and absurd, he laid his schemes successively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better success. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only resource, and there, after eight years attendance, he at length succeeded through the interest of queen Isabella. This princefs

was prevailed on to patronise him, by the representations of Juan Perez, guardian of the monastery of Rabida. He was a man of considerable learning, and of some credit with queen Isabella; and being warmly attached to Columbus, from his personal acquaintance with him, and knowledge of his merit, he had entered into an accurate examination of that great man's project, in conjunction with a physician, settled in his neighbourhood, who was eminent for his skill in mathematics. This investigation completely satisfied them of the solidity of the principles on which Columbus founded his opinion. Perez, therefore, so strongly recommended it to queen Isabella, that she entered into the scheme, and even generously offered, to the honour of her sex, to pledge her own jewels, in order to raise as much money as might be required in making preparations for the voyage. But Santangel, another friend and patron of Columbus, immediately engaged to advance the requisite sum, that the queen might not be reduced to the necessity of having recourse to that expedient.

Columbus now set sail the 3d of August, anno 1492, with three ships, upon one of the most adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested. In this voyage he had many difficulties to contend with; and his sailors, who were often discontented, at length began to insist upon his return, threatening, in case of refusal, to throw him overboard: but the firmness of the commander, and the discovery of land, after a passage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found, to his surprise, that this could not be the Indies he was in quest of, but that he had fortunately discovered a new world, of which the reader may see a circumstantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkness into which she had been sunk since the subversion of the Roman empire. Learning awoke from her slumber of near twelve centuries, and the inhabitants of Europe became another people. The art of printing, which spreads with such rapidity from country to country the wisdom and follies of mankind, was invented: artillery and engineering made a rapid progress, and totally changed the operations of war. Every maritime nation fitted out fleets for making discoveries, and the whole world became connected by commerce. The reformation in religion restored liberty to genius; the human mind was released from the shackles of superstition, which had long silenced reason. The arts and sciences began to be cultivated, literature was esteemed; commerce was every day improved, and riches from many distant sources flowed into Europe. But the powers of the human mind are unfolded only by slow degrees. Many prejudices were to be removed, many abuses corrected, and many difficulties surmounted, before the sciences could appear in their genuine lustre. Truth and beauty seem indeed to surround mankind; but they are disregarded till properly displayed. The veil must be withdrawn from the face of nature, before her genuine graces can be discerned. A succession of great geniuses is necessary to explore the hidden paths of true philosophy.

The first studies that engaged mankind at the revival of learning, were languages and history. Memory was the first faculty cultivated; because the most easily satisfied, and the knowledge it procures the most easily attained. Hence proceeded that swarm of scholars, so deeply skilled in the learned languages, as to neglect their own; and who studied every thing in the ancients but their graces. An inventive genius is always dissatisfied with its own province; because it sees much farther than it reaches; and the most penetrating minds often find in themselves a secret rigorous judge; which the approbation of others may silence for a while, but can never totally corrupt. We need not therefore be surprised that these scholars should boast so highly of their slender attainments in a style often ridiculous, and sometimes barbarous.

But this fondness for the ancient, and neglect of the modern languages, did not long continue. The learned were soon convinced that beautiful thoughts lost nothing by being clothed in a living language; and hence they endeavoured to express in their own tongues, what the ancients had delivered in theirs. Thus the imagination of the moderns was gradually kindled up by that of the ancients; and produced all the noble performances in the last and present centuries in eloquence, history, and poetry.

The arts of elegance are so closely connected with polite learning, that a genius for cultivating the one, leads to the improvement of the other. The various works of the ancients were no sooner carefully examined, than judicious artists were struck with those inestimable models, which had escaped the fury of Gothic barbarity. The forms of Grecian sculpture might be imitated, but could not be surpassed. Hence Raphael and Michael Angelo brought the arts of design to a degree of perfection, which has not since been exceeded.

The progress of philosophy was much slower than that of the polite arts. The face of nature is the primary book of philosophers; and from the loss of many ancient works, and the obscurity of those which remained, the moderns were obliged to study it. But ignorance, prejudice, and superstitious bigotry, declared open war with science, whose interests were upheld by a few extraordinary men, thinly scattered over Europe, who transmitted to posterity a light too strong for the feeble eyes of their contemporaries. In this noble undertaking the English had a principal share: at once the champions of liberty and learning. In the profound parts of science they were never surpassed: they demolished the systems which imagination had built on the foundations of sophistry, followed nature through her intricate mazes, and established philosophy on the solid basis of calculation and experiment.

It was in the 15th and 16th centuries that the powers of Europe were formed into one great political system, in which each took a station, wherein it has since remained, with less variation than could have been expected, after the shocks occasioned by so many internal revolutions, and so many foreign wars, of which we have given some account in the history of each particular state in the following work. The great events which happened then, have not hitherto spent their force. The political principles and maxims then established, still continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power then introduced, or rendered general, still influence, in some degree, the councils of European nations.

In the north, this balance has been shaken of late years by the successful ambition of Russia. But it is probable the competition of so many rival powers, will always prevent any one of them from gaining the empire over Europe. Their conquests will be partial and transient; for the more any kingdom is extended, it becomes proportionally 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 of destroying the liberties of his subjects; he may proceed by slow degrees in the execution of it; and if he die before it is completed, his successor may pursue similar steps, and accomplish the fatal design: but external conquests cannot be concealed. Hence the alarms they excite, the confederacies they give occasion to, by which the prince who, by misfortune has been a conqueror, is commonly reduced to the last extremities. This doctrine, however contrary to the prejudices of a powerful and victorious nation, is one of the best established in the science of politics. It is confirmed by examples both ancient and modern. The states of Greece, in particular, delivered from the terror of the Persian invasions, exhibit the same truth in a great variety of lights. Several of those warlike communities imbibed the frenzy of conquest, and each in its turn was reduced by this frenzy to the utmost misery and distress.

trefs\*. The modern examples are so well known, that it is almost unnecessary to mention them. Who does not know that the house of Austria † excited the terror of all Europe, before it excited the pity of Great Britain! Had that family never been the object of fear, the empress-queen would never have become the object of compassion. France affords an example not less striking. The nerves of that kingdom was strained so far beyond their strength, by an ambitious monarch, that it seemed unlikely they should acquire their natural tone in the course of this century. The debility of their efforts in the war of 1756 proved the greatness of the evil, and the inefficacy of any remedy which was not slow and gradual. It is to be hoped, for the interests of civil society, that democratic will prove as unfortunate as monarchic ambition.

Of all the kingdoms of Europe, Great Britain enjoys the greatest prosperity and glory. She ought, therefore, to be the more careful to preserve so brilliant an existence. A great empire is best maintained by extreme political caution, and by moderation even in victory. Some of the wisest men have thought that the conquest of Canada paved the way for the revolution in America, and the evils which followed that memorable event; and which have rebounded with such just violence on the ambitious country that unwarrantably lent its aid towards the dismemberment of the British empire.

## P A R T III.

## OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF RELIGION.

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

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

\* The reader who would see this subject fully illustrated, may look at Isocrates' Oration on the Peace; one of the most finished models of ancient eloquence; and which contains a rich fund of political knowledge.

† Germany, Holland, and all the Low Countries, several states in Italy, the kingdom of Spain, with the vast empires of Mexico and Peru, in South America, were, at the time of the Reformation, governed by Charles V. of the house of Austria: territories rivalling in riches and extent

the most powerful empires of antiquity, but which did not gratify the ambition of that monarch; and his whole reign was a scene of hostility against his neighbours. One of his successors, the late empress-queen, and the representative of that family, was, however, upon the death of her father, not only stripped of her dominions, but reduced so low as to be in want of necessaries; and contributions were actually raised for her in Great Britain, whose king, George II. engaged in her cause, and reinstated her in the imperial throne.

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

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

One thing, however, may be observed, that the polytheism of the ancients seems seldom to have been the fruit of philosophical speculations, or of disguised traditions, concerning the nature of the divinity. It appears to have arisen during the rudest ages of society, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and passion. It was built chiefly upon sentiment: as each tribe of men had their heroes, so likewise they had their gods. Those heroes who led them forth to the combat, who presided in their councils, whose image was engraven on their fancy, whose exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an existence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendship, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot easily conceive; but the power of imagination over the senses is what all men have in some degree experienced. Combine these two causes, and it will not appear strange that the images of departed heroes should have been seen by their companions, animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing, in a word, the same functions which they performed when alive. An appearance so unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil spirits, and who had not learnt to fear any thing but their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity, and the testimony of those who had seen it, supported by the extreme credulity and romantic cast of those who had not, gained an universal assent among all the members of their society. A small degree of perfection would be sufficient to convince them, that, as their own heroes existed after death, the same thing might happen to those of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be established, the propitious and the hostile; the gods who were to be loved, and those who were to be feared. But time which wears off the impressions of tradition, the frequent invasions by which the nations of antiquity were ravaged, desolated, or transplanted, made them lose the names, and confound the characters of those two orders of divinities, and form various systems of religion, which, though warped by a thousand particular circumstances, gave no small indications of their first texture and original materials. In general the gods of the ancients gave abundant proof of human infirmity: they were subject to all the passions of men; they partook even of their partial affections. They did not eat and drink the same substances with men; but they lived on nectar and ambrosia; they had a particular pleasure in smelling the steam of the sacrifices, and they made love with an ardour unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worshipped, naturally resulted from their character. The most enlightened among the Greeks entertained nearly the same notion of gods and religion, with those that are to be met with in the poems of Hesiod and Homer; and Anaxagoras, who flourished B. C. 430 years, was the first Grecian that publicly announced the existence of one Creator and governor of the universe.

It must be observed, however, that the religion of the ancients was not much connected, either with their private behaviour, or with their political arrangements. The greatest part of mankind were then extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods who watched over them; their neighbours, they ima-

gined, also had their's ; and there was room enough in the universe for both to live together in friendship, without disturbing each other.

The introduction of Christianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, and by explaining the service he required of men, produced a total alteration in their religious sentiment and belief. But this is not the place for handling this sublime subject : it is sufficient to observe here, that Christianity made its way among the civilized part of mankind, by the sublimity of its doctrines and precepts ; it required not the aid of human power ; it sustained itself by the truth and wisdom by which it was characterised. But in time it became corrupted by the introduction of worldly maxims, of maxims very inconsistent with the precepts of its divine author, and by the ambition of the clergy.

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

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

## E U R O P E.

**EUROPE**, though the least extensive quarter of the globe, containing according to Zimmermann \* only about 2,627,574 square miles, whereas the habitable parts of the world in the other quarters, are estimated at 36,666,806, is in many respects that which most deserves our attention. There the human mind has made the greatest improvements; and there the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the sciences, both military and civil, have reached the highest perfection. If we except the earliest ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the greatest variety of character, government, and manners and from whence we draw the greatest number of facts and memorials for our entertainment or instruction.

Geography discovers to us two circumstances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a considerable tendency in giving to it this distinguished superiority. First, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and secondly, the great variety of its surface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The great number of mountains, rivers, seas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from each other, is likewise extremely commodious for its inhabitants. These natural boundaries check the progress of conquest or despotism, which has always been so rapid in the extensive plains of Africa and the East: the seas and rivers facilitate the intercourse and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are better calculated to sharpen human industry and invention, than the natural unsolicited luxuriance of more fertile soils. There is no part of Europe so diversified in its surface, so interrupted by natural boundaries or divisions, as Greece; and we have seen that it was there mankind reaped their highest honours in arts and arms. What Greece therefore was with regard to Europe, Europe is with regard to the rest of the globe. The analogy may even be carried farther, and it is necessary to attend to it. As ancient Greece (for we do not speak of Greece as it is at present, under the dominion of Barbarians) was distinguished above the rest of Europe for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its governments; so has Europe in general been remarkable for smaller deviations, at least, from political justice, than have been admitted in other quarters of the world. Though most of the European governments are monarchical, we may discover, on due examination, that there are innumerable springs, which check the force, and soften the rigour of monarchic power. In proportion to the strength of these checks, Russia, Spain, Denmark, Prussia, and other monarchies, vary in their political fabric, till the series ends in Great Britain, the happiest constitution that the history of the world has ever exhibited. Besides *monarchies*, in which one man bears the chief sway, there are in Europe, *aristocracies* or governments of the nobles, and *democracies* or governments of the people. Venice is an example of the former; Holland, and some states of Italy and Switzerland, incline to the latter.

The Christian religion is established throughout every part of Europe, except Turkey; but, from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which speculative opinions are apt to appear, when viewed by persons of

\* See Zimmermann's Political Survey of Europe, p. 5, where the reader will find an account of the geographical square miles contained in Europe, as stated by six of the ablest modern geographers, viz. Busching, Kitchin, Templeman, Bergman, Crome, and Stahl. Ueberlich; of their different accounts the average is exactly the number stated above.

different

different educations and passions, that religion is divided into a number of different sects, but which may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1st, The Greek church; 2d, Popery; and 3d, Protestantism: which last is again divided into Lutheranism and Calvinism, so called from Luther and Calvin, the two distinguished reformers of the 16th century.

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

The greatest part of Europe being situated above the 45th degree of northern latitude, and even its most southern provinces being far distant from the torrid zone, the species of organized bodies are much less numerous in Europe than in the other parts of the globe. Thus, for instance, upon an equal number of square miles, the number of species of quadrupeds in Europe is to the number of them in Asia as 1 to 2½, to that in America as 1 to 2½, and to that in Africa as 1 to 10: and the number of the vegetable species in the other three divisions of the globe, is greatly superior to that in Europe. Of the precious fossils, diamonds and platina are wanting; gold and silver are not abundant; but the commercial and warlike spirit of Europe enriches it with the productions of all parts of the earth.

It will doubtless be agreeable to the inquisitive mind to have at one view in round numbers a comparative estimate of the different states of Europe, both as to the article of revenue, and that of their land and naval forces.

PUBLIC REVENUE of the PRINCIPAL STATES in EUROPE.

1. Great Britain	£. <i>Stm.</i>	11. Sweden	—	1,300,000
2. Austria	—	12. Venice	—	1,000,000
	12,400,000	13. Denmark	—	1,000,000
3. France	—	14. Electorate of Saxony	—	1,100,000
	18,000,000			
4. Spain	—	15. Electorate of Hanover	—	900,000
	5,000,000			
5. Russia	—	16. Joint Elect. of the Palat. and Bavaria	—	1,100,000
	5,800,000			
6. Turkey	—	17. Sardinia	—	1,000,000
	5,000,000			
7. Prussia	—			
	3,600,000			
8. Portugal	—			
	1,800,000			
9. Sicily	—			
	1,400,000 medium			
10. Holland	—			
	4,000,000			

The power of states is not to be estimated merely by their finances, because, in some countries, the value of money is much higher than in others; thus, for instance, the whole Russian army costs the state less than two millions of rubles.

LAND FORCES of the EUROPEAN STATES in the Year 1783.

France	—	—	300,000	Holland	—	—	37,000
Austria	—	—	282,000	Naples and Sicily	—	—	30,000
Russia (450,000 in all) in Europe	—	—	290,000	Electorate of Saxony	—	—	26,000
Prussia	—	—	224,000	Portugal	—	—	20,000
Turkey (210,000 in all) in Europe only	—	—	170,000	Electorate of Bavaria and the Palatinate	—	—	24,000
Spain	—	—	60,000	Hesse Cassel	—	—	15,000
Denmark	—	—	72,000	Hanover	—	—	20,000
Great Britain	—	—	58,000	Poland	—	—	15,000
Sweden	—	—	50,000	Venice	—	—	8,000
Sardinia	—	—	40,000	Wurtemberg	—	—	6,000
				The Ecclesiastical State	—	—	5,000
				Tuscany	—	—	3,000

If we calculate the armies of all the countries in Europe at two millions of men, and suppose 140 millions of inhabitants, no more than  $\frac{1}{70}$  of the whole population are soldiers. The present military establishment of every kingdom, in a time of general peace, differs somewhat from the above statement. Austria and Prussia have by far the most formidable armies: as to Russia, the immense extent of its provinces can never allow an army of more than 120,000, or 130,000 men, to act against an enemy; and as to the Turkish forces, they are at present much inferior to any other well-disciplined army. The different proportions, in different countries, between the population, and the number of soldiers, is not unworthy of observation. There are in Germany nearly 300,000 soldiers, consequently  $\frac{1}{70}$  of the whole population; in Italy, on the contrary, even supposing the standing armies of that country to amount to 120,000 men, this number makes only  $\frac{1}{77}$  of the whole population, which amounts to 16 millions. How then can France expect to maintain  $\frac{1}{70}$  of its people in arms and idleness?

- NAVAL FORCES.

NUMBER OF SHIPS of the LINE, FRIGATES, CUTTERS, SLOOPS, &c.

1. England	—	465		8. Russia	—	61
2. France	—	266		9. Sardinia	—	32
3. Spain	—	150		10. Venice	—	30
4. Holland	—	95		11. Sicily	—	25
5. Sweden	—	85		12. Portugal	—	24
6. Denmark	—	60				
7. Turkey	—	50	} commonly reckoned 60	Total		1325

This table, taken from the lists of 1783, will convey some idea of the respective naval strength of the different powers of Europe. Denmark, Sweden, Sicily, Portugal, having built but a small number of ships, of late years, are capable of maintaining a much larger navy than they now have.

The proportion of the surface of the countries in which the Protestant religion is established, to those in which the Roman Catholic religion prevails, is nearly as 3 to 4: the number of Roman Catholics has been calculated at 90,000,000; the number of Protestants only 24,000,000, which is a proportion of nearly 4 to 1.

Europe is not deformed by those immense deserts which cover great part of Asia, Africa, and America, deserts of many thousand square miles, and which are partly owing to natural and insuperable disadvantages of situation, partly to want of industry. Europe excels in all the arts, and has established innumerable institutions for preserving and propagating useful knowledge. It has at present about 130 universities, and a great variety of literary societies, or academies of sciences, arts, and languages. In consequence of our superiority in knowledge and enterprise, we enjoy all the conveniences of life in a much higher degree than the inhabitants of regions, on which nature has bestowed greater riches. And such is our proficiency in astronomy and navigation, that, having conquered, in a great measure, the dangers of the ocean, the commerce of the Europeans seems to be bounded only by the limits of the globe itself.

The states of Europe, considered with respect to their intrinsic power and influence abroad, may be divided into three classes; France, Great-Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, belong to the first class. Secondary powers are those of Turkey, Spain, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Sardinia: the third class comprehends Portugal, Naples and Sicily, Poland, the joint Electorate of the Palatinate and Bavaria, the Electorate of Saxony, Switzerland, and Venice.

## GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

**T**HIS grand division of the earth is situated between the 10th degree west, and the 64th degree east longitude from London; and between the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the east by Asia; on the south by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America; being three thousand miles long from Cape St. Vincent in the west, to the mouth of the river Oby in the north-east; and 2500 broad from north to south, from the north Cape in Norway to Cape Caya or Metapar in the Morea, the most southern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and states:

Kingdoms.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief City.	Dist. & Bearing from London.	Diff. of Time from London.	Religion.
British Empire.	England	380	London	Miles. . . . .	H. M. . . . .	Calvinists, Luth. &c.
	Scotland	350	Edinburgh	400 N.	0 12 aft.	Calvinists, &c.
	Ireland	285	Dublin	270 N. W.	0 26 aft.	Calvinists and Pap.
	Norway	1000	Bergen	540 N.	0 24 bef.	Lutherans
	Denmark	340	Copenhagen	500 N. E.	0 50 bef.	Lutherans
	Sweden	800	Stockholm	750 N. E.	1 10 bef.	Lutherans
	Russia	1500	Peterburgh	1140 N. E.	2 34 bef.	Greek Church
	Poland	700	Warsaw	760 E.	1 24 bef.	Pap. Luth. and Calv.
	K. Pr. Dom.	600	Berlin	540 E.	0 49 bef.	Luth. and Calv.
	Germany	600	Vienna	620 E.	1 5 bef.	Pap. Luth. and Calv.
Nether-lands.	Bohemia	300	Prague	600 E.	1 4 bef.	Papists
	Holland	150	Amsterdam	180 E.	0 18 bef.	Calvinists
	Flanders	300	Brussels	180 S. E.	0 16 bef.	Papists
	France	600	Paris	200 S. E.	0 9 bef.	Papists
	Spain	700	Madrid	800 S.	0 17 aft.	Papists
	Portugal	300	Lisbon	850 S. W.	0 18 aft.	Papists
	Switzerland	260	Bern, Coire, &c.	420 S. E.	0 28 bef.	Calvin. and Papists.
Italy.	Several small states		Piedmont, Montferrat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Tuscany, &c.			
	Chief cities	Turin, Casal,	Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Florence.			
	Popedom	240	Rome	820 S. E.	0 52 bef.	Papists
	Naples	280	Naples	870 S. E.	1 0 bef.	Papists
Turkey in Europe.	Hungary	300	Buda	780 S. E.	1 17 bef.	Pap. and Protestants
	Danubian Provinces	600	Constantinople	1320 S. E.	1 58 bef.	Mahometans, and Greek Church.
	Lit. Tartary*	380	Precop	1500 E.	2 24 bef.	
	Greece	400	Athens	1560 S. E.	1 37 bef.	

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

D E N M A R K.

Exclusive of the British Isles, before mentioned, Europe contains the following principal islands:

	Islands.	Chief Towns.	Subject to
In the Northern Ocean,	Iceland	Skalholt,	Denmark.
	Zeland, Funen, Alfen, Falster, Langland, Laland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm,	—	Denmark.
Baltic Sea,	Gothland, Aland, Rugen, Ost, Dogbo, Ufedom, Wollin,	—	Sweden.
	Ivica, Majorca, Minorca, Corfica, Sardinia, Sicily,	Ivica, Majorca, Port Mahon, Baffia, Cagliari, Palermo,	Spain, Ditto*, France, King of Sardinia, King of Two Sicilies.
Mediterranean Sea,	Lufena, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia,	—	Venice.
Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice,	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mytelena, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of Ancient and Modern Greece.	—	Turkey.
Archipelago and Levant Seas,			

D E N M A R K.

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

The dimensions of these countries may be seen in the following table:

Denmark.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Denmark Proper,	North Jutland,	9,600	155	98	Wyburg.
	South Jutland, or Sleswick,	2,115	70	63	Sleswick.
Islands at the entrance of the Baltic Sea,	Zeland,	1,935	60	60	COPENHAGEN, { N. Lat. 55—41 E. Long. 12—50
	Funen,	768	38	32	Odensee.
	Falster and Langland,	220	27	14	{ Nikoping. Naakaw.
	Femeren,	50	13	8	Borge.
	Alfen,	54	15	6	Sonderborge.
	Mona,	39	14	5	Stee.
	Bornholm,	160	20	12	Rostcomby.
In the North Seas,	Iceland Island,	46,000	435	185	Skainolt.
	Norway,	71,400	750	170	Bergen.
	Danish Lapland,	28,400	284	172	Wardhuys.
Westphalia,	Oldenburg,	1260	62	32	Oldenburg.
Lower Saxony,	Storwar,	1000	52	32	Gluckstadt.
	Danish Holstein				
	Total	163,041			

\* Minorca was taken from Spain by general Stunhope, 1708, and confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, but was besieged

and taken by the Spaniards, February 15, 1782, and confirmed to them by the definitive treaty of peace, signed at Paris, September 3, 1783.

Exclusive

The reader may perceive, that in the preceding table no calculation is made of the dimensions of East and West Greenland; because they are very imperfectly known: we shall proceed to give the latest accounts of them, from the best authorities.

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

#### EAST GREENLAND,

THE most northerly part of his Danish majesty's dominions; or, as others call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 11 and 25 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. lat. according to Lord Mulgrave's Observations in his voyage towards the North Pole, in 1773. Though it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was discovered by sir Hugh Willoughby in 1553; and is supposed to be a continuation of Old Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen from the height and raggedness of its rocks. Few animals or vegetables are to be found here, and the fish and fowl are said to forsake the coast in winter. The Russians of Archangel have formed, within the last thirty years, settlements for hunting in several places of the island of Spitzbergen. The Aurora Borealis, or northern lights, reflected from the snow, enable them to pursue the chase during the long winter's night that reigns in those gloomy regions, and they take a great number of sealions, which serve them for food. There is a whale-fishery, chiefly prosecuted by the Dutch and British vessels, on its coast. It likewise contains two harbours; one called South Haven, and the other Maurice Bay; the inland parts are uninhabited.

#### WEST GREENLAND

LIES between the meridian of London, and 50 deg. W. long. and between 60 and 76 deg. N. lat.

[INHABITANTS.] By the latest accounts from the missionaries employed for the conversion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not exceed 957 stated inhabitants: Mr. Crantz, however, thinks that the roving southlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great resemblance between the aspect, manners, and dress of those natives, and the Esquimaux Americans, from whom they differ but little, after all the pains which the Danish and German missionaries have taken to convert and civilize them. They are low in stature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality not so tall. The hair of their heads is long, straight, and of a black colour; but they have seldom any beards, because it is their constant practice to root them out. They have high breasts and broad shoulders, especially the women, who are obliged to carry great burdens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can use their hands with skill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers, but are good humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their most agreeable food is the flesh of rein-deer; but that is now scarce among them, and their best provisions are fish, seals, and sea-fowl. Their drink is clear water, which stands in the house in a great copper vessel, or in a wooden tub, which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fish bones and rings, and provided with a pewter ladle or dipping-dish. The men make their hunting and fishing implements, and prepare the wood-work of their boats; and the women cover them with skins. The men hunt and fish, but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themselves no farther

farther about it; accounting it beneath their dignity even to draw the seal upon the shore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and also the carriers to dress the pelts, and make clothes, shoes, and boots, out of them; so that they are likewise both shoemakers and tailors. They also act as masons in building and repairing the houses and tents, the men doing only the carpenters work. They live in huts during their winter, which is incredibly severe; but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the latest and best accounts of this country, says, that in their longest summer days it is so hot, from the long continuance of the sun's rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their summer garments. They have no trade, though they have a most improveable fishery upon their coast; but they employ all the year either in fishing or hunting, in which they are very dexterous, particularly in catching and killing seals.

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

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

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

When they come near the whale, the harpooner strikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart), and the monster, finding himself wounded, runs swiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him if they did not give him line fast enough; and to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the side of it, one wets it constantly with a mop. After the whale has run some hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes a noise with his spouting, which some have compared to the firing of cannon. As soon as he appears on the surface of the water, some of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a second time, they pierce him with spears in the vital parts till he spouts out streams of blood instead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the sea is all in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him some leagues, till he has lost his strength; and when he is dying he turns himself upon his back, and is drawn on shore, or to the ship, if they be at a distance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and by boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if they have conveniences on shore; otherwise they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home: but nothing can smell stronger than these ships do. Every fish is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3l. or 4l. a barrel. Though the Danes claim the country of E. and West Greenland, where these whales are taken, the Dutch have in a manner monopolized this fishery. Of late the English have also been very successful in it.

## ICELAND.

## I C E L A N D

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

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

The number of the inhabitants of Iceland is computed at about 60,000. It was much more populous in former times, when great numbers were destroyed by contagious diseases. The plague carried off many thousands, from 1402 to 1404. Many parts of Iceland have also been depopulated by famines, chiefly occasioned by the Greenland floating ice; which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the grass from growing, and puts an entire stop to their fishing. The small-pox has likewise been very fatal here; for, in the years 1707 and 1708, that disease destroyed 16,000 persons.

The Icelanders in general are middle-sized, and well-made, though not very strong. They are an honest, well-intentioned people, moderately industrious, and very faithful and obliging. Theft is seldom heard of among them. They are much inclined to hospitality, and exercise it as far as their poverty will permit. Their chief employments are fishing, and the care of their cattle. On the coasts the men employ their time in fishing both winter and summer; and the women prepare the fish, and sew and spin. The men also prepare leather, work at several mechanic trades, and some sew work in gold and silver. They likewise manufacture a coarse kind of cloth, which they call *Wadmal*. They have an uncommonly strong attachment to their native country, and think themselves no where else so happy. An Icelander, there, seldom settles in Copenhagen, though the most advantageous conditions should be offered him. Their dispositions are ferocious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never pass a river, or any other dangerous place, without previously taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection; and they are always thankful for their preservation, when they have escaped the danger. When they meet together, their chief pastime consists in reading their history. The master of the house begins, and the rest continue in their turns, when he is tired. They are famous for playing at chess; and one of their pastimes consists in reciting verses. Sometimes a man and woman take one another by the hand, and by turns sing stanzas, which are a kind of dialogue, and in which

the company occasionally join in chorus. The dress of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamental, but it is neat, cleanly, and suited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear several gold, silver, or brass rings. The poorer women dress in the coarse cloth called Wadmál, and always wear black: those who are in better circumstances wear broad cloth, with silver ornaments gilt. In some places their houses are built of drift wood, and in others they are raised of lava, with moss stuffed between the lava. Their roofs are covered with sods laid over rafters, or sometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and more expensive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the earth, between three stones; and the smoke issues from a square hole in the roof. Their food consists of dried fish, sour butter, which they consider as a dainty, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is so scarce among them, that there is hardly any peasant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

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

**LANGUAGE.]** The language in Iceland is the same formerly spoken in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and has been preserved so pure, that many Icelanders understand their most ancient traditional histories.

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

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

John Arefon, bishop of Hoolum, employed John Matthieson, a native of Sweden,

in establishing a printing-press in Iceland, about the year 1530; and the first book printed by him there was the *Breviarium Nidarosense*. He also printed an ecclesiastical Manual, Luther's Catechism, and other books of that kind. The Icelandic code of laws appeared in 1578, and the Icelandic Bible in 1584. A new privileged printing-office has lately been established at Hrappey in this island, where several valuable books have been printed.

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

Amongst the curiosities in Iceland, nothing is more worthy of attention than the hot spouting water springs with which this island abounds. The hot springs at Aix-la-Chapelle, Carlsbad, Bath, and Switzerland, and several others found in Italy, are considered as very remarkable: but except in the last mentioned country, the water no where becomes boiling hot; nor is it any where known to be thrown so high as the hot spouting water-springs in Iceland. All those water-works that have been contrived with so much art, and at so an enormous an expence, cannot by any means be compared with these. The water-works at St. Cloud, which are thought the greatest amongst all the French water-works, cast up a thin column eighty feet into the air: while some springs in Iceland spout columns of water, of several feet in thickness, to the height, as many affirm, of several hundred feet. These springs are of unequal degrees of heat. From some, the water flows gently as from other springs, and it is then called a bath: from others, it spouts boiling water with a great noise, and it is then called a kettle. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Van Troil does not remember ever to have observed it under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geyser, Rœynum, and Laugarvatn, he found it at 212; and in the last place, in the ground, at a little hot current of water, 213 degrees. It is common for some of the spouting-springs to cease, and others to rise up in their stead. Frequent earthquakes, and subterranean noises heard at the time, cause great terror to the people who live in the neighbourhood. In several of these hot springs, the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot into which the flesh is put in cold water, in the water of the spring. They also bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become lukewarm, or are cooled by admixture with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of these springs are said to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk; and it is esteemed very wholesome when drank by the human species.

The largest of all the spouting-springs in Iceland is called Geyser. It is about two days journey from Heckla, and not far from Skalholt. In approaching towards it, a noise is heard, like the rushing of a torrent, precipitating itself from stupendous rocks. The water here spouts several times a day, but always by starts,

starts, and after certain intervals. Some travellers have affirmed that it spouts to the height of sixty fathoms. The water is thrown up much higher at some times than at others: when Dr. Van Troil was there, the utmost height to which it mounted was computed to be 92 feet.

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

Every year great damage is done to this country by immense masses of ice which arrive commonly with a N. W. or N. N. W. wind from Greenland. The field ice is of two or three fathoms thickness, is separated by the winds, and less dreaded than the rock or mountain ice, which is often seen more than fifty feet above water, and is at least nine times the same depth below water. These prodigious masses of ice are frequently left in shoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground, and in that state remain many years undissolved, chilling all the ambient part of the atmosphere for many miles round. When many such lofty and bulky masses of ice are floating together, the wood that is often drifted along between them is so much chafed, and pressed with such violence together, that it takes fire; which circumstance has occasioned fabulous accounts of the ice being in flames. The ice caused so violent a cold in 1753 and 1754, that many horses and sheep were killed by it, and through want of food: horses were observed to feed upon dead cattle, and the sheep to eat of each other's wool. A number of bears arrive yearly with the ice, which commit great ravages, particularly among the sheep. The Icelanders attempt to destroy these intruders as soon as they get sight of them; and sometimes they assemble together, and drive them back to the ice, with which they often float off again. For want of fire arms, they are obliged to make use of spears on these occasions. The government encourages the natives to destroy these animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every bear that is killed. Their skins are also purchased for the king, and are not allowed to be sold to any other person.

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

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

[STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] As Iceland affords no bait for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants rest securely upon his Danish majesty's protection: the revenue he draws from the country amounts to about 30,000 crowns a year.

## THE FARO OR FERRO ISLANDS:

SO called from their lying in a cluster, and the inhabitants ferrying from one island to another. They are about twenty-four in number, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. N. L. and 6 deg. 10 min. W. long, from London. The space of this cluster extends about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the westward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the south-east, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-west. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 4000, add little to the revenues of Denmark.

## N O R W A Y.

Containing 158,400 SQUARE MILES, with less than four Inhabitants to each.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, } THE natural signification of Norway is, the *Nor-*  
AND EXTENT. } *thern-way*. It is bounded on the south by the en-  
trance into the Baltic, called the Seaggerac, or Categate; on the west and north,  
by the northern ocean; and on the east it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge  
of mountains, called at different parts by different names; as Fillefield, Dofre-  
field, Rundfield, and Dourfield. The reader may consult the table of dimensions in Den-  
mark for its extent, which is not, however, well ascertained.

[CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its latitude, and its  
position towards the sea. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and the sea is prac-  
ticable. The eastern parts of Norway are commonly covered with snow; and the  
cold generally prevails from the middle of October, with intense severity, to the  
middle of April; the waters being all the time frozen to a considerable thickness.  
In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, perished  
in the snow, on the mountains which separate Sweden from Norway; and their  
bodies were found in different postures. But even frost and snow have their con-  
veniences, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more  
northerly parts of this country called Finmark, the cold is so intense that they are but  
little known. At Bergen, the longest day consists of about 19 hours, and the short-  
est of about five. In summer, the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by  
the light of the sky; and in the most northerly parts, about midsummer, the sun is  
continually in view. In those parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only  
a faint glimmering of light at noon for about an hour and a half; owing to the re-  
flection of the sun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithstanding, has been so  
kind to the Norwegians, that in the midst of their darkness the sky is so serene,  
and the moon and the aurora borealis so bright, that they can carry on their fishery,  
and work at their several trades in open air.

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

[MOUNTAINS.] Norway contains a chain of unequal mountains running from  
south to north: to pass that of Hardanger, a man must travel about seventy English  
miles; and to pass others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefield is counted the highest moun-  
tain in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which intersect those dreadful precipices,  
and that are passable only by slight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in  
this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expence  
of

of providing, at different stages, houses accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vast chain, other immense mountains present themselves all over Norway; some of them with reservoirs of water on the top, and the whole forming a most surprising landscape. The activity of the natives, in recovering their sheep and goats, when penned up, through a false step, in one of those rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himself to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, sitting on a cross stick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature stands, he fastens it to the same cord, and it is drawn up with himself. The caverns that are to be met with in these mountains, are more wonderful than those, perhaps, in any other part of the world. One of them, called Dolsteen, was, in 1750, visited by two clergymen, who reported, that they proceeded in it till they heard the sea dashing over their heads; that the passage was as wide and high as an ordinary church, the sides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted: that they descended a flight of natural stairs; but when they arrived at another, they durst not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they consumed two candles going and returning.

**FORESTS.]** The chief wealth of Norway lies in its forests, which furnish foreigners with masts, beams, planks, and boards; and serve beside for all domestic uses; particularly the construction of houses, bridges, ships, and for charcoal to the founderies. The timber growing here are fir and pine, elm, ash, yew, benweed, birch, beech, oak, eel or alder, juniper, the aspin-tree, the comol or sloe-tree, hazel, elder, ebony (under the mountains of Kolen), lime or linden tree, and willows. The sums which Norway receives for timber are very considerable; the industry of the inhabitants is greatly assisted by the course of their rivers, and the situation of their lakes; which afford them not only the conveniency of floating down their timber, but of erecting saw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all sawed timber belongs to his Danish majesty, and forms no inconsiderable part of his revenue.

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

**RIVERS AND LAKES.]** The rivers and lakes in this country are well stocked with fish, and navigable for vessels of considerable burden. The most extraordinary circumstance attending the lakes is, that some of them contain floating islands formed by the cohesion of roots of trees and shrubs; and, though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. In the year 1702, the noble family-seat of Borge, near Fredericstادت, suddenly sunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyss a hundred fathom in depth; and its site was instantly filled with water, and formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which 14 people and 200 head of cattle perished, was occasioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

**UNCOMMON QUADRUPEDS, } FOWLS, AND FISHES. }** All the animals that are natives of Denmark are to be found in Norway, with an addition of many more. The wild beasts peculiar to Norway, are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare,

the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the fox, the lynx, the glutton, the leming, the martin, and the beaver. The elk is a tall, ash-coloured animal, its shape partaking at once of the horse and the stag; it is harmless, and in winter, social; and the flesh of it tastes like venison. The hares are small; and are said to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are strong and fagacious; they are remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are in common with the rest of their species in northern countries; nor can we much credit the extraordinary specimens of their sagacity, recorded by the natives. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are shy even of a cow or goat, unless impelled by hunger; the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by some called the goupes, is smaller than a wolf, but as dangerous; they are of the cat kind, and have claws like tygers; they dig under ground, and often undermine sheep-folds, where they make dreadful havoc. The skin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable, as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewise found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs ashore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of. The glutton, otherwise called the erven, or vielfras, resembles a turnspit dog; with a long body, thick legs, sharp claws and teeth; his fur, which is variegated, is so precious, that he is shot with blunt arrows, to preserve the skin unhurt; he is bold, and so ravenous, that it is said he will devour a carcase larger than himself, and unburthens his stomach by squeezing himself between two close-standing trees: when taken, he has been even known to eat stone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its thyness and cleanliness; and its fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the martin and a large brown forest cat, only its head and snout are sharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous. We shall mention the beavers in treating of North America.

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

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

The Scandinavian lakes and seas are astonishingly fruitful in most kinds of fishes that are found on the sea-coasts of Europe. Stock-fish innumerable, which are dried upon the rocks without salting. The haemoren is a species of shark, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three casks of train oil. The tuella-flynder is an excellently large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who had fallen over-board, to keep him from rising. The season for herring-fishing is an-  
nounced

nounced to fishermen by the spouting of water from the whales (of which seven different species are mentioned) in following the herring shoals. The large whale resembles a cod, with small eyes, a dark marbled skin, and white belly: they spout out the water, which they take in by inspiration, through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate land animals, standing upright in the sea. A young whale, when first produced, is about nine or ten feet long; and the female sometimes brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours such an incredible number of small fish, that his belly is often ready to burst; in which case he makes a most tremendous noise from pain. The smaller fish have their revenge; some of them fasten on his back, and incessantly beat him; others, with sharp horns, or rather bones, on their beak, swim under his belly, and sometimes rip it up; some are provided with long sharp teeth, and tear his flesh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war against him when he comes near the surface of the water; and he has been known to be so tortured, that he has beat himself to death on the rocks. The coast of Norway may be said to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable are the shoals that come from under the ice at the north pole, and about the latitude of Iceland divide themselves into three bodies; one of these supply the Western Isles and coasts of Scotland, another directs its course round the eastern part of Great Britain down the Channel, and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torlk-fishes follow them, and feed upon their spawn; and are taken in prodigious numbers in 50 or 60 fathoms water: these, especially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and sold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fishing on the coast of Norway. The sea-devil is about six feet in length, and is so called from its monstrous appearance and voracity. The sea scorpion is likewise of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is said to be poisonous.

The most seemingly fabulous account of the ancients, concerning sea-monsters, are rendered credible by the productions of the Norwegian seas; and the sea-snake, or serpent of the ocean, is no longer counted a chimera. In 1756, one of them was shot by a master of a ship; its head resembled that of a horse; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes, a white mane hanging from its neck: it floated on the surface of the water, and held its head at least two feet out of the sea: between the head and neck were seven or eight folds, which were very thick; and the length of this snake was more than a hundred yards, some say fathoms. They have a remarkable aversion to the smell of castor; for which reason, ship, boat, and bark-masters provide themselves with quantities of that drug to prevent being overfet, the serpent's olfactory nerves being exquisitely sensible. The peculiarities related of this animal are attested upon oath. Egede (a very reputable author) says, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful sea-monster raised itself so high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-mast of the ship; that it had a long sharp snout, broad paws, and spouted water like a whale; that the body seemed to be covered with scales: the skin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a snake. The body of this monster is said to be as thick as a hoghead; the skin is variegated like a tortoise-shell; and his excrement, which floats upon the surface of the water, is corrosive.

The existence of the kraken, or korven, is strongly asserted. Its bulk is said to be a mile and a half in circumference; and when part of it appears above the water, resembles a number of small islands and sand-banks, on which fishes sport, and sea-weeds grow: upon a farther emerging, a number of pellucid antennae, each about the height, form, and size of a moderate mast, appear; and by their  
action

action and reaction he gathers his food, consisting of small fishes. When he sinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous swell of the sea succeeds, and a kind of whirlpool is formed in the water. In 1680, a young kraken perished among the rocks and cliffs of the parish of Alstahong; and his death occasioned such a stench, that the channel was impassible. It is thought that this fish accounts for the phenomena of floating islands, and other transitory appearances in the sea, that had formerly been held fabulous.

The mer-men and mer-women hold their residence in the Norwegian seas. The mer-man is about eight spans long; and, as described, bears nearly as much resemblance as an ape does, to the human species; a high forehead, little eyes, a flat nose, and large mouth, without chin or ears, characterise its head; its arms are short, but without joints or elbows, and they terminate in members resembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane; the parts of generation indicate their sexes; though their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like those of fishes. The females have breasts, at which they suckle their young ones.

**CURIOUSITIES.]** Those of Norway are only natural. On the coast, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex, or whirlpool, called by navigators the navel of the sea, and by some *Malestrom*, or *Moskoesstrom*. The island *Moskoe*, from whence this stream derives its name, lies between the mountain *Hedleggen* in *Lofoden*, and the island *Ver*, which are about one league distant; and between the island and coast on one side, the stream makes its way. Between *Moskoe* and *Lofoden*, it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between *Moskoe* and *Ver* it is so shallow as not to afford passage for a small ship. When it is flood, the stream runs up the country with a boisterous rapidity; and when it is ebb, returns to the sea with a violence and noise unequalled by the loudest cataracts. It is heard at the distance of many leagues, and forms a whirlpool of great depth and extent; so violent that if a ship, comes near, it is immediately drawn irresistibly into the whirl, and there disappears, being carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is dashed to pieces against the rocks; and just at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes still for about a quarter of an hour, it rises again in scattered fragments. When the torrent is agitated by a storm, it has reached vessels at the distance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themselves in perfect security. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a situation of more horror than that of being violently driven forward to an overwhelming vortex, of which the noise and turbulence still increasing as it is approached are an earnest of quick and inevitable destruction. Even whales are frequently carried away; and the moment they feel the force of the water, are said to struggle against it, howling and bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to swim to the island to prey upon the sheep.

It was the opinion of *Kircher*, that the *Malestrom* is a sea vortex, which attracts the flood under the shore of Norway, and discharges it again in the gulph of *Bothnia*: but this opinion is now known to be erroneous, by the return of the shattered fragments of whatever happens to be sucked down by it. The large stems of firs and pines rise again so shivered and splintered, that the pieces look as if covered with bristles. The whole phenomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flow, occasioned by the contraction of the stream in its course between the rocks.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, } The Norwegians exhibit an intermediate  
AND CUSTOMS OF NORWAY. } character, between the simplicity of the  
Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more polished manners of the Danes. Their  
religion is Lutheran; and they have bishops, as those of Denmark, without temporal

poral jurisdiction. The viceroy, like his master, is absolute; but commonly governs without oppression.

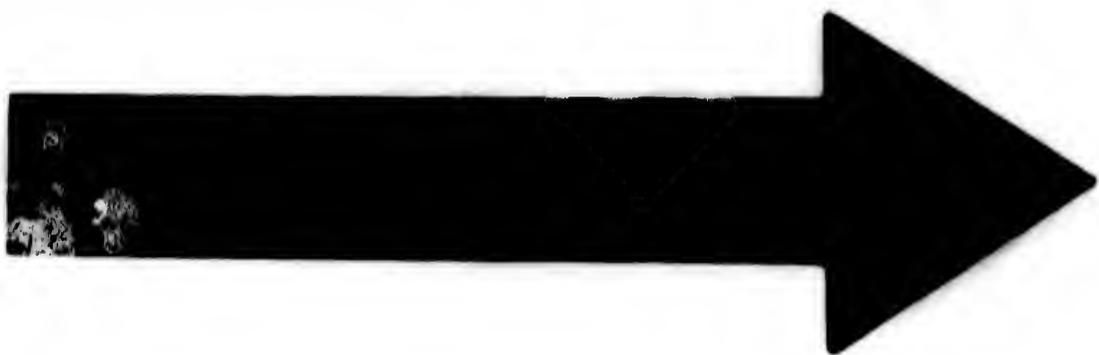
The Norwegians in general are strong, robust, and brave. The women are handsome and courteous; and the Norwegian forms of life much resemble the primitive manners of our own Saxon ancestors. As in other rude countries there is in Norway little discrimination of trades, each family supplying for the most part all its own wants. The poorest class often mix with oat-meal the bark of fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to extraordinary shifts for supplying the place of bread, or farinaceous food. The middling Norwegians lead that kind of life which we may say is furnished with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury; and this middle state prolongs their lives surprisingly. Though their dress is in many respects accommodated to their climate, yet, by custom, instead of guarding against the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expose themselves to cold without any cover over their breasts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age is not counted past his labour; and in 1733, four couples were married, and danced before his Danish majesty at Frederichshall, whose ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years old.

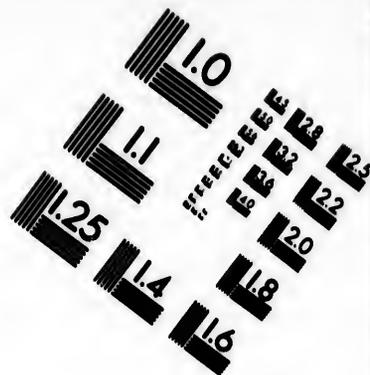
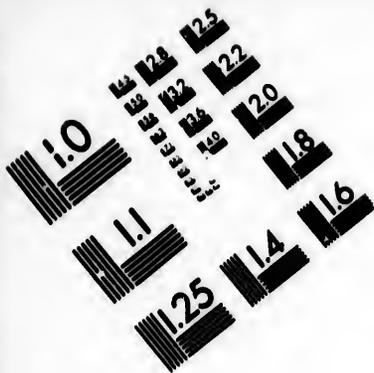
The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain vestiges of their former paganism: they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corps is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In some places the mourners ask the dead person why he died: whether his wife and neighbours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

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

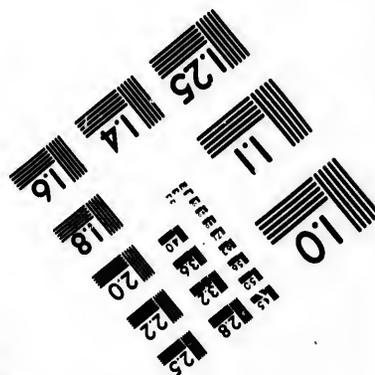
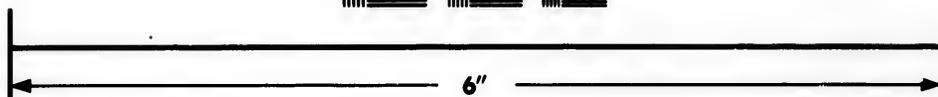
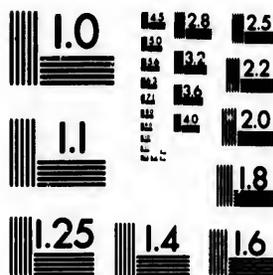
STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] By the best calculations, Norway can furnish out 14,000 excellent seamen, and above 30,000 brave soldiers, for the use of their king. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near 200,000*l.* and till his present majesty's accession, the army, instead of being expensive,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

HISTORY.] We must refer to Denmark for this head. The ancient Norwegians certainly were a powerful people, and the hardiest seamen in the world. If we are to believe their histories, they were no strangers to America long before it was discovered by Columbus. Many Norwegian customs are yet discernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where the Normans made frequent descents, and some settlements, which are generally confounded with those of the Danes. From their being the most turbulent, they are become now the most loyal subjects in Europe; which may be partly accounted for, from the barbarity and tyranny of their ancient kings. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their history, as well as interests, are the same with those of Denmark.





**IMAGE EVALUATION  
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



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

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 240† }	between	} 54 and 53 North latitude. 8 and 11 East longitude.
Breadth 114 }		

Containing 15,744 SQUARE MILES, with 139 Inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. } IT is divided on the north from Norway by the Scaggerac sea, and from Sweden on the east by the Sound; on the south by Germany and the Baltic; and the German sea divides it from Great Britain on the west.

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

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

The greatest part of the lands in Denmark and Holstein are fiefs, and the ancient nobility, by grants which they extorted at different times from the crown, gained such a power over the farmers, and those who resided upon their estates, that at length they reduced them to a state of extreme slavery; so that they were bought and sold with the lands, and were esteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders in Sleswick and Holstein have the power of life and death. The situation of the farmers has been most essentially improved by some late edicts, of which we shall take particular notice. Till very lately, if a farmer in Denmark, or in Holstein, happened to be an industrious man, and was situated upon a poor farm, which by great diligence he laboured to cultivate advantageously, as soon as he performed the toilsome task, and expected to reap the profits

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

† Meaning where longest and broadest, a method which is the practice of other writers on the subject. Great allowances must therefore be

made in most countries, as the reader will perceive by looking on the maps. Jutland, for instance, is 114 miles where broadest, though in sundry other parts it is not so.

of what he had sown, his lord, under pretence of taking it into his own hand, removed him from that farm to another of his poor farms, and expected that he should perform the same laborious task there, without any other emolument than what he shall think proper to give him. This had been so long the practice in this country, that it necessarily threw the greatest damp upon the efforts of industry, and prevented those improvements in agriculture which would otherwise have been introduced: the consequence of which was, that nine parts in ten of the inhabitants were in a state of great poverty. But the farmers now having some security for their property, the lands of Denmark will be cultivated to much greater advantage than they have been lately, and a much greater number of people supported by the produce of agriculture.

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

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

Jutland numbered	358,136		Iceland	46,201
Denmark Iceland	283,466		Duchy of Sleswick	243,605
Funen	143,988		Duchy of Holstein	134,665
Norway	723,141		Oldenburgh	62,854
Islands of Ferro	4,754		Delmenhorst	16,217
			<hr/>	
			Sum Total,	2,501,027

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

However disproportioned this number may seem to the extent of his Danish majesty's dominions; yet, every thing considered, it is greater than could have been expected from the uncultivated state of his possessions. But the trade of Denmark hath been so shackled, and her merchants so terrified by the despotism of her government, that this kingdom is at present one of the most indigent states in Europe. The empress of Russia, in 1773, ceded to the king of Denmark that portion of Holstein which descended to the line of Holstein Gottorp, in exchange for Oldenburgh and Delmenhorst, which she gave to the prince of Lubeck. This exchange is favourable to Denmark, both as to trade and population.

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

**RELIGION.]** The religion is Lutheran; and the kingdom is divided into six dioceses; one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland; besides four in Norway.

way; and two in Iceland. These dioceses are governed by bishops, whose duty it is to superintend the other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre-eminence than a distinction of their ecclesiastical dress, for they have neither cathedral nor ecclesiastical courts, nor the smallest concern with civil affairs. They are paid by the state, the church lands having been appropriated to the government at the Reformation.

[LANGUAGE AND LEARNING.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are spoken at court; and the nobility have lately made great advances in the English, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen. A company of English comedians occasionally visit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement. Denmark has two universities, that of Copenhagen, and that of Kiel; two academical colleges at Soroe and Odensee, and thirty-two other great schools in the principal towns. There is at Copenhagen a royal society of sciences, an historical society for the study of northern history, another of Icelandic history and literature, an academy for painting and architecture, a college of physicians and surgeons, and another society of sciences at Drontheim\*.

The university of Copenhagen has funds for the gratuitous support of 328 students; these funds are said to amount to 300,000 rix-dollars; but the Danes in general make no great figure in literature; though astronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brahe, Borchius, and the Bartholines; the science of botany owes much to the celebrated Christian Oeder, to whom, through the liberality of his monarch, we are indebted for the *Flora Danica*. In speaking of the publications on natural history, it would be unpardonable to omit mentioning the most splendid work of the kind ever produced in any nation; it is a collection of rare shells, in two volumes folio, engraved and coloured by Francis Michael Regenfus, at the royal expence. "The first volume, which is the only one I have seen, contains a short account of the collections of natural history, and particularly of shells in Denmark; a preliminary discourse on conchology, with a detail of the several authors who have written on the subject, and their different systems, and 78 complete and delicately coloured figures, in 12 plates, accompanied with scientific descriptions in the Latin, French, and German languages†." The round tower and Christian's haven display the mechanical genius of a Longomontanus: the Danes begin to make some promising attempts in history, poetry, and the drama; and several of their learned men have lately employed their researches on the history and antiquities of the North.

[CITIES AND CHIEF BUILDINGS.] Copenhagen, which is now situated on the fine island of Zealand, was originally a settlement of sailors, and first founded by some wandering fishermen in the twelfth century, but it is now the metropolis, and makes a magnificent appearance at a distance. It is very strong, and defended by four castles or forts. It contains ten parish churches, besides nine others, belonging to the Calvinists and other persuasions, and some hospitals. Copenhagen is adorned by some public and private palaces, as they are called. Its streets are 186 in number; and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houses in the principal streets are built of brick, and those in the lanes chiefly of timber. But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which admits of only one ship to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the streets have canals, and quays for ships to lie close to the houses; and its naval arsenal is said to exceed that of Venice. The road for the shipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon, as well as the difficulty of the navigation. The police of Copenhagen

\* Zimmerman, p. 78.

† Cox's Travels into Poland, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, 4to. vol. 2. p. 566, 568.

is extremely regular, and people may walk through the city at midnight with great safety. Indeed, it is usually as quiet here at eleven o'clock at night as in a country village.

It is with much concern we hear, that on the 16th of February, 1794, a dreadful fire broke out in the royal palace of Christianburg, which, in the space of seven or eight hours, reduced the whole to a heap of ashes. The royal family have happily escaped without accident; but the greater part of their valuable effects have been a prey to the flames. This palace, one of the most commodious, and most sumptuously furnished in Europe, was built in the reign of Christian VI. and is said to have cost, in building only, considerably above a million sterling; and probably the whole loss may amount to two millions. It is some consolation, in so great a disaster, that the royal library, consisting of between two and three hundred thousand volumes, which stood detached from the principal pile, had been fortunately saved. The finest palace belonging to his Danish majesty lies about 20 English miles from Copenhagen, and is called Fredericsholm. It is a very large building, moated round with a triple ditch, and calculated, like most of the ancient residences of princes, for defence against an enemy. It was built by Christian the IVth. and, according to the architecture of the times, blends the Greek and Gothic styles. In the front of the grand quadrangle appear Tuscan and Doric pillars, and on the summit of the building are spires and turrets. Some of the rooms are very splendid, though furnished in the antique taste. The knight's hall is of great length. The tapestry represents the wars of Denmark, and the ceiling is a most minute and laboured performance in sculpture. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of silver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed here, and even besieged the capital, tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithstanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. About two miles from Elsinour is another small royal palace, flat roofed, with 12 windows in front, said to be built on the place formerly occupied by the palace of Humlet's father. In an adjoining garden is shown the very spot where, according to that tradition, that prince was poisoned.

Jagersburg is a park which contains a royal country seat, called the Hermitage, remarkable for the disposition of its apartments, and the quaintness of its furniture; particularly a machine which conveys the dishes to and from the king's table in the second story. The chief ecclesiastical building in Denmark is the cathedral of Roskilde, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments still remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered passage, is a royal palace, built in 1733.

Elsinour is well built, contains 5000 inhabitants, and, with respect to commerce, is only exceeded by Copenhagen. It is strongly fortified on the land-side; and towards the sea is defended by a strong fort, containing several batteries of long cannon. Here all vessels pay a toll, and in passing lower their top-sails.

COMMERCE.] Denmark is extremely well situated for commerce; her harbours are well calculated for the reception of ships of all burthens, and her mariners are very expert in the navigation of the different parts of the ocean. The dominions of his Danish majesty also supply a great variety of timber, and other materials for ship-building; and some of his provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. Among these, besides fir, and other timber, are black cattle, horses, butter, stock-fish, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron, which being the natural product of the Danish dominions, are consequently ranked under the head of exports. To these we may add furs; but exportation of oats are now forbidden. The imports are salt, wine, brandy, and silk, from France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had a great intercourse with England, from whence they im-

port broad-cloths, cloaks, cabinet, lock-work, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England.

Nothing shews the commercial spirit of the Danes in a more favourable light than their establishments in the East and West Indies. In 1612 Christian IV. of Denmark established an East India Company at Copenhagen; and soon after four ships sailed from thence to the East Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Danish majesty by James I. of England, who married a princess of Denmark; and in 1617 the Danes built and fortified a castle and town at Tranquebar, on the coast of Coromandel. The security which many of the Indians found under the cannon of this fort invited numbers of them to settle here; so that the Danish East-India Company were soon rich enough to pay to their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. The company, however, willing to become rich all of a sudden, in 1620 endeavoured to possess themselves of the spice trade at Ceylon; but were defeated by the Portuguese. The truth is, they soon embroiled themselves with the native Indians on all hands; and had it not been for the generous assistance given them by Mr. Pitt, an English East-India governor, the settlements at Tranquebar must have been taken by the rajah of Tanjour. Upon the close of the wars in Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Danish East-India Company found themselves so much in debt, that they published proposals for a new subscription for enlarging their ancient capital stock, and for sitting out ships to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. Two years after, his Danish majesty granted a new charter to his East-India company, with vast privileges; and for some time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. I shall just mention, that the Danes likewise possess the islands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the small island of St. John, in the West Indies, which are free ports, and celebrated for smuggling; also the fort of Christianburg, on the coast of Guinea; and carry on a considerable commerce with the Mediterranean.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark Proper affords fewer of these than the other parts of his Danish majesty's dominions, if we except the contents of the royal Museum at Copenhagen, which consists of a numerous collection of both. It contains several good paintings and a fine collection of Roman and other coins. Besides artificial skeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Danish artist who was blind, here are to be seen two famous antique drinking vessels; the one of gold, the other of silver, both in the form of a hunting horn: that of gold seems to be of Pagan manufacture; and from the raised hieroglyphical figures on its outside, probably was made use of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two English pints and a half, and was found in the diocese of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of silver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; which, they say, was presented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a ghost. Some, however, are of opinion, that this vessel was made by order of Christian I. king of Denmark, the first of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. Several vessels of different metals, and the same form, have been found in the North of England, and are probably of Danish original. This museum is likewise furnished with a prodigious number of astronomical, optical, and mathematical instruments; some Indian curiosities, and a set of medals, ancient and modern. Many curious astronomical instruments are likewise placed in the round tower at Copenhagen, which is so contrived that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Elensburg and Sleswick, is also esteemed a curiosity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great Britain.

The greatest rarities in his Danish majesty's dominions are omitted, however, by geographers; I mean those ancient inscriptions upon rocks, generally thought to be

he the old and original manner of writing, before the use of paper of any kind, or waxen tables, were known. These characters are Runic, and so imperfectly understood by the learned themselves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be historical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo-Grammaticus, has exhibited specimens of several of those inscriptions.

[CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS.] The ancient constitution of Denmark was originally upon the same plan with other Gothic governments. The king came to the throne by election; and, in conjunction with the senate where he presided, was invested with the executive power. He likewise commanded the army, and decided disputes among his subjects. The legislative power, together with the right of election of the king, was vested in the states; who were composed, first, of the order of nobility, and secondly, the order of the citizens and farmers: and after the Christian religion had gained ground in the North, the clergy were also admitted, not only to be an order of the states, but to have seats likewise in the senate. These orders had their respective rights and privileges, the crown had also its prerogatives, and a certain fixed revenue arising out of lands, which were appropriated to its support. This constitution had many evident advantages: but, unfortunately, its balance was never properly adjusted; so that the nobles very soon assumed a dictatorial power, and greatly oppressed the people, as the national assemblies were not regularly held to redress their grievances. And when the Roman Catholic clergy came to have a share in the civil government, they far surpassed the nobility in pride and ambition. The representatives of the people had neither power, credit, nor talents, to counteract the efforts of the other two orders, who forced the crown to give up its prerogatives, and to tyrannize over the people. Christian the Second, by endeavouring, in an imprudent manner, to stem the torrent of their oppression, lost his crown and his liberty; but Christian the Third, uniting with the nobles and the senate, destroyed the power of the clergy; and in the reign of Frederick the Third, the people, instead of exerting themselves to maintain their common liberties, were so insatuated as to make the king despotic, in hopes of rendering themselves less subject to the tyranny of the nobles. A series of unsuccessful wars had brought the nation in general into so miserable a condition, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The dispute came to a short question, which was, that the nobles should submit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people, upon this, threw their eyes towards the king for relief. In a meeting of the states, it was proposed that the nobles should bear their share in the common burden. Upon this, Otta Craeg reminded the people that the commons were no more *slaves* to the lords. This was the watch-word, which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itself. Nanson, speaker of the commons, exclaimed at the term *Slavery*; the assembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a house of their own, where they resolved to make the king a solemn tender of their liberties and services, and formally to establish in his family the hereditary succession to their crown. This resolution was executed the next day. The king accepted of their tender, promising them protection. The gates of Copenhagen were shut; and the nobility, thus surpris'd, were compelled to reluctant submission.

On the 18th of October, 1660, the three orders of nobility, clergy, and people, signed each a separate act; by which they consented that the crown should be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and by which they invested the king with absolute power, and gave him the right to regulate the succession and the regency, in case of a minority. This renunciation of their rights, subscribed by the first nobility, is still preserved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family.

After

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark divested the nobility of many of their privileges; but he took no method to relieve those poor people who had been the instruments of investing him with the sovereign power, but left them in the same state of slavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the present age. The supreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway is holden in the royal palace at Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal president. What they call the German provinces have likewise their supreme tribunal; which, for the duchy of Holstein, is holden at Gluckstadt; and for the duchy of Sleswick, in the town of that name.

As to matters of importance, the king for the most part decides in his council, the members of which are named and displaced at his will. It is in this council, that the laws are enacted; and that any great changes or establishments are proposed, approved, or rejected. It is here likewise, or in the cabinet, that the king grants privileges, and decides upon other matters of state.

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

There are many excellent regulations for the administration of justice in Denmark; but it is so far from being distributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can scarcely ever have justice against the nobility, or one who is favoured by the court. If the laws are so clearly in favour of the former, that the judges are ashamed to decide against them, the latter, through the favour of the minister, obtains an order from the king to stop all the law-proceedings, or a dispensation from observing particular laws; and there the matter ends. The code of laws at present established in Denmark was published by Christian V. founded upon the code of Valdenar, and the other codes afterwards published, and is nearly the same with that published in Norway. These laws are very just and clear; and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial consequences to the people. But as the king can alter the laws, and support his ministers and favourites in any acts of violence and injustice, the people have abundant reason to regret the tameness and servility with which their liberties were in 1660, surrendered into the hands of their monarchs. From that period, the peasants, till 1787, had been in a situation little better than the brute creation; they scarce could be said to possess any loco-motive power, inasmuch that they had no liberty to leave one estate, and to settle on another, without the purchased permission from their masters; and if they chanced to move without their permission, they were claimed as strayed cattle. Such was the state of those wretched beings, who, at best, only might be said to vegetate. These chains of feudal slavery were then broken, through the interest of his royal highness, the prince, and heir apparent to the crown; and the prisoners, for such I think they might be called, were declared free. Notwithstanding the remonstrances which were made against this by the landed gentry were very numerous, yet, after the minute examination of the whole, an edict was issued, which restores the peasants to their long lost liberty, which once contributed so much to the glory of the state; and many heavy grievances, under which the peasantry laboured, were abolished.

**PUNISHMENTS.]** The common method of execution in Denmark is by beheading or hanging; in some cases, as an aggravation of the punishment, the hand is

chopped off before the other part of the sentence is executed. For the most atrocious crimes, such as the murder of a father or mother, husband or wife, and robbery upon the highway, the malefactor is broken upon the wheel. But capital punishments are not common in Denmark: and the other principal modes of punishments are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the rasp-house, to houses of correction, and to public labour and imprisonment; all which are varied in duration and rigour, according to the nature of the crime.

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

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

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

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

the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majesty George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the same rates as are paid by the subjects of Great Britain and the Netherlands. The first treaty relative to it was by the Emperor Charles V. on behalf of his subjects in the Low Countries. The toll is paid at Elleneur, a town situated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic sea, and about 20 miles distant from Copenhagen. The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elleneur, amounts at present to above 5,000,000 of rix dollars, or 1,002,000 sterling yearly.

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

	Rix-dollars at 4s. each.
Tribute of hard corn, or land-tax, - - -	1,000,000
Small taxes, including poll-tax, pound rents, excise, &c. - -	950,000
Custom-house duties, - - - - -	154,000
Duties of the Sound, - - - - -	200,000
Duties of Jutland, from salt-pits, - - - - -	27,000
Tythes and poll-tax of Norway, - - - - -	770,000
Tolls of Bergen, Drontheim, Christiansand, and Christiansa, - -	160,000
Other tolls, - - - - -	552,000
Revenues from mines, - - - - -	300,000
Revenue from Sleswick, Holstein, Oldenburgh, and Delmenhorst, -	690,000
Taxes on acorns, and masts from beech, - - - - -	20,000
Tolls on the Weter, - - - - -	75,000
Post-office, - - - - -	70,000
Farms of Iceland and Ferro, - - - - -	35,000
Farms of Bornholm, - - - - -	14,800
Oyster Fishery, - - - - -	22,000
Stamp Paper - - - - -	40,000
<b>Sum total</b>	<b>5,012,300</b>

In English money, 1,002,460

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

ARMY AND NAVY.] The three last kings of Denmark, notwithstanding the degeneracy of their people in martial affairs, rendered themselves respectable, by the number and discipline of their troops. The present military force of Denmark consists of near 70,000 men, cavalry and infantry, the greatest part of which consists of a militia, who receive no pay, but are registered on the army list, and every Sunday exercised. The regular troops are about 20,000, and mostly foreigners, or officered by foreigners; for Frederic III. was too refined a politician to trust his security in the hands of those he had tricked out of their liberty. Though this army is extremely burdensome to the nation, yet it costs little to the crown: great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter; and in Denmark the peasantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furnish them with money. The fleet of Denmark is composed of 36 ships of the line, and 18 frigates; but many of them being old, and wanting great repairs, they cannot fit out more than 25 ships upon the greatest emergency. This fleet is generally stationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, store-houses, and all the materials necessary for the use of the marine. They have 26,000 registered seamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave, nor serve on board a merchantman without permission from the admiralty: 4000 of these are kept in constant pay, and employed in the dock-yards; their pay, however, scarcely amounts to nine shillings a month, but then they

they have a sort of uniform, with some provisions and lodgings allowed for themselves and families.

**ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN DENMARK.]** These are two; that of the *Elephant*, and of *Daneburg*: the former was instituted by Christian I. and is deemed the most honourable; its badge is an elephant surmounted with a castle, set in diamonds, and suspended to a sky-coloured watered ribband; worn like the George in England; its members, besides the sovereign, are thirty, and the knights of it are addressed by the title of Excellency. The badges of the Daneburg order, said to have been instituted in the year 1219, and after it had been long obsolete, revived in 1671, by Christian V. consist of a white ribband with red edges, worn scarf-ways over the left shoulder; from which depends a small cross of diamonds, and an embroidered star on the breast of the coat, surrounded with the motto, *pacato & iustitia*. The badge of which is a cross pattée enamelled white, on the centre the letter C and S, crowned with a regal crown, and this motto, *Resistitur*. The number of the knights is great, and unlimited.

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

Even the name of the first christian Danish king is uncertain; and those of the people whom they commanded were so blended, that it is impossible for the reader to conceive a precise idea of the old Scandinavian history. This, undoubtedly, was owing to the remains of their Scythian customs, particularly that of removing from one country to another; and of several nations or septs joining together in expeditions by sea or land; and the adventurers being denominated after their chief leaders.

Thus the terms Danes, Saxons, Jutes or Goths, Germans, and Normans, were promiscuously used long after the time of Charlemagne. Even the short revival of literature, under that prince, throws very little light upon the Danish history. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers, rude, fierce, and martial: that so far back as the year of Christ 500, they insulted all the sea-coasts of Europe; that they settled in Ireland, where they built stone houses; and that they became masters of England, and some part of Scotland; both which kingdoms still retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the history of Denmark and that of England under the Danish princes who reigned over both, we find events recorded very differently in the two kingdoms.

\* By Scythia may be understood all those northern countries of Europe and Asia, now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Russians, and Tartars, whose inhabitants overturned and peopled the Roman empire, and continued, so late as the 13th century, to issue forth in large bodies, and

naval expeditions, ravaging the more southern and fertile kingdoms of Europe; hence by sir William Temple, and other historians, they are termed the *Northern Hive, the Mark of Nations, the Storchoufs of Europe.*

In the eleventh century, under Canute the Great, Denmark may be said to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give sanction to the expression. Few interesting events preceded the year 1385, when Margaret mounted that throne; and partly by her address, and partly by hereditary right, formed the union of Calmar, anno 1397, by which she was acknowledged sovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with such firmness and courage, that she was styled the Semiramis of the North. Her successors being destitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one sovereign, was dissolved, Norway continuing annexed to Denmark. In 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Christian, count of Oldenburg, from whom the present royal family of Denmark is descended.

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

Christian IV. of Denmark, in 1629, was chosen for the head of the protestant league, formed against the house of Austria; but, though brave in his own person, was in danger of losing his dominions; when he was succeeded in that command by Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Christian, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his son, Frederic III. consented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch, after this, persuaded him to declare war against Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, which had almost cost him his crown in 1657. Charles stormed the fortrefs of Fredrichstadt; and in the succeeding winter marched his army over the ice to the island of Funen, where he surpris'd the Danish troops, took Odensee and Nyburg, and marched over the Great Belt to besiege Copenhagen. Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interposed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roschild; by which he ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Scania, the island of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic fought to elude those severe terms; but Charles took Cronenburgh, and once more besieged Copenhagen by sea and land. The steady intrepid conduct of Frederic, under these misfortunes, endeared him to his subjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and beat the Swedes. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic, who shewed on every occasion great abilities, both civil and military; and having forced Charles to raise the siege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the English fleet under Montague appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to besiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded, by which the island of Bornholm returned to the Danes; but the island of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not restore to Denmark all she had lost, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic, under the most imminent dangers, and his attention to the safety of his subjects, even preferably to his own, greatly endeared him in their eyes; and he at length became absolute, in the manner already related. Frederic was succeeded in 1670, by his son Christian V. who obliged the duke of Holstein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roschild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen; but his army was

defeated

defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. Christian obstinately continued the war, till he was defeated at the battle of Landferoon: and having almost exhausted his dominions in military operations, and being abandoned by all his allies, he was forced to sign a treaty, on the terms prescribed by France, in 1679. Christian afterwards became the ally and subsidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains; and, after a variety of treating and fighting with the Holsteiners, Hamburgers, and other northern powers, died in 1699. He was succeeded by Frederic IV. who, like his predecessors, maintained his pretensions upon Holstein; and probably must have become master of that Duchy, had not the English and Dutch fleets raised the siege of Tonning, while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was then no more than sixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to assist his brother-in-law the duke of Holstein. Charles probably would have made himself master of Copenhagen, had not his Danish majesty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty concluded with the States General, Charles obliged himself to furnish a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and afterwards did great service against the French in the wars of Queen Anne.

Notwithstanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes, and while Charles XII. was an exile at Bender, he made a descent upon the Swedish Pomerania; and another, in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadesbuck, who laid his favourite city of Altona in ashes. Frederic revenged himself, by seizing great part of the ducal Holstein, and forcing the Swedish general, count Steinbock, to surrender himself prisoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the successes of Frederic were so great, by taking Tonningen and Stralsund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wismar in Pomerania, that his allies began to suspect he was aiming at the sovereignty of all Scandinavia. Charles of Sweden, returning from his exile, renewed the war against Denmark with a most imbibtered spirit; but on the death of that prince, who was killed at the siege of Fredericshall, Frederic durst not refuse the offer of his Britannic majesty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden; in consequence of which, a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in possession of the duchy of Sleswick. Frederic died in the year 1730, after having, two years before, seen his capital reduced to ashes by an accidental fire. His son, Christian Frederic, or Christian VI. made the best use of his power, and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, by cultivating peace with all his neighbours, and promoting the happiness of his subjects, whom he eased of many oppressive taxes.

In 1734, after guarantying the Pragmatic sanction\*, Christian sent 6000 men to the assistance of the emperor, during the dispute of the succession to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, especially over Hamburg. He obliged the Hamburgers to call in the mediation of Prussia, to abolish their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of silver marks. He had, in 1738, a dispute with his Britannic majesty about the little lordship of Steinhort, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holstein Lawenburg, and which Christian said belonged to him. Some blood was spilt during the contest; in which Christian, it is thought, never was in earnest. It brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himself of his Britannic majesty's predilection for his German dominions, who agreed to pay

\* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to maintain the succession of the House of Austria in the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male issue.

Christian a subsidy of 70,000l. sterling a year, on condition of keeping in readiness 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover. Two years after, he seized some Dutch ships, for trading without his leave to Iceland; but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Christian had so great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his son to be declared successor to his then Swedish majesty. Some steps for that purpose were certainly taken; but whatever Christian's views might have been, the design was frustrated by the jealousy of other powers. Christian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people. His son and successor, Frederic V. in 1743, married the princess Louisa, daughter to his Britannic majesty George II. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happiness of his people; but took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. It was by his intervention that the treaty of Closter-seven was concluded between the late duke of Cumberland and the French general Richlieu. Upon the death of his first queen, who was mother to his present Danish majesty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunwic-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766.

His son, Christian VII. was born the 29th of January 1749; and married his present Britannic majesty's youngest sister, the princess Carolina-Matilda. This alliance, though it wore at first a very promising appearance, had a very unfortunate termination. This is partly attributed to the intrigues of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the present king, who has a son named Frederic, and whom she is represented as desirous of raising to the throne. When the princess-Carolina-Matilda came to Copenhagen, she received her with all the appearance of friendship and affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults, and at the same time telling her, that she would take every opportunity, as a mother, to assist her in reclaiming him. By this conduct, she became the depositary of all the young queen's secrets, whilst at the same time, it is said, she placed people about the king, to keep him constantly engaged in all kinds of riot or debauchery, to which she knew he was naturally too much inclined; and at length it was so ordered, that a mistress was thrown in the king's way, whom he was persuaded to keep in his palace. When the king was upon his travels, the queen-dowager used frequently to visit the young queen Matilda; and, under the mask of friendship and affection, told her of the excesses which the king had fallen into in Holland, England, and France, and often persuaded her not to live with him. But as soon as the king returned, the queen gently reproaching him with his conduct, his mother-in-law endeavoured to persuade the king to give no ear to her counsels, as it was presumption in a queen of Denmark to direct the king. Queen Matilda now began to discover the designs of the queen-dowager, and afterwards lived upon good terms with the king, who for a time was much reclaimed. The young queen also now assumed to herself the part which the queen-dowager had been complimented with in the management of public affairs. This stung the old queen; and her thoughts were now entirely occupied with schemes of revenge. But her views of this kind at first appeared the more difficult to carry into execution, because the king had displaced several of her friends who were about the court, who had been increasing the national debt in times of the most profound peace, and who were rioting on the spoils of the public. However, she at length found means to gratify her revenge in a very ample manner. About the end of the year 1770, it was observed that Brandt and Struensee were particularly regarded by the king; the former as a favourite, and the latter as minister, and that they paid great court to queen Matilda, and were supported by her. This opened a new scene of intrigue at Copenhagen; all the discarded placemen paid their court to the queen-dowager, and she became the head of the party. Old count Molke, an artful displaced statesman, and others, who were well versed in in-

trigues

trigues of this nature, perceiving that they had unexperienced young persons to contend with, who, though they might mean well, had not sufficient knowledge and capacity to conduct the public affairs, very soon predicted their ruin. Struensee and Brandt wanted to make a reform in the administration of the public affairs at once, which should have been the work of time; and thereby made a great number of enemies among those whose interest it was that things should continue upon the ancient footing. After this, queen Matilda was delivered of a daughter; but as soon as the queen-dowager saw her, she immediately turned back, and, with a malicious smile, declared that the child had all the features of Struensee: on which her friends published it among the people, that the queen must have had an intrigue with Struensee; which was corroborated by the queen's behaviour to this minister in public, and by the libertinism of his principles and character.

Many councils were held between the queen-dowager and her friends upon the proper measures to be taken for effectuating their designs: and it was at length resolved to surprize the king, in the middle of the night, and force him immediately to sign an order, which was to be prepared in readiness, for committing the persons before mentioned to separate prisons, to accuse them of high treason in general, and in particular of a design to poison or dethrone the king; and if that could not be properly supported, by torture or otherwise, to procure witnesses to confirm the report of a criminal commerce between the queen and Struensee. This was an undertaking of so hazardous a nature, that the wary count Molke and most of the queen dowager's friends excused themselves from taking any active part in it. However, the queen dowager at last procured a sufficient number of instruments for the execution of her designs. On the 16th of January, 1772, a masked ball was given at the court at Denmark. The king had danced at this ball, and afterwards played at quadrille with general Gahler, his lady, and counsellor Struensee, brother to the count. The queen, after dancing as usual one country dance with the king, gave her hand to count Struensee during the remainder of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. About four the same morning, prince Frederic who had also been at the ball, went with the queen dowager to the king's bed-chamber, accompanied by general Eichstedt and count Rantzau. They ordered his majesty's valet-de-chambre to awake him, and in the midst of the surprize that this intrusion excited, they informed him, that queen Matilda and the two Struensees were at that instant busy in drawing up an act of renunciation of the crown, which they would immediately compel him to sign: and that the only means to prevent so imminent a danger, was to sign the orders which they had brought with them for arresting the queen and her accomplices. It is said that the king was not easily prevailed upon to sign these orders, but at length complied. Count Rantzau, and three officers, hastened at that untimely hour to the queen's apartments, and immediately arrested her. She was put into one of the king's coaches, conveyed to the castle of Cronenburgh, together with the infant princess, attended by lady Mostyn, and escorted by a party of dragoons. In the mean time, Struensee and Brandt were also seized in their beds, and imprisoned in the cathedral. Struensee's brother, and most of the members of the late administration, were seized the same night, to the number of about eighteen, and thrown into confinement. The government after this seemed to be entirely lodged in the hands of the queen-dowager and her son; assisted by those who had the principal share in the revolution; while the king appeared to be little more than a pageant of state. All the officers concerned in the revolution were immediately promoted, and an almost total change took place in the departments of administration. A new council was appointed, in which prince Frederic presided, and a commission of eight members, to examine the papers of the

the prisoners, and to commence a process against them. The son of queen Matilda, the prince royal, now entered into the fifth year of his age, was put into the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governess, under the superintendancy of the queen-dowager. Struensee and Brandt were put in irons, and very rigorously treated in prison; they both underwent frequent examinations, and at length received sentence of death. They were beheaded on the 28th of April, having their right hands previously cut off. Struensee at first absolutely denied having any criminal intercourse with the queen; but this he afterwards confessed: and though he is said to have been induced to do this only by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt were esteemed notorious, and his confessions full and explicit.

During the confinement of queen Matilda in the palace of Cronenburgh, she inhabited the governor's apartment, and had permission to walk upon the side-batteries, or upon the leads of the tower. She was uncertain of the fate that awaited her; and had great reason to apprehend, that the party which had occasioned her arrest meditated still more violent measures. When the English minister at Copenhagen brought an order for her enlargement, which he had obtained by his spirited conduct, she was so surprized with the unexpected intelligence, that she instantly burst into a flood of tears, embraced him in a transport of joy, and called him her deliverer. After a short conference, the minister proposed that her majesty should immediately embark on board of a ship that was waiting to carry her from a kingdom in which she had experienced such a train of misfortunes. But however anxious she was to depart, one circumstance checked the excess of her joy: a few months before her imprisonment, she had been delivered of a princess, (as has already been related) whom she suckled herself. The rearing of this child had been her only comfort; and she had conceived a more than parental attachment to it, from its having been the constant companion of her misery. The infant was at that period afflicted with the measles; and, having nursed it with unceasing solicitude, she was desirous of continuing her attention and care. All those circumstances had so endeared the child to her, rendered more susceptible of tenderness in a prison than in a court, that when an order for detaining the young princess was intimated to her, she testified the strongest emotions of grief, and could not, for some time, be prevailed upon to bid a final adieu. At length, after bestowing repeated caresses upon this darling object of her affection, she retired to the vessel in an agony of despair. She remained upon the deck, her eyes immovably directed towards the palace of Cronenburgh, which contained her child, that had been so long her only comfort, until darkness intercepted the view. The vessel having made but little way during night, at day-break she observed, with fond satisfaction, that the palace was still visible; and could not be persuaded to enter the cabin as long as she could discover the faintest glimpse of the battlements.

It is well known that her majesty resided in the city of Zell, in the electoral dominions of his Britannic majesty, where she was carried off by a malignant fever, on the 10th of May 1775, and in the sixteenth day of her illness; aged 23 years, and 10 months.

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

The conduct of this prince is stamped with that consistency of behaviour, which enables him to pursue, with unremitting zeal, the prudent and benevolent schemes which

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which he has planned for the benefit of his grateful country. The restoration of the peasantry to their long-lost liberty, and the abolition of many grievances under which they laboured, have already been distinctly mentioned. To this may be added, the exertions he makes for the general diffusion of knowledge; the patronage he affords to societies of learning, arts and science; the excellent measures he has adopted for the suppression of beggars, with whom the country was over-run, and the encouragement of industry, by the most extensive enquiries into the state of the poor throughout the kingdom; the wise regulations he has introduced into the corn-laws, equally beneficial to the landed interest, and to the poor; and the judicious laws which, under his influence, have been made to encourage foreigners to settle in Iceland. If any thing is wanting to complete his happiness, his late matrimonial choice crowns it. The princess of Hesse-Cassel, whom he has chosen, is said to possess the most amiable dispositions and goodness of heart.

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

Christian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, LL. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; in 1766 he was married to the princess Carolina-Matilda of England, and has issue, 1. Frederic, prince-royal of Denmark, born January 28, 1768, and married in 1790, to the princess Mary-Anne-Frederica of Hesse. 2. Louisa-Augusta, princess-royal, born July 7, 1771, and married May 27, 1786, to Frederic, prince of Sleswick-Holstein, by whom she has issue.

Brothers and sisters to the king: 1. Sophia Magdelene, born July 3, 1746, married to the late king of Sweden, Gustavus III. 2. Wilhelmina, born July 10, 1747; married, September 1, 1764, William, the present prince of Hesse-Cassel. 3. Louisa, born January 30, 1750; married August 30, 1766, Charles, brother to the prince of Hesse-Cassel. 4. Frederic, born October 28, 1753.

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### HIS DANISH MAJESTY'S GERMAN DOMINIONS.

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

Altëna, a large, populous, and handsome town, of great traffic, is commodiously situated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburg. It was built in

that situation, that it might share in the commerce of the former. Being declared a free port, and the staple of the Danish East-India Company, the merchants also enjoying liberty of conscience, great numbers flocked to Altona from all parts of the North, and even from Hamburg.

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

Lubec, an imperial city, with a good harbour, and once the capital of the Hans Towns, and still a rich and populous place, is also in this duchy; and governed by its own magistrates. It has 20 parish churches besides a large cathedral. Lutheranism is the established religion of the whole duchy.

In WESTPHALIA, the king of Denmark has the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhurst, about 2000 square miles; they lie on the south side of the Weser; their capitals have the same name; the first has the remains of a fortification, and the last is an open place. Oldenburg gave a title to the first royal ancestor of his present Danish majesty. The country abounds with marshes and heaths, but its horses are the best in Germany.

## L A P L A N D.

**T**HE northern situation of Lapland, and the division of its property, require that I should treat of it under a distinct head, and in the same method observed in other countries.

**SITUATION, EXTENT, DIVISION, AND NAME.]** The whole country of Lapland extends, so far as it is known, from the North Cape in 71. 30. N. lat. to the White Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is the most valuable; and some parts in the east, to the Russians. The part belonging to the Swedes may be seen in the table of dimensions given in the account of Sweden: but other accounts say, that it is about a hundred German miles in length, and ninety in breadth; it comprehends all the country from the Baltic, to the mountains that separate Norway from Sweden. The Muscovite part lies toward the east, between the lake Enarak and the White Sea. Those parts, notwithstanding the rudeness of the country, are divided into smaller districts; generally taking their names from rivers: but, unless in the Swedish part, which is subject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be said to be under no regular government. The Swedish Lapland, therefore, is the object chiefly considered by authors in describing this country. It has been generally thought, that the Laplanders are the descendants of Finlanders driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from *Lappes*, which signifies exiles. The reader, from what has been said in the Introduction, may easily con-

ceive that in Lapland, for some months in the summer, the sun never sets; and, during winter, it never rises: but the inhabitants are so well assisted by the twilight, and the aurora borealis, that they never discontinue their work through darkness.

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

**MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.]** Lapland is covered by mountains, irregularly crowded together, and often diversified by rivers and lakes, with innumerable islands, believed by the natives to have been the seat of paradise. Roses and other flowers grow wild on their borders in the summer; though this is but a short gleam of temperature, for the climate in general is excessively severe. Dusky forests, and noisome, unhealthy morasses, and barren plains, cover great part of the flat country, so that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the state of the inhabitants.

**METALS AND MINERALS.]** Silver and gold mines, as well as those of iron, copper, and lead, have been discovered and worked in Lapland to great advantage; beautiful crystals are found here, as are some amethysts and topazes; also various sorts of mineral stones, surprisingly polished by the hand of nature.

**QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS.]** The *zibelius*, a creature resembling the martin, is a native of Lapland; and its skin, whether black or white, is highly esteemed. The Lapland hares grow white in the winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. The most remarkable of the Lapland animals is the *rein deer*, a most useful animal resembling the stag, only it somewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. All naturalists take notice of the cracking noise that the *rein deer* makes in moving its legs, which is attributed to its separating and afterwards bringing together the divisions of the hoof. The under part is entirely covered with hair in the same manner that the claw of the *Ptarmigan* is with scathery bristles, which is almost the only bird that can endure the rigour of the climate. The hoof, however, is not only thus protected; the same necessity which obliges the Laplanders to use snow shoes, makes the extraordinary width of the rein's hoof to be equally convenient in passing over snow, as it prevents their sinking too deep, which they continually would, did the weight of their body rest only on a small point. This quadruped hath therefore an instinct to use a hoof of such a form in a still more advantageous manner, by separating it when the foot is to touch the ground so as to cover a larger surface of snow. The instant, however, the leg of the animal is raised, the hoof is immediately contracted, and the collision of the parts occasions the snapping noise. And probably the cracking which they perpetually make, may serve to keep them together when the weather is remarkably dark. In summer, the rein-deer provide themselves with leaves and grass, and in the winter they live upon moss: they have a wonderful sagacity at finding it out, and when found, they scrape away the snow that covers it with their feet. The scantiness of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journies, which they can perform without any other support. They fix the rein deer to a kind of a sledge, shaped like a small boat, in which the traveller, well secured from cold, is laced down, with the reins (which are fastened to the horns of the animal) in one hand, and a kind of

bludgeon

bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and snow. The deer, whose harnessing is very simple, sets out, and continues the journey with prodigious speed; and is generally so safe and tractable, that the driver is at little trouble in directing him. At night they search for their own provender; and their milk often helps to support their master. Their instinct in choosing their road, and directing their course, can only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with the country during the summer months, when they live in woods. Their flesh is a well tasted food, whether fresh or dried; their skin forms excellent clothing both for the bed and body: their milk and cheese are nutritive and pleasant; and their intestines and tendons supply their masters with thread and cordage. When they run about in the fields, they may be shot at as other game. But it is said, that if one is killed in a flock, the survivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore single stragglers are generally pitched upon. Their surprising speed (for they are said to run at the rate of 200 \* miles a day) seems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneasy posture in which he is placed, when he is confined in one of those carriages or pulkhas; or would believe that, by whispering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their destination.

About autumn, when the lakes of Lapland begin to freeze, the water-fowl, which are found there in great abundance, migrate towards the south; and upon the first opening of the spring, they return in large flocks to their prior habitations, where they find a plentiful subsistence from the grubs of the gnats. These grubs too serve for the food of the *tetraones* or partridge tribe, thousands whereof, and even myriads, are daily taken, and sent to Stockholm. These birds are caught in such large quantities by the Laplanders, as to supply them with their ordinary provision in autumn, as the eggs of the water-fowl are their support in spring †.

Their prey is in such plenty that should one of them go out a shooting for two hours, and not bring home a load of game, he would certainly conclude that some enchanter, who bore him a grudge, had, out of mere spite, spoiled his sport ‡.

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders is of Finnish origin, and comprehends so many dialects, that it is with difficulty they understand each other. The greater part have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, which they make use of in their Routes, a sort of sticks that they call Pistave, and which serve them for an almanack. However harsh and unharmonious their language, we have some specimens of Lapland poetry, which convey no unfavourable impressions of their taste and sensibility. In the Spectator we have two elegant odes translated from the language of Lapland, (N<sup>o</sup>. 366. and 406.) We shall make no apology for adding a third in the note below §. Hieroglyphics are the marks they use instead of signatures, even in

\* Holberg says, the rein-deer, "if he is pressed, will travel at the rate of ten or twelve Swedish miles a day (70 or 84 English miles), but by such hard driving he is generally destroyed. It, however, frequently happens, that he will persevere in his journey 50 miles, without intermission, and without taking any refreshment." *Linnæi Amœnit. Academ. Vol. I. p. 169.*

† Holberg,

‡ Mortray's Travels, vol. ii. p. 321.

#### § A LAPLAND SONG.

The snows are dissolving on Tornao's rude side,  
And the ice of Lulhea flows down the dark tide:  
Thy dark stream, oh Lulhea, flows freely away,  
And the snow-drop unfolds her pale beauties to-day.

Far off the keen terrors of winter retire,  
And the north's dancing streamers relinquish their  
fire;

The sun's genial beams swell the bud on the tree,  
And Anna chaunts forth her wild warblings with  
glee.

The rein deer unharne'd in freedom shall play,  
And safely o'er Oloa's steep precipice stray;  
The wolf to the forest's recesses shall fly,  
And howl to the moon as the glides thro' the sky.

Then hast, my fair Luah, oh! haste to the grove,  
And pass the sweet season in rapture and love;  
In youth let our bosoms in ecstacy glow,  
For the winter of life ne'er a transport can know.

matters of law. Missionaries, from the christianized parts of Scandinavia, introduced among them the Christian religion; but they can hardly be said even yet to be Christians, though they have among them some religious seminaries, instituted by the king of Denmark. The majority of the Laplanders practise as gross superstitions and idolatries as are to be found among the most uninstructed pagans; and so absurd, that they scarcely deserve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddities of their superstitions have induced the northern traders to believe that they are skilful in magic and divination. For this purpose their magicians make use of what they call a drum, made of the hollowed trunk of a fir, pine, or birch-tree, one end of which is covered with a skin; on this they draw, with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jesus Christ, the apostles, the sun, moon, stars, birds, and rivers; on these they place one or two brass rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and, according to their progress, the forcerer prognosticates. These childish operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ship-masters are such dupes to the arts of those impostors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which, according to the magician's directions, they gain what wind they want. The Laplanders still retain the worship of many of the Teutonic gods; and have among them great remains of the Druidical institutions. They believe the transmigration of the soul; and have festivals set apart for the worship of certain genii, called Juhles, who they think inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but, being without form or substance, they assign to them neither images nor statues.

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

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is about twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above six feet in height. They cover them according to the season, and the means of the possessor; some with briars, bark of birch, and linen; others with turf, coarse cloth, or felt, or the old skins of rein-

deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains, which open afunder. A little place furrounded with stones is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is fufpended to hang the kettle upon. They are fcarceely able to ftand upright in their huts, but conftantly fit upon their heels round the fire. At night, they lie down quite naked; and, to feparate the apartments, they place upright fticks at fmall diftances. They cover themfelves with their cloths, or lie upon them. In winter, they put their naked feet into a fur bag. Their houfehold-furniture confifts of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, fpoons, and fometimes tin, or even filver bafons; to thefe may be added the implements of fifhing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry fuch a number of things with them in their excursions, they build in the forefts, at certain diftances, little huts, made like pigeon-houfes, and placed upon the trunk of a tree, cut off at about the height of fix foot from the root. In thefe elevated huts they keep their goods and provifions; and though they are never fhut, yet they are never plundered. The rein-deer fupply the Laplanders with the greateft part of their provifions; the chace and the fishery afford the reft. Their principal difhes are the flefh of the rein-deer, and puddings made of their blood, by putting it either alone, or mixed with wild berries, into the ftomach of the animal from whence it was taken, in which they cook it for food; but the flefh of the bear is efteemed their greateft luxury. They eat every kind of fifh, even the fea-dog; as well as all forts of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey, and carnivorous animals. Their winter-provifions confift chiefly of flefh and fifh dried in the open air, which they eat raw. Their common drink is water, fometimes mixed with milk: they make alfo broths and fifh-foups. Brandy is fcarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family fpreads a mat on the ground; and then men and women fquat round this mat, which is covered with difhes. Every Laplander carries about him a knife, a fpoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion feparately given him, that no perfon may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal they make a fhort prayer: and, as foon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

In their drefs the Laplanders ufe no kind of linen. In the Flora Lapponica, Linnaeus fays, "Perhaps the curious reader will wonder how the people in Lapland, during the terrible cold that reigns there in winter, can preferve their lives; fince almoft all birds, and even fome wild beafts, defert it at that time. The Laplander, not only in the day, but through the whole winter-nights, is obliged to wander about in the woods with his herds of rein-deer. For the rein-deer never come under cover, not eat any kind of fodder, but a particular kind of *livertwort*. On this account the herdsmen are under a neceffity of living continually in the woods, in order to prevent their cattle being devoured by wild beafts. No part of the body is more eafily deftroyed by cold than the extremities of the limbs, which are moft remote from the fun of this microfom, the heart. The kibes that happen to the hands and feet, fo common in the northern parts of Sweden, prove this. In Lapland you will never fee fuch a thing; although, were we to judge by the fiteuation of the country, we fhould imagine juft the contrary; efpecially as the people wear no ftockings. The Laplander guards himfelf againft the cold in the following manner. He wears breeches made of rein-deer fkins with the hair on, reaching down to his heels, and fhoes made of the fame materials, the hairy part turned outwards. He puts into his fhoes *fleuder-eared, broad-leaved, cyperus grafs, carex veficaria, Spec. Pl.* (or the bladder carex) that is cut in fummer and dried. This he firft combs and rubs in his hands, and then places it in fuch a manner, that it not only covers his feet quite round, but his legs alfo; and being thus guarded, he is quite fecured againft the intense cold. With this grafs they ftuff their gloves likewife, in order to preferve their hands. As this grafs keeps off the cold in winter, fo in fummer it hinders

hinders the feet from sweating, and at the same time preserves them from being annoyed by striking against stones, &c. for their shoes are very thin, being made, not of tanned leather, but of the raw hide\*.

Their doublet is made to fit their shape, and is open at the breast. Over this they wear a close coat with narrow sleeves; the shirts reaching to the knees, and fastened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or brass. To this girdle they tie their knives, their instruments for obtaining fire, their pipes, and the rest of their smoking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, or leather, or of cloth; the close coat of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four seams adorned with lists of a different colour from that of the cap. The women wear breeches, shoes, doublets, and close coats, in the same manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewise the implements for smoking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with brass wire. Their close coat hath a collar, which comes up higher than that of the men. Besides these, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons, made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and ear-rings, to which they sometimes hang chains of silver, which pass two or three times round the neck. They are often dressed in caps folded after the manner of turbans, sometimes in others fitted to the shape of the head; and, being much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with the embroidery of brass wire, or at least with list of different colours.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenness of its soil. The number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are in general considerably shorter than more southern Europeans. Maupertuis measured a woman, who was suckling her child, whose height did not exceed four feet two inches and a half; they make, however, a much more agreeable appearance than the men, who are often ill-shaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies. Their women are complaisant, chaste, well-made, and extremely nervous. It frequently happens that a Lapland woman will faint away, or even fall into a fit of frenzy, on a spark of fire flying towards her, an unexpected noise, or any other sudden occurrence, equally trivial. During these paroxysms of terror, they deal about blows with the first thing that presents itself; and, on coming to themselves, are utterly ignorant of all that has passed.

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

COMMERCE.] Little can be said of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports consist of fish, rein-deer, furs, baskets, and toys; with some dried pikes, and cheeses, made of rein-deer's milk. They receive for these, six-dollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, spirituous liquors, tobacco, and other necessaries. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconsiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. The reader may make some estimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty squirrel skins, or one fox skin, and a pair of Lapland shoes, produce one six-dollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greatest part of which is allot-

\* Stillingfleet's Travels, p. 137, 138.



Of Gothland, the following are the subdivisions :

East Gothland,	Dalia,
West Gothland,	Schonen,
Smaland,	Heking,
Werneland,	Hulland.

Of Swedish Lapland, the following are the subdivisions :

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

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

Of Finland, the following are the subdivisions :

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

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

**CLIMATE, SEASONS, SOIL, } In Sweden summer bursts suddenly from winter;**  
**AND PRODUCTIONS. } and vegetation is more speedy than in southern**  
 climates, owing to the long continuance of the sun's rays, being eighteen hours and a half above the horizon every day for some weeks: so that the solar heat is increased in proportion to its duration. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold of winter, which is so intense, that the noses and extremities of the inhabitants are sometimes mortified; and in such cases, the best remedy that has been found out, is rubbing the affected part with snow. The Swedes, since the days of Charles XII. have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenness of their country. The soil is much the same with that of Denmark, and some parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in some vallies surprizingly fertile. The peasants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and some late accounts say, that they raise almost as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, and beans; and in case of deficiency, the people are supplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces. The woods consist chiefly of oak, horse-chestnut, birch, and mountain-ash. In summer, the fields are verdant, and covered with flowers, and produce strawberries, ratherries, currants, and other small fruits. The common people know little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarines, and the like high-flavoured fruits; but melons are brought to great perfection in dry seasons.

**MINERALS AND METALS.]** Sweden produces crystals, amethysts, topazes, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, agate, cornelian, and marble. The chief wealth of Sweden arises from her mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron. The last mentioned metal employs no fewer than 450 forges, hammer-mills, and smelting houses. A kind of a gold mine has likewise been discovered in Sweden, but so inconsiderable, that from the year 1741 to 1747, it produced only 2398 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. sterling. The first gallery of one silver mine is 100 fathoms below the surface of the earth; the roof is supported by prodigious oaken beams; and from thence the miners descend about forty fathoms to the lowest vein. This mine is said to produce 20,000 crowns a year. These subterranean mansions are astonishingly spacious, and highly commodious, forming, as it were, a hidden world. The water-falls in Sweden afford excellent conveniency for forges; and in some former years, the iron exported brought in 300,000l. sterling, constituting two-thirds of the national revenue. It must be observed, that the exactions of government,

verment, and the importation of American bar-iron into Europe, and some other causes, have greatly diminished this manufacture.

**ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.]** A few leagues from Gottenburg is a hideous precipice, down which a dreadful cataract of water rushes with such impetuosity, from the height into so deep a bed of water, that masts, and other bodies of timber, precipitated down it, disappear for near an hour, before they are recovered; the bottom of this bed has never been found, though sounded by lines of several hundred fathoms. A remarkable slimy lake, which tinges things put into it, has been found in the southern part of Gothland; and several parts of Sweden contain a stone, which, being of a yellow colour, intermixed with several streaks of white, as if composed of gold and silver, affords sulphur, vitriol, alum, and minium. The Swedes pretend to have a manuscript copy of a translation of the Gospels into Gothic, done by a bishop 1300 years ago.

**SEAS.]** Their seas are the Baltic, and the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the west of Sweden are the Categate sea, and the Sound, a strait about four miles over, which divides Sweden from Denmark.

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

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

**INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.]** The character of the Swedes has differed greatly in different ages. At present, their peasants seem to be a heavy plodding race of men, strong and hardy; but without any other ambition than that of subsisting themselves and their families: the mercantile classes are much of the same cast; but among persons of all descriptions great application and perseverance are very conspicuous. One would not suppose that the modern Swedes are the descendants of those, who under Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror through distant countries, and shook the foundation of the greatest empires. The intrigues of their senators dragged them to take part in the late war against Prussia; yet their behaviour was spiritless. The nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite and hospitable; they have high notions of honour, and are jealous of their national interests. In Stockholm, as in other cold climates, the custom of drinking spirits prevails too much; even ladies, who by no means deserve an improper epithet, comply with this pernicious custom. It is usual in this country, previous to dinner, for the company to assemble round the side-board, and to regale themselves with bread, butter, cheese, or any thing of that nature, which preface is regularly followed in both sexes by a bumper of brandy. Their method of conducting themselves at table has a very singular appearance to a stranger. Every dish, after being cut up, is handed about in rotation from one to another; every one helps himself and passes it to the next. Wine and all other liquors stand upon the table. The rule is to help yourselves without any kind of ceremony; they drink no kind of healths. The cloth is not removed as in England, neither do the gentlemen sit after the ladies rise. Each gentleman conducts a lady to another suit of apartments where coffee is ready prepared. Tea  
about

about three hours after; then cards and music, or a walk till supper. Music is esteemed one of the most polite accomplishments among the ladies; it is, indeed, almost a general science in this country. Many of their music masters are held in high repute, and that vocation is thought to be honourable, as to introduce them to all assemblies with people of the first distinction. The church-music of the Swedes inspires the mind with religious awe. It operates, however, often too powerfully on weak minds, and produces more the shew than the spirit of religion. The drolls, exercises, and diversions of the common people, are almost the same with those of Denmark: the better sort are lustrated with French modes and fashions. They are not fond of marrying their daughters when young, as they have little to spare in their own life-time. The women go to plough, thresh out the corn, row upon the water, serve the bricklayers, carry burdens, and do all the common drudgeries in husbandry.

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

[LANGUAGE, LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] The Swedish language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and resembles that of Denmark. The passion of the famous queen Christina for literature is well known to the public, and that she excelled in many branches of knowledge. The Swedish nobility and gentry are, in general, more conversant in polite literature than those of many other more flourishing states. They have lately exhibited some specimens of uncommon nunsistence in the pursuit of science; one of which deserves particular notice, in their sending, at the expence of private persons, that excellent and candid natural philosopher Hasselquist, into the eastern countries for discoveries, where he died. This noble spirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family; and her Swedish majesty purchased at no inconsiderable expence for that country, all Hasselquist's collection of curiosities. That able civilian, statesman, and historian Puffendorf, was a native of Sweden; and so was the late celebrated Linnæus, whose memory will be ever dear to all the lovers of science, but particularly to those who cultivate the study of botany.

The name of Linnæus may be classed amongst those of Newton, Boyle, Locke, Haller, Euler, and other great philosophers, who were friends to religion: he always testified in his conversations, writings, and actions, the highest reverence for the Supreme Being; and was so strongly impressed with the idea of omnipresence, that he wrote over the door of his study: *Innæi vivite, numen adeſt.*

The mere catalogue of his works would make an ordinary pamphlet; and it required a considerable volume to trace even the outlines of his system, now distinguished by the appellation of Linnæan, which new methodized and reformed the whole compass of natural history. In these extensive and various pursuits, we know not which to admire most, his indefatigable industry, his scientific arrangement,

ment, or that wonderful exactness in discriminating, where the minutest shades of difference are scarcely perceptible\*.

Even in the midst of the late distractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, sculpture, and architecture, were encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is also carried to a considerable height in that kingdom.

UNIVERSITIES.] The principal is that of Upsal, instituted near 400 years ago, and patronized by several successive monarchs, particularly by the great Gustavus Adolphus, and his daughter queen Christina. The students in this university are numerous; but they do not inhabit, as in our universities, any distinct colleges, there being no buildings for their accommodation, but lodge in the town; and repair to the general or public lectures, given by the several professors, either at their own houses, or at the public halls appropriated to such purposes. The poorer students are assisted in their expences, by being appointed to scholarships, the highest of which amount to about thirteen pounds per annum. The professors in different branches of literature are about twenty-two; of whom the principal are those of divinity, eloquence, botany, anatomy, chemistry, natural philosophy, astronomy, and agriculture. Their salaries are from seventy to one hundred pounds per annum. This university, justly called by Stillingfleet, "that great and hitherto unrivalled school of natural history," is certainly the first seminary of the North for academical education; and has produced, from the time of its institution, persons eminent in most branches of science. The learned publications, which have lately been given to the world by its members, sufficiently prove the flourishing state of literature in those parts, particularly the *Amenitates Academicæ*, or a collection of Theses upon Natural History, held under the celebrated Linnæus, and chiefly selected by that able master. There is another university at Abo, in Finland, but not so well endowed, nor so flourishing, and a third at Lunden, in Schonen, which is fallen into decay. Every diocese is provided with a free-school, in which boys are prepared for the university †.

Much credit is due to this nation with respect to the education of young people, particularly among the inferior classes, so as to render them useful members of society; for which purpose they have instituted seminaries and schools, which are carefully inspected by the superior and dignified clergy. When a youth attains a certain age, so as to be capable either of trade or any professional line of life, if he shews any particular marks of genius, or an uncommon assiduity in any of the walks of science, these ecclesiastical directors report him to the king, who gives orders, as the reward of his merit, that he may receive an education suitably adapted to his temper and the bent of his genius. If he continues his diligence and attention his promotion is certain. This truly laudable institution, and exemplary pattern, may well be thought worthy the imitation of more enlightened nations, as it is certainly productive of much emulation and improvement. To dig the rough diamond from the mine is doubtless a commendable labour, but to polish it and make it fit for use deserves the highest praises.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, COM- } The Swedish commonalty subsist by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fishing. Their materials for traffic are bulky and useful commodities of matts, beams,

\* The reader, who is desirous of further information concerning this great naturalist, will find his curiosity amply gratified from the perusal of Dr. Pultney's "General View of the Writings of Linnæus." See also Coxe's Travels, 4to. vol. iiii. p. 428-448.

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

deal-boards, and other sorts of timber for shipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, potash, wooden utensils, hides, flux, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and fish. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden so late as the 16th century; for till that time they sold their crude ore to the Hanse towns, and brought it back again manufactured into utensils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the assistance of the Dutch and Flemings, they set up some manufactures of glass, starch, tin, woollen, silk, soap, leather-drelling, and saw-mills. Book-selling was at that time a trade unknown in Sweden. They have since had sugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of flannel-cloth, cotton, fustian, and other stuffs; of linen, alum, and brimstone; paper-mills, and gunpowder-mills. Vast quantities of copper, brass, steel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden. They have also founderies for cannon, forges for fire-arms and anchors, armories, wire and flattening-mills; mills also for fulling, and for boring and stamping; and of late they have built many ships for sale.

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

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

Except in the suburbs, where the houses are of wood painted red, the generality of the buildings are of stone, or brick stuccoed white. The royal palace, which stands in the centre of Stockholm, and upon the highest spot of ground, was begun by Charles XI. It is a large quadrangular stone edifice, and the style of architecture is both elegant and magnificent\*. The number of housekeepers, who pay taxes, are 60,000. This city is furnished with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce (particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 466,666l. 13s. 4d. sterling), that are common to other great European cities.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Sweden has undergone many changes. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free, and during the course of many

\* Coxe, vol. ii. p. 327, 328.

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

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

But in August, 1772, the whole system of the Swedish government was totally changed by the late king, in the most unexpected manner. The circumstances which attended this revolution will be found in our history of this kingdom. By that event, the Swedes, instead of having the defects of their constitution rectified, found their king invested with a degree of authority little inferior to that of the most despotic princes of Europe; with power to assemble and separate the states whenever he pleases; to have the sole disposal of the army, the navy, finances, and all employments civil and military; and though a power of imposing taxes on all occasions be not openly claimed, yet such as already subsist are to be perpetual; and in case of invasion, or pressing necessity, the king may impose some taxes till the states can be assembled; of which necessity he is to be the judge, and the meeting of the states to depend upon his pleasure: and when they are assembled, they are to deliberate upon nothing but what the king thinks proper to lay before them. It is easy to discern, that a government thus constituted

situated, can be little removed from despotism. Yet in the new system, which consists of fifty-seven articles, a senate is appointed, consisting of seventeen members, comprehending the great officers of the crown, and the governor of Pomerania; and they are required to give their advice in all affairs of state, whenever the king shall demand it. In that case, if the questions agitated are of great importance, and the unanimous advice of the senators should be contrary to the opinion of the king, the king, it is said, shall follow their advice. But this, it may be observed, is a circumstance that can hardly ever happen, that all the members of a senate, consisting chiefly of officers of the crown, should give their opinions against the king; and in every other case the king is to hear their opinions, and then to act as he thinks proper.

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

**POLITICAL INTERESTS OF SWEDEN.]** In the reign of Gustavus Vasa, a treaty of alliance took place between Sweden and France; and Sweden entered into a subsidiary treaty with that crown, in the reign of Gustavus Adolphus. In consequence of these treaties, France by degrees acquired an ascendancy in Sweden, which was very pernicious to the interests of the kingdom. This crown has generally received a subsidy from France for 100 years past, and has suffered greatly by it. During the reign of Charles the Xth and Charles the XIIth, Sweden was sacrificed to the interest of France; and during the last war with the king of Prussia, for the sake of a small subsidy from France, the crown of Sweden was forced to contract a debt of 3,500,000*l.* which has since been considerably augmented: so that this debt now amounts to near five millions. Some of their wisest men perceived the mischievous tendency of their connection with France, and endeavoured to put an end to it. But the influence of the French court in Sweden, in consequence of their subsidies and intrigues, has occasioned considerable factions in that kingdom. In 1738, a most powerful party appeared in the diet in favour of French measures. The persons who composed it went under the denomination of *Hats*. The object they held out to the nation was, the recovery of some of the dominions yielded to Russia; and consequently the system they were to proceed upon, was to break with that power, and connect themselves with France. The party directly opposed to them was headed by count Horn, and those who had contributed to establish the new form of government, which was settled after the death of Charles XII. Their object was peace, and the promotion of the domestic welfare of the nation. The system, therefore, which they adopted, was to maintain a close correspondence with Russia, and to avoid all farther connection with France. These were styled the *Caps*. There was besides a third party, called the *Hunting Caps*, composed of persons who were as yet undetermined to which of the other two they would join themselves. These parties long continued,

continued; but the French party generally prevailed greatly to the detriment of the real interest of the kingdom. Some efforts were employed by the English court to lessen or destroy the French influence in Sweden, and for some time they were successful; but the *Hat* party again acquired the ascendancy. These parties are now abolished, in consequence of the late king having made such a change in the constitution of government.

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

**STRENGTH AND FORCES.]** No country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes; and yet they cannot be said to maintain a standing army, as their forces consist of a regulated militia. The cavalry is clothed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raised upon the nobility and gentry, according to their estates; and the infantry by the peasants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of soldiers, according to the number of farms it contains; every farm of 60 or 70l. per annum is charged with a foot-soldier, furnishing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary clothes, and about 20s. a year in money; or else a little wooden house is built for him by the farmer, who allows him hay and pasturage for a cow, and ploughs and sows land enough to supply him with bread. When embodied, they are subject to military law, at other times to the civil law of the country. This national army is thought to amount to above 40,000 men, and Sweden formerly could have fitted out 40 ships of the line; but of late years their ships, together with their docks, have run to decay.

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

**ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.]** These are, the order of the *North Star*, consisting of 24 Members; the order of *Vasa*; and the order of the *Sword*; the last created in 1772.

**HISTORY OF SWEDEN.]** The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have had the reputation of subduing the Roman Empire. I shall not follow the romances of Swedish historians through the early ages, but only observe that Sweden has as good a claim to be an ancient monarchy as any with which we are acquainted. The history of this kingdom, and indeed of all the northern nations, even during the first ages of Christianity, is confused, uninteresting, and often doubtful; but replete with murders, massacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of consistency, till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it assumes a more regular appearance. At this time the government was far from being clearly ascertained, or uniformly administered. The crown was elective, though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether disregarded. The great lords possessed the most considerable part of the wealth of the kingdom, which consisted chiefly in land; commerce being unknown or neglected, and even agriculture in a very rude and imperfect state. The clergy, particularly those of a dignified rank, from the

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great respect paid to their characters among the inhabitants of the North, had acquired an influence in all public affairs, and obtained possessions of what lands had been left unoccupied by the nobility. These two ranks of men, enjoying all the property of the state, formed a council called the senate, which governed all public deliberations. This system of government was extremely unfavourable to the national prosperity; and in the dissensions between their prelates and laybarons, or between those and their sovereign, the Swedes were drained of the little riches they possessed, to support the indolent pomp of a few bishops; and, what was more fatal, the unlucky situation of their internal affairs exposed them to the inroads and oppression of a foreign enemy. These were the Danes, who, by their neighbourhood and power, were able to avail themselves of the dissensions in Sweden, and to subject, under a foreign yoke, a country weakened and exhausted by its domestic broils. In this deplorable situation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; sometimes under the nominal subjection of its own princes, sometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either case equally oppressed and insulted.

Magnus Ladeslaus, crowned in 1276, was the first king of Sweden who pursued a regular system to increase his authority; for which purpose, he made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his principal object. He was one of the ablest princes who ever sat on the Swedish throne; by his address he prevailed upon the convention of estates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the support of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was followed by a proportional increase of the regal power; and, by the steady and vigorous exertion he made of it, Magnus humbled the haughty spirit of his nobles, and by employing his authority in many respects for the public good, reconciled his subjects to acts of power, which in former monarchs they would have opposed with violence. The successors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; and several revolutions followed, which threw the nation into great confusion.

In the year 1387, Margaret, daughter of Valdemar, king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both these kingdoms. That princess, to the ordinary ambition of her sex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greatest and most complicated designs. She has been called the Semiramis of the North, because like Semiramis she found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immense extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, being elected to this last in 1394. She projected the union of Calmar, so famous in the North, by which these kingdoms were for the future to remain under one sovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who should divide his residence between them all. Several revolutions ensued after the death of Margaret; and at length Christian II. the last king of Denmark, who, by virtue of the treaty of Calmar, was also king of Sweden, engaged in a scheme to render himself absolute. The barbarous policy by which he attempted to effect this design, proved the destruction of himself, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. To establish his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for massacring the principal nobility. This horrid design was actually carried into execution, November 8, 1520. Of all those who could oppose the despotic purposes of Christian, no one remained in Sweden but Gustavus Vasa, a young prince, descended of the ancient kings of that country, and who had signalized his arms against the king of Denmark. A price was laid on his head. The Danish soldiers were sent in pursuit of him; but by his dexterity he eluded all their attempts, and escaped, under the disguise of a peasant, to the mountains of Dalecarlia. This is not the place to relate his dangers and fatigues, his labours in the brass-mines, his being

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betrayed

betrayed by those in whom he reposed his confidence, his surmounting a thousand obstacles, and his engaging the savage but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia to undertake his cause, to oppose, and to conquer his tyrannical oppressor. Sweden, by his means, again acquired independence. Gustavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and loved his person. He was created therefore first administrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by the universal consent of the whole nation. His circumstances were much more favourable than those of any former prince who had possessed this dignity. The massacre of the nobles had freed him from those proud and haughty enemies, who had long been the bane of all regular government. The clergy were no less powerful and dangerous; but the opinions of Luther, which began at this time to prevail in the North, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious system of that country; and the exercise of the Roman catholic religion was prohibited in the year 1544, under the severest penalties, which have never been relaxed. Instead of a Gothic aristocracy, the most turbulent of all governments, and, when empoisoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the most wretched, Sweden, in this manner, became a regular monarchy. Some favourable effects of this change were soon visible: arts and manufactures were established and improved; navigation and commerce began to flourish; letters and civility were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the rest of Europe, began to be known by its arms, and to have weight in all public treaties or deliberations. Gustavus died in 1559.

Under Eric, who succeeded his father Gustavus Vasa, the titles of count and baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's causeless jealousy of his brothers forced them to take up arms; and the senate siding with them, he was deposed in 1566. His brother John succeeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Russia, and a fruitless scheme for restoring the Catholic religion in Sweden. John's son, Sigismund, was chosen king of Poland in 1587, John died in 1592.

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

The ideas of Gustavus began now to extend. He had seen much military service, and was assisted by the counsels of L. Gardie, one of the best generals and wisest statesmen of his age. His troops had become the best disciplined and most warlike in Europe. The princes of the house of Austria supported his ancient implacable enemy Sigismund, whom Gustavus defeated. In 1627, he formed the siege of Dantzick, in which he was unsuccessful; but the attempt which was defeated only by the sudden rise of the Vistula, added so much to his military character, that the Protestant cause placed him at the head of the confederacy for reducing the house of Austria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain

of

of the most rapid and wonderful successes: the very mention of which would exceed our limits. After taking Riga, and over-running Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious; and from thence, in 1630, he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburgh, defeated the famous count Tilly, who was till then thought invincible, and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Walenstein, another Austrian general of equal reputation, was appointed to command against Gustavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen, 1632, after obtaining a victory, which, had he survived, would probably have put a period to the Austrian greatness.

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

Christina was but six years of age when her father was killed. She received a good education; but her fine genius took an uncommon, and romantic turn. She invited to her court Descartes, Salmasius, and other learned men; to whom she was not generous. She expressed an esteem for Grotius; and was an excellent judge of the polite arts; but illiberal and indelicate in the choice of her favourites. The duties of her high station she invariably attended to, and though her generals were basely betrayed by France, she continued to support the honour of her crown. Being resolved not to marry, she resigned her crown to her cousin Charles Gustavus, son to the duke of Deux-Ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great success against the Poles: he drove their king, John Casimir, into Silesia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their usual inconstancy, they broke. His progress upon the ice against Denmark has been already mentioned; and he died of a fever in 1660. His son Charles XI. was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it necessary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the island of Bornholm, and Drontheim in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the same time with Russia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a respectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came to be of age, he received a subsidy from the French king, Lewis XIV. but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition, he entered into the alliance with England and Holland. He afterwards joined with France against the house of Austria; but being defeated in Germany at Felen-Bellin, a powerful confederacy was formed against him. The elector of Brandenburg made himself master of the Swedish Pomerania: the bishop of Munster over-ran Bremen and Verden, and the Danes took Wismar, and several places in Schonon. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles by the treaty of St. Germain, recovered all he had lost, except some places in Germany. He then married Ulrica Leonora, the king of Denmark's sister; but made a very bad use of the tranquillity he had regained, by employing his arms to enslave his people. The states lost all their power, and Sweden was now reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to lose his head and his right hand, for the boldness of his remonstrance in favour of his country-

men, but that patriot saved himself by flight; and Charles became so powerful, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryſwick, 1697, were opened under his mediation.

Charles XI. died in 1697, and was ſucceeded by his minor ſon, the famous Charles XII. The history of no prince is better known than that of this hero. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen; but it was ſet aſide for an earlier date by the management of count Pier, who became his firſt miniſter. Soon after his acceſſion, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muſcovy, formed a powerful confederacy againſt him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He oppoſed them all; and beſieging Copenhagen, he dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Daniſh majeſty, by which the duke of Holſtein was re-eſtabliſhed in his dominions. The czar Peter was at this time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had beſieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but ſuch was his magnanimity, that he advanced at the head of 8000, entirely routed the main body of the Ruſſians, and raiſed the ſiege. His ſucceſſes were ſo great that the Ruſſians attributed his actions to necromancy. His achievements in Saxony equalled thoſe of Guſtavus Adolphus. He dethroned Auguſtus, king of Poland; but ſtained all his laurels, by putting the brave count Patkul to a death equally painful and ignominious. He raiſed Stanislaus to the crown of Poland in 1705, and he was courted by all the powers of Europe; and, among others, by the duke of Marlborough, in the name of queen Anne, amidſt the full career of her ſucceſſes againſt France. His implacable diſpoſition, however, was ſuch, that he cannot be conſidered in a better light than that of an illuſtrious madman; for he loſt in the battle of Pultowa, which he fought in 1709, in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himſelf with 300 Swedes againſt 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worſe than frantic. The Turks afterwards found it convenient for their affairs to ſet him at liberty. After his return to his dominions, he proſecuted his revenge againſt Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon ſhot, at the ſiege of Frederichſhall, in Norway, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-fix years of age. It has been ſuppoſed, that Charles was not in reality killed by a ſhot from the walls of Frederichſhall, but that a piſtol\*, from one of thoſe about him, gave the deciſive blow, which put an end to his life. This opinion is ſaid to be very prevalent in Sweden. And it appears, that the Swedes were tired of a prince, under whom they had loſt their richeſt provinces, their braveſt troops, and their national riches; and who yet, untamed by adverſity, purſued an unſucceſſful war, nor would ever have liſtened to the voice of peace, or conſulted the internal proſperity of his country.

Charles XII. was ſucceeded by his ſiſter, the princeſs Ulrica Eleonora, wife to the hereditary prince of Heſſe. We have ſeen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties, and have given ſome account of the capitulation ſigned by the queen and her husband. The Swedes, to prevent farther loſſes by the progreſs of the Ruſſian, the Daniſh, the Saxon, and other arms, made many ſacrifices to obtain peace from thoſe powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed that dangerous party in the kingdom, under the name of the *Habs*, which hath been already mentioned, and which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. Their Swediſh majeſties having no children, it was neceſſary to ſettle the ſucceſſion; eſpecially as the duke of

\* The reader, who is deſirous of ſeeing the arguments on both ſides of this queſtion, which could not with propriety be given in detail in this concluſion

narrative, will be highly gratified by conſulting Coxe's Travels into Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, 4to. vol. ii. p. 351—363.

Holstein was descended from the queen's eldest sister, and was, at the same time, the presumptive heir to the empire of Russia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holstein Gottorp, prince Frederic of Hesse-Cassel, nephew to the king, the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Ponts. The duke of Holstein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Russia. The czarina interposed, and offered to restore all the conquests she had made from Sweden, except a small district in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holstein's uncle, the bishop of Lubeck, as their hereditary prince, and successor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majesty. This treaty was so firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Danish majesty thought proper to forget the indignity done to his son. The prince's successor, Adolphus Frederic, married the princess Ulrica, sister to the king of Prussia; and entered into the possession of his new dignity in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, much harrassed by the contending Swedish factions, and found his situation extremely troublesome, in consequence of the restraints and opposition which he met with from the senate. He passed the greatest part of his reign very disagreeably, and was, at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died in February 1771, and was succeeded by his son, Gustavus the Third, the late king, who was married in 1766, to Sophia Magdalena, daughter of Frederic V. of Denmark.

Gustavus was about five and twenty years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden; his understanding had been much cultivated, he had an intuiating address, and a graceful and commanding elocution. He was at Paris at the time of his father's death, from whence he wrote in the most gracious terms to the senate, repeatedly assuring them that he designed to govern according to the laws. In consequence of the death of his predecessor, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to settle the form of the coronation-oath. Some time after his arrival in Sweden, on the 28th of March, 1773, he solemnly signed and swore to observe twenty-four articles, relative to his future administration of the government. This was termed a capitulation; and among the articles were the following: "The king promises before God to support the government of the kingdom as then established; to maintain the rights and liberties of the states, the liberties and security of all his subjects, and to reign with gentleness and equity according to the laws of the kingdom, the form of the regency as it was established in the year 1720, and conformable to the present act of capitulation. In consequence of the declaration of the states, the king shall regard any person, who shall openly or clandestinely endeavour to introduce absolute sovereignty, as an enemy of the kingdom, and as a traitor to his country, and every person must take an oath respecting this matter before he can take possession of any employment. With regard to the affairs of the cabinet and the senate, the king promises to follow the regulations of the year 1720 upon that head, which were to be directed always by a majority of votes, and never to do any thing therein without, and much less against, their advice. To the end that the council of state may be so much the more convinced of the inviolable designs of his majesty, and of his sincere love for the good of his people, he declares them to be entirely disengaged from their oath of fidelity, in case that he unjustly acts contrary to his coronation-oath, and to this capitulation. And lastly, the king threatens any person with his highest displeasure, who shall be so inconsiderate as to propose to him a greater degree of power and splendor than is marked out in this act of capitulation, as his majesty desires only to gain the affection of his faithful subjects, and to be their powerful defender against any attempts which may be made upon their lawful liberties."

But scarcely had the king taken these solemn oaths to rule according to the then established form of government, and accepted the crown upon these conditions, before he formed the plan to govern as he thought proper, regarding most sacred engagements as matters of ceremony. On his first arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which the most profound dissimulation and the utmost dexterity could suggest, to increase his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who presented themselves. Neither rank, fortune, or interest, were necessary to obtain access to him: it was sufficient to have been injured, and to have a legal cause of complaint to lay before him. He listened to the meanest of his subjects with affability, and entered into the minutest details that concerned them; he informed himself of their private affairs, and seemed to interest himself in their happiness. This conduct made him considered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idolize him. In the warmth of their gratitude they forgot that motives of ambition might have some share in forming a conduct which to them appeared to proceed from principles of the purest benevolence. At the same time that he laboured to render himself generally popular, he also endeavoured to persuade the leading men of the kingdom, that he was sincerely and inviolably attached to the constitution of his country, that he was perfectly satisfied with the share of power the constitution had allotted to him, and he took every opportunity to declare, that he considered it as his greatest glory to be the first citizen of a free people. He seemed intent on banishing corruption, and promoting union; he declared he would be of no party but that of the nation, and that he would ever pay the most implicit obedience to whatever the diet should enact. These professions lulled the many into a fatal security, though they created suspicions among a few of greater penetration, who thought his majesty promised too much to be in earnest. In the mean time there happened some contentions between the different orders of the Swedish states, and no methods were left untried to foment these jealousies. Emisaries were likewise planted in every part of the kingdom, for the purpose of sowing discontent among the inhabitants, of rendering them disaffected to the established government, and of exciting them to an insurrection. At length, when the king found his scheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper measures for bringing a considerable number of the officers and soldiers\* into his interest, on the 19th of August, 1772, he totally overturned the Swedish constitution of government. In less than an hour he made himself master of all the military force of Stockholm. He planted grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, at the door of the council-chamber, in which the senate were assembled, and made all the members of it prisoners. And that no news might be carried to any other part of Sweden, of the transaction in which the king was engaged, till the scheme was completed, cannon were drawn from the arsenal, and planted at the palace, the bridges, and other parts of the town, and particularly at all the avenues leading to it. Soldiers stood over these with matches ready lighted; all communication with the country was cut off, no one without a passport from the king being allowed to leave the city. The senators were then confined in separate apartments in the palace, and many others, who were supposed to be zealously attached to the liberties of Sweden, were put under arrest. The remainder of the day the king employed in visiting different quarters of the town, in order to receive oaths of fidelity from the magistrates, the colleges, and city militia. Oaths were also tendered the next day to the people in general, to whom he addressed a speech, which he concluded by declaring, that his only attention was to

\* The fidelity which was manifested by a private soldier, on this occasion, deserves to be recorded. The night preceding the revolution, the king being desirous of visiting the arsenal, went thither, and

ordered the sentinel to admit him. The latter refused, "Do you know who you are speaking to?" said the king, "Yes: replied the soldier, "but I likewise know my duty."

restore tranquillity to his native country, by suppressing licentiousness, overturning the aristocratic form of government, reviving the old Swedish liberty, and restoring the ancient laws of Sweden, such as they were before 1680. "I renounce now," said he, "as I have already done, all the idea of the abhorred absolute power, or what is called *sovereignty*, esteeming it now, as before, my greatest glory to be the first citizen among a truly free people." Heralds then went through the different quarters of the town, to proclaim an assembly of the states for the following day. This proclamation contained a threat, that if any member of the diet should absent himself, he should be considered and treated as a traitor to his country.

On the morning of the 21st of August, a large detachment of guards was ordered to take possession of the square, where the house of nobles stands. The palace was invested on all sides with troops, and cannon were planted in the court, facing the hall where the states were to be assembled. These were not only charged, but soldiers stood over them with matches ready lighted in their hands. The several orders of the states were here compelled to assemble. The king being seated on his throne, surrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addressed a speech to the states, he ordered a secretary to read the new form of government, which he offered to the states for their acceptance. As they were surrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marshal of the diet, and the speakers of the other orders, signed the form of government, and the states took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himself. This extraordinary transaction was concluded in a manner equally extraordinary. The king drew a book of *Pluma* from his pocket, and taking off his crown, began to sing *Te Deum*, in which he was joined by the assembly. He afterwards informed them, that he intended in six years time again to convene an assembly of the states. Thus was this great revolution completed without any bloodshed, in which the Swedes surrendered that constitution, which their forefathers had bequeathed to them.

The people over whom Gustavus reigned, had lost all political consequence, and all internal harmony, since the fatal reign of Charles XII. The imbecillity which succeeded upon the death of that celebrated monarch, had for half a century rendered them a prey to their ambitious and intriguing rivals. There was in the diet, says the royal historian of Prussia, a French and a Russian party; but there was not an individual among them that supported the party of the nation. Gustavus endeavoured to remedy this inconvenience; he had counteracted an aristocracy which could never have been productive of benefit to his people; he had not thought proper to disseminate principles of impartial liberty, as the most effectual balance to this dangerous inconvenience. He had found it necessary to employ the influence of France in opposition to the grasping ambition of the empress of Russia, but he was too enlightened and too proud to submit implicitly to the dictates of either. For six years from the revolution of 1772, assisted by the judicious and moderate counsel of count Charles Schetter the governor of his youth, and baron Lilljencrantz minister of the finances, he had reigned with great tranquillity; but the diets of 1773, and 1786, had enabled the higher orders of the state to recover a share of their authority, while the intrigues of Russia were daily becoming more formidable.

Such were the circumstances that induced Gustavus III. to meditate a project of hostilities against Russia. It can scarcely be doubted that he was encouraged in these views by the king of Prussia; and he was himself exceedingly anxious to engage the court of Denmark, which was equally exposed to the oppressive tyranny of Russia, to make a common cause with him in the present crisis. But the gold of Russia, as it should seem, and the sinister counsels of the corrupt courtiers of the prince of Denmark prevailed. Preparations were commenced in Sweden, in the

close

close of the year 1787, and it was on the 9th of June 1788, that the duke of Sudermania, brother to the king, set sail with twelve ships of the line from the port of Carlscron; at the same time that a number of troops rendezvoused at Stockholm, and seemed only to wait for a favourable wind to transport them to the frontiers of Finland.

It was in this situation that count Rafomoufki, ambassador from the czarina to the court of Stockholm, delivered an official note to the Swedish administration on the 18th of June, demanding an explanation respecting these warlike preparations. It will not be easy to understand the transactions that followed upon this note, without recollecting the nature of the Russian ambassador's situation, in the court of Gustavus. He was not considered here simply as what his title imported, the representative of his mistress, but as the head of a party in Sweden, as a visible centre of cabal and intrigue, and the animating soul of a body of men, who, instigated by the monarchy that delegated him, had frequently shaken the throne of Sweden to its foundation. The Russian party in this country had suffered a temporary defeat from the decisive conduct of Gustavus in the commencement of his reign; but they had since recovered the blow, and their machinations became every day more formidable. In this light the expressions of count Rafomoufki in the state-paper we have mentioned, will appear exceptionable, where he "declares to the administration of the king as well as to all persons of the Swedish nation, possessing any share in its government, that the czarina entertained dispositions towards them the most entirely pacific, and took a sincere interest in the preservation of their tranquillity."

The established rights of independent nations thus trampled upon, the king conceived the warmest resentment against the language of this note. Appointed to declare the sentiments of his masters, an envoy could properly address himself to the monarch alone. Every other authority was foreign to him; every other witness superfluous. Such was the law, such the proceeding of every court in Europe, which had in no instance been violated, but for unfriendly purposes. Gustavus quitted the port of Stockholm on the 24th of June 1788, and arrived with his army in Finland on the 2d of July.—In our account of Russia, the reader will find a narrative of some of the principal transactions of the war. After various engagements both by land and sea, in which Gustavus III. gave a display of most indefatigable exertions, an agreement for establishing an everlasting peace, and fixing the frontiers of Russia, as they were before the war broke out, was signed at Werela on the river Kymene, between the plenipotentiaries of the empress of Russia and the king of Sweden.

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

The diet being dissolved, the king returned to Stockholm, where, at a masquerade in the opera-house, on the night of the 10th of March, 1792, he was shot with a pistol by an assassin, named Ankerstroem; in consequence of a conspiracy among some of the discontented nobles; and, having lived in great pain till the 29th of that month, he expired, in the 40th year of his age, and the 20th of his reign.

The rejection of dying gloriously through the means of a vice assassin is said to have embittered the last moments of the king's life, much more than even the agonizing pain of his wounds. He threw the same noble and brave spirit on his death-bed, as he had done before his enemies during his lifetime. He retained all his mental faculties

facilities to the last, which enabled him so well to arrange the future government of his country: the wounds at first indicated the most promising appearances of recovery, and the fluxes were all extracted, but some rusty pieces of iron had penetrated so far into the body as to render any surgical operation immediate death. The presence of mind shewn by Gustavus during his illness was very singular. While he waited for the arrival of his surgeons in an apartment adjoining the saloon of the opera-house, several of the foreign ministers presented themselves, to whom he said, "I have given orders, gentlemen, that the gates of the city shall be shut. You will, therefore, not take it ill, if you should be unable to send couriers to your courts until after three days. Your advices will then be more certain, since it will probably be known whether I can survive or not." His conversation then related to the effects, which the accident might produce in Europe; and the love of fame, which was always his predominant passion, was perceptible in his remarks.

General Baron d'Armfeldt, one of his most affectionate friends, entered the room, pale with horror, and unable to utter a word. As he approached, the king stretching out his hand to him, said, "what's the matter, my friend? be not alarmed on my account. You know, by experience, what a wound is!" thus politely alluding to a wound which the general had received in Finland.

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

Thus fell by the hand of treason, Gustavus III. a prince of high ambition, but rather a man of address than of ability. His manners were popular and insinuating, his eloquence fluent and bold. His conduct was, however, seldom tempered with judgment, or his speeches replete with wisdom. If in private life a turbulent disposition unfits a man for society, surely the evil is increased in an infinite proportion, where the lives of millions, and the treasures of nations are wantonly squandered. By the passion of Gustavus for war, Sweden was exhausted of its resources, and reduced in its population. It is but just, however, to add, that except his love of war, which certainly always indicates a want of feeling and humanity, the errors of Gustavus appear to have been rather errors of the understanding, than of the heart. Even in desiring arbitrary power, he does not seem to have been prompted by any inclination to abuse it; for he was not practically a tyrant. The last scene of his life was such indeed as ought to blot from remembrance a long catalogue of crimes. His last words were a declaration of pardon to the conspirators against his life. The actual murderer alone was excepted; and he was excepted at the strong instance of the regent, and those who surrounded his majesty in his dying moments.

The prince royal, being fourteen years of age, was immediately proclaimed king, by the name of Gustavus Adolphus; and the duke of Sudermania, his uncle, and brother to the late king, in compliance with his majesty's will, was declared sole regent, and guardian of the young sovereign, till he attains his majority, which is fixed at the age of eighteen. The mild and equal conduct of the regent has preserved the country from the horrors of internal war; while the wisdom, spirit, and patriotism of his councils, will probably save it from the insidious attacks of a restless and dangerous neighbour. Wisely averse to hostility, the duke of Sudermania has cultivated successfully the friendship of all the belligerent powers, except Russia. In the mean time, his attention has been laudably directed to exciting the

dormant

dormant spirit of industry in the nation; to the encouragement of their domestic manufactures, and to the enforcing of rigid œconomy among all the dependents of government, in order that the example of the court, co-operating, with his own, may exert a salutary influence over the people in opposing the increase of luxury, gambling and dissipation. It is a pleasure to contemplate such dispositions in so elevated a station; and while the regent perseveres in this conduct, he will undoubtedly merit the enviable title of the father of his prince and his country.

Several circumstances have occurred in Sweden, which induce us to believe that there exists a spirit of freedom in that country. Intelligence from Stockholm announces, that very free sentiments are indulged in that city, and that even the government is not disposed to proceed with much severity against the advocates of liberty. In the beginning of the year 1793, Mr. Thorild published a pamphlet, intitled, "The Liberty of Reason laid open to the Regent and to the Swedish Nation." This pamphlet is addressed to his highness, and summons him to grant to the nation the liberty of reason, and points out the advantages of a republic. This pamphlet was immediately suppressed and the author imprisoned. When Mr. Thorild was tried, however, the citizens insisted that the doors of the court of justice should be open, that they might assist at the trial. This request was complied with, and when they heard his defence, they applauded the prisoner, and on his return, are said to have accompanied his carriage with shouts of approbation.

The court of Stockholm published a proclamation, in June 1793, in which it was most solemnly asserted, that the ill reports which were spread of the bad situation of this country, were without foundation; that the situation of the kingdom is as good as could be expected, after a destructive war, and a great revolution; that it is in the best understanding with foreign powers; that public credit increases; the national debts are paid by degrees; that the king's household observes the strictest œconomy; that the debts of the late king amounting to one hundred and fifty thousand six-dollars, are all liquidated; and the expences of the court diminished above thirty-three thousand six-dollars; and that, although it cannot yet repeal the taxes, it is certain that no fresh burdens are necessary. This proclamation concludes with an assurance, that during the minority of the king, no diet will be convoked, as being absolutely contrary to the will of the late monarch.

The allied powers at war with France have made considerable exertions to persuade this country to relinquish their neutrality. A note was delivered in August last by Mr. Keene, chargé d'affaires from his Britannic majesty, to the members of the cabinet of Sweden, wherein it is asserted on the part of his Britannic majesty, that orders have been issued, in his privy council, concerning several measures relative to the trade and navigation of neutral nations, during the present war; and his majesty therefore expects on the part of Sweden, that no vessels or goods taken by the enemy from British subjects, shall be permitted to enter the Swedish ports, or be sold in Sweden; also that all the British sailors, prisoners, &c. carried into the ports of Sweden by the enemy, shall immediately be set at liberty. To this note the Swedish government replied that the strictest orders would be given to observe the articles of the treaties of neutrality.

The last intelligence from Stockholm announces the discovery of a conspiracy to overturn the government. Several conspicuous characters have been imprisoned upon suspicion of being concerned in it; and by the latest accounts it appears to be the relics of the famous plot formed by the aristocracy for the subversion of the government, for which Ankerstroem suffered in the preceding year.

Gustavus Adolphus IV. of Holstein-Gottorp, king of Sweden, was born November 1, 1778; and succeeded his father March 29, 1792.

Brothers

Brothers and sisters to the late king :

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

## MUSCOVY, OR THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

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

Russia in Europe contains 1,194,976 SQUARE MILES, with 17 Inhabitants to each.

**DIVISIONS } ACCORDING** to the most authentic accounts of this mighty em-  
**AND NAME. }** pire, it consists of forty-two provinces, or governments, besides  
 part of Carelia, Esthonia, Ingria, Livonia, and part of Finland, conquered from  
 Sweden; the Crimea, or Crim Tartary, anciently the Taurica Cherfonefus, a pen-  
 ninsula in the Euxine sea, subject to the Turks formerly, but added, in the year 1783,  
 to the Russian empire, together with the isle of Taman, and part of Cuban. The  
 Russians are supposed to have gained above a million of subjects by this cession; they  
 possess also the duchy of Courland, and a great part of Lithuania, in Poland; together  
 with some large territories, in consequence of a second partition of Poland, in the  
 year 1793, between the czarina, and the king of Prussia; so that she has for ever  
 united to her empire the following tracts of land, with all their inhabitants, viz.  
 a line beginning at the village of Druy, on the left bank of the river Dwina, from  
 thence extending to Neroch and Dubrova; from thence passing Kunish, near the  
 frontier of Galicia; from thence to the river Dniester; and lastly, running along  
 the river till it enters the old border of Russia and Poland at Jegertic\*.

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

The country now comprised under the name of Russia, or the Russias, is of an  
 extent nearly equal to all the rest of Europe, and greater than the Roman empire  
 in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius subdued by Alexander, or  
 both put together, as may be seen by turning to the table, page 28.

\* See the Ukase (or Manifesto) of the empress relative to the second partition of Poland, dated  
 March, 1793.

Russian Empire in Europe.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Greek Church,	Ruf. or Muc.	784,650	1160	1050	Moscow.
	Belgorod,	72,900	375	285	Waronetz.
	Don Coffacs,	57,000	400	285	Panchina.
	Uk. Coffacs,	45,000	330	205	Kiow.
	Laplant,	72,000	405	270	Kola.
Conquered from Sweden since 1700	Ruf. Finland,	41,320	320	180	Wyburg.
	Llvonia,	21,525	218	145	Riga.
	Ingria,	9,100	175	90	PETERSBURGH { N. Lat. 60. E. Long. 30-25.
Seized from the Turks in 1783,	Crim. Tartary,	(1,103,495			
	Russian Empire in Asia,	8,200			Kaffa.
Christians and Idolaters,	Muscovy, Tartary, and Siberia,	2,200,000	3150	1500	Tobolsky.
	Kalm. Tartary,	850,000	2100	750	Astrachan.
By the partition treaty between the Emperor, Prussia and Russia,	Lithuania in Poland	64,000	300	250	Grodno.
Total		4,225,695			

Russia takes its name from the Ruffi or Boruffi, a Slavonic tribe. The word Muscovy is derived from the river Mosca, on which the ancient capital Moscow stands. According to its situation and climate, the country is divided into the northern, middle, and southern regions; and those again divided into governments, named after those towns in which courts of judicature are established. The northern division contains the governments of St. Peterburg, Archangel, Olonetz, Vybourg, Revel, Riga, Pfcov, Tver Novgorod, Vologda, Yarostavl, Kostroma Vitka, Perme, Tobolsk. The middle division contains the governments of Moscow, or Moscov, generally called Mosqua by the Russians, Smolensk, Polotsk, Mooghilev, Tchernigow, Novgorod, and Sieverskoy, Kharkov, Kourik, Orel, Kalouz, Toola, Riazane, Vladimer, Nezney-Novgorod, Kazane, Sinberk, Penza, Tambow, Voronez, Saralov, Oufa, Kolkvanc, Irkoutk. The southern region contains the governments of Kiev, Featherinoflav, Caucasus, the province of Taurida, and the habitations of the Don Kozaks\*.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, VEGETABLES, MINES, AND MINERALS. } Muscovy, the longest day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half: whereas in the most northern the sun is seen in summer two months above the horizon. The reader from this will naturally conclude, that there is in Muscovy a great diversity of soil as well as climate, and that the extremes of both are to be seen and felt in this vast empire.

The severity of the climate in Russia, properly so called, is very great. Dr. John Glen King, who resided eleven years in Russia, observes that the cold in St. Petersburg, by Fahrenheit's scale, is, during the months of December, January, and February, usually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point; though commonly, in the course of the winter, it is for a week or ten days some degrees lower. "It is difficult," says Dr. King,

\* In this table, which is copied from the authentic work of Captain Plecheef, the spelling of the Russian names is adapted to the English pronunciation, by his accurate translator, Mr. Smirnov, chaplain to the Russian legation at the court of Great Britain.

"for

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

One advantage, which the Russians derive from the severity of their climate, is the preserving of provisions by the frost. Many families, as soon as the frost sets in for the winter, about the end of October, kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of snow between them, and then take them out for use as occasion requires: by this means they save the nourishment of the animal for several months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Peterburgh, 850 miles, is esteemed the finest they have; nor can it be distinguished at the table from what is fresh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Peterburgh are thus supplied in winter with all manner of provisions, at a cheap rate; and it is curious to see the vast stacks of whole hogs, sheep, fish, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for sale. The method of thawing frozen provisions in Russia is by immersing them in cold water: for when the operation of thawing

The word  
Moscow  
is introduced into the  
governments.  
The north-  
west, Vy-  
stroma Vi-  
ts of Mos-  
k, Polotsk,  
ark, Orel,  
ark, Penza,  
ern region  
nce of Tau-

of Russia, or  
y does not  
n is seen in  
aturally con-  
climate, and

great. Dr.  
cold in St.  
er, January,  
om 40 to 52  
of the winter,  
s Dr. King,

tor, Mr. Smir-  
on at the court.

“ for

them is effected by heat, it occasions a violent fermentation, and almost a sudden putrefaction; but when produced by cold water, the ice is attracted out of the body, and forms a transparent incrustation round it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as fresh as if just gathered out of the garden; but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes so rancid and strong that it cannot be eaten.

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

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

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, FORESTS, } Russia is in general a flat, level country,  
AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } except toward the north, where lie the Zimnopoias mountains, thought to be the famous Montes Rhiphei of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the Earth. On the western side of the Dnieper comes in part of the Carpathian mountains, and between the Black Sea and the Caspian, Mount Caucasus borders a range of vast plains extending to the Sea of Oral. And here we may observe, that from Peterburgh to Pekin, one shall hardly meet with a mountain on the road through Independent Tartary; and from Peterburgh to the northern part of France, by the road of Dantzick, Hamburg, and Amsterdam, we scarcely can perceive the smallest hill.

The most considerable rivers are the Wolga, or Volga, taking its source from morasses in Tver, running east and south, traversing the greatest part of Muscovy, and which, winding a course of 3000 English miles, discharges itself into the Caspian sea: producing many kinds of fish, and fertilizing the lands on each side. In this long course there is not one cataract to interrupt the navigation, but the nearer it approaches to the mouth, the river multiplies its number of isles, and divides itself into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world: all these arms divide themselves into others still less, which join and meet again; so that the Wolga discharges itself into the Caspian sea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moscow preserves a communication, not only with all the southern parts of Russia, but even with Persia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caspian. The Don, or Tanais, which divides the eastern part of Russia from Asia, in its course towards the east, comes so near the  
Wolga,

Wolga, that the late czar intended to have cut a canal between them; but this grand project was defeated by the irruptions of the Tartars. This river, exclusive of its windings, discharges itself into the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Afoph, about four hundred miles from its rise. The Boristhenes, or Dnieper, which is likewise one of the largest rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Cossacs, and that of the Nagaïsch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea, at Kinbourn near Oczakow; it has thirteen cataracts within a small distance. To these may be added the two Dwinas, one of which empties itself at Riga into the Baltic; the other has its source near Ustiaga, and dividing itself into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the White Sea.

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

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, } These do not differ greatly from those de-  
AND INSECTS. } scribed in the Scandinavian provinces. The

lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; it is said to be produced chiefly in the fir tree forests. Hyænas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other quadrupeds already described, afford their furs for clothing the inhabitants; but those of the black foxes and ermine are more valuable in Russia than elsewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almost the only beasts of burden known in many parts of Russia. The czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horses for war and carriages; but those employed in the ordinary purposes of life are small, as are their cows and sheep.

We know of few birds in Russia, that have not been already described. The same may be said of fishes, except that the Russians are better provided than their neighbours with sturgeon, cod, salmon, and beluga: the latter resembles a sturgeon, and is often called the large sturgeon; it is from twelve to fifteen feet in length, and weighs from 9 to 16 and 18 hundred weight; its flesh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the sturgeon and the beluga the Russians make the famous caviar, so much esteemed for richness and flavour, that it is often sent in presents to crowned heads. In cutting up the belugas, they often find what is called the beluga-stone, concealed in that mass of glandular flesh which covers the posterior part of the dorsal spine, supplying the place of a kidney in fish. When it is taken from the fish, it is soft and moist, but quickly hardens in the air. Its size is that of a hen's egg, shape sometimes oval and sometimes flatted, and commonly sells for a ruble. This stone is supposed by professor Pallas to belong to the genitals of the fish: it holds a considerable rank, though with little merit, among the domestic remedies of the Russians, who scrape it, and mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diseases of children, and other disorders.

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

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

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

As her imperial majesty of all the Russias possesses many of the countries from whence the swarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire issued, there is reason to believe that her dominions must have been better peopled formerly than they are at present. Perhaps the introduction of the small-pox and the venereal disease may have assisted in the depopulation; and it is likely that the prodigious quantity of spirituous liquors, consumed by the inhabitants of the North, is unfriendly to generation.

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

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Russians were barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenness; no less than 4000 brandy shops have been reckoned in Moscow. Not only the common people, but many of the boyars, or nobles, lived in a continual state of idleness and intoxication; and the most complete objects of misery and barbarity appeared in the streets, while the court of Moscow was the most splendid of any upon the globe. The czar and his grandees dressed after the superb Asiatic manner. The earl of Carlisle, in the account of his embassy, says, that he could see nothing but gold and precious stones in the robe of the czar and his courtiers; and his account is corroborated by travellers who have lately visited Russia. The manufactures, however, of those, and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter saw the bulk of his subjects, at his accession to the throne, treated little better than beasts of burden, to support the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aside their long robes, and dress in the European manner; and he even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The Russians, before his time, had few ships upon their coasts. They had no conveniences for travelling, no pavements in their streets, no places of public diversion; and they entertained a contempt for all improvements of the mind. At present, a French or English gentleman may live as comfortably and sociably in Russia, as in most other parts of Europe. Their polite assemblies, since the accession of the present empress, have been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient usages remain. It is, however, to be observed, that notwithstanding the severities of Peter, and the prudence of succeeding governments, drunkenness still continues among some ranks; nor are even priests and ladies ashamed of it on holidays; and the bulk of the people are unenlightened.

The Russians were formerly noted for so strong an attachment to their native soil, that they seldom visited foreign parts. This was the consequence of their pride and ignorance; for Russian nobility, besides those who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her imperial majesty even interests her-

\* A set of rules for the regulation of a Russian assembly concludes with this injunction—  
N. B. Ladies are not to be drunk before ten o'clock. Consett's Travels,—p. 115.

self in the education of young men of quality in the knowledge of the world, and foreign services, particularly that of the British fleet.

It is said that the Russian ladies were formerly as submissive to their husbands in their families, as the latter are to their superiors in the field; and that they thought themselves ill treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the discipline of a whip, manufactured by themselves, which they presented to their husbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar, consisting of some very whimsical rites, many of which are now disused. When the parents have agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never seen each other, the bride is critically examined by a number of females, who are to correct, if possible, any defects they find in her person. On her wedding-day she is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the priest has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or sexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, wishing that she may prove as fruitful as that plant.

**FUNERALS.]** The Russians entertain many fantastic notions with regard to the state of departed souls. After the dead body is dressed, a priest is hired to pray for his soul, to purify it with incense, and to sprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better sort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many genuflections of sorrow, the priest produces a ticket, signed by the bishop and other clergymen, as the passport of the deceased to heaven. When this is put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpse, the company return to the house of their departed friend, where they drown their sorrow in intoxication; which lasts, among the better sort, with a few intervals, for forty days. During that time, a priest every day says prayers over the grave of the deceased; for though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be assisted by prayer in his long journey to the place of his destination after this life.

**PUNISHMENTS.]** The Russians were remarkable for the severity and variety of their punishments, which were both inflicted and endured with a wonderful insensibility. Peter the Great used to suspend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themselves to death. The single and double knout have been inflicted upon ladies\*, as well as men of quality. Both of them are execrating; but in the double knout, the hands are bound behind the prisoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, with the disorder of both his shoulders, and then his back is in a manner scarified by the executioner, with a hard thong, cut from a wild ass's skin. This punishment has been so often fatal, that a surgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it

\* A particular account of the manner in which this punishment was inflicted upon a Russian lady, is given in *menſ. l'Abſié Châppe D'Antroche's* journey into Siberia. "Mad. Lapouchin was one of the finest women belonging to the court of the empress Elizabeth, and was intimately connected with a foreign ambassador, then engaged in a conspiracy. Amidst a vast concourse of people, one of the executioners seized her by both hands, and turning half round, threw her on his back, bending forwards, so as to raise her a few inches from the ground; the other executioner then laid hold of her delicate limbs, and, without any remorse, adjusted her on the back of his companion. Sometimes he laid his large hand brutally upon her head, in order to make her keep it down; son etimes, like a butcher going to slay a lamb, he seemed to footh

her, as soon as he had fixed her in the most favourable attitude. This executioner then took a kind of whip called knout, made of a long strap of leather prepared for this purpose; he then retreated a few steps, measuring the requisite distance with a steady eye; and leaping backwards, gave a stroke with the end of the whip, so as to carry away a slip of skin from the neck to the bottom of the back; then striking his feet against the ground, he took his aim for applying the second blow parallel to the former; so that in a few moments all the skin of her back was cut away in small slips, most of which remained hanging to the first. Her tongue was cut out immediately after, and she was sent into Siberia. In 1762, she was recalled from banishment by Peter III."

should

should cease. It is not always the number of the strokes, but the method of applying them, which occasions the death of the criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four blows, by striking upon the ribs; though persons are sometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred strokes, moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out the tongue, are likewise practised in Russia; and even the late empress Elizabeth, though the prohibited capital punishments, gave way to the supposed necessity of those tortures.

According to the strict letter of the law, there are no capital punishments in Russia, except in the case of high treason: but there is much less humanity in it than has been supposed; for there are many felons who die under the knout, and others die of fatigue in their journeys to Siberia, and from the hardships they suffer in the mines: so that there is reason to believe, that not fewer criminals suffer death in Russia than in those countries wherein capital punishments are authorized by the laws. The prohibition of torture does honour to the humanity of the present empress.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and foreheads marked, are sometimes sentenced for life to the public works at Cronstadt, Vissnei Volotok, and other places; but the common practice is to send them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nerzhink. There are upon an average from 1600 to 2000 convicts at these mines. The greatest part are confined in barracks, excepting those who are married; the latter are permitted to build huts, near the mines, for themselves and families.

TRAVELLING.] Among the many conveniences introduced of late into Russia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expence very trifling. Like their Scandinavian neighbours, the Russians travel in sledges made of the bark of the linden-tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein-deer, when the snow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Russia, horses draw their sledges; and the sledge-way, in February, becomes so well beaten, that they erect a kind of couch upon the sledges, in which they may lie at full length, and so sleep and travel night and day, wrapped up in good furs; thus they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, such as that between Peterburgh and Moscow, in three days and three nights. Her imperial majesty, in her journeys, is drawn in a house which contains a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniences for four people, by 24 post-horses; and the house itself is fixed on a sledge.

DIFFERENT NATIONS.] Russia is not a nation but a vast collection of nations, SUBJECT TO RUSSIA. } differing in persons, language, and religion. They have been divided by the Russian geographers, into the 17 following classes. 1. The Slavonic nations comprehending the Russians properly so called, who are the predominant inhabitants of the whole empire; and the Poles who inhabit the banks of the river Irith, and the governments Polotk and Mogbileu. 2. The Germanic nations, comprehending the Germans, Swedes, and Danes; the first inhabiting Esthonia and Livonia; the second, the Russian Finland; the third, the islands in the Baltic; and all the three are Lutherans. 3. The Luttonian or Livonian nations; who are intermixed in many parts with the Finns. 4. The Finns or Tehoude nations inhabiting the governments of Viborg and St. Peterburgh, Revel, the district of Riga, and part of Livonia, and chiefly Lutherans. Not less than nine nations are supposed from the similarity of their language, to descend from the Finns. They are the Laplanders or Lopari inhabiting the government of Archangel, and subsisting by hunting and fishing. The Permians who live in the government of Perme; and about the northern parts of the river Obe. The Zheryane and the Votiaki who live in the governments Kazane and Viatka, and employ themselves in husbandry. The Tcheuembili who inhabit Kazane Niznev-Novogorod and Orenburg. The Tchuvafchi and the Mordva who live together

in Kazane, Oufa, Penza, and Nizney-Novogorod. The Vogoulitchi, dwelling in the northern parts of the Oural\* mountains. The Ostiaki, who are the most numerous people in Siberia. Many of those nations, whose names are so uncouth to an English ear, are Christians; but, in many others, the greater part are Pagans, governed in all their concerns by Shamans or Wizzards. 5. The Tartarean nations, of whom we shall speak hereafter. 6. The Caucasian nations, living on the eastern coast of the Black Sea, the banks of the Kubane and the Sinja, and the broad belt of the Caucasian mountains, between the Black Sea and the Caspian. They are herdsmen and robbers, and hardly acknowledge any authority but that of their own chiefs. 7. The Samoeds, divided into European and Siberian, inhabiting the northernmost parts of Russia, along the coasts of the icy Sea from the river Pelchora as far as the Lena. They lead a wandering life, and subsist chiefly on deers flesh, and are for the most part governed by Shamans. 8. The Mungalian nations, of which the Kalmucks are the most distinguished. They moved from the east towards the river Oural, and came into the interior parts of Russia, as far as the Volga in 1723. They speak the Mungalian language, profess the religion of Lama, and live by the breeding of cattle. 9. The Youngoosi are dispersed even beyond the Chinese frontier, they live by hunting and fishing, and are idolaters, governed by Shamans. 10. The Kamtchadals, who live by hunting and fishing in the southern part of Kamtchatka. They inhabit huts in winter; and in summer build huts, a kind of buildings raised on pillars in the manner of a pigeon house. 11. The Koriaki, inhabiting the northern part of Kamtchatka, divided into the wandering or hunting, and the rein-deer Koriaki, which last live by rearing rein-deer. 12. The Kouriltzie, inhabiting part of Kamptchatka and the Kouriltzie islands. They are more civilised than the Kamptchadals, and savage nations of Siberia. 13. The Aleauti inhabit the isles between Siberia and America. These much resemble the Eskimaux, from whom they probably are descended. 14. The Arintzi, a very numerous people scattered in the government of Kolhirane. 15. The Yukaghiri are dispersed in the coasts of the Glacian sea, and seem a mixture of Samoeds and Tartars. 16. The Tchoukchi occupy the north-eastern part of Siberia. They subsist by rearing the rein-deer and by hunting, and bear much resemblance to the Koriaki, but are still more rude and savage, and much addicted to suicide. 17. Settlers from foreign nations in the Russian empire, as the Persians and Georgians in the province of Astracan; the Indians there, and the Perliar; Greeks in little Russia, and in the government of Ecatherinolloff and the province Yaurida; and Jews and Armenians in various parts of the empire; the former chiefly in the governments of Polotk and Moghelef. This general enumeration will assist the reader in consulting the largest Russian maps; a more particular account follows, of the more considerable classes of inhabitants in this great empire.

Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Russian dominions, now live in fixed houses and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other subjects. Till lately, they were not admitted into the Russian armies; but they now make excellent soldiers.

The *Cossacs*, who lately made a figure in the military history of Europe, were originally Polish peasants, and served in the Ukraine as a militia against the Tartars. Being oppressed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them removed to the uncultivated banks of the Don, or Tanais, and there established a colony. They were soon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Afoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in ashes. They next put themselves under the protection of the Russians, and their possessions, which consisted of

\* Oural is a Tartarean word signifying a belt.

thirty-nine towns on both sides of that river, soon reached from Ribna to Afoph. They professed the Greek religion; and occasionally served against the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Maeotis.

The internal government of the Cossacs approaches very near to the idea we form of that of the ancient Germans, as described by Tacitus. The captains and officers of the nations choose a chief, whom they call hauptman, and he resides at Circaska; but this choice is confirmed by the czar; and the hauptman holds his authority during life. He acts as a superior over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a separate commonwealth, governed by its own hetman, who is chosen annually. They serve in war, in consideration of their enjoying their laws and liberties. They indeed have several times rebelled, for which they suffered severely under Peter the Great. But the Russian yoke was so much easier than that of the Poles, that, in 1654, the Cossacs of the Ukraine put themselves likewise under the protection of Russia. They complained, however, that their liberties had been invaded; and in the war between Charles XII. and Peter, their hetman, Mazeppa, joined the former; but he found himself unable to fulfil the magnificent promises he had made to Charles.

The mien and character of the Tartars of Kasan, and of their descendants, are very uniform, and may serve for the characteristic marks of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally straight and well-made, have small faces, with fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, are sober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatness. The Tartarean women are of a wholesome complexion rather than handsome, and of a good constitution; from their earliest infancy they are accustomed to labour, retirement, modesty, and submission. The Tartars of Kasan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to sobriety, and to a strict observance of the manners of their ancestors. They are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the smallest village has its chapel, school, priest, and school-master. The best Tartarean academies in the Russian empire are those of Kasan, Toboak, and Astracan, which are under the direction of the Gagouns, or high-priests. It is not uncommon to find small collections of historical anecdotes in manuscript, in the huts of the bears; and their merchants are pretty extensively acquainted with the history of their own people, and that of the circumjacent states. Such as choose to make a progress in theology, enter themselves into the schools of Bougharia, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kasan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exercise several trades, and have some manufactures. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very rarely seen among them, and bills of exchange never. Many of them carry on a great deal of business. At Kasan they prepare what is called in England, Morocco leather. The villages of these people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. These villages were at first composed of troops of wandering shepherds; but being drawn gradually closer together by successive population, they found themselves under the necessity of cultivating the earth, and erecting fixed habitations. They never leave their fields fallow, for which reason they use more manure than the Russians. They are well acquainted with the management of bees, from which they derive great profit. Most of the villages contain tanners, shoe-makers, tailors, dyers, smiths, and carpenters. The laborious females spin, and make cloth from the fleece of their flocks, and thread from hemp of their own cultivation.

A chest or two, some carpets and pieces of felt, mats made of the bark of trees, with which they cover broad benches, that they use instead of beds, with a few chairs

chairs and tables, are commonly all the furniture to be seen in their houses; though some of the principal people have stuffed cushions and pillows on their sleeping benches. But chairs and tables are only seen in towns; and even there, never but in the houses of such as have business with foreigners. They commonly make four meals a day, at which their bench serves them for table and chairs; for on this they place themselves round the dishes, each person sitting on his heels, after the oriental manner. They make ablutions, and say prayers, at the beginning and end of all their meals. The Tartars of Kafan, as well as most of the Mahometan Tartars, are very polite towards strangers. Old men, who have maintained good characters, are held in great veneration among them, and are the arbitrators in all disputes.

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

The *Votiaks*, a Finnish race, chiefly inhabit the governments of Kafan and Viatka. This nation was one of those who were formerly under the protection of the Tartars; but since it has been subjected to Russia, it has preferred the quiet and fecundity, which agriculture affords, to the ambulatory life of herdsmen and shepherds. The *Votiaks* are of a middle stature, and generally red-haired; they are honest, peaceable, and hospitable. They are assiduous in rural economy, neglecting neither the culture of bees, nor the chase; in the latter they use indifferently the bow or fire-arms. In their leisure hours many of them employ themselves in making all sorts of turnery, such as cups, spoons, and shuttles; and others varnish all kinds of cups and bowls. The women are employed in sewing, in making linen, coarse cloths, and ornaments of embroidery. Some of the *Votiaks* are christians, but a great part of them are idolaters; though even these believe the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

The *Ostjaks*, likevise a Finnish race, are one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in subjection to Russia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their descendants are still reputed noble. As these people divide themselves into different tribes, they choose their chiefs from among the progeny of their ancient rulers. These maintain peace and good order, and superintend the payment of the taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the use of letters, and are extremely ignorant; they can reckon no farther than ten, as is the case with some other Finnish nations. These people have a singular custom, that the daughter-in-law never uncovers her face in the presence of her father-in-law; nor is the son-in-law allowed to appear before the mother-in-law till his wife has had a child. They are idolaters; and one of their opinions is, that bears enjoy after death a happiness at least equal to that which they expect for themselves. Whenever they kill one of these animals, they sing songs over him, in which they ask his pardon for the injury they have done him. Indeed, it appears that bears are in great estimation among all the Pagan nations of the north, and north-east.

The *Tschouatches* are supposed to be Finns from their language, they dwell along the two sides of the Wolga, in the governments of Nichnei-Novogorod, Kafan, and Orenberg. They never live in towns, but assemble in small villages, and choose the forests for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpose ferew-barrel markets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that on the wedding night the bride is obliged to pull off her husband's boots. A late writer says, "Among the *Tschouatches* the husband is master of the house; he orders every thing himself; and it is the duty of the wife to obey with a reply."

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

The *Kalmucs*, also a Mungalian race, are a courageous tribe, and numerous; for the most part raw-boned and stout. Their visage is so flat that the skull of a Kalmuc may easily be known from others. They have thick lips, a small nose and a short chin, their complexion a reddish and yellowish brown. Their women are of a similar shape with the men, but their skin a healthy white and red; they are lively, agreeable, and industrious. They are much attached to their chiefs or masters, but their active spirit, and their improvidence and carelessness, make them thievish and dirty. In their robberies, they use more stratagem than violence, and as they believe in the nocturnal wandering of dead men's spirits, are seldom guilty of murder. They are superstitious about good and bad days, and have written laws, which are founded on reason, custom, and the will of the prince. Their code is very favourable to females, and never regards a woman as the author of any crime. Rape and adultery are punished with a mulct of nine head of cattle. Their speech is a mongrel dialect, with many Tartarean words, but their religious books are in the Tangut or Tibetan. The sole profession among them is the breeding of cattle; they pursue the chase as an amusement: their dwelling is in tents, or yours of felt, which they call *gar*, and the Russians *kibitka*. Their clothing is oriental. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their nostrils. Their principal food is animals, tame and wild; with the roots and plants of their deserts; in which they are very indelicate; for even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of distemper or age; so that in every horde the flesh-market hath the appearance of a lay-stall of carrion. Although they consume a vast quantity of food, they can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both sexes smoke continually; during the summer they keep to the north, and in winter to the southern deserts. They sleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themselves with the same.

The *Kamtshadales* subsist by hunting and fishing. The chase furnishes them with fables, foxes, and other game. Their nets are made of the stamina of nettles. They sometimes employ themselves in building huts, forming different wooden utensils, cutting wood for fuel and building, and making bows and arrows: but much of their time is passed in absolute idleness, and indolence, which are extreme. Poverty gives them no concern; and nothing but the calls of hunger can drive them to the chase. They live in villages, consisting of a few small houses, and situated in general near some river. When a village becomes too populous, they separate and form a new one. They eat and drink much; but as their food is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domestic animals, upon which they put a high value. Some of them travel in small carriages drawn by these animals; and a complete Kamtshadalian equipage, dogs, harness, and all, costs in that country 4l. 10s. or near twenty rubles. The Kamtshadales believed the immortality of the soul, before they embraced the Christian religion.

The manners of the *Siberians* were formerly so barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater punishment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by banishing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swedish officers

cers and soldiers introduced European usages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. In this forlorn region, so long unknown to Europe, some new mines have lately been discovered, which, upon their first opening, have yielded 45,000 pounds of fine silver, said to have been obtained with little difficulty or expence. Kamtschatka is now considered as the most horrid place of exile in the vast empire of Russia, and hither some of the greatest criminals are sent.

[RELIGION.] The established religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are too numerous and complicated to be discussed here. The pope's supremacy they disavow; and though they disclaim image worship, they retain many idolatrous and superstitious customs. Their churches are full of pictures of saints whom they consider as mediators. They observe a number of fasts and lents, so that they live half the year very abstemiously; an institution which is extremely convenient for their soil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the sacraments and Trinity. Their bishops and other ecclesiastics, though not their secular priests, are obliged to observe celibacy. Peter the Great shewed his profound knowledge of government in nothing more than in the reformation of his church. He declared himself the head of the church; and preserved the subordinations of metropolitans, archbishops, and bishops. Their priests have no fixed income, but depend for subsistence upon the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after establishing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full possession of all their idle ceremonies; nor did he cut off the beards of his clergy; that impolitic attempt was reserved for the late emperor, and greatly contributed to his fatal catastrophe. Before his time, an incredible number of both sexes were shut up in convents; nor has it been found prudent entirely to abolish those societies. The abuses of them, however, are now in a great measure removed; for no male can become a monk till he is turned of thirty; and no female a nun, till she is fifty; and even then not without permission of the superiors. The present empress has annexed the church lands to the crown, and, in return, grants pensions to the higher clergy and the monks.

The conquered provinces, as already observed, retain the exercise of their religion; but such is the extent of the Russian empire, that many of its subjects are Mahometans, and more of them no better than Pagans, governed by Shamans, or wizards who pretend to cure diseases, to avert misfortunes, and to fore-tell or controul the events of futurity. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity. On the banks of the river Sarpa is a flourishing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Sarepta: the beginning of the settlement was in 1765, with distinguished privileges from the imperial court.

[LANGUAGE.] The common language of Russia is a mixture of the Polish and Sclavonian; their priests, and the most learned of their clergy, make use of what is called modern Greek; and they who know that language in its purity are at no loss for understanding it in its corrupted state. The Russians have at present thirty letters, the forms of which have a strong resemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Russians formerly made but an inconsiderable appearance in the republic of letters; but the great encouragement lately given by their sovereigns, has produced sufficient proofs, that they are not deficient in intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them, at their academical meetings, have been favourably received all over Europe; especially those that relate to astronomy, the mathematics, and natural philosophy. The speeches pronounced by the bishop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marshal, at the late opening of the commission for a new code of laws,

are elegant and classical. Many of the Greek and Latin classics have been transferred by natives into the Russian language. The efforts to civilize them did not begin with Peter the Great, but were much older. A small glimmering, like the first day-break, was seen under czar Iwan in the middle of the 16th century. This became more conspicuous under Alexius Michaelowitz: but under Peter it burst forth with the splendor of a rising sun, and hath continued ever since to ascend towards its meridian.

**UNIVERSITIES.]** Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moscow; one for classical learning and philosophy, the second for mathematics, and the third for navigation and astronomy. To these he added a dispensary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of some able German chemists and apothecaries, who furnish medicines not only to the army, but all over the kingdom. The present empress established an university at Peterburgh, and invited some of the most learned foreigners in every faculty, who are provided with good salaries; a military academy also owes its origin to the same royal patronage, where the young nobility and officers' sons are taught the art of war. It ought likewise to be mentioned to the honour of the same benefactress, that she is actually employed in founding a number of schools, for the education of the lower classes of her subjects, throughout the best inhabited parts of the empire.

**CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, & OTHER BUILDINGS.]** Peterburgh naturally takes the lead in this division. It lies at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga, already mentioned, in latitude 60; but the reader may have a better idea of its situation, by being informed that it stands on both sides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulf. In the year 1703, this city consisted of a few small fishing huts, on a spot so swampy, that the ground was formed into nine islands; by which, according to Voltaire, its principal quarters are still divided. Without entering into a minute description of this wonderful city, it is sufficient to say that it extends about six miles every way; and contains every structure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war, and commerce, that can be found in the most celebrated cities in Europe. There is a convent which deserves particular notice, in which 440 young ladies are educated at the empress's expence; 200 of them of superior rank, and the others, daughters of citizens and tradesmen, who, after a certain time allotted to their education, quit the convent with improvements suitable to their conditions of life, and those of the lower class are presented with a sum of money as a dowry if they marry, or to procure to themselves a proper livelihood. Near to this convent is a founding hospital, assistant to that noble one established at Moscow, where the mother may come to be delivered privately, and then, after the utmost attention to her, she leaves the child to the state, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.

As Peterburgh is the emporium of Russia, the number of foreign ships trading to it in the summer-time is surprising. In winter, 3000 one-horse sledges are employed for passengers in the streets. It is supposed that there are above 130,000 inhabitants in this city; and it is ornamented with thirty-five great churches: for in it almost every sect of the Christian religion is tolerated. It also contains five palaces, some of which are superb, particularly that which is called the New Summer Palace, near the Triumphal Port, which is an elegant piece of architecture. This magnificent city is defended on that side next the sea by the fortress of Cronstadt; which, considering the difficulty and danger of navigating a large naval force through the gulf of Finland, is sufficient to guard it on that side from the attacks of any enemy. Peterburgh is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of those on the Great's conquests from the Swedes. In the neighbourhood of this city are many country houses and gardens.

The

The city of Moscow was formerly the glory of this great empire. It stands on the river from whence it takes its name in lat. 55-45, and about 1414 miles north-east of London; and though its streets are not regular, it presents a very picturesque appearance; containing a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and streams. Neither Voltaire nor Buschin give us any satisfactory account of this capital; and little credit is to be given to the authors who divide it into regular quarters, and each quarter inhabited by a different order or profession. Buschin speaks of it as the largest city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it stands on, computed to be near 26 miles in circumference. It is generally agreed that Moscow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three places or squares. The merchants' exchange, according to the last writer, contains about 6000 fine shops, which display a vast parade of commerce, especially to and from China. No city exhibits a greater contrast than Moscow of magnificence and meanness in building. The houses of the inhabitants in general are miserable timber booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are spacious and lofty. The Kremlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the most superb structures in the world: it stands in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palaces, pleasure-houses, and stables, a victualling-house, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four parish churches, the arsenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremlin have beautiful spires, most of them gilt, or covered with silver: the architecture is in the Gothic taste; but the insides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the saints are decorated with gold, silver, and precious stones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than nine towers, covered with copper double gilt, and contains a silver branch with forty-eight lights, said to weigh 2800 pounds. A volume would scarcely suffice to recount the other particulars of the magnificence of this great city. Its sumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer, and chancery, are noble structures. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the Virgin Mary, in the Kremlin church, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what is seen at the famous house of Loretto, in Italy. Mr. Voltaire says, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moscow at the time he was building Peterburgh; for he caused it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

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

Nothing can be said with certainty as to the population of Moscow. When lord Carlisle was ambassador there, in the reign of Charles II. this city was twelve miles in compass, and the number of houses were computed at 40,000. When Voltaire wrote, Moscow was twenty miles in circumference, and its inhabitants said to amount to 300,000. Mr. Coxe confirms this account of the circumference of this city, but thinks the statement of its population much exaggerated.

rated; according to an account which was given to him by an English gentleman, which he received from the lieutenant of the police, and which he says may be relied on, Moscow contains within the ramparts 250,000 souls, and in the adjacent villages 50,000.

**CURIOSITIES.]** This article affords no great entertainment, as Russia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civilized nations. She can, however, produce many stupendous monuments of the public spirit of her sovereigns; particularly the canals made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. Siberia is full of old sepulchres of an unknown nation, whose instruments and arms were all made of copper. In the cabinet of natural history at Petersburg is a rhinoceros dug up on the banks of the river Valui, with his skin, and the hair upon it perfect. The Russians have a great passion for the ringing of bells, which are always tinkling in every quarter. The great bell of Moscow, the largest in the world, weighs, according to Mr. Coxe, "432,000 pounds. Its bulk is so enormous, that our traveller could scarcely have given credit to the account of it, if he had not examined it himself, and ascertained its dimensions with great exactness. Its height is nineteen feet, its circumference at the bottom twenty-one yards eleven inches, its greatest thickness twenty-three inches." It was cast in the reign of the empress Anne; but the beam on which it hung being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broken out of it; so that it lately lay in a manner useless. Mr. Bruce, in his late Memoirs, mentions a bell at Moscow, founded in czar Boris's time, nineteen feet high, twenty-three in diameter, and two in thickness, that weighed 336,000 pounds. The building of Petersburg, and raising it from a few fishing huts to be a populous and rich city, is an enterprise hardly to be paralleled since the erection of Alexandria in Egypt. The fortrefs of Cronstadt employed, for some years, 300,000 men, in laying its foundations, and driving piles night and day; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The plan, with a very little assistance from some German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raised to his people, at the time when they could hardly be said to have possessed a ship in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he often wrought in person at all those amazing works, with the same assiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

**COMMERCE.]** By the surest information, the annual exports of Russia at present amount to about 2,400,000*l.* and her imports do not exceed 1,600,000*l.* so that the balance of trade is yearly 800,000*l.* sterling in her favour\*.

The productions and exports of Russia, in general, are many, and very valuable, viz. furs and peltry of various kinds, red leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, sail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow,ising-glass, lin-seed oil, pot-ash, soap, feathers, train-oil, hogs bristles, mulk, thubarb, and other drugs; timber, and also raw silk from China and Persia. Her foreign commerce is much increased since her conquests from Sweden, especially of Livonia and Ingria; and since the establishing of her new emporium of Petersburg, whereby her naval intercourse with Europe is made much more short and easy. The Ukraine may be called the granary of the empire; the best corn, hemp, flax, honey, and wax, come from this fertile province, and 10,000 horned cattle are annually sent from its pastures into Silesia and Saxony.

Russia carries on a commerce over land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs: and they bring back from thence, tea, silk, cotton, gold, &c. To Bocharia, near the river Oxus, in Tartary, Russia sends her own merchandize, in return for Lu-

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

dian silks, curled lamb-skins, and ready money; she sends her products to the annual fair at Samarcand; and likewise trades to Persia by Astracan, cross the Caspian Sea, for raw and wrought silk. The empress, in 1784, issued an edict, permitting all foreigners to carry on a free trade by sea and land with the several countries bordering on the Euxine, which have been lately annexed to the empire. The same privileges, religious and civil, are allowed to them in the ports of Cherfon, Sebastopolis, and Theodosia (formerly Cassa), in the province of Taurica, as in Peterburgh.

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

ARMY.] The army is generally calculated to amount to from 400 to 450,000 men; according to Buschin they amounted, in 1772, to above 600,000. The army, in 1784, amounted to 368,901, viz.

Guards,	-	-	-	-	-
Cavalry,	-	-	-	-	-
Infantry,	-	-	-	-	7,291
Artillery,	-	-	-	-	59,562
Garrisons,	-	-	-	-	149,886
Cossacs, &c.	-	-	-	-	29,062
					87,000
					36,000
					<hr/>
					Total
					368,901

NAVY.] The maritime force of this empire consists of 63 armed ships, of which 24 are of the line, and 20,000 sailors. It has been related, that (in 1785) there were 48 ships of the line at Cronstadt, and 12 ships of the line in the Black Sea. By other accounts, the strength of the Russian navy is much less considerable.

The chief harbours for the navy are, 1. Cronstadt, not far from Peterburgh, on the gulf of Finland, where there is a fine dock-yard. 2. Revel, in the province of Livonia, on the Baltic Sea. 3. Archangel, on the White Sea. 4. Cherfon, on the Black Sea. The admiralty consists of one high-admiral, three admirals, three vice-admirals, and four countre admirals.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND } The sovereign of the Russian empire is absolute and despotic, and master of the lives and properties of all his subjects; who, though they are of the first nobility, or have been highly instrumental in promoting the welfare of the state, may, notwithstanding, for the most trifling offence, or even for no offence at all, be sent to Siberia, or made to drudge for life on the public works, and have all their goods confiscated, whenever the sovereign or his ministers shall think proper. When persons of any rank are banished into Siberia, their possessions are confiscated, and a whole family may at once be ruined by the insinuations of an artful courtier. The secret court of chancery, which was a tribunal composed of a few ministers, chosen

chosen by the sovereign, had the lives and fortunes of all families at their mercy; but this court was suppressed by Peter III.

The system of civil laws at present established in Russia is very imperfect, and in many instances barbarous and unjust; being an assemblage of laws and regulations drawn from most of the states of Europe, ill digested, and in many respects not adapted to the genius of the Russian nation. The courts of justice were in general very corrupt, and those by whom it was administered extremely ignorant; but the empress hath lately 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. It is hoped that the new code of laws, for which she hath given instructions, will soon be produced, to increase the people's liberty, security, and felicity.

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

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

	RUBLES.
Capitation tax, - - - - -	8,500,000
Other taxes and duties, - - - - -	7,000,000
Her own estates, with other dominions taken from the clergy,	6,000,000
Produce of the mines, - - - - -	1,500,000
Monopoly of distilled liquors, - - - - -	4,000,000
Monopoly of salt, - - - - -	1,800,000
	<hr/>
	28,800,000

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

The importance of this revenue in countries so cheap, appears from the vast armies maintained and paid by the late and present empress, in Germany, Poland, and elsewhere, when no part of the money returned to Russia; nor do we find that they received any considerable subsidy from the houses of Bourbon and Austria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. The other expences, besides the payment of the army and navy of her present majesty, the number and discipline of which are at least equal to those of her greatest predecessors, is very considerable. By the peace establishment in 1778, the regular troops amounted to about 130,000 effective men. The irregular troops are numerous, but consist of horse, and of this desultory body the corps of Cossacs are esteemed the most excellent. Her court is elegant and magnificent, her guards and attendants splendid, and the encouragement she gives to learning, the improvement

provement of the arts, and useful discoveries, cost her vast sums, exclusive of her ordinary expences of state.

Some of the Russian revenues arise from monopolies, which are often necessary in the infancy of commerce. The most hazardous enterprise undertaken by Peter the Great was his imitating the conduct of Henry the VIIIth of England in seizing the revenues of the church. He found that good policy required the greatest part of them to be restored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to bridge the patriarch's power.

The Russian armies are raised at little or no expence; and, while in their own country, subsist chiefly on provisions furnished them by the country people, according to their internal valuation. The pay of a soldier scarcely amounts to 30 shillings yearly; in garrison he receives only five rubles yearly. A sailor and a gunner receives a ruble a month, and they are supplied with provisions when a-shore.

ORDERS.] The order of St. *Andrew*, or the blue ribband, was instituted by Peter the Great in 1698, to animate his nobles and officers in the wars against the Turks. He chose St. Andrew for his patron, because by tradition he was the founder of christianity in the country. The badge is the image of St. Andrew on the cross, enamelled on an imperial eagle. The order of St. *Alexander Newski*\*, or the red ribband, was also instituted by Peter the Great, and confirmed by the empress Catherine I. in the year 1725: the ensign of the order is a cross pattee enamelled red, and edged with gold; the centre enamelled white, and thereon St. Alexander on horseback. The order of St. *Catherine* was instituted by Peter the Great, in honour of his empress for her assistance on the Banks of the Prutl. He declared her sovereign of it, and though both sexes were first admitted, yet it is now appropriated to the fair alone, and persons of the first distinction in Europe: the badge is a medallion enriched with diamonds and charged with the image of St. Catherine, pendant to a broad white ribband worn fallwise over the right shoulder: on the left side of the stomacher is embroidered a silver star of three points, on the centre of which is a cross. The order of St. *George*, instituted in 1769 by the present empress Catherine II. in favour of the military officers in her service. The badge is a golden cross enamelled white, on the centre of which is a medallion with the figure of St. George killing the Dragon: this is worn pendant to a black ribband striped and edged with yellow. The order is divided into four classes; the first is confined to commanders in chief. The order of St. *Woldemir* was instituted about October 3d, 1782, by the empress, in favour of those who serve her in a civil capacity, and nearly on the same footing with the order of St. George: there are ten great crosses of it, twenty of the second class, thirty of the third, and sixty of the fourth, besides a fifth class for those who have served in a civil employment 35 years, which entitles them to wear it. The order of St. *Anne* of Holstein, in memory of Anne, daughter of Peter the Great, was introduced into Russia by Peter III. and is in the disposal of the great-duke, as sovereign of Holstein.

HISTORY.] It is evident, both from ancient history and modern discoveries, that some of the worst parts of the Russian empire at present were formerly rich and populous. The reader who throws his eyes on a general map of Europe and Asia, may see the advantages of their situation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richest provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In later times, the Asiatic part of Russia bordered with Samarcand in Tartary, once the capital under Jenghis Kan and Tamerlane, of a far more extensive empire than any mentioned in history; and nothing is more certain than that the conquest of

\* Alexander, son of the great-duke Yaroslaf, was of distinguished abilities; he defeated the Tartars, Swedes, &c. and wounded the king of Sweden with his own hand, on the banks of the Neva; from whence his appellation of Newski; he died in 1262.

Russia was among the last attempts made by the former of those princes. The chronicles of this empire, which reach no higher than the 9th century, say that Kiowia and Novogorod were founded by Kii in the year 430. This Kii is by some considered as an ancient prince, while others mention him as a simple boatman, who used to transport goods and passengers across the Neipper. For a long time the chief or ruler had the title of grand-duke of Kiow. We cannot, with the smallest degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the history of Russia, higher than the introduction of Christianity, which happened about the tenth century; when a princess of this country, called Olga, is said to have been baptized at Constantinople, and refused the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimisces, in marriage. This accounts for the Russians adopting the Greek religion and alphabet. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, sent priests to baptize the Russians, who were for some time subject to the see of Constantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards resigned all their authority over the Russian church; and its bishops erected themselves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. Until the year 1250, the princes of Russia were but very little considered, being chiefly subject and tributary to the Tartars. It was about this time, that John, or Iwan Basilides, conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod, from whom he is said to have carried 300 cart-loads of gold and silver. His prosperous reign, of above 40 years, gave a new aspect to Russia.

His grandson, the famous John Basilowitz II. having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, subdued the kingdoms of Kasan and Astracann Tartary, in Asia, and annexed them to the Russian dominions. He gave to his subjects the first code of laws, introduced printing, and promoted commerce. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of some of his finest provinces, particularly Livonia and Esthonia, to tarow themselves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of this John II. the sovereign of Russia took the title of Wellke-Knez, "great prince," great lord, or great chief; which the Christian nations afterwards rendered by that of great-duke. The title of Tzar, or, as we call it, Czar, (an expression which in the Slavonian language, signifies *king*), was added to that of the Russian sovereigns. Upon the death of John Basilowitz, in 1584, the Russian territories were laid waste by civil wars. The last monarch left two sons, Theodore and Demetrius. Theodore succeeded his father on the throne; and at the instigation of Boris, his prime minister, ordered his brother Demetrius to be murdered. He himself died soon after; and Boris, though suspected of poisoning his master, was proclaimed king. Meanwhile a young man appeared in Lithuania, under the name and character of the prince Demetrius, pretending that he had escaped out of the hands of the assassins. Assisted by a Polish army, he entered Moscow in 1605, and was proclaimed czar without opposition; the mother and son of Boris, who was now dead, being dragged to prison by the populace. The rage of that populace was soon turned against Demetrius. He was slain on his marriage day, together with most of his Polish attendants, who had rendered him obnoxious to the Russians. A body, said to be his, was exposed to public view; and Zuzki, a nobleman who had fomented the insurrection, was declared his successor. But scarce was Zuzki seated on the throne, when a second Demetrius made his appearance; and after his death, a third. Poland and Sweden took part in the quarrel. Zuzki was delivered up to the Poles, and Demetrius was massacred by the Tartars. But a fourth, and even a fifth Demetrius appeared; and Russia, during these struggles, was repeatedly ravaged by opposite factions and foreign troops. At length Michael Theodorowitz, son of Romnow bishop of Rissiw, afterwards patriarch, related by females to the czar John Basilowitz, was raised to the throne, and governed with great prudence and success. He defeated

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the Poles, and successfully resisted the claims which a brother of Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden made to the throne. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Russia occasioned a war between those two people, which gave Michael a breathing-time; and he made use of it for the benefit of his subjects. Soon after the election of Michael, James I. of England sent, at his invitation, sir John Meyrick, as his ambassador to Russia, upon some commercial affairs, and to reclaim a certain sum of money which James had advanced to Michael or his predecessors. The English court, however, was so ignorant of the affairs of that country, though a Russian company had been established at London, that James was actually unacquainted with the czar's name and title, for he gave him no other denomination than that of great-duke and lord of Russia. Three years after, James and Michael became much better acquainted; and the latter concluded a commercial treaty with England, which shews him to have been not only well acquainted with the interests of his own subjects, but with the law and usages of nations. He reigned thirty-three years; and, by his wisdom and the mildness of his character, he restored ease and tranquillity to his subjects. Michael's intention to marry being known, the most celebrated beauties of his dominions were sent for to court, and there entertained. They were visited by the czar, and the most magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared, by sending to her magnificent jewels, and a wedding robe. The rest of the candidates were then dismissed to their several homes, with suitable presents. The name of the lady's father, who pleased Michael as Strefebuen; and he was ploughing his own farm when it was announced to him, that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexius succeeded his father Michael, and was married in the same manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolensko, Kiow, and the Ukraine; but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. When the grand signior, Mahomet IV. haughtily demanded some possessions from him in the Ukraine, his answer was, "that he scorned to submit to a Mahometan dog, and that his scymitar was as good as the grand signior's sabre." He promoted agriculture; introduced into his empire arts and sciences, of which he was himself a lover; published a code of laws, some of which are still used in the administration of justice; and greatly improved his army by improving its discipline. This he effected chiefly by the help of strangers, most of whom were Scotch. He cultivated a polite correspondence with the other powers of Europe; and even with the court of Rome, though he ordered his ambassadors not to kiss the pope's toe. He subdued a chief of the Don Cossacs, named Stenko Rasin, who endeavoured to make himself king of Astracan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, was hanged on the high road. He introduced linen and silk manufactures into his dominions: and instead of putting to death, or enslaving his Lithuanian, Polish, and Tartarian prisoners, he sent them to people the banks of the Wolga and the Kama. Theodore succeeded his father Alexius in 1667. He was of a gentle disposition, and weak constitution; fond of pomp and magnificence; and, in gratifying this propensity, contributed to polish his subjects, by the introduction of foreign manufactures, and articles of elegance. He delighted much in horses, and he rendered a real service to his country in the beginning and establishing very fine breeds of them in the Ukraine, and elsewhere. He reigned seven years, and having on his death-bed called his boyars round him, in the presence of his brother and sister, Iwan and Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards to be celebrated, and who was his half-brother, according to Voltaire, he said to them, "Hear my last sentiments; they are dictated by my love for the state, and by my affection for my people. The bodily infirmities of Iwan necessarily must affect his mental faculties; he is incapable of ruling a dominion like that of Russia; he cannot take it a mile, if I recommend to you to set him aside, and to let your approbation fall on

Peter,

Peter, who to a robust constitution joins great strength of mind, and marks of a superior understanding." But this wife destination extremely offended the princess Sophia, who was a woman of great ambition, and who, after the death of Theodore found means to excite a horrible sedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the standing army of Russia. Their excesses surpassed all description. The city of Moscow underwent a general pillage and massacre for three days. At last, by a compromise between the two parties, Iwan and Peter were declared joint-sovereigns, May 18, 1682; but as one was judged incapable of governing, and Peter was only ten years old, the administration was vested in their sister, who was of popular manners and great abilities. However Voltaire and other authors may have blackened Sophia's character, it is now evident, from Muller and other good authorities \*, that she was a princess of great merit, and by no means deserving of the reproaches cast upon her: her administration was wise and vigilant, and much to the advantage of her country. She reposed much confidence in prince Basil Galitzin, a consummate politician. Peter, as he advanced in years, being encouraged by his mother and her adherents, claimed a share in the administration, and took his seat in the privy council, Jan. 25, 1688. From this period dissensions arose between them, and the aspiring genius of Peter acquired the ascendancy. Under the pretence of a conspiracy against his life, he arrested his sister, and imprisoned her for life in the nunnery of Devitz. Galitzin's life was spared, but his great estate was confiscated; and the following curious sentence pronounced as his punishment: "Thou art commanded by the most clement czar to repair to Kargga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majesty, out of his extreme goodness, allows thee three pence per day for thy subsistence." He died in prison at Pookork in 1713. This left Peter with no other competitor, in the year 1689, than the mild and easy Iwan, and upon his death, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his own future security by the execution of above 3000 Strelitzes, and at the same time broke the whole body, and abolished their name.

Peter, though he had been but very indifferently educated, associated himself with the Germans and Dutch; with the former for the sake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and with the latter for their skill in navigation, which he practised himself. His inclination for the arts was encouraged by his favourite Le Fort, a Piedmontese; and general Gordon, a Scotchman, disciplined the czar's own regiment, consisting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raised a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German exercises of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the insolence of the Strelitzes. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He set out as an attendant upon his own ambassadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous and too well known to be inserted here. By working as a common ship-carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himself in ship-building and navigation; and through the excellent discipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-awed or crushed all civil insurrections, but all his enemies on this side of Asia; and at last he exterminated, except two feeble regiments, the whole of the Strelitzes. He rose gradually through every rank and service both by sea and land; and the many defeats which he received, especially that from Charles XII. at Narva, seemed only to enlarge his ambition. The battles he lost added experience to his courage; and the generous friendship he shewed to Augustus, king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. Having

\* Coxe's Travels, 4to. vol. i. p. 395 to 418.

no regard for rank when separate from merit, he, in 1711, married Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swedish dragoon at Marienburg. General Bauer, taking that place in 1701, was smitten with her, and took her to his house. She was soon removed into the family of the prince Menzikoff, with whom she lived till 1704, when in the 17th year of her age she became the mistress of Peter, and then his wife; because, after a long cohabitation, he found her possessed of a soul formed to execute his plans, and to assist his councils. Catharine was so much a stranger to her own country, that her husband afterwards discovered her brother, who served as a common soldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs, which succeeded one another after the battle of Pultowa, in 1709, with Charles XII, were not the chief glories of Peter's reign. He applied himself with equal assiduity to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and sciences; and upon the whole, he made such acquisitions of dominion, even in Europe itself, that he may be said, at the time of his death, which happened in January, 1725, to have been the greatest prince of his age, but more feared than beloved by his subjects.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldest son, who was called the Czarowitz, and who, marrying without his consent, entered, as his father alledged, into some dangerous practices against his person and government; for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a sovereign so despotic as Peter was, we can say nothing as to the justice of the charge. He publicly treated him with inhuman ferocity, and it was undoubtedly his will, that the young prince should be found guilty. The most probable opinion is that he was secretly executed in prison, and that marthal Weyde was the person who beheaded him. After this event; in 1724, Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the same magnificent ceremonies as if she had been a Greek empress, and this was the principal cause of her subsequent elevation. For just before his death he discovered a secret connection between her and her first chamberlain Mons. He surprised them together in an arbour of the garden, when striking her with his cane, as well as the page, who would have prevented him from entering the arbour, he retired without uttering a single word. But presently Mons was taken up, and being threatened with the torture, confessed, and was beheaded. The day after the execution Peter conveyed Catharine in an open carriage under the gallows, to which the head of Mons was nailed. It is said, that the empress without changing colour at this dreadful sight, exclaimed, "What a pity! that there is so much corruption among courtiers!" This event was soon followed by Peter's death, who probably had destined his eldest daughter Anne to be his successor, but the suddenness of his death prevented it; and some of the nobles and officers being gained by money, jewels, and promises, and the two regiments of guards by a largess, Catharine mounted the Russian throne. She was in her person under the middle size, and possessed abilities not above mediocrity; she could neither read nor write; her daughter Elizabeth usually signed her name for her, and particularly that affixed to her last will and testament. During her short reign, of two years, which may rather be considered as the reign of Menzikoff, her life was very irregular. An intemperate use of tokay wine, joined to a cancer and dropsy, hastened her end on the 17th of May, 1727. She was succeeded by Peter II. a minor, son to the Czarowitz. Many domestic revolutions happened in Russia during the short reign of this prince; but none was more remarkable than the disgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff. Peter died of the small-pox in 1730.

Notwithstanding the despotism of Peter and his wife, the Russian senate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to set aside the order of succession, which they had established. The male issue of Peter was now extinguished; and the duke of Holstein, son to his eldest daughter, was, by the destination of the

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late empress, entitled to the crown; but the Russians, for political reasons, filled their throne with Anne, dutchess of Courland, second daughter to Iwan, Peter's eldest brother; though her eldest sister, the dutchess of Mecklenburgh, was alive. Her reign was extremely prosperous; and though she accepted of the crown under limitations that some thought derogatory to her dignity, yet, by the assistance of the guards, she broke them all, and asserted the prerogative of her ancestors. She raised her favourite Biron to the duchy of Courland, and gave way to many sanguinary measures and severe executions on his account. Upon her death, in 1740, John, the son of her niece, the princess of Mecklenburgh, by Anthony Ulric of Brunswic Wolfenbuttel, was, by her will, entitled to the succession; but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be administrator of the empire during his nonage. This destination was disagreeable to the princess of Mecklenburgh and her husband, and unpopular among the Russians. Count Munich was employed by the princess of Mecklenburgh to arrest Biron, who was tried, and condemned to die, but was sent into exile to Siberia, where he continued till Peter III. recalled him, and Catharine restored him to the duchy of Courland.

The administration of the princess Anne of Mecklenburgh and her husband was upon many accounts, but particularly that of her German connections, disagreeable, not only to the Russians, but to other powers of Europe; and notwithstanding her prosperous war with the Swedes, the princess Elizabeth, daughter, by Catharine, to Peter the Great, formed such a party, that in one night's time she was proclaimed empress of all the Russias; and the princess of Mecklenburgh, her husband, and son, were made prisoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be said to have been more glorious than that of any of her predecessors, her father excepted. She abolished capital punishments; and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation, till her time unknown in Russia. Count Munich was confined at Pelm in Siberia, in a prison, which by his order was erected for Biron; he had a daily allowance of 12s. for himself, his wife, and a few servants. After 21 years imprisonment he was released and restored to his ancient rank by Peter III. in 1762, and died in 1765, eighty-three years old. The chief disgrace of Elizabeth's reign, was the punishment of the countesses Bestucheff and Lapuchin; each received 50 strokes of the knout in the open square of Peterburgh, their tongues were cut out, and they were banished into Siberia. The real crime of the last was her commenting too freely on the empress's amours. Having gloriously finished the war with Sweden, Elizabeth replaced the natural order of succession in her own family, by declaring her heir the duke of Holstein Gottorp, who was descended from her eldest sister. She gave him the title of grand-duke of Russia; and soon after her accession to the throne, she called him to her court, where he renounced the succession to the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princess of Anhalt-Zerbit, by whom he had a son, who is now heir to the Russian empire. Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expence of a large subsidy; but many political and some private reasons, it is said, determined her to take part with the house of Austria against the king of Prussia in 1756. Her arms gave a turn to the success of the war, notwithstanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her conquests were such as portended the entire destruction of the Prussian power, which was, perhaps, saved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was succeeded by Peter III. grand-duke of Russia, and duke of Holstein, a prince whose conduct has been variously represented. He mounted the throne possessed of an enthusiastic admiration for his Prussian majesty's virtues; to

whom he generously gave peace, and whose principles and practices he seemed to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. Several salutary regulations were made during his short dominion, and he abolished many prerogatives that were oppressive and tyrannical. But he soon incurred the general odium by his public contempt of the Russian manners and religion. He might have surmounted the effects of many peculiarities, unpopular as they were, but he aimed at ecclesiastical reformations in his dominions, which Peter the Great durst not attempt; and he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. It is also alledged, that he had formed a resolution to destroy both his empress and her son; and the advocates of Peter the Third acknowledge, that he had resolved to shut up his wife in a convent, or rather in the fortress of Schlüsselburg, and then to place his mistress, the countess of Voronzof, upon the throne. The execution of his designs was prevented by an almost general conspiracy formed against him, in which the empress took a very active part; and this unfortunate prince scarcely knew an interval between the loss of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived, while under an ignominious confinement at Robscha, in July, 1762. His wife Catharine II. was proclaimed empress.

The most remarkable domestic occurrence of her reign is the death of prince Iwan, son to the princefs of Mecklenburgh. This young prince, as soon as he came into the world was designed, though illegally, to wear the imperial crown of Russia, after the death of his great aunt, the empress Anna Iwanona; but by the advancement of the empress Elizabeth, he was condemned to lead an obscure life in the castle of Schlüsselburg under a strong guard, who had particular orders, that if any person, or any armed force, was employed in attempting to deliver him, they should kill him immediately. He lived quietly in his prison when the empress, Catharine II. mounted the throne; and as the revolution which deposed her husband Peter III. had occasioned a strong ferment in the minds of the people, Catharine was apprehensive that some attempts might be made in favour of Iwan; she therefore doubled the guards of this unhappy prince, and particularly entrusted him to the care of two officers, who were devoted to her interest. A lieutenant of infantry, who was born in the Ukraine, undertook to deliver Iwan by force of arms from the fortress of Schlüsselburg; which furnished a pretence for putting the prince to death, the 16th of July, 1764, after an imprisonment of 23 years. The lieutenant who attempted to deliver him was arrested, and afterwards beheaded, and his body burnt with the scaffold; but, notwithstanding this, it has been represented that he was a mere tool of the court, though he suffered for executing the instructions he had received.

While this event excited the attention of the Russian nation, the flames of civil war broke out with great violence in Poland, which has generally been the case when the throne was vacant. And as the internal tranquillity of Poland is a capital object with Russia, the empress Catharine sent a body of troops into Poland, and by her influence count Poniatowski was raised to the throne. She also interposed in order to secure the rights which the treaty of Olivia had given to the Greek and Protestant subjects of Poland. But the umbrage which her imperial majesty's armies gave to the Roman Catholic Poles, by their residence in Poland, increased the rage of civil war in that country, and produced confederacies against all that had been done during the late election; which rendered Poland a scene of blood and confusion. The conduct of Russia, with regard to Poland, gave so much offence to the Ottoman court, that the Grand Signior sent Obrekoff, the Russian minister, to the prison of the Seven Towers, declared war against Russia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Russia and Poland. Hostilities soon commenced between these rival and mighty empires. In the months of February and March, 1769, Crim Gueray, Khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of Tartars, supported by 10,000 Spahis, having broken the Russian

lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off thousands of captives. In April following, the Grand Vizer, at the head of a great army, began his march from Constantinople, and proceeded towards the Danube. In the mean time, prince Galitzin, who commanded the Russian army on the banks of the Neister, thought this a proper time to attempt something decisive, before the arrival of the great Turkish force in that quarter. He advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in sight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caraman Pacha, and intrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince attacked the Turks in their entrenchments early in the morning of the 30th of April, and notwithstanding an obstinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortrefs, at length beat them out of their trenches. The Turks endeavoured to cover their retreat, by detaching a large body of cavalry to attack the right wing of the Russian army; but they had such a warm reception from the artillery, that they soon retired in great disorder. General Stoffeln, and prince Dolgorucki were then ordered to pursue the fugitives, at the head of eight battalions; which they did so effectually, that they followed them into the suburbs of Choczim, where the pursuit was only stopped by the pallisadoes of the fortrefs. Soon after, the town was set on fire by red-hot balls, and a great number of Jews and Christians took refuge in the Russian camp. From these successes of the Russians, it might have been expected that Choczim would have immediately fallen; but prince Galitzin thought proper to retire, and to repass the Neister, being deficient in artillery. Indeed, it appears that the Turkish cavalry had over-run the neighbouring country, burnt some small towns, and destroyed some Russian magazines.

While the Russians and Turks were attacking each other in different places of their dominions on the side of Europe, the Tartar Asiatic nations, in their different interests, extended the rage of war into another quarter of the globe. On the 9th of May a bloody engagement was fought between the Kalmucs and those Tartars that inhabit the banks of the Cuban, lying between the Black and the Caspian seas. This engagement continued from two in the afternoon till sun-set; when the Kalmucs, by the assistance of some Russian officers, with a detachment of dragoons and Cossacs, and two pieces of cannon, obtained a complete victory, having made a great slaughter, as the Kalmucs gave no quarter. On the other hand, the European Tartars penetrated into the Russian Ukraine on the side of Backmuth, where they made great devastations.

On the 13th of July, a very obstinate battle was fought between a considerable Turkish army, and the Russians under prince Galitzin in the neighbourhood of Choczim, in which the Turks were defeated. The Russians immediately invested Choczim, but the garrison, being numerous, made frequent sallies, and received great reinforcements from the grand vizir's camp, who was now considerably advanced on this side of the Danube. Several actions ensued, and prince Galitzin was again obliged to retreat and repass the Neister. It was computed that the siege of Choczim, and the actions consequent to it, cost the Russians above 20,000 men. In the management of this war, the grand vizir acted with a degree of prudence, which it has been thought would have proved fatal to the designs of the Russians, if the same conduct had been afterwards pursued. But the army of the vizir was extremely licentious, and his caution gave offence to the Janizaries: so that, in consequence of their clamours, and the weakness of the councils that prevailed in the seraglio, he at length became a sacrifice, and Moldovani Ali Pacha, a man of more courage than conduct, was appointed his successor.

During these transactions, general Romanzow committed great devastations on the Turks on the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plundered and burnt several towns and villages, defeated a Turkish detachment, and carried off a great  
booty

booty of cattle. The Tartars also committed great ravages in Poland, where they almost destroyed the palatinate of Bracklaw, besides doing much mischief in other places. In the beginning of September, the Russian army was again posted on the banks of the Neister, and defended the passage of that river against the Turks, whose whole army, under the command of the new vizir, had arrived on the opposite shore. Having laid three bridges over the Neister, the Turkish army, began to pass the river in the face of the enemy. Prince Galitzin having perceived this motion early in the morning of the 9th of September, immediately attacked those troops that had crossed the river in the night, who consequently could neither choose their ground, nor have time to extend or form themselves properly where they were. Notwithstanding these extreme disadvantages, the engagement was obliged to re-pass the river with great loss. It was computed that about 60,000 Turks crossed the river, before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Galitzin charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, who destroyed the flower of the Turkish cavalry. It is said, that the loss of the Turks in this battle, amounted to 7000 men killed upon the spot, besides wounded and prisoners, and a great number who were drowned. Though the ill conduct of the vizir had greatly contributed to this capital misfortune, yet this did not prevent him from engaging in another operation of the same nature. He now laid but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, over which he intended the whole army should pass. On the 17th of September eight thousand Janizaries and four thousand regular cavalry, the flower of the Ottoman forces, passed over with a large train of artillery, and the rest of the army were in motion to follow, when a sudden and extraordinary swell of the waters of the Neister totally destroyed the bridge. The Russians lost no time in making use of this great and unexpected advantage. A most desperate engagement ensued; not only the field of battle, but the river over which some few hundreds of Turks made their escape by swimming, was for several miles covered with dead bodies. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, abandoned the strong fortrefs of Choczim, with all its stores and numerous artillery, and retired towards the Danube. They were much exasperated at the ill conduct of the vizir; and it was computed that the Turks lost 28,000 of the bravest of their troops within little more than a fortnight; and that 48,000 more abandoned the army, and totally deserted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube. Prince Galitzin placed a garrison of four regiments in the fortrefs of Choczim, soon after resigned the command of the army to general Count Romanzow, and returned to Peterburgh covered with laurels.

The Russians carried on the war with success: they over-run the great province of Moldavia, and general Elhpt took possession of the capital, Jassy, without opposition. As the Greek natives of this province had always secretly favoured the Russians, they now took this opportunity of their success, and the absence of the Turks, to declare themselves open. The Greek inhabitants of Moldavia, and afterwards those of Wallachia, acknowledged the empress of Russia as their sovereign, and took oaths of fidelity to her. On the 18th of July, 1770, general Romanzow defeated a Turkish army, near the river Larga, said to have amounted to 80,000 men, and commanded by the Khan of the Crimea. But on the second of August, the same Russian general obtained a still greater victory over another army of the Turks, commanded by a new grand vizir. This army was very numerous, but was totally defeated. It is said that above 7000 Turks were killed on the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube were covered with dead bodies.

But it was not only by land, that the Russians carried on the war successfully against the Turks. The empress sent a considerable fleet of men of war, Russian built, into the Mediterranean, to act against the Turks on that side; and, by means of this fleet, under count Orloff, the Russians spread ruin and desolation through the open islands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceless coasts of Greece and Asia; the particulars of which will appear in the history of Turkey. It is observable, that in their naval enterprizes, the Russians were much indebted to English officers. A peace was concluded on the 21st of July 1774, highly honourable and beneficial to the Russians, by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black sea, and a free trade with all parts of the Ottoman empire.

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

The peace of 1774, was then indispensably necessary to the immediate preferation of the Turkish empire; but, within so small a space of time as five years, a new war was just upon the point of breaking out between the two empires; and was only prevented by a new treaty of pacification, which took place on the 21st of March, 1779. But the great source of discord was still left open. The pretended independency of the Crimea, afforded such an opening to Russia, into the very heart of the Turkish empire, and such opportunities of interference, that it was scarcely possible that any lasting tranquillity could subsist between the two empires. A claim made and insisted on by Russia, of establishing consuls in the three provinces of Moldavia, Wallachia, and Bessarabia, was exceedingly grievous to the Porte. After long disputes, the Turkish ministers, more from a sense of the disability of the state for war, than from pacific dispositions, found it necessary, towards the close of the year 1781, to give up the point of debate with respect to the consuls. This concession, however mortifying, produced but a short-lived effect. New troubles were continually breaking forth. The emperor of Germany having avowed his determination of supporting all the claims of Russia as well as his own, all sides prepared for the most determined hostility, and the preparations were immense on all. The year 1783, accordingly exhibited the most formidable apparatus of war on the northern and eastern borders of Europe. However, in the midst of all these appearances of war, negotiations for a peace were continually carried on at Constantinople, which was at last signed January 9th, 1784. By this treaty Russia retains the full sovereignty of her new acquisitions, viz. the Crimea, the Isle of Taman, and part of Cuban.—As the recovery and restoration of every thing Greek, is the predominant passion of the court of Peterburgh, so the Crimea and its dependencies are in future to be known by the name of Taurica; particular places are likewise restored to their ancient appellations, and the celebrated port and city of Cassa, has now resumed its long-forgotten name of Theodosia. Since this accession of dominion, new towns, with Greek or Russian names,

names, are rising fast in the deserts, and are peopled mostly by colonies of Greeks and Armenians.

The year 1787 opened with the extraordinary spectacle of the journey of the empress of Russia to Cherfon, where it seems to have been her original intention to have been crowned with all possible magnificence, and under the splendid titles of empress of the East, liberator of Greece, and reviver of the series of Roman emperors, who formerly swayed the sceptre over that division of the globe; but this coronation, for reasons we are unable to assign, was laid aside. The splendor of the rout of the czarina exceeded whatever the imagination would spontaneously suggest. She was escorted by an army. Pioneers preceded her march, whose business it was to render the road as even and pleasant as it could possibly be made. At the end of each day's journey, she found a temporary palace erected for her reception, together with all the accommodations and luxuries that Peterburgh could have afforded. In the list of her followers were the ambassadors of London, Versailles and Vienna; and her own ambassador as well as the envoy of the emperor to the court of Constantinople, were appointed to meet her at Cherfon. The king of Poland met her on her journey; and the emperor, not satisfied with swelling her triumph at Cherfon, appeared in that capital eight days before her, and proceeded to a considerable distance up the Dnieper, to intercept her progress. Her route was through Kiow, where she remained three months, and was received under triumphal arches; and upon her arrival at Cherfon, having thought proper to extend the walls of the city, she inscribed over one of the gates, "Through this gate lies the road to Byzantium." The czarina returned to Peterburgh, by the way of Moscow.

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

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

upon the whole, a superiority of 294 pieces of cannon; while that in the weight of metal was perhaps of greater moment. The victory, as is usually the case in actions not apparently and absolutely decisive, was claimed by both sides. But, it seems upon the whole, that the Swedes in the highest period of their glory, had never displayed greater gallantry by sea, or land, than they did upon this occasion. Their princely commander merited a very considerable share of the glory of this engagement. At last, after many other engagements attended with various success, on the 14th of August 1790, a convention for a peace was signed between the courts of Russia and Sweden, and was ratified in six days after.

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

England and Prussia, after a long and expensive armed negotiation, at length assented to the demand of the empress, which was strengthened by the interference of Spain and Denmark, that Oczakow, and the territory between the rivers Bog and Niester, shall in full sovereignty belong to Russia, that the river Niester shall for the future determine the frontiers of Russia and the Porte; that the two powers may erect on the shores of that river what fortresses they think proper; and Russia engages to grant a free navigation on the river Niester. This was concluded on the 11th of August, 1791.—Thus has the Porte entered into a war, for the purpose of regaining the Crimea, and after reducing the Ottoman empire to extreme weakness, and internal symptoms of ruin, irretrievable by a government in a regular progress of deterioration, lost an important territory, and left the existence of the empire, at the mercy of another Russian war. By some advantages offered to Russia and Poland, and a few intrigues, Russia may change the fluctuating stream of European politics, and by one powerful campaign, overturn the Turkish monarchy. The final treaty with the Turks, concluded at Jassy the 9th of January, 1792. The empress is improving Oczakow, and rendering it a place of great strength, importance, and commerce.—At the same time, Catharine is not negligent of her share in European politics. She has assured the pope that she will support him in the resumption of Avignon; and has published a warm manifesto against the French revolution. But Poland, and the efforts which that people made in the cause of liberty, gave her the greatest apprehensions. To this unhappy kingdom, the only recent transactions of her reign, worthy of attention, have been directed. Whilst she has been amusing the world with manifestoes against France, she has beheld with pleasure the greatest powers of Europe waiting their strength and treasure, and has, undisturbed by any foreign interference,

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## ISLES OF SCOTLAND.

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made a second partition of Poland; the circumstances of which the reader will find briefly narrated in our account of that unfortunate country.

The present empress of Russia, notwithstanding the very unfavourable circumstances which attended her taking possession of the government of that empire, has, from the commencement of her reign, filled her high station with distinguished renown. She has encouraged learning and the arts, and endeavoured greatly to extend the commerce of her subjects. Her imperial majesty has effected many beneficial and important regulations in the interior police, and particularly in the courts of justice. She has abolished the use of torture, and adopted an excellent plan for the reformation of prisons. The new code of laws, for which she hath given her instructions, is yet wanting to mitigate the rigour of despotism. One of the most remarkable transactions of her reign is, her establishment of an armed neutrality, for the protection of the commerce of nations not at war, from any attacks or insults from belligerent powers. By the code, which her imperial majesty has endeavoured to enforce, neutral ships are to enjoy a free navigation from port to port, and on the coasts of belligerent powers; and all effects belonging to the subjects of such powers are looked upon as free, on board such neutral ships, except the goods stipulated contraband in her treaty of commerce with Great Britain. It was in 1780, that her imperial majesty invited the powers at war to accede to this armed neutrality. Those who engaged were to make a common cause at sea against any of the powers who should violate, with respect to neutral nations, these principles of maritime law. The armed neutrality was acceded to, the same year, by the kings of Sweden and Denmark, and by the States-General.

Catharine II. empress of all the Russias, princess of Anhalt Zerbst, was born May 2d, 1729, and ascended the throne July 9th, 1762, upon the deposition and death of her husband. She was married to that prince whilst duke of Holstein Gottorp, September 1st, 1745, by whom she has issue Paul Petrowitz, great-duke of Russia, born October 1st, 1754, who has been twice married; and by his present duchess, the princess of Wirtemberg, has issue,

1. Alexander, born December 23d, 1777.
2. Constantine, born May 8th, 1779.
3. Alexander Powlowna, born in August, 1783.
4. Helena, born December 24th, 1784.
5. A princess, born in March, 1786.
6. Another princess, born in May, 1788.
7. Another princess, born in 1792.

## SCOTLAND, AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

### ISLES OF SCOTLAND.

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

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

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The Orkades lie north of Dungenby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by a tempestuous strait called Pentland Frith, twenty-four miles long, and twelve broad.

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

**CLIMATE.]** In all these islands the air is keen, piercing, and salubrious; and many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney isles they see to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the summer months, they have frequent communications, both for business and curiosity, with each other, and with the continent: the rest of the year, they are almost inaccessible, through fogs, darkness, and storms.

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

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

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

**INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE, AND RELIGION.]** It is not to be imagined that the inhabitants of the isles belonging to Scotland can be so minutely described here, as they have been by some other authors; not so much on account of their importance, as their curiosity. Those of Shetland and Orkney were formerly subject to the Normans, who conquered them in 1099, a few years after they landed in England under William the Conqueror. In the year 1263 they were in possession of Magnus of Norway, who sold them to Alexander king of Scots, and he gave them as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speire. After this, they became subject to the crown of Denmark. Christian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret, and all future pretensions were

entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. The isles of Shetland and Orkney form a stewartry, or shire, which sends a member to parliament. Their inhabitants differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland; except that their manners are more simple, and their minds less cultivated. Men of fortune have improved their estates wonderfully of late years; and have introduced into their families many elegancies and luxuries. They build their dwellings, and other houses, in a modern taste; and are remarkable for the fineness of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheese, fish, and land fowl (of which they have great plenty) particularly geese: and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art of fermenting, so as to give it a vinous quality. In some of the northern islands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norse language, is still spoken. Their intercourse with the Dutch, during the fishing season, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney islands. The people are as expert as the Norwegians in seizing the nests of sea-fowls, which build in the most frightful precipices and rocks. The people's temperance preserves them from most diseases. They cure the scurvy and the jaundice, to which they are subject, with the powder of snail-shells and scurvy-grass, of which they have plenty. Their religion is protestant, according to the discipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil institutions are the same with those of Scotland.

We have the most undoubted evidences of history, that about 400 years ago, these isles were much more populous than they are now: for the Hebrides alone sent 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At present their numbers are said not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are clothed, and live like the Scotch Highlanders. They are similar in persons, constitutions, customs, and prejudices; with this difference, that the more polished manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands: perhaps the descendants of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be discernible only in the Hebrides.

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

The reader would not pardon an author who should omit that remarkable manalogy, or gift of prophecy, which distinguishes the inhabitants of the Hebrides under the name of the *second sight*. It would be equally absurd to attempt to dis-

\* See Percy's Reliques of Ancient English Poetry.

prove the reality of some instances of this kind that are brought by reputable authors, and to admit all that has been said upon the subject. The adepts of the second-sight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather presentations, either really or typically, which swim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compass of 24 or 48 hours. But from the best information, no two of those adepts agree as to the manner and forms of these revelations, or have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth seems to be, that those islanders, by indulging themselves in lazy habits, acquire visionary ideas, and overheat their imaginations, till they are presented with those phantoms, which they mistake for fatidical or prophetic manifestations. They instantly begin to prophesy; and it would be absurd to suppose, that amidst many thousands of predictions, some did not happen to be fulfilled; and these, being well attested, give a sanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides, being the most westerly islands planted by the Celts, their language must remain there in its greatest purity. This opinion, though plausible, is not justified by experience. Many Celtic words, as well as customs, are there found; but the intercourse which the Hebrides had with the Danes, Norwegians, and other northern nations, whose language is mixed with the Sclavonian and Teutonic, which last has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; so that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erse, which was spoken by their neighbours in Lochaber and the coasts of Scotland, the undoubted descendants of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmix'd.

The religion professed in the Hebrides is chiefly presbyterian, as established in the church of Scotland; but popery and ignorance are still pretty prevalent.

**SOIL, MINES, AND QUARRIES.]** The surface of these islands has undergone great alterations. Many of them were habitations of the Druids, whose temples are still visible; and those temples were surrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The stumps of former trees are discernible, as are many vestiges of buildings erected since the introduction of Christianity, which prove the decrease of riches, power, and population. Experience daily shews, that the cold sterility of the northern isles was owing to their want of culture; for such spots as are now cultivated produce corn and vegetables in abundance; and fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and silver mines; marl, slate, free-stone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon these islands. They are not destitute of fine fresh water; nor of lakes and rivulets teeming with excellent trout.

**TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.]** These are all in their infancy in those islands. Their staple commodities consist of fish, especially herrings, which, when properly cured, are equal to those of the Dutch. They carry on likewise a considerable trade in down and feathers; their sheep afford them wool, which they manufacture into coarse cloths; and linen manufactures begin to make some progress among them. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are disposed of in sale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they salt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and industry, with some portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render these islands, not only comfortable for their inhabitants, but ornamental and beneficial to Great Britain.

**BEASTS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.]** In the neighbouring countries already described, mention has been made of most of the birds and fishes that have been discovered here; only it is thought that the isles contain a species of falcon or hawk, of a more noble and docile nature than any that are to be found elsewhere. The Shetland isles are famous for a small breed of horses, which are incredibly active, strong, and hardy,

hardy, and frequently seen in the streets of London, yoked to the splendid carriages of the curious or wealthy. The coasts of those islands, till within these 20 years, seemed, however, to have been created, not for the inhabitants, but for strangers. The latter furnish the former with wines, strong liquors, spice, and luxuries of all kinds, for their native commodities, at the gain of above 100 per cent. But it is to be hoped that this pernicious traffic now draws to an end. Three thousand buffes have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring fishery, besides those fitted out by the Hamburgers, Bremeners, and other northern ports.

**RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES.** These islands exhibit many proofs of their former cultivated state, in their churches, the vestiges of old forts, and other buildings both sacred and civil. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the western islands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a stone called a dwarf-stone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and nine thick; in which is a square hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a stone of the same size for a door. Within this entrance is the resemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the stone, big enough for two persons to lie on; at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It would be endless to recount the various vestiges of Druidical temples, some of which must have required equal labour with the famous Stone-henge near Salisbury. Others seem to be memorials of particular persons, or actions, consisting of one large stone, standing upright; some have been sculptured, and others have served as sepulchres, and are composed of stones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in these islands; and the monuments of Danish and Norwegian fortifications might long employ an able antiquary to describe. The gigantic bones found in many burial-places here give room to believe, that the former inhabitants were of larger size than the present. It is likewise probable, from some ancient remains, particularly catacombs; and nine silver fibule or clasps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with these parts.

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

The Hebrides are still more distinguished than the Orkney or Shetland isles for their remains of antiquity. The isle of Iona, called St. Columb-Kill, seems to have served as a sanctuary for St. Columba, and other holy persons, while Ireland, England, and Scotland, were desolated by barbarism. It appears that the northern pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the sanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of some Scotch, Irish, and Norwegian kings, with some Gaelic inscriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninscribed. The steeple is large, the cupola 21 feet square, the doors and windows are curiously carved, and the altar is of the finest marble. Innumerable inscriptions, referring to ancient customs and ceremonies, are discernible in this island; which gives countenance to the well-known observation, that when learning was nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in these islands.

The islands belonging to Scotland contain likewise some natural curiosities peculiar to themselves; the phaseoli, or Mollucca beans, have been found in the Orkneys, driven, as is supposed, from the West Indies, by the westerly winds, which often force ashore many curious shells and marine productions, highly esteemed by naturalists. In the parish of Ham, a large piece of stag's horn was found very deep in

the earth, by the inhabitants, who were digging for marl; and certain bituminous effluvia produce surprising phenomena, which the natives believe to be supernatural.

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

"Proceeding farther to the N. W. you meet with the highest ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which surpasses description: here they are bare to their very bases, and the stratum below them is also visible."—Sir Joseph particularises sundry other appearances in this, and a neighbouring island, which is wholly composed of pillars without any stratum. In some parts of Staffa, instead of being placed upright, the pillars were observed to lie on their sides, each forming a segment of a circle; but the most striking object in this picturesque scene is Fingal's Cave, which he describes in the following manner:—"With our minds full of such reflections, we proceeded along the shore, treading upon another *Giant's Causeway*; every stone being regularly formed into a certain number of sides and angles; till, in a short time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the most magnificent, I suppose, that has ever been described by travellers\*; supported on each side by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of those which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which, a yellow stalagmitic matter has exuded, which serves to define the angles precisely, and at the same time to vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance; and to render it still more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; so that the farthest extremity is very plainly seen from without; and the air within being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholesome, free entirely from the damp of vapours with which natural caverns in general abound."

Mr. Pennant, who also made a voyage to these islands in the same year, had a glance of Staffa, in his passage from Iona to Mull, but was prevented by stormy weather from approaching it. "On the west," says he, "appears the beautiful groupe of the *Treshumish* isles. Nearest lies Staffa, a new *Giant's Causeway*, rising amidst the waves, but with columns of double the height of that in Ireland; glossy and resplendent, from the beams of the eastern sun."—And in the isle of Sky, a considerable way northward, he resumes the subject: "We had in view a fine series of genuine basaltic columns, resembling the *Giant's Causeway*; the pillars were above twenty feet high, consisting of four, five, and six angles, but mostly of five. At a small distance from these, on the slope of a hill, is a tract of some roads.

\* The dimensions of the cave are thus given by sir J. Banks.

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

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entirely formed of the tops of several series of columns, even and close set, forming a reticulated surface of amazing beauty and curiosity. This is the most northern basaltic I am acquainted with; the last of four in the British dominions, all running from south to north, nearly in a meridian; the Giant's Causeway appears first in Staffa, &c. succeeds; the rock Humbla about twenty leagues farther, and finally, those columns of Sky: the depth of the ocean, in all probability, conceals the vast links of this chain."

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

S C O T L A N D.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

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

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

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

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

Eighteen counties, or shires, are allotted to the southern divisions, and 15 to the northern; and those counties are subdivided into sheriffdoms, stewartries, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Edinburgh (429*)	{ Mid-Lothian - - - }	{ Edinburgh, W. Long. 3. N. lat. 56. Musselburgh. Leith, and Dalkeith.
2. Haddington (121)	{ East-Lothian - - - }	{ Dumbar, Haddington, and North-Berwick.

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

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
3. Merse, anciently Berwick *	(114) { The Merches, and Lauderdale - - - - }	{ Dunfer, and Lauder.
4. Roxborough	(165) { Tiviotdale, Lidfale, Eskdale and Eufdale - - }	{ Jedburgh, Kelso, and Melrose.
5. Selkirk	(19) { Etrick Forest - - - }	{ Selkirk.
6. Peebles	(42) { Tweeddale - - - - }	{ Peebles.
7. Lanerk	(388) { Clydesdale - - - - }	{ Glasgow, W. long. 4-5. N. lat. 55-52. Hamilton, Lanerk, & Rutherglen.
8. Dumfries	(188) { Nithsdale, Annandale - - - }	{ Dumfries, Annan.
9. Wigtown	(190) { Galloway, West Part - - }	{ Wigtown, Stranraer, and Whitehorn.
10. Kircudbright	(100) { Galloway, East Part - - }	{ Kircudbright.
11. Air	(280) { Kyle, Carrick and Cunningham - - - }	{ Air, Kilmarnock, Irwin, Maybold, Stewarton, and Saltcoats.
12. Dumbarton	(66) { Lenox - - - - }	{ Dumbarton.
13. Bute (34) and	(105) { Bute, Arran, and Caithness - - - - }	{ Rothesay.
14. Caithness		{ Wick, N. lat. 58-40. and Thurso.
15. Renfrew	(226) { Renfrew - - - - }	{ Renfrew, Paisley, Greenock, and Port-Glasgow.
16. Stirling	(76) { Stirling - - - - }	{ Stirling and Falkirk.
17. Linlithgow	(80) { West Lothian - - - }	{ Linlithgow, Burroughstonness, & Queensferry.
18. Argyle	(314) { Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintire, and Lorn, with Part of the Western Isles, particularly Ila, Jura, Mull, Wist, Tarrif, Col, and Lismore - - }	{ Inverary, Dunstaffnage, Killonmer, and Campbelltown.
19. Perth	(570) { Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Stormount, Glenfield, & Raynork - - }	{ Perth, Scone, Dumblane, Blair, and Dunkeld.
20. Kincardine	(109) { Merns - - - - }	{ Bervie, Stonhivie and Kincardine.
21. Aberdeen	(551) { Mar, Buchan, Garioch, and Strathbogie - - }	{ Old Aberdeen, W. long. 1-40. N. lat. 57-22. New Aberdeen, Fraserburg, Peterhead, Kintore, Strathbogie, Inverary, and Old Meldrum.
22. Inverness	(282) { Aird, Strathglafs, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, and Glennorison - - - - }	{ Inverness, Inverlochry, Fort Augustus, Boileau.

\* Berwick, on the north side of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but it is now formed into

a town and county of itself, in a political sense, distinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

Shires,	Sheriffdoms and other subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
23. Nairne (27) and	{ Western Part of Murray and Cromartie - - - }	{ Nairne, Cromartie.
24. Cromartie (24)	{ Fife - - - - - }	{ St. Andrews, Cowper, Falkland, Kirkcaldy, Innerklythen, Ely, Burnt Island, Dumfermline, Dyfart, Anstruther and Aberdour.
25. Fife (387)	{ Forfar, Angus - - - }	{ Montrose, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroth, and Brechin.
26. Forfar (326)	{ Bamff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Buchan - - }	{ Bamff and Cullen.
27. Bamff (182)	{ Strathnaver and Sutherland - - - - - }	{ Strathy and Dornoch.
28. Sutherland (100)	{ Fife Part - - - - - }	{ Culrofs, Clacmannan, Alloa, and Kinrofs.
29. Clacmannan (31)	{ Easter and Wester Ross, Isle of Lewis, Lochbroom, Lochearren, Ardmeanach, Redcastle, Ferrintosh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald - - - - - }	{ Taine, Dingwall, Fortrose, Rosamarkie, and New Kelfo.
30. Kinrofs (23)	{ Murray and Strathspey	{ Elgin and Forres.
31. Ross (201)	{ Isles of Orkney and Shetland - - - - - }	{ Kirkwall, W. lon. 3. N. lat. 59-45. Skalloway, near the Meridian of London, N. lat. 61.
32. Elgin (145)		
33. Orkney (183)		

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

The royal Boroughs which choose representatives are,

Edinburgh - - - - -	1	Innerklythen, Dumfermline, Queensferry, Culrofs, and Stirling	1
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornock, Dingwall, and Tayne - - - - -	1	Glasgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton - - - - -	1
Fortrose, Inverness, Nairne, and Forres - - - - -	1	Haddington, Dunbar, North-Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh	1
Elgin, Cullen, Bamff, Inverary, and Kintore - - - - -	1	Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanerk - - - - -	1
Aberdeen, Bervie, Montrose, Aberbrothe, and Brechin - - - - -	1	Dumfries, Sanquhar, Annan, Lochmaban, and Kircudbright - - - - -	1
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrews - - - - -	1	Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranraer, and Whitehorn - - - - -	1
Crail, Kilrenny, Anstruther East and West, and Pittenweem - - - - -	1	Air, Irwin, Rothsay, Campbeltown, and Inverary - - - - -	1
Dyfart, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne, and Burnt Island - - - - -	1		

**CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, AND WATER.]** In the northern parts, day-light, at Midsummer, lasts 18 hours and five minutes; which proportion of day to night is reversed in winter. The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in so northerly a climate. This arises partly from the variety of its hills, vallies, rivers, and lakes; but still more, as in England, from the vicinity of the sea, which affords those warm breezes, that not only soften the natural keenness of the air, but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent those epidemic distempers that prevail in many other countries. In the neighbourhood of some high mountains, however, which are generally covered with snow, the air is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. The soil in general is not so fertile as that of England; and in many places less fitted for agriculture than for pasture. At the same time, there are particular plains and vallies of the most luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth, incessantly washed down from the mountains, and deposited in these vallies, afford them a strong vegetative nourishment; though experience has proved that hortulane productions do not come so soon to maturity in this country as in England. There is, indeed, a great variety of soils in Scotland, the face of which is agreeably diversified by an intermixture of natural objects. The inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the husbandman, are particularly pleasing to the traveller, and afford those delightful situations for country houses, of which many of the Scottish nobility and gentry have availed themselves. It is their situation as much as their magnificence, that occasions the seats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of the earl of Hopetoun, and some other Scottish nobles, to fix the attention of every traveller. The water in Scotland, as every where else, depends on the qualities of the soil. Water passing through a heavy soil is turbid and noxious, but filtering through sand or gravel, is clear, light, and salutary to the stomach. This last is commonly the case in Scotland, where the water is better than that of more southern climates in proportion as the land is wofe.

**MOUNTAINS.]** The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian hills, which run from east to west, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleshire, almost the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland-hills, runs through Lothian and joins those of Tweeddale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, rises near the eastern coast, and runs westward through the Merse. Besides these continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot-Hills, on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, sometimes of great height, which, from their conical figure, have been distinguished by the Celtic appellation of *Laws*. Many of them are stupendously high, and display a grandeur in their form, but too numerous to be particularized here.

**RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.]** The largest river in Scotland is the Forth, which rises in Montevih near Callendar, and passing Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, discharges itself near Edinburgh into that arm of the German sea, to which it gives the name of Firth or Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which issues out of Loch Tay, in Breadalbin, and running south-east, passes the town of Perth, and falls into the sea at Dundee. The Spey, the most rapid river in Scotland, issues from a lake of the same name in Badenoch, and running from south-west to north-east, falls into the sea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from west to east, and disembogue themselves at Aberdeen. The Tweed rises on the borders of Lanerkshire, and after many serpentine turnings, discharges itself into the sea at Berwick, where it serves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eastern side. The Clyde is a large river on the west of Scotland, has its rise in Annandale, runs north-west through the valley of that name, and, after passing by Lanerk, Hamilton, Glasgow, Kenfrew, Dumbarton, and

and Greenock, falls into the Frith of Clyde, opposite to the isle of Bute. Besides those capital rivers, Scotland contains many others well provided with salmon, trout, and other fishes. Several of those rivers go by the name of *Fa*, which is the old Celtic name for water. The greatest improvement for inland navigation that has been attempted in this part of Great Britain is the canal joining the rivers Forth and Clyde; by which a communication is opened between the east and west seas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom.

The lakes of Scotland (there called *Lochs*) are too many to be particularly described. Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Lochnefs, Loch Au, and some others, present us with such picturesque scenes as are scarcely equalled in any other country of Europe. Several of these lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of fresh-water fishes. The Scots sometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the sea; for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long and four broad, and is famous for its herrings. The Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for swans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as some think, to the plant *alarina*, which grows in its water, with a straight stalk and a cluster of seeds at the top. Near Lochnefs is a hill almost two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold fresh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes; whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs. The coasts of Scotland are indented with large, bold, and navigable bays or arms of the sea; as the bay of Glencuce and Wigtown bay; sometimes they are called Friths, as the Solway Frith, which separates Scotland from England on the west; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and those of Cromarty and Dornoch.

The face of Scotland, even where it is most uninviting, presents us with the most incontrovertible evidences of its having been formerly over-run with timber. The deepest moles, or morasses, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine have an antiseptic quality. Several woods still remain, and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the use of furnaces and founderies; but though the work succeeded in the execution, there was little encouragement to continue it, owing to the great distance from water-carriage. Fir trees grow in great perfection almost all over Scotland. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where some woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth; but, through the inconvenience already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors. It must be acknowledged that the greatest part of Scotland is destitute of hedge-rows and plantations. The country is beautiful, but it is a naked beauty. But the exertions now making in all branches of agriculture, promise to remedy, in due time, this unseemly defect; and to cloath Scotland with ornaments, that will well become her green hills and irriguous vallies.

**METALS AND MINERALS.** Scotland formerly afforded a sufficient quantity of gold for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-Moor; and when that prince married the French king's daughter, a number of covered dishes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were presented to the guests by way of desert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, and in the minority of his grandson, drove those foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which since that time have never been resumed. Some small pieces of gold have been found in those parts washed down by the floods. It likewise appears by the public records, that those beautiful coins struck by James V. called *bonnet-pieces*, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the same metal.

Several landholders in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead mines, which are rich, and contain large quantities of silver; but no silver mines are worked at present. Some copper mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the eastern, western, and northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported to the great emolument of the public. Lime-stone is here in great plenty, as is free-stone; so that the houses of the better sort are constructed of good materials. The peat-mosses being in many parts of the north especially, almost exhausted, the inhabitants suffer much from the scarcity of fuel; but the taste for planting that now prevails, will soon remedy that inconveniency.

Lapis lazuli is said to be dug up in Lanerksire; alum mines have been found in Bamfshire; crystal, variegated pebbles, and other transparent stones, which admit of the finest polish for seals, are found in various parts; as are tale, flint, sea-shells, potters clay, and fullers earth. The stones which the country people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they assign a supernatural origin and use, were probably the flint-heads of arrows made use of by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron-ore, both in mines and stones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to reap the advantage, in their founderies, and other metalline manufactures.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO- } It is said, that some tracts of the low  
DUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } countries of Scotland exceed in value Eng-  
lish estate, of the same extent, because they are far less exhausted than those of the southern parts of the island. Such is the mutability of things, and the influence of commerce, that a very considerable part of the landed property has lately and fortunately fallen into the hands of merchants and manufacturerers, who while they are daily introducing new branches of trade, are no less attentive to the progress of agriculture. The active genius of these men extends even to moors, rocks, and marshes, which, being hitherto reckoned useless, were frequently neglected, but are now brought to produce those species of grain or timber, for which the soil is best adapted. In the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, the effects of skill and industry are chiefly perceivable, where, as well as in Angus, the farmers, who often rent from 3 to 500*l.* per annum, are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverse, however, may be observed of a very considerable part of Scotland, where the landlords, ignorant of their real interest, refuse to grant such leases as would encourage the tenant to improve the soil. In such places, the husbandman barely exults upon the gleanings of a scanty farm, seldom exceeding 20 or 30*l.* per ann. the cattle are lean and small, the houses mean, and the face of the country exhibits the most deplorable marks of poverty and oppression.

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

The fishes on the coast of Scotland are much the same with those of the islands and countries already described; but the Scotch have improved in their fisheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture; and the bill which passed in 1786, bids fair to enable them to emulate the Dutch, in curing, as well as catching, their fish. In former times, the Scotch seldom ventured to fish above a league's distance from the land; but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly

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as any of their neighbours. Their salmon, which they can send more early, when prepared, to the Levant and southern markets than the English or Irish can, are of great service to the nation, as the returns are generally made in specie, or marketable commodities.

This country contains few or no kinds, either of wild or domestic animals, that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and the roe-buck are found in the Highlands, but their flesh is not comparable to English venison. Hares, and other game, are here plentiful; also the grouse and heath-cock: the capercaillie, and the ptarmigan, birds of an exquisite flavour, but which are scarce and shy. The black cattle from the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and sheep that are fed upon the mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the south, formerly brought large sums into the country; the black cattle especially, which, when fattened on the southern pastures, have been reckoned superior to English beef. This trade is now on its decline, by the increase of manufacturers, whose demand for butcher's meat must lessen the exportation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that a sufficient stock, by proper methods, may be raised to supply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

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

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } The population of Scotland is generally fixed  
MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } at about a million and a half; but this is only a vague conjecture, as no attempt has been made to support its probability. It is to be regretted that some public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their several parishes. The number of soldiers, furnished by Scotland in the war of 1755, amounted to 80,000 men; of whom above 60,000 were raised in the islands and Highlands, which form by far the least populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two millions, as no country in the world, exclusive of the army, sends abroad more of its inhabitants.

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

An intelligent reader may easily perceive, that the ridiculous family pride, which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguished in Scotland, was owing to the feudal institutions which prevailed longer there than in England. Their family differences, especially those of the Highlanders, familiarized them to blood and slaughter; and the most ferocious passions were authorized and cherished by their chieftains. Their kings, except some who were endowed with extraordinary virtues, were considered in no other light than commanders of their army

in time of war; for in peace their civil authority was so little felt, that every clan, or family, even in the most civilized part of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as the sovereign. These prejudices were confirmed even by the laws, which gave those petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own estates; and they generally executed their hasty sentences in four-and-twenty hours after the parties were apprehended. The pride which those chieftains had in surpassing each other, created perpetual animosities, which seldom or never ended without bloodshed; so that the common people, whose best qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their masters, lived in a state of continual hostility. The late Archibald, duke of Argyle, was the first chieftain who had the patriotism to attempt to reform his dependents, and to banish those barbarous enormities. His example has been followed by others; and there can scarcely be a doubt, but that a very few years will reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of society.

Scotch gentlemen, who formerly piqued themselves upon their family, or the antiquity of their descent, were very disagreeable members of society; because, forgetting all the virtues of their ancestors, they imitated them only in their capricious vanity and revenge. Those who go abroad, and endeavour by industry to raise the lowness of their circumstances, excel in the civil, commercial, and military duties. They are in general hospitable, open, communicative, and charitable, and adopt the manners of the people with whom they live, with more ease and freedom than the natives of most other countries.

It remains a question, whether that lettered education, for which the Scots were noted by the neighbouring nations, was not of prejudice to their country, while it was of the utmost service to many of its natives. Their literature rendered them acceptable and agreeable among foreigners; but at the same time it drained the nation of that order of men, who are the best fitted for forming and executing the great plans of national improvement.

Few nations ever underwent a speedier revolution of manners than the Scots. Gentlemen who live at home, upon estates of 3000. a year and upwards, now differ little or nothing in their manners and stile of living, from their English neighbours of the like fortunes. The peasantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can conform their tempers better than they do to their stations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their passions, to behave submissively to their superiors, and live within the bounds of the most rigid œconomy. Hence they save their money and their constitutions, and few instances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices, occur at present in Scotland. They seldom enter singly upon any daring enterprise; but when they act in concert, the secrecy, sagacity, and resolution, with which they carry on any desperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the strongest temptations arising from their poverty, is still more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conspiracies; witness that which put Porteous to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midst of 20,000 people; and, though the agents were well known, and some of them tried, with a reward of 5000. annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found sufficient to bring them to punishment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both sexes, under a still greater temptation, to the young Pretender, after his defeat at Culloden, could scarcely be believed, were it not well attested.

They affect a fondness for the memory and language of their forefathers beyond perhaps any people in the world; but this attachment is seldom or never carried into any thing that is indecent or disgustful, though they retain it abroad as well as at home. They are fond of ancient Scotch dishes, such as the baggess, the sheep's head fringed, fish in sauce, friars chicken and minced collops. These dishes,

in their original dressing, were favoury and nutritive for keen appetites; but the modern improvements that have been made in the Scotch cookery have rendered them agreeable to the most delicate palates.

The lower clafs are not so much accustom'd as the English to convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, they seem, for that very reason, to enjoy them more completely. One testimony there is, at once social and charitable, and that is, the contributions rais'd for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank. Those festivities partake of the ancient Saturnalia; but though the company consists promiscuously of the high and the low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. The guests pay according to their inclination or ability, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be servants in respectable families, the contributions are so liberal that they often establish the young couple in the world.

The inhabitants of those parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by pasture, have a natural vein of poetry; and the beautiful simplicity of the Scotch tunes is relish'd by all the true judges of music. Love is generally the subject, and many of the airs have been brought upon the English stage with variations, under new names, but with this disadvantage; that, though rendered more conformable to the rules of art, they are stripp'd of that original simplicity and expressive energy which possesses such powers over the human breast. Those of a more lively strain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dress by the fife, an instrument for which they are remarkably well suited. It has been ridiculously suppos'd that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian secretary of Mary queen of Scots, reform'd the Scotch music. This is a falsehood invented, and propagat'd in envy to the Scots. Their finest tunes were compos'd by James I. long before Rizzio's arrival; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was chiefly employ'd by his mistress in foreign dispatches, ever wrote an air during the short time he liv'd in Scotland.

The common people retain the solemn decent manner of their ancestors at burials. When a relation dies in a town, the parish beadle is sent round with a passing bell; but he stops at certain places, and with a slow melancholy tone announces the name of the party deceas'd, and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his fellow parishioners. At the hour appointed, if the deceas'd was belov'd in the place, vast numbers attend. The procession is often preceded by the magistrates and their officers, and the body is carried in a coffin, cover'd by a velvet pall, with chairpoles, to the grave, where it is silently interred. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are perform'd in much the same manner as in England, but without any burial service. The Highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which play'd certain dirges, call'd *crounchs*, and were accompanied by the voices of both sexes.

Dancing is a favourite amusement in this country, but little regard is paid to art or gracefulness: the whole consists in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactness. One of the peculiar diversions practis'd by the gentlemen is the Golf, which requires an equal degree of art and strength: it is play'd by a bat and a ball; the latter is smaller and harder than a cricket ball; the bat is of a taper construction till it terminates in the part which strikes the ball, which is load'd with lead, and faced with horn. The diversion itself resembles that of the Mall, which was common in England, in the middle of the last century. An expert player will send the ball an amazing distance at one stroke: each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who strikes it in fewest strokes into a hole, wins the game. The diversion of Curling is, perhaps, peculiar to the Scots. It is perform'd upon ice, with large flat stones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common stand to a mark at a certain distance; and whoever is nearest the mark is the victor.

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These two may be called the standing summer and winter diversions of Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diversions common in England, cricket excepted.

[LANGUAGE AND DRESS.] These two articles are placed under the same head, because they had formerly an intimate relation to each other; both of them being evidently Celtic. The Highland plaid is composed of a woollen stuff, sometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This stuff is of a various colour, forming stripes which cross each other at right angles; and the natives value themselves upon the judicious arrangement, or what they call *sets*, of those stripes and colours. Above the shirt, the Highlander wears a waistcoat of the same composition with the plaid, which commonly consists of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the shoulder into very near the form of a Roman toga, as represented in ancient statues: sometimes it is fastened round the middle with a leathern belt, so that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat. This they call being dressed in a *phelg*, which the Lowlanders call a *kilt*, and which is, probably the same word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the same variegated stuff, buckled round the waist, and this they term the *philibeg*, which seems to be of Milesian extraction. The stockings are likewise of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into tassels. The poorer people wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undressed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is used, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the philibeg hung generally their knives, and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron pistol, sometimes of fine workmanship, and curiously inlaid with silver. The introduction of the broad sword of Andrea Ferrara, seems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purse, richly adorned with silver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dress.

The dress of the Highland women consisted of a petticoat and jerkin, with straight sleeves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held close under their chins with the hand, or fastened with a buckle of a particular fashion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The woman's plaid has been but lately disused in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. There is a strong resemblance between the Scottish plaids and the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the ancients, especially the Tuscans, as they are to be seen in the monuments of antiquity.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dress rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to government. Many efforts were made by the legislature, after the rebellion in 1715, to oblige them to conform to the Low-country dresses. The disarming scheme was the most successful, for when the rebellion in 1745 broke out, the common people had scarcely any other arms than those which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden rendered it no difficult matter for the legislature to force them into a total change of their dress. Its conveniency, however, for the purposes of the field, is so great, that the Highland regiments still retain it. Even the common people have of late resumed the use of it; and many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the summer time. The dress of the higher and middling ranks in the Low-country, differs little from the English; but many of the peasantry still retain the bonnet, for the cheapness and lightness of the wear.

The Earle, or Celt'e, is still spoken in the Highlands; but the language of the Low countries, which is of the same origin with the English, is continually extending its province. The English and Scotch are written in the same manner; and

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the pronunciation of the latter is scarcely more different from that of London, than are those of the northern and western English counties.

**PUNISHMENTS.]** These are much the same in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an instrument called the Maiden: the model of which was brought from Halifax in England to Scotland by the regent earl of Morton, where it was first used for the execution of himself.

**RELIGION.]** Ancient Scottish historians, with Bede, and other writers, generally agree that Christianity was first taught in Scotland by some of the disciples of St. John the Apostle, who fled to this northern country to avoid the persecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; though it was not publicly professed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scottish historians call Donald the First, his queen, and several of his nobles, were solemnly baptized. It was farther confirmed by emigration from South Britain, during the persecutions of Aurelius and Diocletian, when it became the established religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who seem to have been the first regular clergy in Scotland.

Christianity seems to have been thus taught, planted, and confirmed in Scotland, where it flourished in its native simplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a priest sent by the bishop of Rome, in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the ceremonies of the Romish church. The Culdees retained their original manners, notwithstanding the oppression of the Romish clergy, till the age of Robert Bruce, in the 14th century, when they disappeared. The opposition to popery in this island, though it ceased in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the same age revived in England by John Wickliffe, a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner in the work of reformation to John Hufs and Jerome of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther and John Calvin. But though the doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the same with those propagated by the reformers in the 16th century, and the age seemed strongly disposed to receive them, affairs were not fully ripe for this great revolution; and the finishing blow to popery in England was reserved for the reign of Henry VIII.

Soon after that important event took place in England, when learning, arts, and sciences began to revive in Europe, the unscriptural doctrines of the church of Rome, as well as the profligate lives of her clergy, did not escape the notice of a free and inquiring people, but gave rise to the Reformation in Scotland. It began in the reign of James V. made great progress under that of his daughter Mary, and was completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and was the chief reformer of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that upon the abolition of the Roman Catholic religion, they were to succeed to the revenues of that clergy. The great nobility, whose imaginations had already ingrossed these possessions, did not at first discourage this notion; but no sooner had Knox succeeded in his designs, which, through the fury of the mob, destroyed some of the finest ecclesiastical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, appropriated the church-livings, and most scandalously left the reformed clergy to live almost in a state of beggary. The great landholders left the doctrine and discipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding events rendered the presbyterian clergy of great importance to the state; and their revenues have been so much mended, that though few stipends exceed 150*l.* a year, few fall short of 60*l.* and none of 50*l.* If the present expensive mode of living continues in Scotland, the established clergy will have many unanswerable reasons to urge for the increase of their revenues.

The bounds of this work admit not of entering upon the doctrinal and oeconomic part of the church of Scotland. It is sufficient to say, that its first principle

ciple is a parity of ecclesiastical authority among all its presbyters; that it agrees in its censures with the reformed churches abroad in the chief heads of opposition to popery; but that it is modelled principally after the Calvinistical plan established at Geneva. The greater and lesser excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of estate, and sometimes of life, has been abolished. That relic of popery, the obliging fornicators of both sexes to sit upon what is called a repenting-stool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out. The power of the Scotch clergy is at present very moderate, or at least very moderately exercised. They have been, ever since the Revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the house of Hanover; and they acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dress without clerical robes: but some of them appear in the pulpit in gowns and bands, after the Geneva form. They make no use of set forms in worship. The rents of the bishops, since the abolition of episcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purposes. A thousand pounds a year is always sent by his majesty for the use of the protestant schools erected by act of parliament in North-Britain and the Western Isles; and funds have been lately established for the support of the widows and orphans of the clergy. The number of parishes in Scotland are eight hundred and ninety, whereof thirty-one are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is served by more than one minister.

The highest ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is the general assembly, consisting of commissioners, (some of whom are laymen, under the title of ruling elders) from presbyteries, royal burghs, and universities. A presbytery, consisting of under twelve ministers, sends two ministers and one ruling elder; if it contains between twelve and eighteen ministers, it sends three, and one ruling elder: if it contains between eighteen and twenty-four ministers, it sends four ministers and two ruling elders: but if the presbytery has twenty-four ministers, it sends five ministers and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh sends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whose election must be attested by the respective kirk-sessions of their own burghs. Every university sends one commissioner. The commissioners are chosen yearly, six weeks before the meeting of the assembly. The ruling elders are often persons of the first quality of the country. The king presides by his commissioner (who is always a nobleman) in this assembly, which meets annually, in May: but he has no voice in their deliberations. This assembly chooses a clergyman for its moderator or speaker. Appeals are brought from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland to the general assembly; and no appeal lies from its determinations in religious matters.

Provincial synods are next in authority. They are composed of a number of the adjacent presbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland; but their acts are reversible by the general assembly.

Subordinate to the synods are presbyteries, sixty-nine in number, each consisting of several contiguous parishes. The ministers of these parishes, with one ruling elder, chosen half-yearly out of every kirk-session, compose a presbytery. These presbyteries meet in the head town of that division; but have no jurisdiction beyond their own bounds, though within these they have cognizance of all ecclesiastical matters. A chief part of their business is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and solemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or present in six months after a vacancy, otherwise the presbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk-session is the lowest ecclesiastical judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own parish. The members consist of the minister, elders, and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act much as church-wardens do in England, by having the superintendency of the poor, and taking care of other parochial

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parochial affairs. The elder, or ruling-elder, is a place of great parochial trust, and he is generally a lay person of consideration in the parish. The elders are supposed to act in a kind of co-ordinancy with the minister, and to be assisting to him in many of his clerical duties, particularly in catechising, visiting the sick, and at the communion-table.

The office of ministers, or preaching presbyters, includes the offices of deacons and ruling-elders; they alone can preach, administer the sacraments, catechise, pronounce church censures, ordain deacons and ruling-elders, assist at the imposition of hands upon other ministers, and moderate or preside in all ecclesiastical judicatories.

The established religion in Scotland formerly partook of the austerities of Calvinism, and of the intolerance of popery; at present is mild and gentle; and the sermons and other theological writings of many of the modern Scotch divines, are equally distinguished by good sense and good writing. A great number of seceding congregations are to be found in the Lowlands. They maintain their own preachers; though scarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice. We do not, however, find that they oppose the civil power; or at least very seldom. Perhaps many of these *secessions* are justifiable on account of the great abuses of patronages, by which many parishes have unworthy or incapable ministers imposed upon them, as is the case in many places in England.

A different set of dissenters in Scotland consists of the episcopalians, a few quakers, many papists, and other sectaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Episcopacy, from the time of the Restoration, in 1660, to that of the Revolution, in 1688, was the established church of Scotland; and would probably have continued so, had not the bishops, who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refused to recognise king William's title. The partisans of that unhappy prince retained the episcopal religion; and king William's government was rendered so unpopular in Scotland, that in queen Anne's time, the episcopalians were more numerous in some parts than the presbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under the act of toleration, as well attended. Their meetings still subsist, but thinly; the decline of the nonjurors not having suppressed episcopacy in Scotland: the English bishops supply clergymen qualified according to law, whose chapels are chiefly filled by the English, and such Scotch hearers of that persuasion as have places under the government.

The defection of some great families from the cause of popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries inconsiderable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the islands; and though a violent opposition has lately been raised against them, they appear to be as quiet and inoffensive as protestant subjects.

Scotland, during the time of episcopacy, contained two archbishopsricks, St. Andrew's and Glasgow; and twelve bishopsricks, Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Refs, Caithness, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the Isles.

LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] For this article we may refer to the literary history of Europe for 1400 years past. The western parts and isles of Scotland produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apostle of Ireland, and many others since, whose bare names would make a long article. The writings of Adamnanus, still extant, and of some others, who lived before, and at the time of the Norman invasion, afford specimens of their learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, most unquestionably held a correspondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he entered into league; and employed Scotchmen in planning, settling, and ruling his favourite universities, and other seminaries of learning, in France.

Italy, and Germany. It is an undoubted truth, though a seeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philosopher, and historian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flourished in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure English as that bard, and his versification is perhaps more harmonious. The destruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity have rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin style of Buchanan's History is equal in classical purity to any modern production; and both Buchanan and Arthur Johnston have very successfully cultivated the Lyric muse, by two elegant Latin versions of the Psalms of David. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princes are incomparably the finest compositions of the times in which they were written, and are free from the barbarisms of those sent them in answer. This has been considered as a proof that classical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland than at any other in Europe.

The discovery of the logarithms, a discovery which, in point of ingenuity and utility, may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indisputable right of Napier of Merchiston; and since his time, the mathematical sciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great success. Keil, in his physico-mathematical works, to the clearness of his reasoning has sometimes added the colouring of a poet. Gregory was long held the best writer on astronomy; and is still allowed to be one of the most perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of Sir Isaac Newton, was endowed with all that precision and force of mind, which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehensions. While Maclaurin pursued this new career, a geometrician no less famous distinguished himself in the almost deserted tract of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simson, well known for his illustrations of the ancient Geometry. The fine arts have been called sisters, to denote their affinity. There is the same connection between the sciences, particularly those which explain the works of nature. Mathematics, and physics properly so called, were in Scotland accompanied by the other branches of study to which they are allied. In medicine particularly, the names of Piteairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Whytt, Cullen, Gregory, &c. hold a distinguished place.

In the department of history, this nation have acquired the highest celebrity. Hume was the first who, with any pretensions to classical elegance, wrote the history of England. Dr. Robertson began his literary career of glory with the history of his own country. This was followed by that of all Europe, in the reign of the emperor Charles V. The captivating account of the discovery of America was next presented to the world; and an historical disquisition concerning India, was the last production of this philosophical historian. To Dr. Henry, his country and the world are indebted for a history of Great Britain upon a plan entirely new, in which, at the expence of immense labour, he has brought within one glance of the eye, every thing interesting in the civil history, religion, constitution, learning, arts, commerce, and manners of the people from the earliest authenticity. From an infinite variety of authors of the first respectability, he has collected a great mass of knowledge, and has concentrated these scattered rays into one focus, so as to render his work both instructive and entertaining.

Nor have the Scots been unsuccessful in cultivating the Belles Lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderness and feeling, must acknowledge the poetic genius and delicate sensibility of Thomson. But of all literary pursuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called *morals*, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and respect. The philosophy of Dr. Hutcheson, not to mention other works more subtle and elegant, but less convincing and less instructive, deserves to be read by all who would know their duty, or who

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would wish to practise it. Next to Locke's *Essay on the Human Understanding*, it is perhaps the best dissertation of the human mind that hath appeared in modern times; and it is likewise a most useful supplement to that essay. It would be endless to mention all the individuals who have distinguished themselves in the various branches of literature; particularly in those who are alive (some of them in high esteem for historical, ethical, and sermonic composition) dispute the palm of merit with the dead, and cover their country with laurels.

UNIVERSITIES.] The Universities of Scotland are four, viz. St. Andrews\*, founded in 1411.—Glasgow †, 1454.—Aberdeen ‡, 1477.—And Edinburgh §, 1582.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, } Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } naturally claims our first attention in this division. Its castle, before the use of artillery, was deemed impregnable; and was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whose territories reached to the Frith of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the castle, and a more inconvenient situation for a capital can scarcely be conceived; the high-street, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying east and west; and the lanes running down its sides, north and south. In former times the town was surrounded by water, except towards the east; so that when the French landed in Scotland, during the regency of Mary of Guise, they gave it the name of Lillebourg. This situation suggested the idea of building very lofty houses, divided into stories, each of which contains a suite of rooms, generally large and commodious, for the use of a family; so that the high-street of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn stone, broad, and well-paved, makes a most august appearance, especially as it rises a full mile in a direct line, and gradual ascent from the palace of Holyrood-house on the east, and is ter-

\* St. Andrews has a Chancellor, two Principals, and eleven Professors in

Greek,	Logic,	Mathematics,	Divinity,
Humanity,	Moral Philosophy,	Civil History,	Medicine.
Hebrew,	Natural Philosophy,	Church History,	

† Glasgow has a Chancellor, Rector, Dean of Faculty, Principal, and fourteen Professors in

Greek,	Logic,	Practical Astronomy,	Medicine,
Humanity,	Moral Philosophy,	History,	Anatomy.
Hebrew,	Natural Philosophy,	Divinity,	
Original Languages,	Mathematics,	Civil and Scotch Law,	

‡ Aberdeen has properly two Colleges, viz. King's College, and Marischal College; King's

Greek,	Oriental Languages,	Divinity,	Medicine.
Humanity,	Philosophy,	Civil Law,	

§ The old buildings in the university of Edinburgh, having fallen into decay, have been partly taken down, and a new building is now erecting, the foundation of which was laid with great ceremony, December 16th, 1789. The east and west fronts of this structure extends 255 feet, and the south and north 338. The rooms for the Library and Museum are each to be 68 feet in length, and the dimensions of the Hall for degrees and public exercises are about 90 feet by 30. Our most gracious sovereign has been a very liberal benefactor to this edifice, which promises to be a noble monument of national taste and spirit.

Edinburgh has a Patron, Principal, and Professors in

Divinity,	Natural Philosophy,	Law of Nature and Na-	Inst. of Physic and Me-
Church History,	Mathematics,	tions,	dicine,
Greek,	Civil History,	Rhetoric, and Bôles	Practice of medicine,
Humanity,	Natural History,	Lettres,	Chemistry,
Hebrew,	Scotch Law,	Botany,	Anatomy,
Logic,	Civil Law,	Materia Medica,	Midwifery.
Moral Philosophy,			

minated on the west by the rude majesty of its castle, built upon a lofty rock, inaccessible on all sides, except where it joins to the city. The inconveniences arising from this crowded population being so very apparent, the modern houses are generally built in the English taste, of a moderate height, and accommodated to the use of a single family. This improvement particularly prevails in the new town. The castle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a rich neighbouring country, but commands a most extensive prospect of the river Forth, the shipping, the opposite coast of Fife, and even some hills at the distance of forty or fifty miles, which border upon the Highlands. The castle has some good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, a large magazine of arms and ammunition, and contains the regalia, which were deposited here under the most solemn legal instruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at present of those regalia is contained in the instrument which was taken at the time of their being deposited, where they are fully described.

Facing the castle, at a mile's distance, stands the abbey, or rather palace of Holyrood-house. The inner quadrangle of this palace, begun by James V. and finished by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan, and under the direction of sir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and one of the greatest architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilasters; and the inside contains good apartments. Its long gallery contains figures, some of which are from portraits, painted by modern hands, of the kings of Scotland, down to the time of the Revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have adorned the neighbourhood of this palace, which is situated at the bottom of bleak crags and bare mountains. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it stood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a most elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two long stone galleries supported by curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inside was demolished and rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repositories of the dead, and discovered a vault, till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his first queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this ancient chapel fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occasioned by the enormous weight of a new stone roof, laid over it some years ago, which the walls were unable to support.

The hospital, founded by George Herriot, goldsmith to James VI. stands to the south-west of the castle, in a good situation. It is the finest and most regular specimen which Inigo Jones, who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of king James VI. has left us of his Gothic manner. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magistrates.

The college at Edinburgh claims the privileges of an university, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magistrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Its original buildings were only calculated for the sober literary manners of those days. We have already mentioned the new university which is now erecting; but what is of more importance, it is supplied with excellent professors in the several branches of learning; and its schools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by Clement Little, and of late greatly augmented.

The Parliament-square, or, as it is there called, Clove, was formerly the most ornamental part of the city; it is formed into a quadrangle, part of which consists of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a fine equestrian statue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-house, though not so large, is said to be

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be better proportioned than Westminster-hall; and its roof, though executed in the same manner, has been by good judges held to be superior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a single judge, called the lord ordinary, presides by rotation; in a room near it, sit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, shrievalty, and magistracy of Edinburgh; and the valuable library of the lawyers. This equals any thing of the kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at first founded and furnished by lawyers. It contains the most valuable manuscript remains of the Scotch history, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a series of medals.

The high church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into four churches, and a room or hall where the general assembly sits. It is a large Gothic building, and its steeple is surmounted by arches formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect. The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, such as the exchange, public offices, hospitals, bridges, and the like, demonstrate the improvement of the taste of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have almost completed a new town. The streets and squares are laid out with regularity, and the houses are built of stone, in an elegant taste.

Between the old and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, which agreeably to the original plan, was to have been formed into a sheet of water, bordered by a terrace walk, and the ascent towards the new town covered with pleasure gardens, shrubberies, &c. This design has not yet been carried into execution. At the west, or upper end of this vale, the castle, a solid rock, not less than twenty stories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eastern extremity is bounded by a striking object of art, a lofty bridge\*, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the descent on each side the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages. I am the more particular in describing this city, that the reader may form some idea of its magnificent situation, standing on an eminence, with a gentle declivity on each side, in the heart of a rich country; the view southward, that of a romantic city, its more romantic castle, and distant hills rising to an amazing height; while the prospect across the Frith, gives full scope to the eye, pleases the imagination, and expands the mind.

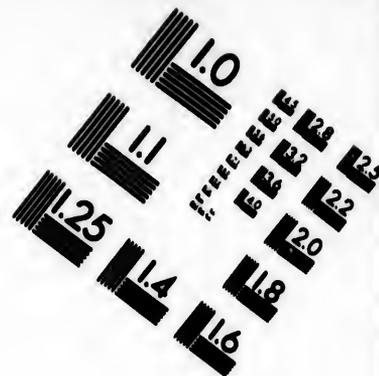
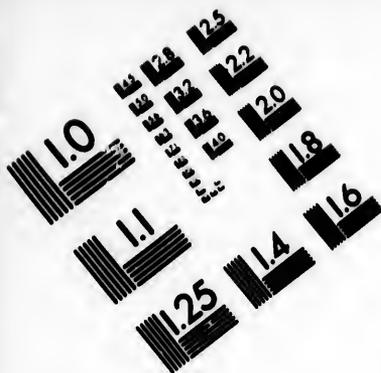
This city may be considered, notwithstanding its castle, and a wall which encloses it on the south side, as an open town; so that it would have been impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it against the rebels, who took possession of it 1745. Edinburgh contains a play-house, which has now the function of an act of parliament; and concerts, assemblies, balls, music-meetings, and other polite amusements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majesty's dominions, London and Bath excepted. In the new town are several handsome and convenient hotels, and the coffee-houses and taverns in the old town are much improved.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provost, four baillies, a dean of guild, and a treasurer, annually chosen from the common-council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooses its own deacon, and here are 14; viz. surgeons, goldsmiths, skinners, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, masons, tailors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provost is colonel of the town-guard, a military institution to be found in no part of his

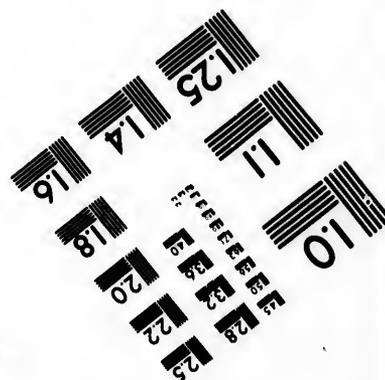
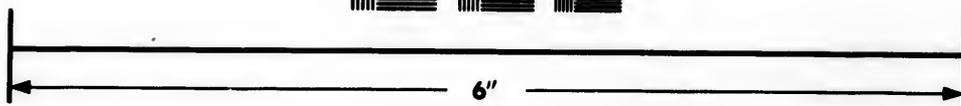
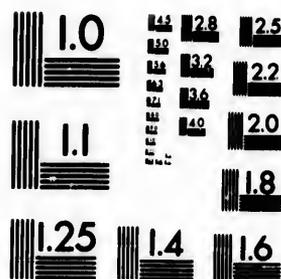
\* A bridge has been lately erected towards the south, which not only connects the buildings in that quarter with the old and new towns, but admits of an easy access to the country. This south bridge forms a most elegant street, with magnificent

buildings on each side, and is directly opposite to that over the North Loch, and will be productive of many advantages, and afford a great increase of revenue to the city of Edinburgh.





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majesty's dominions, but at Edinburgh: this guard serves for the city watch, and patrols the streets, is useful in suppressing small commotions, and attends the punishment or execution of criminals. The soldiers are divided into three companies, and wear an uniform; they are commanded by three officers, under the names of captains. Besides this guard, Edinburgh raises 16 companies of trained bands, which serve as militia. The revenues of the city consist chiefly of that tax which is now common in most of the bodies corporate of Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two thirds of a farthing, laid upon every Scotch pint of ale (containing two English quarts) consumed within the precincts of the city. Its product has been sufficient to defray the expence of supplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes at the distance of four miles; of erecting reservoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and completing other public works, of great expence and utility.

Leith, though near two miles distant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the same jurisdiction. It contains the remains of two citadels (if they are not the same), which were fortified and bravely defended by the French, under Mary of Guise, against the English, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble seats, which are increasing; particularly, the earl of Ahercorn's, a short way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's house at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopetoun-house, so called from the earl its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roslin, noted for a stately Gothic Chapel, counted one of the most curious pieces of workmanship in Europe; founded in the year 1440 by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glasgow, in the shire of Lanerk, situated on a gentle declivity sloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles west of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the second city of Scotland, and considering its size, the first perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the materials of its buildings. The streets cross each other at right angles, and are broad, straight, and well paved. The houses make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five stories high, and many of them, towards the centre of the city, are supported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern built churches are in a good style of architecture; and the Gothic cathedral contains three churches, one of which stands above another, and is furnished with a fine spire springing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a masterly fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo or Kentigern, who was bishop of Glasgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preserved from the fury of the rigid reformers by the resolution of the citizens. The town-house is a lofty building, and has noble apartments for the magistrates. The university is esteemed the best built of any in Scotland. In this city are several well-endowed hospitals; it is well supplied with inns; and, near the most populous part of the town, where the traders assemble, is a hotel, tavern, and spacious coffee-house, named the *Tontine*, supported by subscription. In Glasgow are seven churches, and eight or ten meeting-houses for sectaries of various denominations. Its inhabitants have been estimated at 50,000.

Aberdeen is the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a shire, to which it gives name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen; the former is the shire-town, and evidently built for the purpose of commerce. It is a large well-built city, and has a good quay, or tide-harbour; in it are three churches, and several episcopal meeting-houses, a considerable degree of foreign commerce and much shipping, a well-frequented university, and above 20,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile distant, though almost joined to the New, by means of a long village, has no dependence on the other:

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it is a moderately large market-town, but has no haven. In each of these places there is a well-endowed college, both together being termed the univerlity of Aberdeen, though independent of each other.

Perth, the capital town of Perthshire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic, is finely situated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the most fertile spots in Great Britain, called the Carle of Gowry. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about 16,000 inhabitants; it lies near the mouth of the river Tay; is a town of considerable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to foreign parts; and has three churches. Montrose, Aberbrothick, and Brechin, lie in the same county of Angus; the foreign trade of the first begins to revive, and the manufactures of the other two are in an improving state.

It may be necessary again to mention, that the population of Scotland is spoken of with great uncertainty, as it makes very considerable improvement. The number of inhabitants in the towns already mentioned, has been rather under than over-rated. Edinburgh certainly contains more than 60,000 souls, which is the common computation; but the influx of people, and the increase of matrimony in proportion to that of property, must create great alterations for the better, and few for the worse, because the inhabitants who are disposed to industry may always find employment. This uncertainty is the reason why a particular description of Dumfries, Air, Greenock, Paisley, Stirling, and about 50 other burghs and towns of very considerable trade in Scotland, is omitted. But great allowances are to be made on the other hand, for numerous emigrations to England, America, the West and East Indies, for new settlements.

The ancient Scots valued themselves upon trusting to their own valour, and not to fortifications, for the defence of their country. This was a maxim more heroic than prudent, as they have often experienced. The castles of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Dumbarton, formerly thought places of great strength, could not hold out 48 hours, if besieged by 6000 regular troops, with proper artillery. Fort William, which lies in the West Highlands, is sufficient to bridle the inhabitants of the neighbourhood, as far as Fort George and Fort Augustus, in the north and north-west; but none of them can be considered as defences against a foreign enemy.

ANTIQUEITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The Roman and other antiquities found  
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } in Scotland, have furnished matter for large  
volumes. We can still trace the Roman Wall (or, as it is called by the country  
people, *Graham's dyke*, from a tradition that a Scottish warrior of that name first  
broke over it) between the Clyde and Forth, which was first marked out by Agri-  
cola, and completed by Antoninus Pius. The Roman camps in Scotland have  
been recently described, in a splendid work, published from the manuscript of the  
late General Roy, by the Society of Antiquaries: they are distinguished into three  
classes; 1. those between the wall of Antoninus, and the borders of England;  
2. those between the same wall, and the river Tay; 3. the camps to the north-  
east of that river, ending in the camp at Kiethick, near Brechin. The three Sta-  
tions at Grassy walls and Ardoch, in Perthshire, and Battle Dykes, between Killy-  
moor and Brechin, are the only camps hitherto discovered, that could contain  
Agricola's whole army. By comparing the relation which Tacitus has given of  
that general's last campaign with the face of the country, general Melvill was led  
to conclude that the decisive defeat of the Caledonians under Galgacus, happened  
near the eastern extremity of the Grampians, and not at Strathern, as had formerly  
been supposed. General Roy adopted his friend's opinion, and prosecuted his  
discoveries; and both these gentlemen think, that between Battle-Dykes and the  
eastern extremity of the Grampians, one at least, if not two large camps, must have  
existed,

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existed, and will probably sometime be discovered. The camp at Ardoch is the best preserved of all those in Scotland, having on the south side five rows of ditches and six ramparts; and of the four gates, three are very distinct, the prætoria, decumana, and dextra.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or the dome of St. Paul's at London, stood upon the banks of the river Carron, in Stirlingshire, but has been lately barbarously demolished by a neighbouring Goth, for the purpose of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the base was eighty-eight feet; so that, upon the whole, it was one of the most complete Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or some of his successors, as a temple to the god Terminus, as it stood near the pretenture which bounded the Roman empire in Britain to the north. Near it are some artificial conical mounts of earth, which still retain the name of Duni-pace, or Duni-pucis; which serve to evince that there was a kind of compromise between the Romans and Caledonians, that the former should not extend their empire farther to the northwards.

Innumerable are the coins, urns, utensils, inscriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in different parts of Scotland; some of them to the north of the wall, where, however, it does not appear that they made any establishment. By the inscriptions found near the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of the Roman highways are frequent in the southern parts.

Danish camps and fortifications are discernible in several northern counties. The elevations of two extraordinary fabricks, to be seen in Ross-shire, are given in Gordon's Itinerarium Septentrionale. I am of opinion that they are Norwegian or Scandinavian structures, and built about the fifth century to favour the descents of that people upon those coasts.

There are two elegant Pictish monuments, one of them at Abernethy in Perthshire, the other at Brechin in Angus; both of them are columns, hollow in the inside, and without a stair-case; that of Brechin is the most entire, being covered at the top with a spiral roof of stone, with three or four windows above the cornice; it consists of sixty regular courses of hewn freestone, laid circularly and regularly, and tapering towards the top\*.

The ancient Scots had a rude notion of sculpture, by which they transmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obelisks are still to be seen, called the Danish stones of Aberlemno. They were erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over the Danes; and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horseback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, now inexplicable, but minutely described by Mr. Gordon. Many other historical monuments of the Scots have been discovered; and the obscurity of their sculptures has encouraged a field of boundless and frivolous conjectures. It would be unpardonable not to mention the stone near the town of Forres, or Fortrose, in Murray, which far surpasses all the others in magnitude, and is (says Mr. Gordon) perhaps one of the most stately monuments of that kind in Europe. It rises about 23 feet in height, above ground, and is, I am credibly informed, no less than 12 or 15 feet below; so that the whole height

\* If these columns, which stand in the ancient dominions of the Picts, be really the work of that nation, their architects must have been far superior to those of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearances of an order; and the building is neat, and in the Roman style of architecture. It is, however, difficult to assign them to any but the Picts, as they stand in their dominions; and some sculptures upon that at Brechin, denote it to be of Christian origin. It is not indeed impossible that these sculptures may be of later date. Besides these two pillars, many other Pictish buildings are found in Scotland, but not of the same taste.

is at least 35 feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one single and entire stone, upon which a great variety of figures in relievo are carved, some of them still distinct and visible; but the injury of the weather has obscured those towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally looked upon as Danish, yet I have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulsion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their last settlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm a few years before the Norman invasion.

At Sandwick, in Ross-shire, is a splendid ancient obelisk, surrounded at the base with large, well cut flag stones, formed like steps. Both sides of the column are covered with various embellishments, in well finished carved work. The one face presents a sumptuous cross, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and some uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central division, on the reverse, exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and animals. The remains of the cathedral of Elgin display much grandeur and dignity. The west door is ornamented with much elegance in the carvings, and the whole edifice exhibits very elaborate workmanship.

Among the remains of ancient castles may be mentioned Kildrummy castle in the north of Scotland, formerly a place of great strength and magnificence, and often used as an asylum to noble families in periods of civil war. Inverurie castle, the ancient seat of the earl-marschals of Scotland, is also a large and lofty pile, situated on the steep bank of the river; two high towers adorn the extremities of the front, which, even in their decaying state, give the castle an air of grandeur and antiquity. Rows of venerable trees, inclosing the adjoining garden, add to the effect of the decayed buildings. Near the town of Huntley are the ruins of the castle, of that name. On the avenue that leads to it, are two large square towers which had defended the gateway. The greatest part of this ancient castle is demolished; but there is a massy building of a more modern date, in which some of the apartments, and their curious ceilings, are still in tolerable preservation. They are painted with a great variety of subjects, in small divisions, in which are contained many emblematical figures.

Besides these remains of Roman, Pictish, Danish, and Scottish antiquities, many Druidical monuments and temples are discernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the isles, where we may suppose that paganism took its last refuge. They are distinguishable by their circular forms; but though equally regular, yet none of them are so stupendous as the Druidical monuments in South Britain. There is in Perthshire a barrow which seems to be British; it exactly resembles the figure of a ship with the keel uppermost. The common people call it Ternay, which some interpret to be *terre navis*, the ship of the earth. It appears to be of the most remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of some British prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans.

The traces of ancient volcanos are not infrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finchaven is one instance; and the hill of Bergonium, near Dumfries castle, is another, yielding quantities of pumices or scoria of different kinds. Among other natural curiosities, mention is made of a heap of white stones, most of them clear like crystal, together with great plenty of oyster and other sea-shells, that are found on the top of a mountain called Skorna Lappich, in Ross-shire, twenty miles distant from the sea. Slains, in Aberdeenshire, is said to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping-cave, where water, oozing through a spongy porous rock at the top, quickly consolidates, after it drops to the bottom. Other natural curiosities belonging to Scotland have their descriptions and histories, but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, and vanish when they are skillfully examined. Some caverns in Fife-shire are probably

natural, and of extraordinary dimensions, and have been the scenes of inhuman cruelties.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] In these respects Scotland has, for some years past, been in a very improving state. Without entering into the disputed point, how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots to take possession of Darien, and to carry on an East and West-India trade, was founded upon true principles of commerce, and, (so far as it went) executed with a noble spirit of enterprize. The miscarriage of that scheme, after receiving the highest and most solemn sanctions, is a disgrace to the annals of that reign in which it happened; as the Scots had then a free, independent and unconnected parliament. We are to account for the languor of the Scottish commerce, and many other misfortunes which that country sustained, by the disgust the inhabitants conceived on that account, and some invasions of their rights afterwards, which they thought inconsistent with the articles of union. The entails, and narrow settlements of family-estates, and some remains of the feudal institutions, might contribute to the same cause. Mr. Pelham, when at the head of the administration in England, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, was the first minister who discovered the true value of Scotland, which then became a more considerable object of the attention of government than ever. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragement granted to the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his administration, made them sensible of their own importance. Mr. Pitt, a succeeding minister, pursued Mr. Pelham's wise plan; and justly boasted in parliament, that he availed himself of the courage, good sense, and spirit of the Scots, in carrying on the most extensive war that Great Britain was ever engaged in. Let it be remarked, to the honour of the British government, that the Scots have been suffered to avail themselves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or posterior acts of parliament.

This is manifest from the extensive trade they lately carried on with the British settlements in America and the West Indies, and with all the nations to which the English themselves trade; so that the increase of their shipping within these 40 years' past has been very considerable. The exports of those ships are composed chiefly of Scotch manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the soil, and the industry of its inhabitants. In exchange they import rice, cotton, sugar, and rum, from the British plantations; and from other countries, their products, to the immense saving of their nation. The prosperity of Glasgow and its neighbourhood hath been greatly owing to the connection and trade with Virginia and the West Indies.

The fisheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coasts, for they have a great concern in the whale fishery carried on upon the coast of Spitzbergen; and their returns are valuable, as the government allows them a bounty of 40s. for every ton of shipping employed in that article. The late improvement of their fisheries, which has been already mentioned, will, it is to be hoped, open inexhaustible funds of wealth; their cured fish being preferred by foreigners, and the English planters in America, to those of Newfoundland.

The busses or vessels employed in the great herring fishery on the western coasts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-west parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring islands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbeltown, a commodious port in Argyshire, facing the north of Ireland, where sometimes 300 vessels have been assembled. They clear out the 12th of September, and must return to their different ports by the

13th

13th of January. They are also under certain regulations respecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. but although the political existence of Great Britain depends upon the number and bravery of our seamen, this noble undertaking still labours under many difficulties.

To encourage this fishery, a bounty of 50s. per ton was granted by parliament, but whether from the insufficiency of the fund appropriated for this purpose, or any other cause, the bounty was withheld from year to year, while in the mean time the adventurers were not only sinking their fortunes, but also borrowing to the utmost limits of their credit. The bounty has since been reduced from 50, to 30s. with the strongest assurances of its being regularly paid when due. Upon the strength of these promises adventurers have again embarked in the fishery; and it is to be wished that no consideration whatever may tend to withdraw an inducement so requisite to place this fishery on a permanent footing.

The benefits of these fisheries are perhaps equalled by manufactures carrying on at land; particularly that of iron at Carron, in Stirlingshire.

The linen manufactory, notwithstanding a strong rivalship from Ireland, is in a flourishing state. The thread manufactory of Scotland is equal, if not superior, to any in the world; and the lace fabricated from it, has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. It has been said, some years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England, and the British plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks, osenaburgs, neckle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000*l.* exclusive of home consumption: and there is reason to believe that the sum is considerably larger at present. The Scots are making very promising efforts for establishing woollen manufactures; and their exports of caps, stockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very considerable. It is true, that they cannot pretend to rival the English in their finer cloths; but they make some broad cloth proper for the wear of people of fashion in an undress, and in quality and fineness equal to what is commonly called Yorkshire cloth. Among their late improvements, we are not to forget the progress they have made in working the mines, and smelting the ores of their country. Their coal trade to England is well known; and even their whin-stones have been turned to account, by their contract for paving the streets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the English, is now diminished, this is partly owing to an increase of home consumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eastern ports; but Glasgow was the great emporium of American trade, before the commencement of the late war. The junction of the Forth to the Clyde renders the commercial benefits of the two sides of Scotland mutually advantageous to each other; and the more that the seas, the situation, the soil, harbours, and rivers of this country are considered, the better adapted it appears for all the purposes of commerce.

The town of Paisley employs an incredible number of hands, in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and striped lawns, which are a reasonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houses, glass-works of every kind, delft-houses, and paper-mills have of late been greatly multiplied. The Scotch carpeting makes neat and lasting furniture. After all that has been said, many years will be required, before the trade and improvements in Scotland can be brought to maturity. In any event, they never can give umbrage to the English, as the interests of the two people are, or ought to be, the same.

Having said thus much, I cannot avoid observing the prodigious disadvantages under which both the commercial and landed interest of Scotland lie, from her nobility and great landholders, having too fond an attachment for England and foreign countries, where they spend their ready money. This is one of the evils

arising to Scotland from the union, which removed the seat of her legislature to London; but it is greatly augmented by the resort of volunteer absentees to that capital. While this partiality subsists, the Scots will probably continue to be distressed for a currency of specie. How far paper can supply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of trade; and the evil may, perhaps, be somewhat prevented, by money remitted from England, for the support of government, and for carrying on the manufactures and works now set on foot in Scotland. The gentlemen who reside in Scotland have, in some measure, abandoned the use of French brandy and claret, for port, and rum produced in the British plantations; their own malt-liquors are now come nearly to as great perfection as those in England; and it is said, that they have lately exported large quantities of their ale to London, Dublin, and the Plantations.

REVENUES.] See England.

COINS.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the same in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch shilling answered to about an English six-pence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an English groat. It continued diminishing in this manner till after the union of the two crowns under her son James VI. when the resort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the English court, occasioned such a drain of specie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch shilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an English shilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were succeeded by bodles, which were double the value of Scotch pennies, and are still current, but daily wearing out. A Scotch halfpenny was called a *babie*; some say, because it was first stamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only the corruption of two French words *bas piece*, signifying a low piece of money. The same observation made of the Scotch shilling holds of their pounds or marks; which are not coins, but money of account. In all other respects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the same; as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

ORDER OF THE THISTLE.] This is a military order, instituted, as the Scotch writers assert, by their king Achais, in the ninth century, upon his making a league with Charlemagne, king of France. It has been frequently neglected, and as often resumed. It consists of the sovereign and 12 companions, who are called Knights of the Thistle, and have on their ensign this significant motto, *Nemo me impune lacesset*. "None shall safely provoke me."

LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.] The ancient constitution of government in Scotland has been applauded, as excellently adapted to the preservation of liberty; and it is certain, that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the constitution, which were well calculated to prevent his assuming or exercising a despotic authority; but the Scottish constitution of government was too much of the aristocratic kind, to afford the common people equal liberty. The king's authority was sufficiently restrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to oppress their tenants and the common people.

In some instances there is now a difference between the laws and constitution of Scotland, and those of England, which was not the case formerly; though both countries have long been under one sovereign, and, since the union, form one kingdom. By the law of England, the subsequent marriage of the parents doth not legitimize the children of the same parents, born before that marriage. This was also the law of Scotland in the eleventh century; but the contrary rule of civil and canon law hath been long since adopted in North Britain. The trial of civil causes by a jury of twelve men, is considered as one of the most excellent properties

properties of English jurisprudence, and most valuable privileges of English subjects: this also was once the privilege of Scotland, but it is well known that the use of juries in civil causes, except in the court of exchequer, has been long since discontinued in Scotland \*.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promises, viz. "In the name of Christ, I promise these three things to the Christian people my subjects: First, That I shall give order, and employ my force and assistance, that the church of God, and the Christian people, may enjoy true peace during our government. Secondly, I shall hinder all persons, of whatever degree, from violence and injustice. Thirdly, In all judgements I shall follow the prescriptions of justice and mercy, to the end that our merciful God may shew mercy unto me and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently consisted of all who held any portion of land however small, of the crown, by military service. This parliament appointed the times of its own meeting and adjournment, and committees to superintend the administration during the intervals of parliament; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commissioned ambassadors; it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature: it named officers of state and privy-counsellors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and restrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public business of importance, without its advice and approbation. So late as the minority of James IV. who was contemporary with, and son-in-law to, Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty. The abuse of aristocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king a very considerable interest among the lower ranks; and a prince, who had sense and address to retain their affections, was generally able to humble the most arrogant of his subjects. The kings of Scotland, notwithstanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were assisted by their clergy, whose revenues were immense, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by establishing a select body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. They were chosen from the clergy, nobility, knights, and burghesses. The bishops, for instance, chose eight peers, and the peers eight bishops; and these sixteen chose eight barons (or knights of the shire), and eight commissioners for burghs; to whom were added eight great officers of state, the chancellor being president of the whole.

Their business was to prepare all questions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament; so that, though the king could give no negative, yet being by his clergy, and the places he had to bestow, always sure of the lords of articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It must be acknowledged, that this institution seems to have prevailed by stealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular system; even its modes varied; and the greatest lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never lost sight of their original principles: and when Charles I. endeavoured to form these lords of the articles into machines fit for his purposes, the melancholy consequences are well known. At the revolution, the Scots gave a fresh instance how warmly they asserted the principles of liberty, by omitting all debates about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voting king James at once to have *resigned* his crown, which they conferred on the prince and princess of Orarg.

\* Dr. Henry's History of Great Britain, vol. vi. p. 53. 8vo. edit.

This spirit of resistance was the more remarkable, as the people had groaned under the most insupportable ministerial tyranny ever since the Restoration. It is asked, Why did they submit to that tyranny? The answer is, In order to preserve their independency, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to destroy, by uniting them with England; they therefore chose to submit to a temporary evil; but they took the first opportunity to get rid of their oppressors.

Scotland, when it was a separate kingdom, cannot be said to have had any peers in the English sense of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquises, earls, and lords, were hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no distinct house, for they sat in the same room with the commons, who had a deliberate and decisive vote with them in all public matters. And a baron, though not a baron of parliament, might sit upon a lord's assize in matters of life and death.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scotch history, by confounding parliaments with conventions; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes; a convention, or meeting of the states assembled for the purposes of taxation only. Before the Union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four lesser officers of state; the great, were the lord high-chancellor, high-treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary; the four lesser were, the lords register, advocate, treasurer-depute, and justice-clerk. Since the Union none of these continue, excepting the offices of privy-seal, register, advocate, and justice-clerk; a third secretary of state has occasionally been nominated by the king for Scottish affairs. The above officers of state sat officially in the Scotch parliament.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, constable, admiral, and marshal. The offices of constable and marshal were hereditary. A nobleman has still a pension as admiral; and the office of marshal is exercised by a knight marshal.

The office of chancellor in Scotland differed little from that in England; the same may be said of the lords treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary. The lord register was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treasury, exchequer, and session, and keeper of all public records. Though his office was only during the king's pleasure, yet it was very lucrative, by disposing of his deputation, which lasted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to dispute his report of the numbers upon a division. The lord-advocate's office resembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are more extensive, since he is not only the prosecutor of all capital crimes before the judiciary, and likewise concurs in all pursuits before supreme courts for breaches of the peace, and in all matters civil, wherein the king or his donator hath interest. Two solicitors are named by his majesty, by way of assistants to the lord-advocate. The office of justice-clerk entitles the possessor to preside in the criminal court of justice, when the justice-general, an office which will be described hereafter, is absent.

The ancient constitution of Scotland admitted of many other officers both of the crown and state; but they are either now extinct, or too inconsiderable to be described. That of Lyon king at arms, or the rex facialis, or grand herald of Scotland, is still in being; and it was formerly a place of great splendor and importance, inasmuch that the science of heraldry was preserved there in greater purity than in any other country, except Germany. He was even crowned solemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority, in all armorial affairs, might be carried into execution by the civil law.

The privy council of Scotland before the Revolution, had, or assumed inquisitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now sunk in the parliament and privy council of Great Britain; and the civil and criminal causes in Scotland are chiefly cognizable by two courts of judicature.

The

The first is that of the college of justice, which was instituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament, to supply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took the names of the lords of council and session, which the present members of the college of justice still retain. This court consists of a president and fourteen ordinary members, besides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may sit and vote, but have no salaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a standing jury in all matters of property that lie before them. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been matter of surprize, that the Scots were so tenacious of the forms of their courts, and the essence of their laws, as to reserve them by the articles of the Union. This, however, can be easily accounted for, because those laws and forms were essential to the possession of estates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. The lords of council and session act likewise as a court of equity; but their decrees are reversible by the British house of lords, to which an appeal lies. The supreme criminal judge was named the Justiciar, and the court of Justiciary succeeded to his power.

The justice court is the highest tribunal in Scotland; but in its present form it was instituted so late as the year 1672, when a lord justice general, removeable at the king's pleasure, was appointed. This lucrative office still exists in the person of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court, are the justice-clerk, and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of session. The verdict of a jury condemns or acquits, but without the necessity of their being unanimous. Twice in the year, during the spring and harvest vacations, the judges of this court hold circuits in certain boroughs appointed by statute.

Besides these two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the same power, authority, and jurisdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenues there; and all matters competent to the court of exchequer of England, are likewise competent to the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exercise certain powers which formerly belonged to the treasury, and are still vested in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a supreme court, in all causes competent to its own jurisdiction; and the lord high-admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and justice-general upon the seas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the same; and upon fresh waters and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within flood-mark; so that nothing competent to his jurisdiction can be meddled with, in the first instance, but by the lord high-admiral and the judges of his court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty, may be brought again before his court; but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the session, or any other judicatory, unless in cases not maritime. Causes are tried in this court by the civil law, which, in such cases, is likewise the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse towus, and other maritime practices and decisions common upon the continent. The place of lord admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the salary is reckoned worth 1000*l.* a year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of distinction, with considerable perquisites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which answers to the English inns of court, may be called the seminary of Scotch lawyers. They are an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify its candidates for admission. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or attorneys, who are

are named writers to the signet, because they alone can subscribe the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a bye government for their own regulation.

The government of the counties of Scotland was formerly vested in sheriffs and stewards, courts of regality, baron courts, commissaries, justices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly sheriffdoms were generally hereditary; but, by act of parliament, they are now all vested in the crown; it being enacted, that all high-sheriffs, or stewards, shall, in future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majesty, his heirs and successors. In regard to the sheriff-deputes and steward deputes, it is enacted, that there shall only be one in each county or stewardry, who must be an advocate, of three years standing at least. For the space of seven years, these deputies are to be nominated by the king, with such continuance as his majesty shall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their offices for life, unless guilty of some offence.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the stewards had much the same power in them, as the sheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old were held by virtue of a royal jurisdiction vested in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but these were so dangerous, and so extravagant, that all the Scotch regalities are now dissolved by an act of parliament.

Baron courts belong to every person who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters, they extend to causes not exceeding forty shillings sterling; and in criminal cases, to petty actions of assault and battery; but the punishment is not to exceed twenty shillings sterling, or setting the delinquent in the stocks for three hours, in the day-time. These courts were, in former days, invested with the power of life and death, which they have now lost.

The courts of commissaries in Scotland answer to those of the English diocesan chancellors, the highest of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and testaments; the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tythes, divorces, and causes of that nature; but in other parts of the kingdom, there sits but one judge on these causes.

According to the present institution, justices of the peace in Scotland exercise the same powers as those in England. In former times their office, though of old standing, was insignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament that they were not to take cognizance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The institution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legislator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invasion of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to register the depositions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors; the office is now but seldom exercised.

From the above short view of the Scotch laws and institutions, it is plain that they were radically the same with those of the English. The latter allege, indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam Majestatem*, their oldest law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. The Scots, on the other hand, say, that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majestatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exist in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year, consisting of a representative from each burgh, to consult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are extensive, and before the Union they made laws relating to shipping, to masters and owners of ships, to mar-

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riners and merchants by whom they were freighted; to manufacturers; to the curing of salmon and herrings; and to the importing and exporting several commodities. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is subject to their regulation: they fix the staple-port, which was formerly at Dort, and is now at Campvere. Their conservator is nominated by the crown, but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his salary: so that the whole staple trade is subjected to their management. This is a very singular institution, and proves the attention which the government of Scotland paid to trade, so early as the reign of James III. 1487, when it was established.

The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The English law reports are of the same nature with the Scotch practices; and their acts of federunt answer to the English rules of court; the Scottish wadsets and reversions, to the English mortgages and defeasances; their pointing of goods, after letters of horning, is much the same as the English executions upon outlawries; and an appeal against the king's pardon, in cases of murder, by the next of kin to the deceased, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other usages are the same in both kingdoms. One observation proves the similarity between the English and Scotch constitutions, which I believe has been mentioned by no author. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in presence of the king, who was seated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scotch constitutions, is called the Moot, or Mute-hill: here all national affairs were transacted, judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill I apprehend to be of the same nature as the Saxon Folc mote, and to signify no more than the hill of meeting.

[HISTORY.] Though the writers of ancient Scotch history are too fond of system and fable, yet it is easy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were the first inhabitants; the Picts were Britons, forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, above fourscore years before the descent of Julius Cæsar; and who settling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots probably were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had served in armies on the continent, and, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying southward of the Forth appears to have been inhabited by Saxons, and by the Britons who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all these people, in process of time, were subdued by the Scots.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the history of that war is not only transmitted with great precision, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raised by Agricola in his march to Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave stand made by Galdus against that great general, does honour to the valour of both nations; and the sentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble historian with the same generous passion. It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola, to conceal some part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned southward, to the province of the Horesti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwise called Corbred, was, according to the Scotch historians, the 21st in a lineal descent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been disputed, yet nothing can be more certain, from

the Roman histories, than that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a succession of brave and wise princes during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their resistance obliged Agricola, and after him the emperors Adrian and Severus, to build two famous pretentures or walls, one between the Frith of Clyde and Forth; and the other between Tinmouth and the Solway Frith, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots.

Christianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the Christian era, by Donald I. The Picts, who were the descendants of the southern Britons, had at that time gained a footing in Scotland; and being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined with the Romans against the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the same original, and considered themselves as one people; so that the Scotch monarchy suffered a short eclipse: but it broke out with more lustre than ever under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his successors gave many severe overthows to the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britain in 448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas, a British historian, were a powerful nation, and, in conjunction with the Picts, invaded the Britons; and having forced the Roman walls, drove them to the very sea; so that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief: and, in the famous letter, which they called *their groans*, they tell them, that they had no choice left, but that of being swallowed up by the sea, or perill by the swords of the barbarians; for so all nations were called who were not Roman, or under the Roman protection.

Dongard was then king of Scotland, and it appears from the oldest histories, even those the least favourable to monarchy, that the succession to the crown of Scotland still continued in the family of Fergus, but generally devolved on collaterals; till the inconveniences of that mode of succession were so much felt, that it fell into disuse, and was at last settled in the descending line.

About the year 796, the Scots were governed by Achaius, a prince so much respected, that his friendship was courted by Charlemagne, and a league was concluded between them, which long continued inviolate. No fact of equal antiquity is better attested than this league, together with the great service performed by the learned men of Scotland, in civilizing the dominions of that great conqueror, as has been already observed under the article of learning. The Picts still remained in Scotland, as a separate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally subdued them; but not in the savage manner mentioned by some historians, by extermination; for he obliged them to incorporate themselves with their conquerors, by taking their name, and adopting their laws. The successors of Kenneth Mac Alpin maintained almost perpetual wars with the Saxons on the southward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the East; who, being masters of the sea, harassed the Scots by powerful invasions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the English; for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland, and at last driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Danish monarchs, who then governed England, were not more successful against the Scots, who asserted their freedom and independency against foreign invaders and domestic usurpers. The feudal law was introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaelic words, which signify a *large head*, but most probably from his great capacity, was the eighty-sixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the supposed founder of the monarchy; the forty-seventh from its restorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-second from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakspeare,

who keeps close to the facts delivered by historians, can be no stranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own history previous to his mounting the throne in 1057. He was a wise and magnanimous prince, not inferior to his contemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, surnamed the Outlaw, son to Edmund Ironside, king of England. By the death of her brother Edgar Atheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the posterity of that princess, who was one of the wisest and worthiest women of the age; and her daughter Maud was married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his son, treacherously, it is said, at the siege of Alnwick, by the besieged.

Malcolm III. was succeeded by his brother Donald VII. who was dethroned by Duncan II. whose legitimacy was disputed. Edgar, the son of Malcolm III. a wise and valiant prince, assumed the government; and was succeeded by Alexander I. upon whose death, David I. mounted the throne.

Notwithstanding the endeavours of some historians to conceal what they cannot deny, viz. the glories of this reign, it appears, that David was one of the greatest princes of his age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legislator. The actions he performed in the service of his niece, the empress Maud, in her competition with king Stephen for the English crown, give us the highest idea of his virtues, as they could be the result only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightiest prince of his age, owed his crown; and his possessions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power nearly on an equality with that of England, when confined to this island. His actions, and the resources he found in his own courage, prove him to have been a real hero. If he appeared to be too lavish to churchmen, we are to consider, that by them only he could hope to civilize his kingdom: and the code of laws drawn up by him do his memory immortal honour. They are said to have been compiled under his inspection by learned men, whom he assembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melros. He was succeeded by his grandson Malcolm IV. and he, by William, surnamed from his valour, the Lion. William's son, Alexander II. was succeeded in 1249 by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, first, Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince who married the earl of Flanders' daughter; David; and Margaret who married Hanguowan, or, as some call him, Eric, son to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bore to him a daughter named Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway: in whom king William's posterity failed, and the crown of Scotland returned to the descendants of David, earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV. and king William.

This detail has been given, because it is connected with great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great-grandson to David, earl of Huntingdon, by his elder daughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce, grandson to the same earl of Huntingdon, by his younger daughter Isabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of succession, which were not then so well established in Europe as they are at present, rendered the case very difficult. Both parties were almost equally matched in interest; but after a confused interregnum of several years, the great nobility agreed in referring the decision to Edward I. of England, the most ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived some obsolete claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was disposed to hold it by that disgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him: but afterwards dethroned, and treated him as a slave, without Baliol's consenting it.

After this, Edward used many bloody endeavours to annex the crown of Scotland

to his own ; but though the Scots were often defeated, and he for a short time made himself master of Scotland, yet the people were ready to revolt on every favourable opportunity. Those who were so zealously attached to the independence of their country, as to be resolved to hazard every thing, were but few, compared to those in the interest of Edward and Baliol. Edward availed himself of their weakness and his own power. He accepted of a formal surrender of the crown of Baliol, to whom he allowed a pension, but detained him in England ; and sent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the least suspected, to different prisons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to sign instruments of their subjection to him ; and most barbourously carried off, or destroyed, all the monuments of their history, and the evidences of their independency ; and particularly the famous fatidical or prophetic stone, which is still to be seen in Westminster-Abbey.

These severe proceedings, while they rendered the Scots sensible of their slavery, revived the desire of freedom ; and Edward, finding their spirits were not to be subdued, affected to treat them upon an equality with his own subjects, by projecting an union, the chief articles of which have since taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with disdain, and united under the brave William Wallace, the truest hero of his age, to expel the English. Wallace performed actions that entitle him to eternal renown, in executing this scheme. Being, however, no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increasing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the son of the first competitor, began to suspect that he aimed at the crown, especially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garrisons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the states of Scotland their protector. Their jealousy engaged them in cabals against the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this, once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the most numerous and best disciplined army England had ever seen, for it consisted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horse-men completely armed, and 4000 light armed ; attended by a fleet to supply it with provisions. With 40,000 men, under his immediate command, he attacked the Scotch army under Wallace at Falkirk, at the same time that the brave regent was deserted by Cumming, the most powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the best division of his countrymen. Wallace, whose troops did not exceed 30,000, was defeated with great loss, but made an orderly retreat ; during which he found means to have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of his error in joining with Edward. Wallace still continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions against the English, but he was betrayed by his countryman Monteith, and ungenerously put to death at London as a traitor. Edward died, as he was preparing to renew his invasion of Scotland with a still more desolating spirit of ambition, after having destroyed, according to the best historians, 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died soon after the battle of Falkirk ; but not before he had inspired his son, who was a prisoner at large about the English court, with the glorious resolution of vindicating his country's independency. He escaped from London, and with his own hand killed the treacherous Cumming ; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his four brothers, he assumed the crown ; but was defeated by the English (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle of Methven. After this defeat, he fled with one or two friends to the Western Isles of Scotland, where his fatigues and sufferings were as inexpressible as the courage with which he and his few friends bore them (the lord Douglas especially) was incredible. Though his wife and daughter were sent prisoners to England, where his best friends, and two of his brothers, were put to death, yet such was his persevering spirit, that he recovered all Scotland, except the castle of Stirling, and improved every

every advantage that was given him by the thoughtless conduct of Edward II. who at last raised an army more numerous and better appointed than that of his father, to make a total conquest of Scotland. It is said that it consisted of 100,000 men; the army of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all veterans, bred up in a detestation of tyranny. Edward led his host towards Stirling, then besieged by Bruce; who had chosen, with the greatest judgment, a camp near Bannockburn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Gloucester, Hereford, Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton; those under Bruce were, his own brother Sir Edward, who, next to himself, was reckoned the best knight in Scotland; his nephew Randolph, earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high-steward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was exceedingly furious, and required all the courage and firmness of Bruce and his friends to resist it, which they did so effectually, that they gained one of the most complete victories recorded in history. The Scotch writers make the loss of the English to amount to 50,000 men, while their own exceeded not 4000. The flower of the English nobility were killed or taken prisoners. Their camp, immensely rich, and calculated for the purpose rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots; and Edward himself, with a few followers, were pursued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he escaped in a fishing-boat. This great and decisive battle happened in the year 1314.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a series of glorious successes; and so well did his nobility understand the honour of their country, and so unfettered were they by superstition, that, in a letter they sent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had set aside Baliol for debasing the crown by holding it of England; and that they would do the same by Robert, if he should make the like attempt. Robert having thus delivered Scotland, sent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greatest part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but by exposing himself too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, made an advantageous peace with England; and died, in 1328, with the reputation of being the greatest hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be said to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was succeeded by his son David II. He was a virtuous prince, but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipsed by his brother-in-law and enemy Edward III. of England, whose sister he married. Edward, who was as ambitious as any of his predecessors of making the conquest of Scotland, espoused the cause of Baliol, son to Baliol the original competitor. His progress was at first amazingly rapid; and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at last driven out of his usurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David, however, had the misfortune to be taken prisoner by the English at the battle of Durham: and after continuing above eleven years in captivity, he paid 100,000 marks for his ransom; and died in peace without issue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The first king of that name was Robert II. a wife and brave prince. He was succeeded by his son Robert III. whose age and infirmities disqualified him from reigning; so that he was forced to trust the government to his brother, the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who seems to have had an intention to seize the crown. Robert, on this, attempted to send his second son to France; but he was ungenerously intercepted by Henry IV. of England; and after suffering a long captivity, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ransom. During the imprisonment of James in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greatest height in France, where they supported that tottering

tottering monarchy against England, and their generals obtained some of the first titles of the kingdom.

James, the first of that name, upon his return to Scotland, discovered great talents for government, enacted many wise laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he saw the feudal system refined from many of the imperfections which still adhered to it in his own kingdom; he determined, therefore, to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover such lands as had been unjustly wrested from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns: but the execution of these designs cost him his life, he being murdered in his bed by some of the nobility in 1437, and the 44th year of his age.

A long minority succeeded; but James II. promised to equal the greatest of his ancestors in warlike and civil virtues, when he was killed by the accidental bursting of a cannon, in the thirteenth year of his age, as he was besieging the castle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the English.

Suspicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are visible in the conduct of James III. and his trulent reign was closed by a rebellion of his subjects, during which he was slain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His son, James IV. was the most accomplished prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave; loved magnificence, delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected commerce, which greatly increased in his reign; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII's daughter, was splendid and respectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family-distemper, a predilection for the French, in whose cause he was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the English, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his son, James V. was long and turbulent; and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the first a daughter of the king of France, and the latter, of the house of Guise. He instituted the court of session, enacted many salutary laws, and greatly promoted the industry of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was so equally poised between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendship was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent presents. But James took little share in foreign affairs; he seemed rather to imitate his predecessors in their attempts to humble the nobility; and the doctrines of the reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he gave way, at the instigation of the clergy, to a religious persecution, though it is generally believed that, had he lived longer, he would have seized all the church-revenues, in imitation of Henry. Having slighted some friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thereby given great umbrage to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland, and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this short expedition, the English army retired to Berwick. Upon its retreat, James sent ten thousand men to the western borders, who entered England at Solway Frith: and he followed at a small distance, ready to join them. Soon after, he gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, lord Maxwell, of his commission, and conferring the command on his favourite, Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman. The army were so much disgusted with this alteration, that they were ready to disband, when a small body of English appeared, not exceeding five hundred. A panic seized the Scots, who immediately took to flight, supposing themselves to be attacked by  
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the whole English army. The English cavalry, seeing them fly with such precipitation, closely pursued, and slew great numbers, taking prisoners seven lords, two hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred soldiers, with twenty-four pieces of ordnance. This disaster so much affected king James, that it threw him into a fit of illness, of which he died, on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and successor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her imprudence, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in history. It is sufficient to say, that during her minority, and while she was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland: that being called to the throne of her ancestors while a widow, she married her cousin-german, lord Darnley, whose untimely death hath given rise to much controversy. The consequence of her husband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was considered as his murderer, was an insurrection of her subjects, from whom she fled into England, where she was ungenerously detained a prisoner for eighteen years; and, afterwards, on motives of state policy, cruelly beheaded by queen Elizabeth, in 1587, in the forty-sixth year of her age.

Mary's son, James VI. of Scotland, succeeded, in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the English crown, after shewing considerable abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, destroyed the independency, as it impoverished the people of Scotland; for the seat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to seek for situations in other countries. James, after a splendid, but troublesome reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1635, to his son, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his unwise conduct, stirred both his Scottish and his English subjects to arms. It was in Scotland that the sword was first drawn against Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himself into the power of the Scottish army; they at first treated him with respect, but afterwards delivered him up to the English parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pounds to the Scots, which was said to be due to them for arrears. The Scots afterwards made several unsuccessful attempts to restore his son, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worcester, 1651, after which, to the time of his restoration, the commonwealth of England, and the protector, gave law to Scotland.

The state of parties in England, at the accession of queen Anne, was such, that the Whigs once more had recourse to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the Union as it now stands. It was long before the majority of the Scotch parliament would listen to the proposals; but at last, partly from conviction, and partly through the force of money distributed among the needy nobility, it was agreed to; since which event, the history of Scotland becomes the same with that of England.

## E N G L A N D.

## EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	380	} between	{ 50 and 56 North latitude.
Breadth	300		{ 2 East and 6-20 West longitude.

GREAT BRITAIN contains 79,712 SQUARE MILES, with 119 inhabitants to each.

**CLIMATE AND BOUNDARIES.** } THE longest day, in the northern parts, contains 17 hours 30 minutes; and the shortest, in the southern, near 8 hours. It is bounded, on the North, by that part of the island called Scotland; on the East, by the German Ocean; on the West, by St. George's Channel; and on the South, by the English Channel, which parts it from France, and contains 49,450 square miles.

The situation, by the sea washing it on three sides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather; so that the inhabitants on part of the sea-coasts are often visited by agues and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the same degree of latitude, are subject; and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, especially those who live on a dry soil. That perpetual verdure for which England is remarkable, is occasioned by refreshing showers and the warm vapours of the sea.

**NAME AND DIVISIONS.** } Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology of the word *England*: some derive it from a Celtic word, signifying a level country; but I prefer the common etymology, of its being derived from Anglen, a province now subject to his Danish majesty, which poured a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this island. In the time of the Romans, the whole island went by the name of *Britannia*. The word *Brit*, according to Mr. Camden, signified painted or stained; the ancient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies. The western tract of England, which is almost separated from the rest by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called Wales, or the *land of Strangers*, because inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were strangers to the old natives.

When the Romans provinciated England, they divided it into,

1. Britannia Prima, which contained the southern parts of the kingdom;
2. Britannia Secunda, containing the western parts, Wales included; and,
3. Maxima Caesariensis, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, and sometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

To these divisions some add the Flavia Caesariensis, which they suppose to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxons invaded England, about the year 450, and established themselves there, in the year 582, their leaders appropriated to themselves, after the manner of the other northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the most instrumental in acquiring; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political confederacy, consisting of seven kingdoms. In time of war, a chief was chosen from the seven kings by public consent; so that the Saxon heptarchy nearly resembled the constitution of Greece during the heroic ages.

Kingdoms

E N G L A N D

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, usually styled the Saxon Heptarchy.

Kingdoms.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Kent founded by Hengist in 475, and ended in 823.	Kent	Canterbury.
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600.	Suffex Surry	Chichester Southwark.
3. East Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793.	Norfolk Suffolk Cambridge With the Isle of Ely Cornwall	Norwich Bury St. Edmund's Cambridge Ely.
4. West-Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, and ended in 1060.	Devon Dorset Somerset Wilts Hants Berks Lancaster York	Launceston Exeter Dorchester Bath Salisbury Winchester Abingdon Lancaster York Durham Carlisle Appleby
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 574, and ended in 792.	Durham Cumberland Westmoreland Northumberland, and Scotland to the Frith of Edinburgh	Newcastle.
6. East-Saxons, founded by Ercewin in 527, and ended in 740.	Essex Middlesex, and part of Hertford The other part of Hertford	London.
7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874.	Gloucester Hereford Worcester Warwick Leicester Rutland Northampton Lincoln Huntingdon Bedford Buckingham Oxford Stafford Derby Salop Nottingham Chester	Hertford Gloucester Hereford Worcester Warwick Leicester Oakham Northampton Lincoln Huntingdon Bedford Aylesbury Oxford Stafford Derby Shrewsbury Nottingham Chester.

It is the more necessary to preserve these divisions, as they account for different local customs, and many very essential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in England, and which took their rise from different Saxon institutions. Since the Norman invasion, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, except Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progresses of the judges, for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital. These circuits are:

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Home Circuit.	Essex - -	Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich, Malden, Saffron Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford.
	Hertford -	
	Kent - -	
	Surry - -	
	Suffex - -	
	Bucks - -	
2. Norfolk Circuit.	Bedford -	Aylesbury, Buckingham, High-Wickham, Great-Marlow, Stoney Stratford, and Newport Pagnel.
	Huntingdon	
	Cambridge	
	Suffolk	
	Norfolk -	
	Oxon - -	
3. Oxford Circuit.	Berks - -	Abingdon, Windfor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, and Oakingham.
	Gloucester	
	Worcester	
	Monmouth	

E N G L A N D.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
3. Oxford Circuit continued.	Monmouth	Monmouth, Chepstow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport.
	Hereford	Hereford, Leinster, Weobley, Ledbury, Kyneton, and Rofs.
	Salop - -	Shrewsbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Bishop's Castle, Whitchurch, Oswestry, Wem, and Newport.
4. Midland Circuit.	Stafford -	Stafford, Litchfield, Newcastle under Line, Wolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Uttoxeter, and Stone.
	Warwick	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulcester, Nuneaton, and Atherton.
	Leicester	Leicester, Melton-Mowbray, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, Bosworth, and Harborough.
	Derby -	Derby, Chesterfield, Wirksworth, Ashbourne, Bakewell, Balfover, and Buxton.
	Nottingham	Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, East and West Retford, Mansfield, Tuxford, Workfop, and Blithe.
	Lincoln -	Lincoln, Stamford, Boston, Grantham, Croyland, Spalding, New Sleaford, Great Grimsby, Gainfborough, Louth and Horncastle.
	Rutland - Northampton	Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Brackley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thrapston, Towcester, Rockingham, Kettering, and Rothwell.
5. Western Circuit.	Hants - -	Winchester, Southampton, Portsmouth, Andover, Basingstoke, Christchurch, Petersfield, Lymington, Ringwood, Rumsley, Arlesford, and Newport, Yarmouth, and Cowes, in the Isle of Wight.
	Wilts - -	Salisbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Mahmsbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, Bradford, and Warminster.
	Dorset -	Dorchester, Lyme, Sherborn, Shaftsbury, Poole, Blandford, Bridgeport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn.
	Somerfet -	Bath, Wells, Bristol in part, Taunton, Bridgewater, Ilchester, Minehead, Milbourn-port, Glastonbury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunster, Wacht, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton-Mallet, Croscomb, and Froome.
	Devon -	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstable, Biddeford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dartmouth, Tavilock, Topsham, Okehampton, Athburton, Crediton, Moulton, Torrington, Totnefs, Axminster, Plympton, and Ilfracomb.
	Cornwall -	Launceston, Falmouth, Truro, Saltash, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padstow, Tregony, Fowey, Pemyu, Kellington, Leskard, Leiwithiel, Helston, Penzance, and Redruth.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
6. Northern Circuit*.	York - -	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaster, Whitby, Beverly, Northallerton, Burlington, Knareborough, Barnsley, Sherborn, Bradford, Tadcaster, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heydon, Howden, Thirike, Gilborough, Pickering, and Yarum.
	Durham -	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Castle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Auckland.
	Northumb.	Newcastle, Tinnmouth, North-Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham.
	Lancaster	Lancaster, Manchester, Preston, Liverpool, Wigan, Warrington, Rochdale, Bury, Ormskirk, Hawkshead, and Newton.
	Westmorel.	Appleby, Kendal, Lonsdale, Kirkby-Stephen, Orton, Ambleside, Burton, and Milthorpe.
Cumberland	Carlisle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglass, Egremont, Kefwick, Workington, and Jerby.	

Middlesex is not comprehended; and Cheshire, being a county palatine, enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The same may be said of Wales, which is divided into four circuits.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Counties not included in the Circuits.	Middlesex	LONDON, first meridian, N. Lat. 51-30. Westminster, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelsea, Highgate, Hampstead, Kenfington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court.
	Chester -	Chester, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sandach, Congleton, Knotford, Froditham, and Haulton.

## C I R C U I T S O F W A L E S.

North-East Circuit.	Flint - -	Flint, St. Asaph, and Holywell.
	Denbigh -	Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen.
	Montgom.	Montgomery, Llanvylin, and Welchpool.
North-West Circuit.	Anglesey -	Beaumaris, Holyhead, and Newburgh.
	Caernarvon	Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pullilly.
	Merioneth	Dolgelly, Bala, and Harlegh.
South-East Circuit.	Radnor -	Radnor, Prestean, and Knighton.
	Brecon -	r ecknock, Built, and Hay.
	Glamorgan	Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swansey.

\* In the Lent or Spring Assizes, the Northern Circuit extends only to York and Lancaster; the Assizes at Durham, Newcastle, Appleby, and Carlisle, being held only in the Autumn, and distinguished by the appellation of the *Long Circuit*.

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Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
South-West Circuit.	Pembroke	St. David's, Haverfordwest, Pembroke, Tenby, Fiscard, and Milfordhaven.
	Cardigan	
	Caermarth.	
		Cardigan, Aberystwith, and Llabadarn-vawer. Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Lanindoyery, Llandilobawr, Langham, and Lanelthy.

I N E N G L A N D.

40	Counties, which send up to parliament	- - -	80 knights.
25	Cities (Ely none, London four)	- - -	50 citizens.
167	Boroughs, two each	- - -	334 burgessees.
5	Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham-Ferrars, and Monmouth), one each	- - -	5 burgessees.
2	Univerfities	- - -	4 representatives.
8	Cinque ports (Hastings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe), and their three dependents, Rye, Wincheſtea, and Seaford, two each	- - -	16 barons.

W A L E S.

12	Counties	- - -	12 knights.
14	Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none), one each	- - -	12 burgessees.

S C O T L A N D.

33	Shires	- - -	30 knights.
67	Cities and Boroughs	- - -	15 burgessees.

Total 558

Besides the 52 counties into which England and Wales are divided, there are counties corporate, consisting of certain districts, to which the liberties and jurisdictions peculiar to a country have been granted by royal charter. Thus the city of London is a county distinct from Middlesex; the cities of York, Chester, Bristol, Norwich, Worcester, and the towns of Kingston upon Hull, and Newcastle upon Tyne, are counties of themselves, distinct from those in which they lie. The same may be said of Berwick upon Tweed, which lies in Scotland, and hath within its jurisdiction a small territory of two miles on the north side of the river.

Under the name of a town, boroughs and cities are contained: for every borough or city is a town, though every town is not a borough or city. A borough is so called, because it sends up burgessees to parliament; and this makes the difference between a village or town, and a borough. Some boroughs are corporate, and some not corporate; and though decayed, as Old Sarum, they still send burgessees to parliament. A city is a corporate borough, that hath had, or at present hath, a bishop; for if the bishoprick be dissolved, yet the city remains. To have suburbs proves it to be a city.

[SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] The soil of England and Wales differs in each county, not so much from the nature of the ground, though that must be admitted to occasion a very considerable alteration, as from the various degrees of proficiency which the inhabitants have made in the cultivation of lands and gardens, draining of marshes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part.

part of the world, if we except China. We cannot enter upon particular proofs of these improvements. All that can be said is in general, that if no unkindly seasons happen, England produces corn, not only sufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to make considerable exports. The benefits from these exports have sometimes tempted the inhabitants to carry out of the kingdom more grain than could be conveniently spared; for which reason exportations have been properly regulated. No nation exceeds England in the productions of the garden. London and its neighbourhood, though peopled by 1,000,000 of inhabitants, is plentifully supplied with all kinds of fruits and vegetables from grounds within a few miles distance. The plantations surrounding almost every country house, and the perpetual hedge-rows in the fields are equally delightful and useful. Some have observed a decay of that oak-timber which anciently formed the fleets that England put to sea; but it is supposed, with great probability, that great stores are still in reserve.

As to air, little can be added to what has been already said concerning the climate\*. The westerly breezes, which most commonly prevail, convey from the Atlantic Ocean a vast quantity of vapour, which is ventilated by winds and storms, so that in this respect England is to foreigners, and people of delicate constitutions, rather disagreeable than unwholesome. It cannot, however, be denied, that the weather is exceedingly capricious, and so unfavourable to certain constitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to repair to foreign countries, in hopes of obtaining a renovation of their health.

After what we have observed of the English air, the reader may form some idea of its seasons, which are so uncertain, that they admit of no description. Spring, summer, autumn, and winter, succeed each other, but in what month their different appearances take place is very undetermined. The spring begins sometimes in February, and sometimes in April. In May the face of the country is often covered with hoar-frost instead of blossoms. The beginning of June is sometimes as cold as in the middle of December, yet at other times the thermometer rises in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even August has its vicissitudes of heat and cold; and upon an average September, and next to it October, are two of the most agreeable months in the year. The natives sometimes experience all the four seasons within the compass of one day; cold, temperate, hot, and mild weather. This inconstancy, however, is not attended with the effects that might be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, or at most three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth; and it is hardly ever observed that the inhabitants suffer by a hot summer. Even the greatest irregularity, and the most unfavourable appearances of the seasons, are not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very seldom with scarcity. Perhaps this, in a great measure, may be owing to the vast improvements of agriculture; for when scarcity has been complained of, it generally, if not always, proceeded

\* The climate of England has more advantages than are generally allowed it, if we admit the opinion of king Charles the Second upon this subject, which is corroborated by that of sir William Temple; and it may be observed, that they were both travellers. I must needs add one thing (says sir William, in his *Miscellanea*, part ii. p. 114. edit. 8vo. 1690.) in favour of our climate, which I heard the king say, and I thought new and right, and truly like a king of England, that loved and esteemed his own country. It was in reply to some company that were reviling our climate, and extolling those of Italy and Spain,

or at least of France. He said, "He thought that was the best climate where he could be abroad in the air with pleasure, or at least without trouble or inconvenience, the most days in the year, and the most hours in the day; and this he thought he could be in England, more than in any country he knew in Europe." And I believe (adds sir William) it is true, not only of the hot and the cold, but even among our neighbours in France and the Low Countries themselves, where the heats or the colds, and changes of seasons are less treatable (or moderate) than they are with us.

from

from the excessive exportations of grain on account of the drawback, and the profit of the returns.

In speaking of water, rivers, brooks, or lakes, are not included; but only waters for the common conveniences of life, and those that have mineral qualities. The champaign parts of England are generally supplied with excellent springs and fountains; though a discerning palate may perceive, that they frequently contain some mineral impregnation. In some very high lands, the inhabitants are distressed for water, and supply themselves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The constitutions of the English, and the diseases to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquisitive after mineral waters. Those of certain efficacy are the hot baths of Bath and Bristol in Somersetshire, and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyshire; the mineral waters of Cheltenham, Tunbridge, Epsom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea water is used as commonly as any other for medicinal purposes; and so delicate are the tones of the English fibres, that the patients can perceive, both in drinking and bathing, a difference between the sea-water of one coast and that of another.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY } The industry of the English supplies those favours  
AND MOUNTAINS. } which nature has so liberally bestowed upon some  
foreign climes. No country in the world rivals the cultivated parts of England in beautiful scenes. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former gently swelling, and both forming prospects surpassing the pictures of fancy; the corn and meadow ground, the intermixtures of enclosures and plantations, the noble seats, cheerful villages, and well-fenced farms, often rising in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the most vivid colours of nature, are objects of which an adequate idea cannot be conveyed by description. The most barren spots are not without their verdure; but nothing can better prove the extent of English industry, than observing that some of the pleasantest counties in the kingdom are naturally the most unfruitful.

England contains few mountains of great altitude. The most noted are the Peak in Derbyshire, the Endle in Lancashire, the Wolds in Yorkshire, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, Skiddaw in Cumberland, Malvern in Worcester-shire, Cotswold in Gloucestershire, the Wrekin in Shropshire; with those of Plinlimmon and Snowdon, in Wales. In general, however, Wales and the northern parts, may be termed mountainous.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty, as well as its opulence. The Thames rises on the confines of Gloucestershire, a little S.W. of Cirencester, and after receiving many smaller streams, it passes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windsor. From thence to Kingston, where formerly it met the tide, which, since the building of Westminster-bridge, is said to flow no higher than Richmond; then it moves on to London, and, after dividing the counties of Kent and Essex, it widens in its progress, till it falls into the sea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ships to London-bridge. It was formerly a reproach to England, among foreigners, that so capital a river should have so few bridges; those of London and Kingston being the only two it had, from the Nore to the last mentioned place. The increase of riches, and inland trade, has of late greatly multiplied bridges. Those of Westminster and Blackfriars stand unrivalled for strength and grandeur. Battersea, Putney, Kew, Richmond, Walton, and Hampton-court have also bridges over the Thames, and others are projecting by public spirited proprietors of the grounds on both sides.

The river Medway, which rises near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerness, and is navigable for the largest ships as far as Chatham. The Severn, reckoned the second river for importance in England, and the first for rapidity, rises at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales, becomes navigable at Welch-Pool, runs east

east to Shrewsbury, then turning south, visits Bridgenorth, Worcester, and Tewkesbury, where it receives the Upper Avon; after having passed Gloucester, it takes a south-west direction, is near its mouth increased by the Wye and Ustre, and discharges itself into the Bristol-channel, near King-road; where the great ships anchor which cannot get up to Bristol. The Trent rises in the Moorlands of Staffordshire, and running south-east by Newcastle under Line, divides that country into two parts; then turning north-east on the confines of Derbyshire, visits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnshire, and being joined by the Ouse, and several other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the sea south-east of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England are the Ouse (a Gaelic word signifying water in general), which falls into the Humber, after receiving the water of many other rivers. Another Ouse rises in Bucks, and falls into the sea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tine runs from west to east through Northumberland, and falls into the German Sea at Tinmouth, below Newcastle. The Tees runs from west to east, dividing Durham from Yorkshire, and falls into the German Sea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from west to east on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German Sea at Berwick. The Eden runs from south to north through Westmoreland and Cumberland, and passing by Carlisle, falls into Solway Frith below that city. The Lower Avon runs west through Wiltshire to Bath, and then dividing Somersetshire from Gloucestershire, runs to Bristol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent, which runs from east to west through Cumberland, and passing by Cocker-mouth, falls into the Irish Sea a little below. The Ribble, which runs from east to west through Lancashire, and passing by Preston discharges itself into the Irish sea. The Mersey, which runs from the south-east to the north west through Cheshire, and then dividing Cheshire from Lancashire, passes by Liverpool, and falls into the Irish Sea a little below that town; and the Dee rises in Wales, and divides Flintshire from Cheshire, falling into the Irish channel below Chester.

The lakes of England are now few; though meres and fens were frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land. The chief lakes remaining, are Soham mere, Wittlessea mere, and Ramfay mere, in the isle of Ely, in Cambridgeshire. These meres in a rainy season unite, and form a lake of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. The northern counties of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire, contain several small lakes, which are remarkable for their beauty. Winander mere lies in Westmoreland, and some small lakes in Lancashire go by the name of Derwent waters. The various disposition of their banks, sometimes cultivated, often covered with wood, or enlivened by herds, the intermixture of hill and dale, rude rocks and green mountains, render the scenery of this part of England scarcely inferior to that of Switzerland and Italy.

FORESTS.] The first Norman kings of England, that they might the more effectually enslave their new subjects, converted immense tracts of grounds into forests, for hunting, governed by particular laws: so that it was necessary, about the time of passing the Magna Charta, to form a code of the forest laws; the justices in eyre, so called from their sitting in the open air, were appointed to see them observed. By degrees those tracts were disforested; and the chief forests, properly so called, remaining out of no fewer than 60, are those of Windfor, New Forest, Dean, and Sherwood. These forests produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, ash, and beech, besides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times England contained large forests of chefnut trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purposes of building, as appears from many great houses still standing, in which the chefnut beams and roofs remain fresh and undecayed, though some of them are above 600 years old.

METALS

**METALS AND MINERALS.]** Among the minerals, the tin mines of Cornwall are the principal. They were known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter especially, some ages before the Christian era; and since the English have manufactured their tin into plates, and white iron, they are of immense benefit to the nation. An ore called mundic is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded till about 80 years ago. Sir Gilbert Clark discovered the art of making the best Spanish copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris for making brass. Those tin-works are regulated by the stannary laws; and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Cornish miners are said to amount to 100,000. Some gold has likewise been discovered in Cornwall, and the lead is impregnated with silver. The English coined silver is particularly known by roses, and that of Wales by that prince's cap of feathers. Devonshire, and other counties of England, produce marble; but the best kind, which resembles Egyptian granite, is exclusively hard to work. Quarries of free-stone are found in many places. Northumberland and Cheshire yield alum and salt pits. The English fullers earth is of such consequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under severe penalties. Pit and sea-coal is found in many counties of England: but the city of London, to encourage the nursery of seamen, is chiefly supplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the bishoprick of Durham. The cargoes are shipped at Newcastle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coals to other countries is very considerable. The mines of Northumberland alone send every year upwards of 600,000 chaldron of coals to London, and 1500 vessels are employed in carrying them to that harbour, along the eastern coast of England.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.** } This is so copious a subject, and such improvement have been made in gardening and agriculture, even since the best printed accounts we have seen, that much must be left to the reader's own observation and experience... Nothing can be said with any certainty concerning the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other grains growing in the kingdom.

Excellent institutions for the improvement of agriculture are now common in England, and their members are so public-spirited as to print periodical accounts of their discoveries and experiments, which serve to shew that agriculture and gardening may be carried to a much higher state of perfection. The publications of the Bath society upon the subject of agriculture are well known; and such has been the attention of the nation to this important object, that his present majesty has been pleased, Aug. 31, 1793, by letters patent, under the great seal, to constitute a board for the encouragement of agriculture, and internal improvement. The proper cultivation of the soil is an object so peculiarly interesting to the community at large, that those who most assiduously attend to it, are perhaps to be accounted the most meritorious citizens of their country.

Honey and saliron are natives of England. It is almost needless to mention in what plenty the most excellent fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooseberries, raspberries, and other hortulan productions, grow here, and what quantities of cyder, perry, meadegin, and the like liquors, are made in some counties. The cyder of Devon and Herefordshire, is by many preferred to French white wine. The English have made the different fruits of the world their own, sometimes by simple culture, but often by hot beds and other artificial means. The English pine-apples are delicious, and now plentiful. Our kitchen gardens abound with all sorts of greens, roots, and fallads, in perfection; such as artichokes, asparagus, cauliflowers, cabbages, coleworts, brocoli, peas, beans, kidney-beans, spinage, beets, lettuce, celery, endive, turneps, carrots, potatoes, mushrooms, leeks, onions, and shallots.

Wood for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordshire, as hemp and flax are in other counties. In nothing have the English been more successful than in the cultivation of grasses for meliorating the soil. It belongs to a botanist to recount the various kinds of useful and salutary herbs, shrubs, and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The soil of Kent, Essex, Surry, and Hampshire, is most favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops, which now form a considerable article of trade.

With regard to ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, quadrupeds, being of the first importance, deserve the most particular notice. The English oxen are large and fat, but some prefer for the table the smaller breed of the Scotch and Welch cattle, after grazing in English pastures. The English horses are the best in the world. Incredible have been the pains taken, by all ranks, for improving the breed of this favourite and noble animal, and the success has been answerable; for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Persian, Arabian, Spanish, and other foreign horses. The irresistible spirit and weight of the English cavalry render them superior to all others in war: an English hunter will perform incredible things in a fox or stag-chace; and the English dray-horses are unrivalled for strength and docility. The exportation of horses has become a considerable article of commerce. The breed of asses and mules begin likewise to be improved and encouraged in England.

The English sheep are generally divided into two kinds; those that are valuable for their fleece, and those that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces constitute the original staple commodity of England. In some counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in those of their horses and dogs; and in Lincolnshire particularly, it is not uncommon for one of those animals to sell for 50*l.* and there are instances, that a single ram of extraordinary beauty and strength has been purchased for 100 guineas. It was thought at the beginning of this century (since which the number must have been greatly increased) that in England, twelve millions of fleeces are shorn annually, which, at a medium of 2*s.* a fleece, makes 1,200,000*l.* The other kind of sheep which are fed upon the downs, such as those of Banstead, Bagshot-heath, and Devonshire, where they have what the farmers call a short bite, is little, if at all, inferior in flavour and sweetness to venison.

The English mastiffs and bull-dogs are said to be the strongest and fiercest of the canine species in the world; but, either from the change of soil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of England, by way of experiment, turned out two English bull-dogs upon one of the fiercest lions in the Tower, and they soon conquered him. The mastiff has all the courage of the bull-dog, without its ferocity, and is particularly distinguished for his fidelity and docility. All the different species of dogs that abound in other countries, for the field as well as domestic uses, are to be found in England. What is observed of the degeneracy of the English dogs in foreign countries is applicable to the English game cocks, which afford much barbarous diversion to our sportsmen. The courage of these birds is astonishing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive, without victory. The proprietors and feeders of this animal are extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree.

Tame fowls are much the same in England as in other countries; turkeys, peacocks, common poultry, such as cocks, pullets and capons, geese, swans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild sort are bustards, wild geese, wild ducks, teal, widgeon, plover, pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, growse, quail, landrail, snipe, wood-pigeons, hawks of different kind, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jackdaws and jays, blackbirds, thrushes, nightingales, goldfinches, linnets, larks, and a great variety of small birds; Canary birds also breed in England. The wheat-

wheat-car is by many preferred to the ortolan, for the delicacy of its flesh and flavour, and is peculiar to England.

Few countries are better supplied than England with river and sea-fish. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of salmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, smelts, carp, tench, barble, gudgeons, roach, dace, grey mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and craw-fish, besides a delicate lake fish, called char, which is found in some fresh water lakes of Wales and Cumberland, and, as some say, no where else. The sea-fish are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, skate, soles. The john dory, found towards the western coast, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fish are found on the same coasts. As to shell-fish, they are chiefly oysters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobsters, crabs, shrimps, and escallops, one of the most delicious of shell-fishes, cockles, wilks, periwinkles, and muscles, with many other final shell-fish, abound in the English sea. The whales chiefly visit the northern coast; but great numbers of porpoises and seals appear in the Channel. The English are justly accused of not paying proper attention to their fisheries. The best fish that come to the tables of the great in London are sold by the Dutch to English boats, and that industrious people even take them upon the English coasts.

With regard to reptiles, such as adders, vipers, snakes, and worms; and insects, such as ants, guats, wasps, and flies, England is pretty much upon a par with the rest of Europe; and the difference, if any, becomes more proper for natural history than geography.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.

The exemption of the English constitution from the despotic powers exercised in foreign nations, not excepting republics, is one great reason why it is very difficult to ascertain the number of inhabitants in England; and yet it is certain that this might occasionally be done by parliament, without any violation of public liberty, and probably soon will take place. With regard to political calculations, they must be very fallible, when applied to England. The prodigious influx of foreigners, the emigrations of natives to the colonies, their return from thence, and the great number of hands employed in shipping, are matters that render any calculation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, it may fairly be supposed that England is more populous than the estimators of her inhabitants are willing to allow. The war with France and Spain, before the last, annually employed about 200,000 Englishmen, exclusive of Scots and Irish, by sea and land; and its progress indeed sensibly felt, but not so much as during the wars in queen Anne's reign, though not half of the numbers were then employed in the sea and land service. The great quantities of land taken into tillage, and the prodigious increase of our manufactures and industry, makes it certain that the populousness of England far exceeds the seven millions at which it was long estimated.

From the continual accession of strangers, and other obvious causes, it is impossible to ascertain the numbers of London by rules derived from the proportions of births and burials. At the very gates of this metropolis, 100,000 inhabitants are not included within the bills of mortality.

Englishmen, in their persons, are generally well sized, regularly featured, most commonly fair and florid in their complexions. It is to be presumed, that the vast numbers of foreigners intermarried with the natives have given a cast to their persons and complexions different from those of their ancestors 150 years ago. The women, in their shapes, features, and complexions, appear so graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty; and these personal graces are peculiarly adorned by prudence, chastity, and all the virtues of domestic

domestic life. Of all European nations, the English keep themselves the most cleanly. Their nerves are so delicate, that the people of both sexes are sometimes forcibly, nay mortally, affected by imagination; insomuch, that before the practice of inoculation for the small pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathsome disease by its true name in any polite company. This over-sensibility has been considered as one of the sources of those singularities, which so strongly characterise the English nation. They sometimes magnify the slightest appearances into realities, and bring the most distant dangers immediately home to themselves; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater resolution or constancy of mind. In short, many of the English feel, as if it really existed, every evil, in person and estate, which they form in their imagination. At particular intervals they are sensible of this absurdity, and run into a contrary extreme, striving to banish it by dissipation, riot, intemperance, and diversions. They are fond, for the same reason, of convivial associations; and when these are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the best cures for the mental evils, which are so peculiar to the English, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

Such of the English noblemen and gentlemen, as do not strike into high walks of life, affect rather what is called the snug way of living. They understand, perhaps, better than any people in the world, convenience in their houses, gardens, equipages, and estates; it has, however, been observed, that this turn renders them less communicative than they ought to be: but, on the other hand, the few connections they form are sincere, cheerful, and indissoluble. The like habits descend into the lower ranks, and are often discernible among tradesmen. This love of conveniency may be called the ruling passion of the English, and the ultimate end of all their application, labours, and fatigues. A good œconomist, with a brisk run of trade, is generally, when turned of 50, in a condition to retire from business; that is, either to purchase an estate, or to settle his money in the funds. He then commonly retires in a comfortable house in the country, often his native county, and expects to be treated on the footing of a gentleman; but his style of living is always judiciously suited to his circumstances.

Few people know better than tradesmen, and men of business in England, how to pay court to their customers and employers. Those arts they consider only as the means of acquiring that independence, the pride of which too often leads them into a contrary extreme. This carries them to that petulance, which is so offensive to strangers, and though encouraged, through the want of education, has its root in the noblest of principles badly understood; I mean, that right which the laws of England give to every man over his own property.

The humanity of the English is discovered in nothing more than in the subscriptions for public charities. An Englishman feels all the pains which a fellow-creature suffers, and poor and miserable objects are relieved in England with unexampled liberality. The same persons who contribute to those collections, are assessed in proportion to their property for their parochial poor, who have a legal demand for a maintenance; and upwards of three millions is said to be collected yearly in this country for charitable purposes. The institutions of extra-parochial infirmaries, hospitals, and the like, are in some cases reprehensible. The sums bestowed on building them, the contracts made by their governors, and even the election of physicians, who thereby acquire credit, which is the same as profit, often begets heat and cabals, very different from the purposes of disinterested charity, owing to the attachments and prepossessions of friends, and even to party considerations.

The English, though irascible, are the most placable people in the world, and will often sacrifice part of their interest rather than proceed to extremity. The unsuspecting nature of the English, and their honest open manners, especially of those

those in the mercantile way, often render them dupes. They listen to the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real or pretended, deserved or accidental, and generously contribute to the relief of the parties, sometimes even by placing them in a more creditable condition than ever. The lowest of the people are capable of generous actions; but they often make an ostentatious display of their own merits, which diminishes their value. There is among persons of all ranks an unparadonable preference given to wealth, above most other considerations. This offensive failing arises partly from the people being so much addicted to trade and commerce, the great object of which is gain; partly from the popular part of their constitution, which makes the possession of property a qualification for the legislature, and for almost every other species of magistracy, government, honours, and distinctions.

The same attention to property operates in many other ways among the lower classes, who think it gives them a right to be rude and disregarding of all about them: nor are the higher orders exempt from the same failing. Noblemen of the first rank have been seen laying bets with butchers and cobblers at horse-races and boxing-matches. Gentlemen and merchants of great property are sometimes not to be distinguished, either by their dress or conversation, even from their servants; and a wager offered to be staked in ready money against a penniless antagonist has been often thought a decisive argument in public company; but the practice of laying wagers has become much less prevalent than it used to be.

An Englishman, of education and breeding, is the most accomplished gentleman in the world; but constitutionally shy and reserved in his communications with strangers. It is not unusual for Englishmen to throw aside the best productions of literature, if they are not acquainted with the author. While the state-distinction of Whig and Tory subsisted, the heads of each party affected to patronize learned men; but the pecuniary encouragements given them were but very moderate, and the few who met with preferments in the state might have earned them more easily by a competent knowledge of business, and that pliability which the dependents in office generally possess. Mr. Addison had about 300*l.* a year of the public money, to assist him in his travels; and Mr. Pope, though a Roman Catholic, was offered, but did not accept of, the like pension from Mr. Cruggs, the Whig secretary of state; and it was remarked, that his Tory friend and companion the earl of Oxford, when sole minister, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in being a Papist. In the encouragement of learning, his present majesty has displayed a munificence unrivalled in English history.

The unevenness of the English in their conversation is very remarkable: sometimes it is delicate, sprightly, and replete with true wit; sometimes it is solid, ingenious, and argumentative; sometimes it is cold and phlegmatic in the extreme. In many of their convivial meetings they are noisy, and their wit is often offensive, while the loudest are the most applauded. This is particularly the case in large companies; but in smaller and more select parties, all the pleasures of rational conversation, and agreeable society, are enjoyed in England in a very high degree. Courage is a quality that seems to be congenial to the nation. Boys, before they can speak, discover that they know the proper guards in boxing with their fists; a quality that perhaps is peculiar to the English, and is seconded by a strength of arm that few other people can exert. This gives their soldiers an infinite superiority in all battles that are to be decided by the bayonet scrawed upon the musket. Their passive courage is not less conspicuous than their active. Their soldiers will keep up their fire in the mouth of danger, but when they deliver it, it has a dreadful effect upon their enemies: and in naval engagements they are unequalled. In the mechanical arts, they excel all nations. The intense application which an Englishman gives to a favourite study is incredible: it absorbs all his other ideas.

ideas. This creates the numerous instances of mental absences that are to be found in the nation.

The customs of the English have, since the beginning of this century, undergone a considerable change. The great fortunes made in the East and West Indies, as well as by contracts and offices at home, have introduced a class of men who have become opulent without industry, and who are expensive without taste. From the contagion of such examples, a spirit of luxury and gambling has been two widely diffused among the middle ranks. Their ancient hospitality has decayed; many of their favourite diversions are diffused. Those remaining are, operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos, and sometimes masquerades in or near London; but concerts of music, and card and dancing assemblies, are common all over the kingdom. I have already mentioned stag and fox-hunting and horse races, of which many Englishmen are fond even to infatuation. Somewhat, however, may be offered, by way of apology, for those diversions: the intense application which the English give to business, the sedentary lives, and luxurious diet, require exercise; and some think that their excellent breed of horses is increased and improved by those amusements. Next to horse-racing and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diversion among the great as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both classes assemble round the pit at one of those matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of the generous animal, every spectator being concerned in a bet, sometimes of high sums. The athletic diversion of cricket is still kept up in many parts of England, and is sometimes practised by people of the highest rank. Many other pastimes are common in England, some of them of a very robust nature, such as cudgelling, wrestling, bowls, skittles, quoits, and prison-bale; not to mention duck-hunting, foot and ass-races, dancing, puppet-shews, May garlands, and, above all, ringing of bells, a species of music which the English boast of having carried to perfection. The barbarous diversions of boxing and prize-fighting, which were as frequent in England as the shews of gladiators of Rome, are now prohibited, though often practised; and all places of public diversions, except the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament. Other diversions, which are common to other countries, such as tennis, fives, billiards, cards, swimming, angling, fowling, courting, and the like, are familiar to the English. Two kinds, and those highly laudable, are perhaps peculiar to them, and these are rowing and sailing. The latter, if not introduced, was patronized and encouraged by his present majesty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be considered as a national improvement. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diversion, though without answering the purposes of the rich: for the farmers and country people destroy the game in their nests, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among so free a people as the English, has been often attacked, and as often defended.

[DRESS.] The English, at present, bid fair to be the dictators of dress to the nations of Europe, at least with regard to elegance, neatness, and richness of attire. People of quality and fortune, of both sexes, appear on high occasions, in cloth of gold and silver, the richest brocades, satins, silks, and velvets, both flowered and plain, all which are now manufactured at home. The quantities of their jewels are incredible, especially since the vast acquisitions in the East Indies. Persons of distinction, on ordinary occasions, dress like creditable citizens, that is, neat, clean, and plain, in the finest cloth, and the best of linen. The full dress of a clergyman consists of his gown, cassock, scarf, beaver-hat and rose, all of black: his undress is a dark grey frock, and plain. The physicians, the formality of whose dress, in large eye perukes and swords, was formerly ridiculous, begin now to dress like  
other

other gentlemen. Few Englishmen, tradesmen, merchants and lawyers, as well as men of landed property, are without some passion for the sports of the field, on which occasions they dress with remarkable propriety. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel; and the appearance of an artisan or manufacturer in holyday times is commonly an indication of his industry and morals.

[REMARKS.] Eusebius, and other ancient writers, positively assert, that Christianity was first preached in South-Britain by the apostles and their disciples; and it is reasonable to suppose, that the success of the Romans paved the way for the triumphs of the Gospel of peace. It is certain also, that many of the soldiers and officers in the Roman armies were christians; and as their legions were repeatedly sent over to England to extend as well as to preserve their conquests, it is probable that thus Christianity was diffused among the natives. If any of the apostles visited this country and our heathen ancestors, it was St. Paul, whose zeal, diligence, and fortitude were abundant. But who was the first preacher, or the precise year and period, the want of records leaves us in doubt; for the belief of Joseph of Arimathea and St. Peter's preaching the Gospel in Britain, and Simon Zelotes suffering martyrdom here, rests on no better foundation than monkish legends. We have good authority to say, that about the year 150, a great number of persons professed the Christian faith, and, according to archbishop Usher, in the year 182, there was a school of learning to provide the British churches with proper teachers; and from that period it should seem that Christianity advanced its benign and salutary influences among the inhabitants, in their several districts. It is unnecessary to repeat what has been said in the introduction, respecting the rise and fall of the church of Rome in Europe. John Wickliffe, an Englishman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question, and boldly refuted, those doctrines which had passed for certain during so many ages. The constitution of the church is episcopal, and is governed by bishops, whose benefices were converted by the Norman conqueror into temporal baronies, in right of which, every bishop has a seat and vote in the house of peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy are now freehold, but in many places their tithes have been *impropriated*, i. e. conferred on the laity. The œconomy of the church of England has been accused for the inequality of its livings; some of them extending from three hundred to fourteen hundred a year, and many, particularly in Wales, being too small to maintain a clergyman's family with any tolerable decency: but this seems not easy to be remedied, unless the dignified clergy would adopt and support the reforming scheme. The crown, as well as private persons, has done great things towards the augmentations of poor livings.

The dignitaries of the church of England, such as deans, prebendaries, and the like, have generally large incomes; some of them exceeding in value those of bishopricks, for which reason the revenues of a rich deanery, or other livings, is often annexed to a poor bishoprick. At present, the clergy of the church of England, as to temporal matters, are in a most flourishing condition, because the value of their tithes increases with the improvement of lands. The sovereigns of England, ever since the reign of Henry VIII. have been called, in public writs, the supreme heads of the church; but this title conveys no spiritual meaning, as it only denotes the regal power, to prevent any ecclesiastical differences; or, in other words, to substitute the king in place of the pope before the Reformation, with regard to temporalities, and the internal œconomy of the church. The kings of England never intermeddle in ecclesiastical disputes, unless by preventing the convocation from sitting to agitate them, and are contented to give a sanction to the legal rights of the clergy.

The

The church of England is under the crown governed by two archbishops, and twenty-four bishops, besides the bishop of Sodor and Man, who, not being possessed of an English barony, does not sit in the house of peers\*. The two archbishops, are those of Canterbury and York, who are both dignified with the address of "Your Grace." The former is the first peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the English church. He takes precedence, next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of state. He is enabled to hold ecclesiastical courts upon all affairs that were formerly cognisable in the court of Rome, when not repugnant to the law of God, or the king's prerogative. He has the privilege consequently, of granting, in certain cases, licences and dispensations, together with the probate of wills, when the party dying is worth upwards of five pounds. Besides his own diocese, he has under him the bishops of London, Winchester, Ely, Lincoln, Rochester, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worcester, Bath and Wells, Salisbury, Exeter, Chichester, Gloucester, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol; and in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Asaph, and Bangor.

The archbishop of Canterbury has, by the constitution and laws of England, such extensive powers, that ever since the death of archbishop Laud, government has thought proper to raise to that dignity men of moderate principles; and generally men of considerable learning and abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and consequently of the state.

The archbishop of York takes place of all dukes, not of the blood royal, and of all officers of state, the lord chancellor excepted. He has in his province, besides his own diocese, the bishopricks of Durham, Carlisle, Chester, Sodor and Man. In Northumberland, he has the power of a palatine, and jurisdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The bishops are addressed by the appellation of your lordships, styled "Right reverend fathers in God," and take the precedence of all temporal barons. They have the privileges of peers, and the bishopricks of London, Winchester, Durham, Salisbury, Ely, and Lincoln, require no additional revenues to support their prelates in the rank of noblemen. English bishops are to examine and ordain priests and deacons, to consecrate churches and burying-places, and to administer the rite of confirmation. Their jurisdiction relates to the probate of wills; to grant administration of goods to the heirs of such as die intestate; to take care of perishable goods when no one will administer; to collate to benefices; to grant

\* To the following list, I have subjoined the sum each see is charged in the king's books; for though that sum is far from being the real annual value of the see, yet it affords in forming a comparative estimate between the revenues of each see with those of another.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS,					
Canterbury,	-	£ 2682 12 2 1	York,	-	£ 1610 0 0
BISHOPRICKS,					
London,	-	2000 : 0 : 0	St. Asaph,	-	187 : 11 : 8
Durham,	-	1821 : 1 : 3	Salisbury,	-	1385 : 5 : 6
Winchester,	-	1124 : 12 : 8	Bangor,	-	131 : 16 : 3
The bishops of these three take precedence of all others in England, and the others according to the seniority of their consecrations.			Norwich,	-	834 : 11 : 7
Ely,	-	2134 : 18 : 6	Gloucester	-	315 : 7 : 3
Bath and Wells,	-	513 : 1 : 3	Lincoln	-	894 : 18 : 1
Hereford,	-	768 : 11 : 0	Landaff	-	154 : 14 : 2
Rochester,	-	358 : 4 : 0	Bristol,	-	294 : 11 : 0
Litchfield and Coventry,	-	559 : 17 : 3	Carlisle,	-	531 : 4 : 9
Chester,	-	420 : 1 : 8	Exeter,	-	500 : 0 : 0
Worcester,	-	929 : 13 : 3	Peterborough,	-	414 : 17 : 0
Chichester,	-	677 : 1 : 3	Oxford,	-	381 : 11 : 0
			St. David's,	-	426 : 2 : 1

institutions

institutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to visit their own dioceses once in three years.

England contains about sixty archdeacons, whose office is to visit the churches twice or three every year, but their offices are less lucrative than they are honourable. Subordinate to them are the rural deans, formerly styled arch-presbyters, who signify the bishop's pleasure to his clergy, the lower class of which consists of priests and deacons.

The ecclesiastical government of England is, properly speaking, lodged in the convocation, which is a national representative or synod, corresponding pretty nearly to the ideas we have of a parliament. They are convoked at the same time with every parliament, and their business is to consider of the state of the church, and to call those to an account who have advanced new opinions, inconsistent with the doctrines of the church of England. Some clergymen of an intolerant and persecuting spirit, during the reign of queen Anne, and in the beginning of that of George I. raised the powers of the convocation to a height that was inconsistent with the principles of religious toleration, and indeed of civil liberty; so that the crown was obliged to exert its prerogative of calling the members together, and of dissolving them; since that time they have not been permitted to sit long enough to do business.

The court of arches is the most ancient consistory of the province of Canterbury, and all appeals in church-matters, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed to this. The processes run in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches; and the advocates, who plead in this court, must be doctors of the civil law. The court of audience has the same authority with this, to which the archbishop's chancery was formerly joined. The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved, and administrations taken out. The court of peculiars, relating to certain parishes, have a jurisdiction among themselves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the bishop's courts. The see of Canterbury has no less than fifteen of these peculiars. The court of delegates receives its name from its consisting of commissioners delegated or appointed by the royal commission; but it is no standing court. Every bishop has also a court of his own, called the consistory court. Every archdeacon has likewise his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The church of England is now beyond any other national church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character, and in England, no religious sect is prevented from worshipping God in that manner which their consciences approve. Some severe laws were, indeed, lately in force against those protestant dissenters who rejected the doctrinal articles of the church of England; but these laws were seldom executed; and, in 1779, religious liberty received a considerable augmentation, by an act which was then passed for granting a legal toleration to dissenting ministers and schoolmasters. Not to enter upon the motives of the reformation under Henry VIII. it is certain, that episcopal government, excepting the few years from the civil war under Charles I. to the restoration of his son, has ever since prevailed in England. The wisdom of acknowledging the king the head of the church, is conspicuous in discouraging all religious persecution and intolerance, and if religious sectaries have multiplied in England, it is from the same principle that civil licentiousness has prevailed; I mean a tenderness in matters that affect either conscience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had towards popery in the reign of Henry VIII. and his son, and even so late as that of Elizabeth, occasioned an interposition of the civil power, for a farther reformation. Thence arose the *puritans*, so called from their maintaining a singular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy, pious men, and some of them good patriots. Their descendants are the modern presbyterians, who retain the

same character, although their theological sentiments have undergone a considerable change. Their doctrine, like the church of Scotland, was originally derived from the Geneva plan, instituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of episcopacy, and to vesting the government of the church in a parity of presbyters. But the modern English presbyterians, in their ideas of church-government, differ little from the independents, or congregationalists, who are so called from holding the independency of congregational churches; and in this sense almost all the dissenters in England are now become *independents*. As to points of doctrine, the presbyterians are generally Arminians. Many of their ministers have greatly distinguished themselves by their learning and abilities, and some of their writings are held in high estimation by the clergy and other members of the established church. The same may be said of some of the independent and baptist-ministers. The independents are generally Calvinists. The baptists do not believe that infants are proper objects of baptism, and in the baptism of adults they practise immersion into water. They are divided into two classes, which are styled general, and particular baptists. The general baptists are Arminians, and the particular baptists, Calvinists. The moderate clergy of the church of England treat the protestant dissenters with affection and friendship: and though the hierarchy of their church, and the character of bishops, are capital points in their religion, they consider their differences with the presbyterians, and even with the baptists, as not material to salvation; nor indeed do many of the established church think that they are strictly and conscientiously bound to believe the doctrinal parts of the thirty-nine articles, which they are obliged to subscribe before they can enter into holy orders. Several of them have of late contended in their writings, that all subscriptions to religious systems are repugnant to the spirit of christianity, and to reformation.

The *Methodists* are a sect of a late institution, and their founder is generally looked upon to be Mr. George Whitfield, a divine of the church of England; but it is difficult to describe the tenets of this numerous sect. All we know is, that they pretended to great fervor and devotion, and their founder thought that the form of ecclesiastical worship, and prayers, whether taken from a common prayer book, or poured forth extempore, was a matter of indifference, and he accordingly made use of both these methods. His followers are rigid observers of the doctrinal articles of the church of England, and profess themselves to be Calvinists. But even the sect of methodists is divided: not to mention a variety of subordinate sects (some of whom are from Scotland, particularly the *Sandemanians*) who have their separate followers, but very few at London and other places in England. To this may be added the sect of the *Swedenborgians*, the followers of Emanuel Swedenburgh, which has arisen within these very few years. But in the writings of the founder of this sect, as well as in those of his disciples, there is so much mystical obscurity, expressed in a jargon so perfectly unintelligible, that we own our inability of communicating to our readers, any very clear ideas of the nature and doctrines of the *New Jerusalem* church.

Mr. Whitfield died some years since; but the places of worship erected by him, near London, are still frequented by persons of the same principles, and they profess a great respect for his memory. Some of the Calvinistic doctrines were opposed by Mr. Wesley and his followers, particularly that of predestination; but they appear still to retain some of them. He erected a very large place of public worship near Moorfields, and had under him a considerable number of preachers, who submitted to their leader implicitly, propagating his opinions, and making profelytes with great industry. After a very long life, spent in the most strenuous endeavours to do good, and having had the felicity of reforming the morals of thousands of the lower ranks in society, and in promoting their best interests, he died in 1791.

The

The Quakers are a religious sect, which took its rise about the middle of the last century. A summary account of their tenets having been published by themselves, the following is abstracted from it :

" They believe in one eternal God, the Creator and preserver of the universe, and in Jesus Christ his Son, the Messiah and Mediator of the new covenant.

" When they speak of the miraculous conception, birth, life, miracles, death, resurrection, and ascension of our Saviour, they use Scriptural terms, and acknowledge his divinity.

" To Christ alone they give the title of the word of God, and not to the Scriptures, although they highly esteem these sacred writings, in subordination to the Spirit, from which they were given forth.

" They believe (and it is their distinguishing tenet), that every man coming into the world, is endued with a measure of the light, grace, or good spirit of Christ, by which, as it is attended to, he is enabled to distinguish good from evil, and to correct the corrupt propensities of his nature, which mere reason is altogether insufficient to overcome.

" They think the influence of the Spirit especially necessary to the performance of worship ; and consider as obstructions to pure worship, all forms which divert the attention of the mind from the secret influence of this unction from the Holy One. They think it incumbent on Christians to meet often together, and to wait in silence to have a true sight of their condition bestowed upon them ; believing even a single sigh arising from such a sense to be more acceptable to God, than any performances, however specious, which originate in the will of man.

" As they do not encourage any ministry but that which is believed to spring from the influence of the Holy Spirit, so neither do they restrain this influence to persons of any condition in life, or to the male sex alone ; but as male and female are one in Christ, they allow such of the female sex, as are endued with a right qualification for the ministry, to exercise their gifts for the general edification of the church.

" Respecting Baptism, and, what is termed the Lord's Supper, they believe, that the baptism with water, administered by John, belonged to an inferior and decreasing dispensation.

" With respect to the other rite, they believe that communion between Christ and his church is not maintained by any external performance ; but only by a real participation of his divine nature through faith.

" They declare against oaths and war ; abiding literally by Christ's positive injunction, " Swear not at all." From the precepts of the Gospel, from the example of our Lord, and from his Spirit in their hearts, they maintain that wars and fightings are repugnant to the gospel.

" They disuse the names of the months and days, which were given in honour of the heroes of false Gods of the heathens ; and the custom of speaking to a single person in the plural number, as having arisen also from motives of adulation. Compliments, superfluity of apparel, and furniture, outward shows of rejoicing, and mourning, and observations of days and times, they esteem to be incompatible with the simplicity and sincerity of a Christian life ; and public diversions, gaming, and other vain amusements of the world, they condemn as a waste of time, and diverting the attention of the mind from the sober duties of life.

" This society hath a discipline established among them, the purposes of which are, the relief of the poor—the maintenance of good order—the support of the rectitudes which they believe it is their duty to bear to the world—and the help and recovery of such as are overtaken in faults.

" It is their decided judgment that it is contrary to the gospel to sue each other at law. They enjoin all to end their differences by speedy and impartial arbitration according

according to rules laid down. If any refuse to adopt this mode, or having adopted it, to submit to the award, it is the rule of the society that such be disowned."

It is well known that William Penn, one of this society, founded the province of Pennsylvania, into which he introduced a plan of civil and religious liberty. The government of the province was at first, and for many years, chiefly in the hands of the Quakers; but as persons of other persuasions increased, and became partakers of power, they grew uneasy at the pacific plan of the Quakers, and at length succeeding to establish such modes of defence for their country as did not accord with the principles of the latter, these gradually withdrew themselves from active employments of the state. For some time previous to the late revolution, few of them were found in any other station than that of private citizens; and during its progress, their refusing to arm exposed them to much suffering, by distrains levied on them, in order to procure their quota in support of the war.

Many families in England still profess the Roman catholic religion, and its exercise is under very mild and gentle restrictions. Though the penal laws against Papists in England appear at first to be severe, yet they are either not executed, or with so much lenity, that a Roman catholic feels himself under few hardships. Legal evasions are found out for their double taxes upon their landed property, and as they are subject to none of the expences and troubles (unless voluntary) attending public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burdens, the English Papists are in general in good circumstances, as to their private fortunes. Some of the penal laws against them were repealed by the 18 G. 3. c. 66. much to the satisfaction of all liberal-minded men, though a vehement outcry was afterwards raised against the measure by ignorance and bigotry, which occasioned the dreadful riots of 1780. By the 31 G. 3. c. 32. a further enlargement of their liberties was granted, so that upon taking and subscribing an oath, and declaration therein expressed, they are not liable to any prosecution on account of their religion; their ministers are exempted from serving on juries; they are protected in the public exercise of their worship, by severe penalties against those who shall disturb them; and persons professing this religion are authorized to act as counsellors, barristers, solicitors †, &c. They now seem to be convinced, that a change of government would hurt their situation, because it would increase the jealousy of the legislature, which must undoubtedly expose them daily to greater burdens and heavier penalties. This consideration has of late made the Roman catholics as dutiful and zealous subjects as any his majesty has. Scarcely any English Papists, excepting those who were bred, or had served abroad, were engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745; and though those at home were carefully observed, few of them were found guilty of disloyal practices.

As England has been remarkable for the variety of its religious sects, so it has been famous for its *Free thinkers*; but that term has been applied in very different senses. It has sometimes been used to denote opposers of religion in general, and in particular of revealed religion; but it has also been applied to those who have been far from disbelieving Christianity, and who have only opposed some of those doctrines which are to be found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceived to be no part of the original Christian system. As to those who are truly *Deists*, or *Infidels*, there is abundant reason to believe, that this class of men is much more numerous in some Papish countries than in England. Christianity is so much of fained and disfigured by the fopperies and superstitions of the Romish church, that men who think freely are naturally apt to be prejudiced against it,

\* See Burn's Justice, vol. iii. p. 25, edition of 1793.

† Burn, vol. iv. p. 2—7.

when

when they see it in so disadvantageous a form; and this appears to be very much the case abroad. But in England, where men have every opportunity of seeing it exhibited in a more rational manner, they have less cause to be prejudiced against it; and therefore are more ready to enter into an examination of its divine origin. Nor does it appear that the writings of the Deists against Christianity have been of less service to it. On the contrary, they have caused the unanswerable arguments in its favour to be examined with greater attention, and exhibited with more irresistible evidence; and have produced such defences of it, as all the acuteness of modern fidelity has been unable to overthrow.

[LANGUAGE.] The English language is known to be a compound of almost every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon predominates; and the words that are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. The English is more energetic, manly and expressive, than either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spanish, and more harmonious than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is however, subject to provincialisms in its accent, there being much difference in the pronunciation of the inhabitants of different countries; but this chiefly affects the lowest of the people; for as to well-educated and well-bred persons, there is little difference in their pronunciation. People of fortune and education in England, of both sexes, also commonly either speak, or understand the French, and many of them the Italian; but it has been observed, that foreign nations have great difficulty in understanding the English who talk Latin, owing to their peculiarity in pronouncing the vowels.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] England may be looked upon as another word for the seat of learning and the muses. Her great Alfred cultivated both, in the time of the Saxons, when barbarism and ignorance overspread the rest of Europe; nor has there since his time been wanting a continual succession of learned men, who have distinguished themselves by their writings or studies. These are so numerous, that a bare catalogue of their names, down to this day, would form a moderate volume. The English institutions, for the benefit of study, partake of the character of their learning. They are solid and substantial, and provide for the ease, the disengagement, the peace, the plenty, and the convenience of its professors; witness the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, institutions that are not to be equalled in the world, and which were respected amidst the barbarous rage of civil war. The industrious Leland, himself a moving library, was the first who published a short collection of the lives and characters of those learned persons, who preceded the reign of his master Henry VIII. among whom he has inserted several of the blood-royal of both sexes, particularly a son and daughter of the great Alfred, Editha the queen of Edward the Confessor, and other Saxon princes, some of whom were equally devoted to Mars and the Muses.

In speaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable to omit the mention of that prodigy of learning and natural philosophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in science to the great Bacon lord Verulam, as the latter was to sir Isaac Newton. Among the other curious works written by this illustrious man, we find treatises upon grammar, mathematics, physics, the flux and reflux of the British seas, optics, geography, astronomy, chronology, chemistry, logic, metaphysics, civics, medicine, theology, philology, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford, about the year 1294. Mr. Walpole has preserved the memory of some noble and royal English authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muses, and to this work I must refer. Since the Reformation, England resembles a galaxy of literature, and it is but doing justice to

\* See the Biographia Britannica.

the memory of cardinal Wolsey, though otherwise a dangerous and profligate minister, to acknowledge, that his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to the revival of classical learning in England. As many of the English clergy had different sentiments in religious matters at the time of the Reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners to settle in England. Edward VI. during his short life, encouraged these foreigners, and shewed dispositions for cultivating the most useful parts of learning. Learning, as well as liberty, suffered an almost total eclipse in England during the bigoted reign of queen Mary. Elizabeth was herself a learned princess. She advanced many persons of consummate abilities to high ranks, both in church and state; but always considered their literary accomplishments as secondary to their civil. She would have been a more amiable queen, had she raised genius from obscurity; but though no stranger to Spenser's Muse, she suffered herself to be so much imposed upon by a tasteless minister, that the poet languished to death in obscurity. Though she relished the beauties of the divine Shakspeare, yet we know not that they were distinguished by any particular acts of her munificence. Her favourite the earl of Essex, the politest scholar of his age, and his friend the earl of Southampton, were liberal patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England continued to the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Casaubon, and other foreign authors of distinction, even of different principles. He was himself no great author, but his example had an effect upon his subjects; for in his reign were formed those great masters of polemic divinity, whose works are almost inexhaustible mines of knowledge. Nor must it be forgotten, that the second Bacon, whom I have already mentioned, was by him created viscount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewise the patron of Camden, and other historians, as well as antiquaries, whose works are still standards in those studies. Upon the whole, it cannot be denied, that English learning is under obligations to James I. though, as he had a very pedantic taste himself, he was the means of diffusing a similar taste among his subjects.

His son Charles I. cultivated the polite arts, especially sculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artists; he spared no expence in his collections; and had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his capital into a second Athens. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that respect, and laid out the amazing sum of 400,000l. upon his cabinet of paintings and curiosities.

The earl of Arundel was another Mæcenas of that age, and greatly distinguished himself by his collection of antiquities, particularly his famous marble inscriptions called the Arundelian Marbles, now to be seen at Oxford. Charles and his court had little relish for poetry; but, he increased the salary of his poet laureat, the famous Ben Jonson, from 100 marks to 100l. per annum, and a tierce of Spanish wine; which salary is continued to the present time.

The public encouragement of learning and the arts suffered indeed an eclipse, during the time of the civil wars, and the succeeding interregnum. Many learned men, however, found their situations under Cromwell, though he was no stranger to their political sentiments, so easy, that they pursued their studies, to the benefit of every branch of learning; and many works of literary merit appeared even in those times of distraction. Usher, Walton, Willes, Harrington, Wilkins, and a number of other great names, were unmolested and even favoured by that usurper; and he would even have filled the universities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of safety to his government.

The

The reign of Charles II. was distinguished by the great proficiency to which it carried natural knowledge, especially by the institution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of those studies, and though irreligious himself, England never abounded more with learned and able divines than in his reign. He loved painting and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. The incomparable *Paradise Lost*, by Milton, was published in his reign, but its glory was reserved for posterity. The reign of Charles II. notwithstanding the had taste of his own court in several of the polite arts, by some is reckoned the Augustan age of England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hooke, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotson, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit assumed more majesty, a better style, and truer energy, than it had ever known before. Classic literature recovered many of its native graces. Sir Christopher Wren \* introduced a more general regularity in architecture than had before prevailed, while his discoveries in philosophy, mechanics, &c. contributed much to the reputation of the Royal Society. Some excellent English painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) also flourished in this reign.

That of James II. though he likewise had a taste for the fine arts, is chiefly distinguished in the province of literature by those compositions that were published by the English divines against popery, and which, for strength of reasoning and depth of erudition, never were equalled in any age or country.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. and he had a particular esteem for the latter, as he had also for Tillotson and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius. Learning flourished, however, in his reign merely by the excellency of the soil in which it had been planted.

The most uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auspices of queen Anne, and which put her court at least on a footing with that of Lewis XIV. in its most splendid days. Many of the great men who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William were still alive, and in the full exercise of their faculties, when a new race sprung up, in the republic of letters. Addison, Prior, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, lord Shaftesbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in verse and prose, need but to be mentioned to be admired; and the English were as triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral philosophy kept pace with the polite arts.

The ministers of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and some of them were no mean proficient themselves. George II. was himself no Mæcenas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of bishops was never known to be so well provided with able prelates, as it was in the early years of his reign; a proof that his nobility and ministers were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally supplied the coldness of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. Pelham was considered as first minister, this screen between government and literature was in a great measure removed, and men of genius began then to taste the royal bounty. Since that period, a great progress has been made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy has been instituted, some very able artists have arisen, and the annual public exhibitions

\* Mr. Horace Walpole, now Lord Orford, says, that a variety of knowledge proclaims the universality, a multiplicity of works the abundance, and St. Paul's the greatness, of Sir Christopher's genius. So many great architects as were employed on St. Peter's have not left, upon the whole, a more perfect

edifice than this work of a single mind. The noblest temple, one of the largest palaces, and the most sumptuous hospital in Britain, are all the works of the same hand. He restored London, and recorded its fall. He built above fifty parish churches, and designed the monument.

of painting and sculpture have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a spirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of merit of this kind among the public in general. Notwithstanding these favourable circumstances, the fine arts (except music, the encouragement of which becomes daily more extravagant) have been far from meeting with that public patronage to which they have so just a claim. Few of our public edifices are adorned with paintings or with statues. The sculptors meet with little employment, nor is the historical painter much patronized; though the British artists of the present age have proved their genius not inferior to that of any nation whatever, and the English is now the first school in the world.

The English excel in what we call the learned professions. Their courts of justice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, than those which any other country can boast. A remarkable instance of which occurs in the appointments, for the last 200 years, of their lord chancellors, who hold the highest and the most uncontrolable judicial seat in the kingdom. The few instances that are alledged of their injustice fix no imputation of wilful guilt upon the parties. The great lord chancellor Bacon was censured indeed for corrupt practices, but malevolence itself does not say that he was guilty any farther than in too much indulgence to his servants. The case of one of his successors is still more favourable to his memory, as his censure reflects disgrace only upon his enemies; and his lordship was, in the judgment of every man of candour and conscience, fully acquitted. Even Jefferies, infernal as he was in his politics, was never accused of partiality in the causes that came before him as chancellor.

It must be acknowledged, that the eloquence neither of the pulpit nor the bar has been sufficiently studied in England; but this is owing to the genius and the laws of the people. The sermons of their divines are often learned, and always found as to the practical and doctrinal part; for the many religious sects in England require to be opposed rather by reasoning than eloquence. An unaccountable notion has, however, prevailed, even among some of the clergy themselves, that the latter is incompatible with the former, as if the arguments of Cicero and Demosthenes were weakened by those powers of language with which they are adorned. A short time, perhaps, may remove this prepossession, and convince the clergy, as well as the laity, that true eloquence is the first and fairest handmaid of argumentation. It is not intended to intimate that the preachers of the English church are destitute of the graces of elocution: no clergy in the world can equal them in purity and perspicuity of language, though if they studied more than they do the powers of elocution, they would preach with more effect. If the semblance of those powers coming from the mouths of ignorant enthusiasts, is attended with the amazing effects we daily observe, what must not be the consequence if they were exerted and supported with spirit and learning?

The laws of England are of so peculiar a cast that the pleadings at the bar do not admit, or but very sparingly, of the flowers of speech: and there is reason to think that a pleading in the Ciceronian manner would not succeed in Westminster-hall. The English lawyers, however, though they deal little in eloquence, are well versed in rhetoric and reasoning.

Parliamentary speaking, not being bound down to that precedent required in the courts of law, no nation in the world can produce so many examples of true eloquence as the English senate; witness the fine speeches made by both parties in parliament, in the reign of Charles I. and those that have been printed since the accession of the present family.

Medicine and surgery, botany, anatomy, chemistry, and all the arts founded on observation and experiment, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the English. Even agriculture and mechanism are now reduced in England to

sciences.

See, British

sciences. In ship-building, clock-work, and the various branches of cutlery, they stand unrivalled.

UNIVERSITIES.] The two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which have been the seminaries of more learned men than any in Europe, have already been mentioned. It is certain that their buildings, which in splendor and architecture rival the most superb royal edifices, the endowments, the liberal ease and tranquility enjoyed by those who inhabit them, surpass all the ideas which foreigners, who visit them, conceive of literary societies. So respectable are they in their foundations, that each university sends two members to parliament, and their chancellors and officers have a civil jurisdiction over their students, the better to secure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed those of many other universities.

In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls: the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the students chiefly maintain themselves. This university is of great antiquity: it is supposed to have been a considerable place even in the time of the Romans; and Camden says, that "wise antiquity did, even in the British age, consecrate this place to the Muses." It is said to have been styled an university before the time of king Alfred; and the best historians admit, that this most excellent prince was only a restorer of learning here. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philosophy, and a third for grammar.

The number of officers, fellows, and scholars, maintained at present by the revenues of this university, is about 1000, and the number of such scholars as live at their own charge is usually about 2000; the whole amounting to 3000 persons, besides a great number of inferior officers and servants belonging to the several colleges and halls. Here are four terms every year for public exercises, lectures, and disputations, and particular days and hours when the professors of every faculty read their lectures; and in some of the colleges are public lectures, to which all persons are admitted.

There are libraries belonging to the several colleges; but besides these, the university library, usually called the Bodleian library, from sir Thomas Bodley, its principal founder, is a large lofty structure, in the form of a roman H. The original library has been prodigiously increased, by many large and valuable collections of Greek and Oriental manuscripts, as well as other choice and curious books. The Radcliffe library is a sumptuous pile of building; erected at the sole expence of that eminent physician Dr. John Radcliffe, who bequeathed forty thousand pounds for this purpose. The theatre at Oxford is also a very magnificent structure, by sir Christopher Wren, at the expence of archbishop Sheldon. In this edifice are performed the public acts of the university: on which occasions the vice-chancellor is seated in the centre of the semi-circular part, the noblemen and doctors on his right and left-hand, the proctors and curators in their robes, the masters of arts, batchelors and under-graduates, in their respective habits and places, together sometimes with a great concourse of strangers of both sexes.

The colleges of Oxford are,

University, which is situated near, or on the spot, where the colleges or halls which were erected by king Alfred stood.

Baliol, founded by sir John de Baliol, in 1263.

Merton, founded by Walter de Merton, bishop of Rochester, and high chancellor of England, in 1267.

Exeter, founded in 1316, by Walter Stapleton, bishop of Exeter, and lord treasurer of England.

Oriel, founded by Edward II. in the year 1324.

Queen's, founded by Robert Eglesfield, chaplain to queen Philippa, consort to Edward III. in her honour.

New College, founded in 1386, by William of Wykeham, bishop of Winchester, but finished by Thomas de Rotheram, archbishop of York, and lord high chancellor, in the year 1475.

All Souls, founded by Henry Chicheley, archbishop of Canterbury, in 1437.

Magdalen, founded by William Patten, alias Wainfleet, bishop of Winchester, and lord chancellor, in the year 1458.

Brazen Nose, founded in 1516, by William Smith, bishop of Lincoln.

Corpus Christi, founded in 1516, by Richard Fox, bishop of Winchester.

Christ Church, founded by cardinal Wolsey, in 1515, but completed by others, and is now the cathedral of the diocese.

Trinity, founded by sir Thomas Pope, soon after the Reformation.

St. John Baptist was founded, in 1555, by sir Thomas White, lord mayor of London.

Jesus was begun by Dr. Hugh Price, prebendary of Rochester, and appropriated chiefly to the Welch.

Wadham, so called, from its founder, Nicholas Wadham, of Somersetshire, esq. It was begun by him in the year 1609, but finished after his death, by his lady, in 1613.

Pembroke, so called in honour of the earl of Pembroke, then lord high chancellor, was founded by Thomas Tisdal, esq. and Richard Whitwicke, B. D. in 1624.

Worcester was erected into a college by sir Thomas Cooke, of Akeley, in Worcestershire.

Lincoln college, which was founded by two bishops of Lincoln.

To these 19 may be added Hertford college, formerly Hart-Hall; but a patent having passed the great seal in the year 1740 for erecting it into a college, that design is now carried into execution.

The five halls are these following: Alban-hall, Edmund-hall, St. Mary's-hall, New-Inn-hall, and St. Mary Magdalen-hall.

The University of Cambridge consists of twelve colleges, and four halls; but though they are distinguished by different names, the privileges of the colleges and halls are in every respect the same. They are the following:

Peter-house, founded by Hugh Balsam, prior of Ely, in 1257, who was afterwards bishop of that see.

Clare-hall founded in 1340 by Richard Badew and lady Elizabeth Clare, countess of Ulster.

Pembroke-hall, founded seven years after by a countess of Pembroke.

St. Bennet's or Corpus Christi, founded about the same time by the united guilds, or fraternities, of Corpus Christi and the blessed Virgin.

Trinity-hall, founded by William Bateman, bishop of Norwich, about the year 1548.

Gonvil and Caius, founded by Edmund de Gonvil, in 1448, completed by bishop Bateman, and additionally endowed, 200 years after, by John Caius, a physician.

King's college, founded by Henry VI. and completed by his successors.

Queen's college was founded by the same king's consort, but finished by Elizabeth, wife to Edward IV.

Catharine-hall, founded by Richard Woodlark, in 1475.

Jesus college, founded by John Alcock, bishop of Ely, in the reign of Henry VII.

Christ

Christ college was founded about the same time, by that king's mother, Margaret, countess of Richmond.

St. John's college was founded by the same lady.

Magdalen college was founded by Thomas Audley, baron of Walden, and lord high chancellor, in the reign of Henry VIII.

Trinity college was founded by Henry VIII.

Emanuel college, by sir Walter Mildmay, in 1584.

Sidney college was founded by Thomas Radcliff, earl of Suffex, in 1588, and had its name from his wife Frances Sidney.

The whole number of fellows in the University of Cambridge are four hundred, and six hundred and sixty-six scholars, with about two hundred and thirty-six officers and servants of various kinds, who are maintained upon the foundation. These, however, are not all the students of the university; there are also two sorts of students, called pensioners, the greater and the less; the greater pensioners are sons of the nobility, and of gentlemen of large fortunes, and are called fellow-commoners, because, though they are scholars, they dine with the fellows; the lesser pensioners dine with the scholars that are on the foundation, but live at their own expence. There are also a considerable number of poor scholars, called fizar, who wait upon the fellows and scholars and the pensioners of both ranks, by whom they are in a great degree maintained; but the number of pensioners and fizar cannot be ascertained, as it is in a state of perpetual fluctuation.

The senate-house at Cambridge is an elegant edifice, executed in the Corinthian order, and is said to have cost sixteen thousand pounds. Trinity college library is also a very magnificent structure, and in Corpus Christi college library is a valuable collection of ancient manuscripts, which were preserved at the dissolution of the monasteries, and given to this college by archbishop Parker.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES. } The antiquities of England are either  
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } British, Roman, Saxon, Danish, or Anglo-Norman; but these, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon ancient history. The chief British antiquities are those circles of stones, particularly that called Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, which probably were places of worship in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukeley, and others, described as a regular circular structure. The body of the work consists of two circles and two ovals, which are thus composed: the upright stones are placed at three feet and a half distance from each other, and joined at the top by over-thwart stones, with tenons fitted to the mortises in the uprights, for keeping them in their due position. Some of these stones are vastly large, measuring two yards in breadth, one in thickness, and above seven in height; others are less in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with a chissel, and sometimes tapered; but the transoms, or over-thwart stones, are quite plain. The outside circle is near one hundred and eighty feet in diameter: between which and the next circle there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a surprising and awful effect upon the beholders. After all the descriptions of this celebrated antiquity and the dissertations upon it, by ingenious writers, it has given rise to many extravagant ridiculous conjectures, from the time of Leland, who has been very particular on the subject, down to Stukely, who, on a favourite point of antiquity, sometimes formed the most enthusiastic conclusions. The barrows that are near this monument were certainly graves of persons of both sexes, eminent in peace or war; some of them having been opened, and bones, arms, and ancient trinkets, found within them.

Monuments of the same kind as that of Stonehenge are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordshire, Cornwall, Devonshire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland and the isles, which have been already mentioned.

The Roman antiquities in England consist chiefly of altars and monumental inscriptions, which instruct us as to the legionary stations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of some of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the highest idea of the civil as well as military policy of those conquerors. Their vestiges are numerous; one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and passing through Kent to London, from thence to St. Albans, Dunstable, Stratford, Towcester, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's Hill near Shrewsbury, then Stratton, and so through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great *via militaris*, called Hermen-street, passed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it from Pontefract to Doncaster strikes out to the westward, passing through Tadcaster to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-street. Many vestiges of the Roman roads in England serve as foundations to our present high-ways. The great earl of Arundel, the celebrated English antiquary, had formed a plan for describing those which pass through Sussex and Surry towards London; but the civil war breaking out put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are discernible all over England; one particularly very little defaced, near Dorchester, in Dorsetshire, where also is a Roman amphitheatre. Their situations are generally so well chosen, and their fortifications appear to have been so complete, that there is some reason to believe, that they were the constant habitations of the Roman soldiers in England; though it is certain, from the baths and tessellated pavements that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers or magistrates lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewise been found in England; and, perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and castles are blended with those of a later date. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repositories, contain a vast number of Roman arms, coins, fibulae, and trinkets, which have been found in England; but the most amazing monument of the Roman power in England is the præenture, or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts Wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Frith, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at first consisted only of stakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with stone forts, and turrets at proper distances, so that each might have a speedy communication with the other; and it was attended all along by a deep ditch, or vallum, on the north, and a military high-way on the south. This prodigious work, however, was better calculated to strike the Scots and Picts with terror than to give any real security to the Roman possessions. In some places, the wall, the vallum, and the road, are plainly discernible. A critical account of the Roman antiquities in England is among the desiderata \* of history.

The Saxon antiquities in England consist chiefly in ecclesiastical edifices and places of strength. At Winchester is shewn the round table of king Arthur, with the names of his knights; which table, if it be not British, is certainly Saxon. The cathedral of Winchester served as the burying place of several Saxon kings, whose bones were collected by bishop Fox, in six large wooden chests. Many monuments of the Saxons present themselves in different parts of the kingdom, though they are often not to be distinguished from the Normanic; and the British Museum contains several striking original specimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters, signed by the king and his nobles, with a plain cross instead of their names, are still to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every

\* Until a work of this nature appear, we refer our readers to a very ingenious and splendid work, "The Antiquities of England, Wales, and Scotland," by the late Francis Grose, Esq. F. A. S. and

Dr. Henry's excellent History of Great Britain; to which we may add, General Roy's Military Antiquities of the Romans in North-Britain, printed in 1793.

donor,

donor, or witness, to his respective cross. The Danish erections in England are hardly distinguishable from the Saxon. The form of their castles round, and they are generally built upon eminences, but their forts are square.

England is full of Anglo-Norman monuments, which I chuse to call so, because, though the princes under whom they were raised were of Norman origin, the expence was defrayed by Englishmen. York-minster and Westminster-hall and abbey are perhaps the finest specimens to be found in Europe of the Gothic architecture. It is uncertain, whether the artificial excavations, found in some parts of England, are British, Saxon, or Norman. That under the old castle of Ryegate in Surry is very remarkable, and seems to have been designed for concealing the cattle and effects of the natives, in time of war and invasion. It contains an oblong square hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the same rock, for sitting upon; and tradition says, that this was the room in which the barons of England met during their wars with king John. The rock is soft, and very practicable; but it is difficult to say where the excavation, which is continued in a square passage, about six feet high, and four wide, terminates, because the work has in some places given way, and filled the passage with ruins.

The natural curiosities of England are so various, that a general account can only be given. The medicinal waters and springs which are found in many parts of the country, have been analysed with great accuracy by several learned naturalists, who, as their interests or inclinations led them, have not been sparing in recommending their salutarious qualities. The most remarkable of these wells have been divided into those for bathing, and those for drinking. The chief of the former lie in Somersetshire and Derbyshire; and the Bath and Buxton waters are famous, both for drinking and bathing. Spaws of the same kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkshire; at Tunbridge, in Kent; Epsom and Dulwich, in Surry; and at Acton and Islington, in Middlesex. There are also many remarkable springs, whereof some are impregnated with salt, as that of Droitwich in Worcesterhire; or sulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancashire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropshire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leicesterhire; and a dropping well in the west-riding of Yorkshire. And finally, some ebb and flow, as those of the Peak in Derbyshire, and Laywell near Torbay, whose waters rise and fall several times in an hour. To these we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's castle in Herefordshire, commonly called Bonewell, which is generally full of small bones, like those of frogs or fish, though often cleared out. At Ancliff, near Wigan, in Lancashire, was the famous burning well; the water was cold, neither had it any smell; yet there was so strong a vapour of sulphur issuing out with the stream, that upon applying a light to it, the top of the water was covered with a flame, like that of burning spirits, which lasted several hours, and emitted so fierce a heat, that meat might have been boiled over it. The fluid itself would not burn when taken out of the well\*.

Derbyshire is celebrated for many natural curiosities. The Mam-Tör, or Mother Tower, is said to be continually mouldering away, but never diminishes. The Elden Hole, about four miles from the same place, is a chasm in the side of a mountain, near seven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminishing in extent within the rock, but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the lowest eighty were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Pool's Hole near Buxton, for several paces, is very low, but soon opens

\* This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a vein of coals, which has been since dug from under this well; at which time the uncommon warmth ceased.

into a very lofty vault, like the inside of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much short of what some have asserted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimension: a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its sounding stream, re-echoed on all sides, very much to the astonishment of all who visit this vast concave. The drops of water which hang from the roof and on the sides have an amusing effect; for they not only reflect numberless rays from the candles carried by the guides, but as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in several places into various forms, which, with the help of a strong imagination, may pass for lions, fountains, organs, and the like. The entrance into the stupendous cavern at Catterton, is wide at first, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who subsist by rope-making, and by guiding strangers. It is crossed by four streams of water, and terminates, at the distance of half a mile from the mouth, in a subterranean lake. The vault, in several places, is chequered with various coloured stones; and the singular effect of sinking into deep catacombs, of being waisted over subterranean rivers, of crouching under a low roof of rock, and suddenly emerging into lofty cathedrals, cannot be communicated by description.

Some spots of England are said to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that near Whitby, in Yorkshire, are found certain stones, resembling the folds and wreaths of a serpent; also other stones of several sizes, and so exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon balls, which being broken, commonly contain the likeness of serpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In some parts of Gloucestershire stones are found, resembling cockles, oysters, and other testaceous marine animals. Those curiosities, however, are often magnified by ignorance and credulity.

**CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER.** This head is so very extensive, that I can only touch upon objects that may assist in giving the reader some idea of its importance, grandeur, or utility.

London\*, the metropolis of the British empire, is the first in this division. It appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæsar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and soon after became the capital of the island. London was first walled about with hewn stones and British bricks by Constantine the Great, and the walls formed an oblong square, in compass about three miles, with seven principal gates. The same emperor made it a bishop's see; for it appears that the bishops of London and York, and another English bishop, were at the council of Arles, in the year 314: he also settled a mint in it, as is plain from some of his coins.

London, in its large sense, including Westminster, Southwark, and part of Middlesex, is a city of surprising extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the most extensive trade. This city, when considered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was; the seat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the world. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the counties in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts send their commodities, from which these commodities are again returned. From hence innumerable carriages by land and water are constantly employed: and from hence arises that circulation in the national body, which

\* London is situated in 51° 31' north latitude, 400 miles south of Edinburgh, and 270 south-east of Dublin; 180 miles west of Amsterdam, 210 north-west of Paris, 500 south-west of Copenhagen, 600 north-west of Vienna, 790 south-west of

Stockholm, 800 north-east of Madrid, 820 north-west of Rome, 850 north-east of Lisbon, 1160 north-west of Constantinople, and 1414 south-west of Moscow.

maintains

Black catt  
Sheep and  
Calves  
Swine  
Pigs  
Poultry and  
Mackarel &c

maintains its health and vigour. Merchants are here as rich as princes, witness their loans to government: and there is no place in the world where the shops of tradesmen make such an elegant appearance, or are so well stocked.

It is situated on the banks of the Thames, which river is continually covered with fleets, sailing to or from the most distant climates; and its banks extending from London-bridge to Blackwall, almost one continued magazine of naval stores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of merchant-ships, besides the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters, and the king's yards lower down the river, for the building of men of war. As this city is about sixty miles distant from the sea, it enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being surpris'd by foreign fleets, or of being annoy'd by moist marine vapours. It rises regularly from the water-side, and extending itself on both sides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from east to west in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near twenty miles on all sides, in a succession of magnificent villas, and populous villages.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to ascertain its extent. Its length from east to west, is generally allowed to be above seven miles from Hyde-park corner to Poplar, and its breadth in some places three, in others two; and in others again not much above half a mile. According to a modern measurement, the extent of continued, and still encreasing buildings, is 35 miles two furlongs and 39 roods. But it is much easier to form an idea of the magnitude of a city so irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are computed to be above a million, and from the number of edifices devoted to the service of religion.

Of these, beside St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Westminster, there are 102 parish churches, and 69 chapels of the established religion; 21 French protestant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. 26 independent meetings; 34 presbyterian meetings; 20 baptist meetings; 19 popish chapels, and meeting-houses for the use of foreign ambassadors, and people of various sects; and three Jews synagogues. So that there are 305 places dedicated to religious worship, in the compass of this vast pile of buildings, without reckoning the 21 out-parishes usually included in the bills of mortality, and a great number of methodist tabernacles.

There are also in and near this city 100 alms-houses, about 20 hospitals and infirmaries, 3 colleges, 10 public prisons, 15 flesh-markets; 1 market for live cattle, 2 other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. 15 inns of court, 27 public squares, besides those within single buildings, as the Temple, &c. 3 bridges, 49 halls for companies, 8 public schools, called free-schools; and 131 charity-schools, which provide education for 5034 poor children; 207 inns, 447 taverns, 551 coffee-houses, 5975 alehouses; 1000 hackney-coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 streets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and 150,000 dwelling-houses, containing, as has been already observed, above 1,000,000 inhabitants, who, according to a late estimate, consume annually the following articles of provisions:

Black cattle	-	-	-	-	-
Sheep and lambs	-	-	-	-	-
Calves	-	-	-	-	98,244
Swine	-	-	-	-	711,123
Pigs	-	-	-	-	194,700
Poultry and wild fowl innumerable	-	-	-	-	186,932
Mackarel sold at Billingsgate	-	-	-	-	52,000
					14,740,000
					Oylers,

Oysters, bushels	.	.	.	.	.	115,536
Small boats with cod, haddock, whiting, &c. besides those brought by land-carriage, and great quantities of river and salt-fish	.	.	.	.	.	1,398
Butter, pounds weight, about	.	.	.	.	.	16,000,000
Cheese, ditto, about	.	.	.	.	.	20,000,000
Gallons of milk	.	.	.	.	.	7,000,000
Barrels of strong beer	.	.	.	.	.	1,172,494
Barrels of small beer	.	.	.	.	.	798,493
Tons of foreign wines	.	.	.	.	.	30,044
Gallons of rum, brandy, and other distilled waters, above	.	.	.	.	.	11,000,000
Pounds weight of candles, above	.	.	.	.	.	11,000,000

London-bridge was first built of stone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool, which in course of time gave rise to the report that it was built upon wool-packs; from that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly since the year 1756, when the houses were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful. The passage for carriages is 31 feet broad, and 7 feet on each side for foot passengers. It crosses the Thames where it is 915 feet broad, and has 19 arches of about 20 feet wide each, but the centre one is considerably larger.

Westminster bridge is reckoned one of the most complete and elegant structures of the kind in the known world. It is built entirely of stone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1223 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. The width of the bridge is 44 feet, having on each side a fine foot-way for passengers. It consists of 14 piers, and 13 large and two small arches, all semicircular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the rest decreasing four feet each from the other; so that the two least arches of the 13 great ones are each 52 feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000l. in stone, and other materials, is always under water. This magnificent structure was begun in 1738, and finished in 1750, at the expence of 389,000l. defrayed by the parliament.

Black-friars bridge is not inferior to that of Westminster in magnificence or workmanship; but the situation of the ground on the two shores obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which have a very fine effect. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finished in 1770, at the expence of 152,840l. which has been discharged by a toll upon the passengers. It is situated almost at an equal distance between those of Westminster and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and discovers the majesty of St. Paul's in a very striking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the most capacious, magnificent, and regular Protestant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the cross, on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland stone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a cross, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which in some respects it is superior. St. Paul's church is the principal work of sir Christopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the same magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finished the building 37 years after he laid the first stone. It takes up six acres of ground, though the whole length of this church measures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expence of rebuilding it after the fire of London was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at near a million sterling.

Westminster.

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Westminster abbey, or the collegiate church of Westminster, 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 repository of the deceased British kings and nobility; and here are also monuments erected to the memory of many great and illustrious personages, commanders by sea and land, philosophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, 4,000*l.* a year, out of the coal-duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The inside of the church of St. Stephen's Walbrook is admired for its lightness and elegance, and does honour to the genius of sir Christopher Wren. The same may be said of the steeples of St. Mary-le-Bow and St. Bride's, which are supposed to be the most complete in their kind of any in Europe, though architecture has laid down no rules for such erections. The simplicity of the portico in Covent Garden is worthy the purest ages of ancient architecture. That of St. Martin's in the Fields would be noble and striking, could it be seen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taste, and even some of the chapels have gracefulness and proportion to recommend them. The Banqueting house at Whitehall is but a small part of a splendid palace designed by Sir Inigo Jones for the royal residence, and as it now stands, under all its disadvantages, its symmetry and ornaments are in the highest style and execution of architecture.

Westminster hall, though on the outside it makes no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and said to be the largest room in the world, whose roof is not supported by pillars, it being 220 feet long, and 70 broad. Its roof is the finest of its kind that can be seen. Here are held the coronation feasts of our kings and queens; also the courts of chancery, king's bench, common-pleas, and exchequer.

The Monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being destroyed by fire, is worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric order, exceed all the obelisks and pillars of the ancients, it being 202 feet high, with a stair-case in the middle to ascend to the balcony, from whence there are other steps, made for persons to look out at the top, which is fashioned like an urn, with a flame issuing from it. On the base of the Monument next the street, the destruction of the city, and the relief given to the sufferers by Charles II. and his brother, is emblematically represented in bas relief. The north and south sides of the base have each a Latin inscription, the one describing its dreadful solation\*, and the other its splendid resurrection; and on the east side is an inscription, shewing when the pillar was begun and finished. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by sir Christopher Wren in 1671, and finished by him in 1677, amounted to upwards of 13,000*l.*

\* Which may be thus rendered: "In the year of Christ, in 1666, Sept. 2. eastward from hence at the distance of 202 feet (the height of this column) a terrible fire broke out about midnight; which, driven on by a high wind, not only wasted the adjacent parts, but also very remote places, with incredible crackling and fury. It consumed 89 churches, the city-gates, Guildhall, many public structures, hospitals, schools, libraries, a vast number of stately edifices, 13,000 dwelling-houses, and 400 streets. Of the 26 wards it utterly destroyed 15, and left eight others shattered and half burnt. The ruins of the city were 436 acres, from the

Tower by the Thames side to the Temple church; and from the north-east along the wall to Holborn-bridge. To the estates and fortunes of the citizens it was merciless, but to their lives very favourable; that it might in all things resemble the last conflagration of the world. The destruction was sudden, flourishing and reduced to nothing. Three days after, when this fatal fire had baffled all human counsels and endeavours, in the opinion of all, it was on every side extinguished."

The Royal Exchange, a large and commodious building, is said to have cost above 80,000*l*.

The terrace in the Adelphi is a very fine piece of architecture, and has laid open one of the finest prospects in the world.

We might here give a particular description of the Tower †, Bank of England, the New Treasury, the Admiralty-office, and the Horse-guards at Whitehall, the Mansion-

† In examining the curiosities of the Tower of London, it will be proper to begin with those on the outside the principal gate; the first thing a stranger usually goes to visit is the wild beasts; which, from their situation, first present themselves; for having entered the outer gate, and passed what is called the spur-guard, the keeper's house presents itself before you, which is known by a painted lion on the wall, and another over the door which leads to their dens. By ringing a bell, and paying six-pence each person, you may safely gain admittance.

The next place worthy of observation is the Mint, which comprehends near one-third of the Tower, and contains houses for all the officers belonging to the coinage. On passing the principal gate you see the White Tower, built by William the Conqueror. This is a large, irregular stone building, situated almost in the centre, no one side answering to another, nor any of its watch towers, of which there are four at the top, built alike. One of these towers is now converted into an observatory. In the first story are two noble rooms, one of which is a small armoury for the sea-ferretier, it having various sorts of arms, very curiously laid up, for above 10,000 seamen. In the other room are many closets and presses, all filled with warlike engines and instruments of death. Over this are two other floors, one principally filled with arms, the other with arms and other warlike instruments, as spades, shovels, pick-axes, and chevaux de frize. In the upper story, are kept match, sheep-skins, tanned hides, &c. and in a little room, called Julius Cæsar's chapel, are deposited some records, containing perhaps the ancient usages and customs of the place. In this building are also preserved the models of the new-invented engines of destruction, that have from time to time been presented to the Government. Near the south-west angle, of the White Tower, is the Spanish armoury, in which are deposited the spoils of what was vainly called the Invincible Armada; in order to perpetuate, to latest posterity, the memory of that signal victory, obtained by the English over the whole naval power of Spain, in the reign of Philip II.

You next come to the grand store-house, a noble building to the northward of the White Tower, that extends 245 feet in length, and 60 in breadth. It was begun by king James II. who built it to the first floor; but it was finished by king William III. who erected that magnificent room, called the New, or Small Armoury, in which that prince, with queen Mary, his consort, dined in great honour, having all the warrant-workmen and labourers to attend them, dressed in white gloves and aprons, the usual badges of the order of masonry.

To this noble room you are led by a folding-door, adjoining to the east end of the Tower chapel, which leads to a grand stair-case of 50 easy steps. On the left side of the uppermost landing-place is the workshops, in which are constantly employed about 14 furthithers, in cleaning, repairing, and new-plating the arms. On entering the armoury, you see what they call a wilderness of arms, so artfully disposed, that at one view you behold arms for near 80,000 men, all bright, and fit for service; and besides those exposed to view, there were, before the war with America, sixteen chests shut up, each chest holding about 1000 muskets. The arms were originally disposed by Mr. Harris, who contrived to place them in this beautiful order both here and in the guard-chamber of Hampton-court. He was a common gunsmith; but after he had performed this work, which is the admiration of people of all nations, he was allowed a pension from the crown for his ingenuity.

Upon the ground floor, under the small armoury, is a large room of equal dimensions with that, supported by an pillar, all hung round with implements of war. This room, which is 24 feet high, has a passage in the middle 16 feet wide.

The horse armoury is a plain brick-building, a little to the eastward of the White Tower; and is an edifice rather convenient than elegant, where the spectator is entertained with a representation of those kings and heroes of our own nation, with whose gallant actions it is to be supposed he is well acquainted; some of them equipped and sitting on horseback, in the same bright and shining armour they were used to wear when they performed those glorious actions which gave them a distinguished place in the British annals.

You now come to the line of kings, which your conductor begins by reversing the order of chronology; so that in following them we must place the last first.

In a dark, strong stone-room, about 20 yards to the eastward of the grand store-house, or new-armoury, the crown jewels are deposited. 1. The imperial crown, with which it is pretended that all the kings of England have been crowned since Edward the Confessor, in 1040. It is of gold, enriched with diamonds, rubies, emeralds, sapphires and pearls; the cap within is of purple velvet, lined with white taffety, turned up with three rows of ermine. They are, however, mistaken in shewing this as the ancient imperial diadem of St. Edward; for that, with the other most ancient regalia of this kingdom, was kept in the arched room in the cloisters in Westminster-Abbey, till the civil war; when, in 1642, Harry Martin, by order of the parliament, broke open the iron chest in which it was secured, took it thence and sold it, together

Mansion-house of the lord-mayor, the Custom-house, Excise-office, India-house, and many other public buildings; besides the magnificent edifices raised by our nobility; as lord Spencer's house, Marlborough-house, and Buckingham-house in St. James's park; the earl of Chesham's house near Hyde-park; the duke of

together with the robes, sword, and sceptre of St. Edward. However, after the restoration, king Charles II. had one made in imitation of it, which is that now shewn. II. The golden orb, or globe, put into the king's right hand before he is crowned; and born in his left hand with the sceptre in his right, upon his return into Westminster-Hall after he is crowned. It is about six inches in diameter, edged with pearl, and enriched with precious stones. On the top is an amethyst, of a violet colour, near an inch and an half in height, set with a rich cross of gold, adorned with diamonds, pearls, and precious stones. The whole height of the ball and cup is 11 inches. III. The golden sceptre, with its cross, set upon a large amethyst of great value, garnished round with table diamonds. The handle of the sceptre is plain; but the pommel is set round with rubies, emeralds, and small diamonds. The top rises into a *flor de lis* of six leaves, all enriched with precious stones, from whence issues a mound or ball, made of the amethyst already mentioned. The cross is quite covered with precious stones. IV. The sceptre, with the dove, the emblem of peace, perched on the top of a small Jerusalem cross, finely ornamented with table diamonds and jewels of great value. This emblem was first used by Edward the Confessor, as appears by his seal; but the ancient sceptre and dove was sold with the rest of the regalia, and this now in the Tower was made after the restoration. V. St. Edward's staff, four feet seven inches and an half in length, and three inches three quarters in circumference, all of beaten gold, which is carried before the king at his coronation. VI. The rich crown of state, worn by his majesty in parliament; in which is a large emerald seven inches round; a pearl esteemed the finest in the world, and a rubie of inestimable value. VII. The crown belonging to his royal highness the prince of Wales. The king wears his crown on his head while he sits upon the throne; but that of the prince of Wales is placed before him, to shew that he is not yet come to it. VIII. The late queen Mary's crown, globe, and sceptre, with the diamond she wore at her coronation, with her consort king William III. IX. An ivory sceptre, with a dove on the top, made for king James II.'s queen, whose garniture is gold, and the dove on the top gold, enamelled with white. X. The *custons*; or sword of mercy, which has a blade of thirty-two inches long, and near two broad, is without a point, and is borne naked before the king at his coronation, between the two swords of justice, spiritual and temporal. XI. The golden spurs, and the armillas, which are bracelets for the wrists. These, though very antique, are worn at the coronation. XII. The *ampulla*, or eagle of gold, finely engraved, which holds the holy oil the kings and queens of England are anointed with; and the golden spoon that the bishop pours the oil into.

These are two pieces of great antiquity. The golden eagle, including the pedestal, is about nine inches high, and the wings expand about seven inches. The whole weighs about ten ounces. The head of the eagle serves off about the middle of the neck, which is made hollow, for holding the holy oil; and when the king is anointed by the bishop, the oil is poured into the spoon out of the bird's bill. XIII. A rich salt-seller of state, in form like the square White Tower, and so exquisitely wrought, that the workmanship of modern times is in no degree equal to it. It is of gold, and used only on the king's table at the coronation. XIV. A noble silver font, double gilt, and elegantly wrought, in which the royal family are christened. XV. A large silver funtalis, presented to king Charles II. by the town of Plymouth, very curiously wrought; but much inferior in beauty to the above. Besides these, which are commonly shewn, there are in the jewel-office, all the crown jewels worn by the princes and princesses at coronations, and a great variety of curious old plate.

The record-office consists of three rooms, one above another, and a large round room, where the rolls are kept. These are all handsomely wainscoted, the wainscot being framed into presses round each room, within which are shelves and repositories for the records; and for the easier finding of them, the year of each reign is inscribed on the inside of these presses, and the records placed accordingly. Within these presses, which amount to 65 in number, are deposited all the rolls, from the first year of the reign of king John to the beginning of the reign of Richard III. but those after this last period are kept in the rolls Chapel. The records in the Tower, among other things, contain the foundation of abbeys, and other religious houses; the ancient tenures of all the lands in England, with a survey of the manors; the original of laws and statutes; proceedings of the courts of common law and equity; the rights of England to the dominion of the British seas; leagues and treaties with foreign princes; the achievements of England in foreign wars; the settlement of Ireland, as to law and dominion; the forms of submission of some Scottish kings for territories held in England; ancient grants of our kings to their subjects; privileges and immunities granted to cities and corporations during the period above mentioned; enrollments of charters and deeds made before the Conquest; the bounds of all the forests in England, with the several respective rights of the inhabitants to common pasture, and many other important records, all regularly disposed, and referred to in near a thousand folio indexes. This office is kept open and attendance constantly given, from seven o'clock, till one, except in the months of December, January, and February, when it is open only from eight to one, Sundays and holidays excepted. A search here is half a guinea, for which you may peruse any one subject a year.

Devonshire's, and the late earl of Bath's, in Piccadilly; lord Shelburne's, in Berkeley Square; Northumberland-house in the Strand; the duke of Bedford's, and Montague house \*, in Bloombury; with many other splendid mansions, whose names would fill a large volume.

This great city is supplied with abundance of fresh water from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of inconceivable service to every family, but by means of fire-plugs, the keys of which are deposited with the parish-officers, the city is in a great measure secured from the spreading of fire.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage. It has given rise to several companies, who insure houses and goods from fire; an advantage that is not to be met with in any other nation: the premium is small †, and the recovery, in case of loss, easy and certain. Every one of these offices keep a set of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their assistance; and are extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent: but though their labours should prove unsuccessful, the person who suffers by this devouring element, has the comfort that must arise from a certainty of being paid the value (upon oath) of what he has insured.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London was inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy, of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in history, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowness of the streets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and joined with other circumstances, such as the want of water, rendered the city seldom free from pestilential devastation. The fire which consumed the greatest part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that time, was productive of consequences, which made ample amends for the losses sustained by individuals;

\* The British Museum is deposited in Montague house. Sir Hans Sloane, bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the British Museum; for its being established by parliament, was only in consequence of his leaving by will his noble collection of natural history; his large library, and his numerous curiosities, which cost him 50,000*l.* to the use of the public, on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000*l.* to his executors. To this collection were added the Cottonian library, the Harleian manuscripts collected by the Oxford family, and purchased likewise by the parliament, and a collection of books, given by the late major Edwards. His late majesty, in consideration of its great usefulness, was graciously pleased to add thereto the royal libraries of books and manuscripts collected by the several kings of England.

The Sloanian collection consists of an amazing number of curiosities; among which are, the library, including books of drawings, manuscripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 volumes. Medals, and coins, ancient and modern, 20,000. Canoes and intaglios, about 700. Seals 268. Vessels, &c. of agate, jasper, &c. 542. Antiquities, 1125. Precious stones, agates, jasper, &c. 2256. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2725. Crystal, spars, &c. 1864. Fossils, flints, stones, 1275. Earths, sands, salts, 1035. Bitumens, sulphurs, ambers, &c. 399. Talcs, micae, &c. 388. Corals, sponges, &c. 1421. Testacea, or shells, &c. 5843. Helixi, echinix, &c. 659. Alteria trochi, entrochi, &c. 241. Crustacea, crabs, lobsters, &c. 363. Stella marina, star-fishes, &c. 173. Fish, and their parts, &c. 1555.

Birds, and their parts, eggs, and nests, of different species, 1172. Quadrupeds, &c. 1886. Vipers, serpents, &c. 521. Insects, &c. 5439. Vegetables, 12,506. Horti feci, or volumes of dried plants, 334. Calculi humani, and anatomical preparations, 756. Miscellaneous things, natural, 2098. Mathematical instruments, 55. A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of large volumes.

† The terms of insurance are as follow, viz.

Every person insuring shall pay annually	1	2
for every 100 <i>l.</i> insured on goods, inclosed in brick or stone	2	0
If half hazardous, as to situation, or kind of goods	3	0
If hazardous	4	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous	5	0
If hazardous, and hazardous	6	0
For every 100 <i>l.</i> insured on goods, inclosed in part brick and part timber	2	6
If half hazardous, as to situation, or kind of goods	3	9
If hazardous	5	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous	6	3
If hazardous, and hazardous	7	6
For every 100 <i>l.</i> insured on goods, inclosed in timber	3	0
If half hazardous, as to situation or kind of goods	4	6
If hazardous	6	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous	7	6
If hazardous, and hazardous	9	0

The premium is double upon any sum between one and two thousand, and treble between two and three thousand pounds.

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a new city arose on the ruins of the old ; but, though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet it is ever to be lamented that the magnificent and useful plan of the great sir Christopher Wren was sacrificed to the mean and selfish views of private property.

The plan of London, in its present state, will in many instances appear, to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a disposition as can easily be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the borders of so noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are extremely mean and inconvenient. And the want of regularity and uniformity in the streets, and the mean avenues leading to many of them, are also circumstances that greatly lessen the grandeur of its appearance. Many of the churches, and other public buildings, are likewise thrust up in corners in such a manner as might tempt foreigners to believe that they were designed to be concealed. The improvements of the city of London for some years past have, however, been great ; and the new streets, which are numerous, are spacious, and built with regularity.

In the centre of the town, and upon the banks of the Thames, was a number 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 the ingenious Adams, who opened the way to a piece of scenery, which no city in Europe can equal. On the site of Durham-Yard was raised upon arches the pile of the Adelphi, celebrated for its enchanting prospect, the utility of its wharfs, and its subterraneous apartments answering a variety of purposes of general benefit. Contiguous to the Adelphi stands the Savoy, the property of government, hitherto a nuisance ; and, adjoining to the Savoy, towards the Temple, stood Somerset-House, where, being the property of government also, a new pile of buildings for public offices has been erected ; and here, in a very magnificent edifice, are elegant apartments appropriated for the use of the Royal Society, the Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture, and the Society of Antiquaries.

Though a variety of circumstances have hitherto been disadvantageous to the embellishment of the metropolis, it must at the same time be acknowledged, that a spirit of improvement now seems universal. London is better paved and better lighted than any other great city. Spacious roads are continued for several miles around, and exclusive of lamps regularly placed on each side, at short distances, are secured by watchmen stationed within call of each other. Nothing can appear more brilliant than those lights when viewed at a distance, especially where the roads run across ; and even the principal streets, such as Pall-Mall, New Bond-street, Oxford-street, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence.

Among the list of improvements worthy of notice may be included the Six Clerks Office, in Chancery-lane, and that very substantial building in the Old Bailey, which does honour to a people celebrated for their cleanliness, and for their humanity. Here the unfortunate debtor while he enjoys free air, is no longer annoyed by the dreadful rattle of chains, or by the more horrid sounds issuing from the lips of incorrigible offenders.

Foreigners are surpris'd that the monarchs of the richest nation in Europe should be so indifferently lodged in his capital, especially as Charles I. whose finances were but low, compared to some of his successors, had he lived undisturbed, would probably have completed the plan which Inigo Jones drew for a royal palace, suitable to the dignity of an English monarch. The truth is, his son Charles II. though he had a fine taste for architecture, dissipated his revenues upon his pleasures. The reign of his brother was too short for such an undertaking. Perpetual wars, during the reigns of king William and queen Anne, left the parliament no money to spare, and the two succeeding monarchs were not admirers of architectural magnificence.

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Windfor castle is distinguished by its magnitude, and unrivalled in its beautiful and commanding situation; which, with the form of its construction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. Hampton Court was the favorite residence of king William. It is built in the Dutch taste, has some good apartments, and, like Windfor, lies near the Thames. Both these palaces contain good pictures, but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I. and dissipated in the time of the civil wars. The cartoons of Raphael, which for design and expression are reckoned the master-pieces of painting, have by his present majesty been removed from the gallery built for them at Hampton Court, to the queen's palace, formerly Buckingham-house, in St. James's Park. The palace of St. James's is commodious, but has the air of a convent; and that of Kensington, which was purchased from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its extensive and beautiful gardens.

Not inferior to these and other royal houses, are many private seats in the neighbourhood of London, and all over the kingdom, wherein the opulence of the English nation is fully displayed and often made subservient to the finest classical taste; witness the seats of the marquis of Buckingham, and earl Pembroke. At the seat of the latter more remains of antiquity are to be found than are in the possession of perhaps any other subject.

But those capital houses of the English nobility and gentry are peculiarly distinguished by the nice adaptation of their parts, the richness and elegance of their furniture, and the admirable preservation in which the whole is kept; as well as by their hortulane and rural decorations, vistas, opening landscapes, temples, all the result of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence. Of such seats the following are the most distinguished, viz.

The earl of Pembroke's, at Wilton, in Wiltshire.  
 Lord Clifford's, King's-Weston, Gloucestershire.  
 Duke of Beaufort's, Badmington-Magna, ditto.  
 Earl Spenser's, Wimbleton, Surry.  
 The late sir Gregory Page's, Blackheath, Kent.  
 Sir James Tylney Long's, Epping Forest, Essex.  
 Duke of Grafton's, Euston-Hall, Suffolk.  
 Earl of Orford's, Houghton, Norfolk.  
 Duke of Marlborough's, Blenheim, Oxfordshire.  
 Earl of Litchfield's, Ditchley, ditto.  
 Marquis of Buckingham's, Stowe, Buckinghamshire.  
 Earl of Bute's, Luton Hoo, Bedfordshire.  
 Earl of Winchelsea's, Okeham, Rutlandshire.  
 Earl of Stafford's, Broughton, Northamptonshire.  
 Earl of Pomfret's, Eaton, ditto.  
 Earl Spenser's, Althorp, ditto.  
 Earl of Exeter's, Stamford, ditto.  
 Duke of Norfolk's, Worktop, Nottinghamshire.  
 Duke of Devonshire's, Chatsworth, Derbyshire.  
 Lord Scarfdale's, near Derby.  
 Mr. Aislabe's, Studley-Park, Yorkshire.  
 Earl of Carlisle's, at Castle-Howard, ditto.  
 Duke of Northumberland's, at Alnwick, Northumberland, and Sion House, Middlesex.  
 Lord Clive's, Claremont, Surry.  
 Earl of Inchiquin's, Cliefden-house, Buckinghamshire  
 Earl of Harrington's, at Peterham, Surry.

Mr.

Mr. Coke's, *Holkham-House, Norfolk.*

Lord Despencer's, *Mereworth Castle, Kent.*

Lord Edgcombe's, *Mount Edgcombe, Cornwall.*

Lord Byron's, *Newstead Abbey, Nottinghamshire.*

Mr. Hoare's, *Stourton Park, Wiltshire.*

The late marquis of Rockingham's, *Wentworth-House, Yorkshire.*

Lord Petre's, *Thornton, Essex.*

A particular detail of all the cities and towns of England, which would far exceed the limits of this work, cannot be expected; the most considerable will, therefore, only be noticed.

Bristol is reckoned the second city in England for wealth and populousness; but in trade and shipping, Liverpool surpasses it. The former stands upon the north and south sides of the river Avon, and the two parts of the city are connected by a stone bridge. The city is not well-built; but it is supposed to contain 15,000 houses, and 95,000 inhabitants. Here is a cathedral and 18 parish-churches, besides seven or eight other places of worship. On the north side of a large square, called Queen's Square, which is adorned with rows of trees, and an equestrian statue of William the Third, there is a custom-house, with a quay half a mile in length, one of the most commodious in England. The exchange, where the merchants and traders meet, is of free-stone, and one of the best of its kind in Europe.

York is a city of great antiquity, pleasantly situated on the river Ouse; it is populous, and surrounded with a good wall, through which are four gates, and five posterns. Here are seventeen parish-churches, and a cathedral, or minster, the finest Gothic buildings in Europe. It extends in length 525 feet, and in breadth 100 feet. The nave, which is larger than any in Christendom, except that of St. Peter's church at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher, than that of St. Paul's cathedral at London. At the west end are two towers, connected and supported by an arch which forms the west entrance, and is reckoned the largest Gothic arch in Europe. The windows are finely painted; and the front of the choir is adorned with statues of the kings of England from William the Norman to Henry VI. and here are thirty-two stalls, all of fine marble, with pillars, each consisting of one piece of alabaster. Here is also a very neat Gothic chapter-house. Near the cathedral is the assembly-house, an elegant structure, designed by the late earl of Burlington. This city has a stone bridge of five arches over the river Ouse.

The city of Exeter was for some time the seat of the West Saxon kings; and the walls which at this time enclose it were built by king Athelstan, who encompassed it with a ditch. It has six gates, and, including its suburbs, is more than two miles in circumference. There are sixteen parish churches, besides, chapels, and five large meeting-houses, within the walls of this city. The trade of Exeter in ferges, perpetuans, long-ells, druggets, kerseys, and other woollen goods, is very great. Ships come up to the city by means of sluices. There was a long and very ancient bridge over the river Ex, with houses on both sides; one half of it is now demolished, and an arm turned to join it to the new bridge built on a line with the fore street.

The city of Gloucester stands on a pleasant hill, with houses on every descent, and is clean and well-built, with the Severn on one side, a branch of which brings ships up to it. The cathedral is an ancient and magnificent structure, and there are also five parish-churches. Here is a good stone bridge over the river, besides a quay, a wharf, and a custom-house: but the trade of this city is not so considerable as formerly.

Litchfield stands in a valley, three miles south of the Trent, divided by a stream which runs into that river. The cathedral was founded in 1148: it was much damaged

maged during the civil war, but was so completely repaired after the Restoration, that it is now one of the noblest Gothic structures in England.

Chester is a large, populous, and wealthy city, with a bridge that has a gate at each end, and twelve arches over the Dee, which falls into the sea. It has eleven parishes, and nine well-built churches. The streets are generally even and spacious, and, crossing one another in straight lines, meet in the centre. The walls were erected by Edelfleda, a Mercian lady, in the year 908, and join on the south side of the city to the castle, from whence there is a pleasant walk round the city upon the walls, except where it is intercepted by the towers over the gates; from hence there is a prospect of Flintshire, and the mountains of Wales.

Warwick is a town of great antiquity, and appears to have been of eminence, even in the time of the Romans. It stands upon a rock of free-stone, on the banks of the Avon; and a way is cut to it through the rock from each of the four cardinal points. The town is populous, and streets spacious and regular, and all meet in the centre of the town. The principal ornament of the place is a castle belonging to the earl of Warwick, standing upon the banks of the Avon, on a rock which rises 40 feet perpendicularly above the level of that river; and adjoining to the castle is a fine terrace, 50 feet above the same level, from whence there is a beautiful and extensive prospect of the river, and of the country beyond. The apartments of the castle are adorned with many original pictures of Vandyke and other great masters.

The city of Coventry is large and populous, has an handsome town-house, and twelve gates. Here is also a spacious market-place, with a cross in the middle, 60 feet high, adorned with statues of several kings of England as large as the life.

Salisbury is a large, neat, and well-built city, situated in a valley, and watered by the Upper Avon on the west and south, and by the Bourne on the east. The streets are generally spacious, and built at right angles. The cathedral, which was finished in 1258, at the expence of above 26,000 pounds, is, for a Gothic building, the most elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lantern, with a beautiful spire of free-stone in the middle, which is 410 feet high. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. This church has a cloister, which is 150 feet square, and of fine workmanship. The chapter-house, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and yet the roof bears all upon one small pillar in the centre, so much too weak in appearance for the support of such a prodigious weight, that the construction of this building is thought one of the greatest curiosities in England.

The city of Bath took its name from the medicinal waters for which this place has been long celebrated and much frequented. The season for drinking the Bath waters are the spring and autumn: the spring season begins with April, and ends with June; the autumn season begins with September, and lasts till December, and some patients remain here all the winter. In the spring, this place is most frequented for health, and in the autumn for pleasure, when at least two-thirds of the company, consisting chiefly of persons of rank and fortune, come to partake of the amusements of the place. In some seasons there have been 8000 persons at Bath, besides its inhabitants. Some of the buildings are extremely elegant, particularly Queen's-square, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, the Circus, and Crescent.

Nottingham is pleasantly situated on the ascent of a rock, overlooking the river Trent, which runs parallel with it about a mile to the south, and is navigable. It is one of the neatest places in England, and has a considerable trade.

No

No nation in the world has such dock-yards, and all conveniencies for the construction and repairs of the royal navy, as Portsmouth (the most regular fortification in England), Plymouth, Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The royal hospital at Greenwich, for superannuated seamen, is a truly noble pile. Almost every town in England is noted for some particular production or manufacture, to which its building and appearance are generally fitted; and though England contains many excellent and commodious sea-ports, yet all have an immediate connection with London, the common centre of national commerce.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raised the English to be a great and powerful people. It was not till the reign of Elizabeth that England began to feel her true weight in the scale of commerce. That queen planned some settlements in America, particularly Virginia, but left the expence to be defrayed by her subjects; and indeed she was too parsimonious to carry her own system into execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial schemes for the English trade. The East-India company owes to him its success, and British America saw her most flourishing colonies rise under him and his family. The spirit of commerce went hand in hand with that of liberty, and though the Stuarts were not friendly to the latter, yet, during the reigns of the princes of that family, the trade of the nation greatly increased. It is not intended to follow commerce through all its fluctuations, but only to give a general representation of the commercial interest of the nation.

The present system of English politics may properly be said to have taken rise in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At this time the Protestant religion was established, which naturally allied us to the reformed states. We began in the same reign to extend our trade, by which it became necessary to watch the commercial progress of our neighbours, and, if not to incommode and obstruct their traffic, to hinder them from impairing ours. We then likewise settled colonies in America, which was become the great scene of European ambition; for, seeing with what treasures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico, and Peru, every nation imagined that an American conquest or plantation would fill the mother-country with gold and silver. The discoveries of new regions, which were every day made, the profit of remote traffic, and the necessity of long voyages, produced in a few years a great increase of shipping. The sea was considered as the wealthy element; and by degrees a new kind of sovereignty arose, called *naval dominion*.

As the chief trade of Europe, so the chief maritime power was at first in the hands of the Portuguese and Spaniards, who, by a compact, to which the consent of other powers was not asked, had divided the newly discovered countries between them: but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being seized by him, he was master of the naval force of the two nations, with which he kept all the coasts of Europe in alarm, till the Armada, he had raised at a vast expence for the conquest of England, was destroyed; which put almost an end to the maritime strength of the Spaniards.

At this time the Dutch, who were oppressed by the Spaniards, and feared yet greater evils than they felt, resolved no longer to endure the insolence of their masters: they revolted; and after a struggle in which they were assisted by the money and forces of queen Elizabeth, erected an independent powerful commonwealth. When the inhabitants of the Low Countries had formed their system of government, and some remission of the war gave them leisure to form schemes of future prosperity, they easily perceived that as their territories were narrow, and their numbers small, they could preserve themselves only by that power, which is the consequence of wealth; and that by a people whose country produced only the necessaries of life, wealth was not to be acquired but from foreign dominions, and by transportation of the products of one country into another. From this necessity, thus justly estimated,

estimated, arose a plan of commerce, which was for many years prosecuted with an industry and success perhaps never seen in the world before; and by which the poor tenants of mud-walled villages and impassable bogs erected themselves into high and mighty states, who set the greatest monarchs at defiance, whose alliance was courted by the proudest, and whose power was dreaded by the fiercest nations. By the establishment of this state there arose to England a new ally, and a new rival.

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the customs produced only 36,000*l.* a-year; at the Restoration they were let to farm for 400,000*l.* and produced considerably above double that sum before the Revolution. The inhabitants of London, before we had any plantations, and when our trade was inconsiderable, were computed at about 100,000: at the death of queen Elizabeth, they were increased to 150,000, and are now above six times that number. In those days we had not only naval stores, but ships from our neighbours. Germany furnished us with all things made of metals, even to nails; wine, paper, linen, and a thousand other things, came from France. Portugal supplied us with sugars; all the produce of America was poured on us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoese retailed to us the commodities of the East Indies at their own price. The legal interest of money was 12 per cent. and the common price of our land 10 or 12 years purchase. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and those but indifferent; the number of English merchants very small, and our shipping inferior to what belonged in the late war to the single county of Lancaster.

For exportation England furnishes many of the most substantial and necessary commodities; as butter, cheese, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pit-coal, alum, saffron, &c. Our corn sometimes preserves other countries from starving. Our horses are the most serviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations for their hardiness, beauty, and strength. We victual not only our own fleets, but many foreign vessels. Our iron we export manufactured in great guns, carcasses, bombs, &c. Prodigious, and almost incredible, is the value likewise of other goods from hence exported; viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, shoes, household-stuff, ale, beer, red-herrings, pilchards, salmon, oysters, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys, &c.

There is scarcely a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England. Our woollen manufacture exceeds that of any other nation. Hardware is another capital article; locks, edge-tools, guns, swords, and other arms, are of superior excellence; household utensils of brass, iron, and pewter, are also very great articles; and our clocks and watches are in the highest esteem.

The surprizing perfection, to which the manufactures of England have been brought, arises from many circumstances which now here coincide so happily to promote their progress as they do in this island. To this the national character, the situation of the country, and the excellence of its constitution all contribute. Nothing could be more favourable to the progress of the mechanical arts, than the English reflection, and perseverance, and the exclusive attention they are able to bestow on favourite pursuits, often with the neglect of every other concern; their enterprising spirit; and the certainty of enjoying the glory and fruits of their labours. The insular situation of Britain taught its inhabitants to consider the surrounding ocean as the bulwark of their safety, the theatre of their power, and the source of their wealth. Navigation with its appendages, distant acquisitions and colonization, gave an astonishing extent to commerce, an air of grandeur and importance to the occupations of the merchant, and flattered ambition as well as the love of gain. The mere natural productions of the country were insufficient for so large a market, especially as it was deficient in articles of luxury and the precious metals. Manufacturing industry was therefore called forth, to supply materials

rials for commerce, and every new invention of mechanical genius found liberal support and encouragement from the great number of people who had acquired wealth. The English government, favourable to liberty, and to every exertion of genius, has provided by wise and equitable laws for the secure enjoyment of property acquired by ingenuity and labour, and has removed obstacles to industry, by prohibiting the importation of such articles from abroad, as could be manufactured at home.

In the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, the value of the woollens exported from England amounted to upwards of 10,500,000l. sterling, exclusive of the woollens of Yorkshire, the value of which, in the same period of time, amounted to upwards of 3,000,000l. sterling. Next to the woollen manufactory, that of cotton is the most considerable, as it is reckoned to employ in the northern and middle counties not less than 500,000 persons, women and children included.

Among the advantages the British islands are possessed of, with respect to navigation, the following are worthy of attention; the great extent of the coasts, the sea-line of which, including both Great Britain and Ireland, extends near 3800 miles, whereas the sea-coast of France is but 1000 miles; the neighbourhood to the continent; the number of excellent harbours; the numerous navigable canals, which form a communication between the sea-ports on the eastern and western coasts of England.

The constant increase of this immense commerce is astonishing. In the years 1783 and 1784, 1. ships cleared outwards, amounting to 950,000, exceeded the number of tons of the ships employed twenty-four years before, by upwards of 400,000 tons. The value of the cargoes exported in 1784, amounted to upwards of 15,000,000l. sterling; and the net customs paid for them into the exchequer were upwards of 3,000,000l. sterling; and even this sum was exceeded the following year, 1785, by upwards of 1,000,000l.

The balance of trade in favour of England is estimated by some writers at 3,000,000l. sterling. Far more considerable is the inland trade, valued at upwards of 42,000,000l. sterling. As the quantity of circulating specie may in some measure indicate the extent of commerce, we may judge of the increase of the latter, by comparing the sums which the three last monarchs found necessary to coin. By George I. 8,725,921l. sterling were coined. In the long reign of George II. 11,966,576l. sterling, and in the first twenty-four years of his present majesty's reign, the sums coined amounted to 33,089,274l. sterling.

The coasting trade is said to give employment to about 100,000 people; but this number seems to be exaggerated; yet some branches of the fisheries require a great number of hands. About 10,000 people are employed in the oyster-fishery along the coasts of England.

Of the British commerce, that branch which we enjoyed exclusively, viz. the commerce with our colonies, was long regarded as the most advantageous. Yet since the separation of the American States from Great Britain, the trade, the industry, and manufactures of the latter have continually increased. New markets have opened, the returns from which are more certain and less tedious than those from America. By supplying a greater variety of markets, the skill and ingenuity of our artificers hath taken a wider range; the productions of their labour have been adapted to the wants, not of rising colonies, but of nations the most wealthy and the most refined; and our commercial system, no longer resting to the artificial basis of monopoly, hath been rendered more solid as well as more liberal. Before the late war, the chief commodities exported to the colonies were wrought iron, steel, copper, pewter, lead, and brass, cordage, hemp, sail-cloth, ship-chandlery, painter's colours, millinery, hosiery, haberdashery, gloves, hats, broad cloths, stuffs, flannels, Colchester bays, long ells, silks, gold and silver lace, Manchester goods, British, fo-

reign, and Irish linens, earthen wares, grind-stones, Birmingham and Sheffield wares, toys, sadlery, cabinet wares, seeds, cheese, strong beer, smoking pipes, snuffs, wines, spirits, and drugs; East India goods, books, paper, and leather.

The commodities exported from America to Great Britain, and other markets, were tobacco, rice, flour, biscuit, wheat, beans, peas, oats, India corn, and other grain; honey, apples, cyder, and onions; salt-beef, pork, hams, bacon, venison, tongues, butter, and cheese; prodigious quantities of cod, mackarel, and other fish, and fish oil; furs and skins of wild beasts, such as bear, beaver, otter, fox, deer, and racoon; horses, and live stock; timber planks, masts, boards, staves, shingles, pitch, tar, and turpentine; ships built for sale; flax, flax-seed, and cotton; indigo, pot-ash, bees-wax, tallow, copper ore, and iron in bars and in pigs; besides many other commodities, peculiar to the climes and soil of different provinces. The following is a state of the trade between Great Britain and the colonies, as it existed before the differences broke out between them, marking at the same time the commercial strength and shipping of the colonies.

Colonies.	Ships.	Seamen.	Exports from Great Britain.	Exports from the Colonies
Hudson's Bay	4	130	£. 16,000	£. 29,340
Labrador, American vessels 120				49,050
Newfoundland (3000 boats)	380	20,560	273,400	345,000
Canada	34	408	105,000	105,000
Nova Scotia	6	72	26,500	38,000
New England	46	552	395,000	370,500
Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire	3	36	12,000	114,500
New York	30	330	531,000	526,000
Pennsylvania	35	390	611,000	705,500
Virginia and Maryland	330	3,960	865,000	1,040,000
North Carolina	34	408	18,000	68,450
South Carolina	140	1,680	365,000	395,666
Georgia	24	240	49,000	74,200
East Florida	2	24	7,000	
West ditto	10	120	97,000	63,000
	<u>1,078</u>	<u>28,210</u>	<u>3,370,900</u>	<u>3,994,206</u>

The principal islands belonging to the English, in the West Indies, are Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Grenada, Antigua, St. Vincent, Dominica, Anguilla, Nevis, Montserrat, the Bermudas, or Summer Islands, and the Bahama, or Lucayan Islands in the Atlantic ocean; besides our new conquests of Martinico, Gaudaloupe, St. Lucie, and part of the French possessions in St. Domingo.

The English trade with the West India Islands consists chiefly in sugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocon, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany and machinell planks, drugs and preserves; for these the exports from England are osnaburgs, a coarse kind of linen, with which the West Indians now clothe their slaves; linen of all sorts, with broad cloth and kersties, for the planters, their overseers and families; silks and stuffs for their ladies and household servants; hats; red caps for their slaves of both sexes; stockings and shoes of all sorts; gloves and millinery ware, perukes, laces for linen, woollen and silks; strong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheese; iron ware, as saws, files, axes, hatchets, chisels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augers, nails; lead, powder, and shot; brags and copper wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet wares, snuffs, and, in general, whatever is raised or manufactured in Great Britain; also negroes from Africa, and all sorts of India goods.

The trade of England to the East Indies, constituting the most stupendous, political, as well as commercial machine known in history, will be explained under the head of the East India company.

This

This company exports to the East Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, all sorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quicksilver. Their imports consist of gold, diamonds, raw-silks, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain or China ware, salt petre for home consumption: and of wrought silks, mullins, calicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries. I shall now proceed to a concise view of the English trade to other countries, according to the latest and most authentic accounts.

To Turkey, England sends in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hard-ware, iron utensils, clocks, watches, verdegris, spices, cochineal, and log-wood. She imports from thence raw-silks, carpets, skins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and some other articles. Formerly, the balance of this trade was about 500,000*l.* annually, in favour of England; and will soon exceed that sum, should France continue to neglect commerce.

England exports to Italy woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead, tin, fish, and East India goods: and brings back raw and thrown silk, wines, oil, soap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury; the balance of this trade in favour of England, is annually about 200,000*l.*

To Spain England sends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fish, corn, iron, and brass manufactures; haberdashery wares, assortments of linen from Germany, and elsewhere, for the Spanish colonies: and receives in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wool, indigo, cochineal, and other dying drugs, colours, gold and silver coin.

Portugal formerly was, upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally of England, whose fleets and armies have more than once saved her from destruction. England sends to this country almost the same kind of merchandizes as to Spain, and receives in return vast quantities of wines, with oils, salt, dried and moist fruits, dying drugs, and gold coins.

The treaty of commerce between England and France has been so variously represented, that it is not easy accurately to estimate its advantages to this country; but whatever they were, a total suspension has now taken place, occasioned by the present war.

England sends to Flanders, serges, flannels, tin, lead, sugars, and tobacco; and receives in return, laces, linen, cambrics, and other articles of luxury, by which England loses upon the balance, 250,000*l.* sterling yearly. To Germany, England sends cloths and stuffs, tin, pewter, sugars, tobacco, and East India merchandize; and brings thence, linen, thread, goat-skins, tinned plates, wines, and many other articles. Before the late war, the balance of this trade was thought to be 500,000*l.* annually to the prejudice of England, but that disadvantage is now lessened, as most of the German princes find it their interest to clothe their armies in English manufactures. I have already mentioned the trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Russia, which formerly was against England; but the balance was lately diminished by the great improvements of her American colonies, in raising hemp, flax, making pot-ashes, iron-works, and tallow, all which used to be furnished to her by the northern powers. The goods exported to Poland, chiefly by the way of Dantzic, are many, and the duties upon them low. Many articles are sent there for which there is no longer any demand in other countries. Poland consumes large quantities of our woollen goods, hardware, lead, tin, salt, sea-coal, &c. and the export of manufactured tobacco is greater to Poland than to any other country. The balance of trade may be estimated much in our favour.

To Holland, England sends an immense quantity of merchandize, such as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, East India and Turkey merchandize, tobacco, tar, sugar, rice, ginger, and other American productions: and takes in return

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return fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, inele, madder, boards, drugs, whalebone, train-oil, and toys. The balance is supposed to be in favour of England.

England sends to the coast of Guinea, sundry sorts of coarse woollen and linen, iron, pewter, brass, and hardware manufactures, lead-shot, swords, knives, firearms, gun-powder, and glass manufactures. Guinea lately supplied the American colonies with negro slaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold-dust, gum, dyeing and other drugs, red-wood, Guinea grains, and ivory.

To Arabia, Persia, China, and other parts of Asia, England sends much foreign silver coin, and bullion, and sundry English manufactures of woollen goods, and of lead, iron, and brass; and brings home from those remote regions, muslins and cottons of many various kinds, calicoes, raw and wrought silk, chintz; teas, porcelain, gold-dust, coffee, saltpetre, and drugs. And so great a quantity of those various merchandizes are re-exported to foreign European nations, as more than compensates for the silver bullion which England carries out.

During the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant exclusive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the East India, South Sea, Hudson's bay, Turkey, Russia, and Royal African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Russia, and Africa, is now laid open, though the merchant who proposes to trade thither must become a member of the company, be subject to their laws and regulations, and advance a small sum at admission, for the purposes of supporting consuls, forts, &c.

The foreign trade of England is supported by great rational industry, the produce of the land, and labour of the country, being calculated at more than 42,000,000*l.* annually.

Cornwall and Devonshire furnish tin and lead, and woollen manufactures are common to almost all the western counties. Dorsetshire makes cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of sheep, and has large lace manufactures. Somersetshire, besides furnishing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone-lace, stockings, and caps. Bristol is said by some to employ 2000 vessels of all sizes, coasters as well as ships, employed in foreign voyages: it has many very important manufactures; its glass-bottle and drinking-glass occupying fifteen large houses: its brass-wire manufactures are also very considerable. Manufactures of all kinds (glass, jewellery, clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular), are carried on in London and its neighbourhood; the gold and silver manufactures of London, through the encouragement given by the court and the nobility, exceed those of any other country in Europe. Colchester is famous for its manufactures of bays and serges, and Exeter for serges and long-ells; and Norwich for its excellent stuffs, camelots, druggets, and stockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largest and most populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hardware manufactures, particularly snuff and tobacco boxes, buttons, shoe-buckles, and many other sorts of steel and brass wares; it is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, where it is supposed upwards of 40,000 workmen are employed by about 600 owners and manufacturers, that the true genius of English art and industry is to be seen; for such are their excellent inventions for fabricating hardwares, that they can afford them for a fourth part of the price at which other nations can furnish the same of an inferior kind: the cheapness of coals, all necessaries, and the conveniency of situation contribute greatly to this. One company of iron manufacturers in Shropshire use every day 500 tons of coals in their works. In Great Britain there is made every year from 50 to 60,000 tons of pig-iron, and from 20 to 30,000 tons of bar-iron.

The

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarser and lighter woollen manufactures; witness those of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond, and above all, Manchester; which, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, tickens, checks, and the like stuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its highest magistrate a constable. Beautiful porcelain and earthen ware have of late years been manufactured in Worcester-shire and Staffordshire. The English carpets, especially those of Axminster, Wilton, and Kidderminster, though but a late manufacture, greatly excel in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable. Paper, which till very lately was imported in vast quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every part of the kingdom. The parliament, of late, has given encouragement for reviving the manufacture of salt-petre, which was first attempted in England by sir Walter Raleigh, but was dropt afterwards in favour of the East India Company.

After all that has been said, the seats of manufactures, and consequently of trade, in England, are fluctuating; they will always follow those places where living is cheap, and taxes are easy: for this reason, they have been observed of late to remove towards the northern counties, where provisions are in plenty, and the land-tax very low; and, probably, in a few years, the inland navigations which are completed in many parts of England, will make great improvements in its natural advantages.

The immense accumulation of the public debts, and the depressed state of public credit, of the revenue, and of the funds, at the close of the last war, together with the loss of several extensive and populous colonies in North America, led some of the ablest and most experienced men in the kingdom, not in general inclined to despondency, to doubt whether it would be possible for Great Britain, reduced apparently to the lowest ebb, by a succession of misfortunes, and by expences unprecedented in any former time, ever to regain prosperity at home, or influence abroad. The events, however, which have since happened, shew as well the effect which may be produced by a resolution to encounter the difficulties of the most embarrassed situation, as the extent of the resources to be derived from a spirit of national industry and enterprize.

Among other causes which have contributed to the prosperity of the nation since the peace of 1783, the writer of a pamphlet, entitled, *A brief Examination into the Increase of the Revenue, Commerce, and Navigation of Great Britain*, published 1793, mentions an *act for auditing public accounts*. Losses to an immense amount had been sustained by the public, from persons to whom large sums of money had been issued, and who had not rendered any account: a very large proportion of them had never been called upon; the few who were with those who voluntarily tendered themselves, passed their accounts for millions before a deputy or clerk, appointed by an auditor, who always considered his own office as a sinecure. To remedy this evil, an act was passed in 1785, for better examining and auditing the public accounts of the kingdom; since which, they have been examined with attention and scrupulous exactness, and the effects of this law will be felt in its full extent, in the present (1794) war with France. Sums, beyond all belief to persons not experienced in such matters, would have been saved, if such an institution had been provided previous to the two last wars.

It must be in the recollection of every one, how universal a persuasion prevailed, that the separation of the American Colonies from Great Britain, would be felt as a great and severe wound, injuring our resources and lessening our navigation. We cannot, therefore, but contemplate with the highest pleasure the effects produced by the measures before alluded to, and by various other causes which have contributed to the general prosperity of the country. To compare the revenue at

different periods, before and since the separation, would not alone be admitted as a criterion, because new taxes have been since added to a large amount; although it is the strongest proof of the energy of the country, that under an immense accumulation of debt and taxes, it has been able to effect most successfully what was never before attempted, the gradual and certain reduction of the debt.

A more direct argument will, however, arise from an inquiry into the state of our navigation and commerce during the years of our greatest prosperity, after the peace of 1763, and at this time.—In this inquiry there occurs some difficulty as to the navigation;—it is to be lamented, that previous to 1786, no ships were registered in Great Britain, except those which traded to the plantations; entries of ships outwards were till then made very loosely; there was no sort of check on the master or owner, who invariably represented the vessels of a less burthen than the real tonnage, to save the payment of light duties and other charges; notwithstanding which, a tolerable judgment may be formed of the increase of our navigation, by comparing the number of the ships cleared out at the different periods, having in view that, previous to the separation of the colonies of Great Britain, all American shipping was deemed British, and that the size of our ships is now larger than at that time.

Number of British ships entered *inwards* to Great Britain.

Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1774=1,695	=775,000	1789=11,907	=1,401,000
1775=5,119	=216,000	1790=11,144	=1,441,000
1776=5,187	=310,000	1791=11,490	=1,428,000
1777=9,147	=745,000	1792=12,030	=1,570,000

Number of British ships cleared *outwards* from Great Britain.

Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1774=9,608	=21,311	1789=11,264	=21,117
1775=6,491	=274,041	1790=11,761	=21,424,511
1776=6,334	=90,004	1791=11,301	=21,111,116
1777=9,719	=211,834	1792=12,111	=21,501,107

Total Value of Imports into Great Britain:

1774	==	£14,400,000	1789	==	£17,311,000
1775	==	11,675,000	1790	==	19,110,000
1776	==	13,340,000	1791	==	19,800,000
1777	==	14,215,000	1792	==	19,800,000

An Account of Vessels belonging to Great Britain; in the following Years:

1774	-	-	-	9,000	1789	-	-	-	11,455
1775	-	-	-	9,146	1790	-	-	-	10,019
1776	-	-	-	6,116	1791	-	-	-	10,119
1777	-	-	-	9,108	1792	-	-	-	11,031

Total View of Exports from Great Britain:

Foreign Manufact.	British Manufact.	Total.	Foreign Manufact.	British Manufact.	Total.		
1774	£6,746,000	£10,971,000	£17,717,000	1789	£5,000,000	£13,770,000	£18,770,000
1775	7,114,000	9,417,000	16,531,000	1790	5,119,000	14,511,000	19,630,000
1776	8,119,000	10,556,000	17,675,000	1791	5,211,000	15,810,000	21,021,000
1777	6,111,000	10,071,000	16,182,000	1792	6,500,000	18,111,000	24,611,000

\* The proportion of these ships, in the last peace belonging to the Provinces (now the United States) was very large; but it is impossible to ascertain the number of them with any degree of accuracy.

† From this year they continued diminishing till 1782, when there were only 4,652.

‡ A comparison cannot be made of the ship-

ping belonging to the whole British Empire at the different periods, because, previous to the late Register act, no account was kept of those belonging to Ireland or the Plantations; nor can any comparison be made of the tonnage, as the ships were not accurately measured before the passing of the said act.

\* Includi  
Company for  
subsequent y  
† This is

E N G L A N D.

In order to bring the result of the preceding statements into as short a point of view as possible, the following **ABSTRACT** is added, to shew the comparative situation of Great Britain, in respect to the particulars which have been enumerated, during the time of our greatest prosperity in the last peace, and at the close of the year 1792:

<p>Price of 3 per cents consol. January 27th, 1784. £55.</p> <p>Price of India Stock, January 27th, 1784. £121.</p> <p>Value of Imports, 1783, £13,325,000.</p> <p>Value of Exports, 1783: British manufactures. Foreign produce. <b>TOTAL.</b> £10,409,000 — £4,332,000 — £14,741,000</p> <p>Numb. of British ships entered Inwards to Great Britain, in 1783, — 7,690.</p> <p>Numb. of British ships cleared Outwards from Great Britain in 1783, — 7,329.</p> <p>Amount of the permanent taxes in 1783, £10,194,459.*</p> <p>In 1783, the whole of the revenue (including the Land and Salt) as well as the expenditure on a peace establishment, £4,000,000.</p>	<p>Price of 3 per cents consol. April 30th, 1793. £77½.</p> <p>Price of India Stock, April 30th, 1793. £214.</p> <p>Value of Imports, 1792, £19,669,000.</p> <p>Value of Exports, 1792: British manufactures. Foreign produce. <b>TOTAL.</b> £18,300,000 — £6,568,000 — £24,868,000</p> <p>Numb. of British ships entered Inwards to Great Britain, in 1792, — 13,036.</p> <p>Numb. of British ships cleared Outwards from Great Britain in 1792, — 13,521.</p> <p>Amount of the permanent taxes in 1792, £14,285,000.</p> <p>In 1792, the whole of the Revenue, as well as the expenditure on the reduced peace establishment, £2,031,000 †.</p>
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*A Short View of the STOCKS, or PUBLIC FUNDS, in England; with An Historical Account of the East India, the Bank, and the South-Sea Companies.*

As there are few subjects of conversation more general than the value of stock, and hardly any thing so little understood, nothing can be more proper in this place than a short account of them, which shall be given in as clear and concise a manner as possible; presenting the reader with a *rationale* of the stocks, and a short history of the several companies, describing the nature of their several funds, the uses to which they are applied, and the various purposes they answer, both with respect to the government, the companies themselves, and the community in general.

In order to give a clear idea of the money transactions of the several companies, it is proper we should say something of money in general, particularly of paper-money, and the difference between that and the current specie. Money is the standard of the value of all the necessaries and accommodations of life, and paper-money is the representative of that standard to such a degree, as to supply its place, and to answer all the purposes of gold and silver coin. Nothing is necessary to make this representative of money supply the place of specie, but the credit of that office or company who delivers it; which credit consists in the facility

\* Including a postponed payment of the India Company for duties, which were not paid till a subsequent year.

† This is on the estimate of the peace establishment at £15,811,000, as stated by Mr. Pitt in his speech on opening the Budget 17th February, 1792.

afforded by the bank for converting the paper into specie. The notes of the bank of England are of the same value as the current coin, as they may be turned into it whenever the possessor pleases. From hence, as notes are a kind of money, the counterfeiting them is punished with death, as well as coining.

The method of depositing money in the bank, and exchanging it for notes (though they bear no interest), is attended with many conveniencies; as they are not only safer than money in the hands of the owner himself, but as the notes are more portable, and capable of a much more easy conveyance: since a bank note for a very large sum may be sent by the post, and to prevent theft, may, without damage, be cut in two, and sent at two several times. Or bills, called Bank post-bills, may be had by application at the bank, which are particularly calculated to prevent fraud, they being made payable to the order of the person who takes them out, at a certain number of days after sight; which gives an opportunity to stop bills at the bank, if they should be lost, and prevents their being so easily negotiated by strangers as common bank-notes are; and whoever considers the hazard, the expence, and trouble, in sending large sums of gold and silver to and from distant places, must also regard this as a very important advantage. Besides which another benefit attends them; for if they are destroyed by time, or other accident, the Bank will, on oath being made of such accident, and security being given, pay the money to the person who was in possession of them.

*Bank Notes* differ from all kinds of stock in these three particulars: 1. They are always of the same value; 2. They are paid off without being transferred; and, 3. They bear no interest; while *stocks* are a share in a company's funds, bought without any condition of having the principal returned. *India bonds* indeed (by some persons, though erroneously, denominated stock) are to be excepted, they being made payable at six months notice, either on the side of the company, or of the possessor.

By the word *Stock* was originally meant, a particular sum of money contributed to the establishing a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the person became a partner in that trade, and received a share in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the money advanced. But this term has been extended farther to signify any sum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain interest till the money is repaid. As the security both of the government and the public companies is esteemed preferable to that of any private person, as stock is negotiable and may always be readily transferred, as the interest is always punctually paid when due; so for these reasons government may commonly borrow money cheaper than individuals, from whom there is often some danger of losing both principal and interest.

Every fund being raised for a particular purpose, and limited by parliament to a certain sum, it follows, that when the fund is completed, no more stock can be bought; though shares, already purchased, may be transferred from one person to another. This being the case, there is frequently a great disproportion between the original value of the shares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than sellers, a person who is indifferent about selling, will not part with his share without a considerable profit to himself; and on the contrary, if many are disposed to sell, and few inclined to buy, the value of such shares will naturally fall in proportion to the impatience of those who want to turn their stock into specie.

These observations were necessary, to give our readers some idea of the nature of that unjustifiable and dishonest practice called *Stock-jobbing*, the mystery of which consists in nothing more than this: the persons concerned in that practice, who are denominated *Stock-jobbers*, make contracts to buy or sell at a certain distant time,

time, a certain quantity of some particular stock; against which time they endeavour, according as their contract is, either to raise or lower such stock, by spreading rumours, and fictitious stories, in order to induce people either to sell out in a hurry, and consequently cheap, if they are to deliver stock; or to become unwilling to sell it, and consequently to make it dearer, if they are to receive stock.

The persons who make these contracts are not in general possessed of any real stock; and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only pay such a sum of money as makes the difference between the price the stock was at, when they made the contract, and the price it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled; and it is no uncommon thing for persons not worth 100l. to make contracts for the buying or selling 100,000l. stock. In the language of Exchange-Alley, the buyer in this case is called the Bull, and the seller the Bear; one is for raising or toiling up, and the other for lowering or trampling upon the Stock.

Besides these, there is another set of men, who, though of a higher rank, may properly come under the same denomination. These are the great moneyed men, who are dealers in stock, and contractors with the government whenever any new money is to be borrowed. These indeed are not fictitious, but real buyers and sellers of stock; but by raising false hopes, or creating groundless fears, by pretending to buy or sell large quantities of stock on a sudden, by using the forementioned set of men as their instruments, and other like practices, they are enabled to raise or lower the stocks one or two per cent. at pleasure.

However, the real value of one stock above another, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really, or only in imagination, affect the credit of a company, or endanger the government by which that credit is secured, must naturally have a considerable effect on the stocks. Thus, with respect to the interest of the proprietors, a share in the stock of a trading company which produces 5l. or 6l. per cent. per ann. must be more valuable than an annuity with government security, that produces no more than 3l. or 4l. per cent. per annum; and consequently such stock must sell at a higher price than such an annuity. Though it must be observed, that a share in the stock of a trading company producing 5l. or 6l. per cent. per annum, will not fetch so much money at market as a government annuity producing the same sum, because the security of the company is not reckoned equal to that of government; and the continuance of their paying so much per annum, is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

As the stocks of the East India, the Bank, and the South Sea companies, are distinguished by different denominations, and are of a very different nature, we shall give a short history of each of them, together with an account of the different stocks each is possessed of, beginning with the East India company, as the first established.

**EAST INDIA COMPANY.]** The first idea of it was formed in queen Elizabeth's time, but it has since undergone great alterations. Its shares, or subscriptions, were originally only 50l. sterling; and its capital only 360,891l. 5s. but the directors having a considerable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital, by which the shares were doubled, and consequently, each became of 100l. value, and the capital, 739,782l. 10s. to which capital, if 963,639l. the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole stock amounted to 1,703,402l. Though the establishment of this company was vindicated in the clearest manner by sir Josiah Child, and other able advocates, yet 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 Indostan, damped the ardour of the public to support it; so that at the time of the Revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very bad situation. This was in a great measure owing to its having no parliamentary sanction, whereby its stock often sold for one half less than it was really worth; and it was resolved that a new company should be erected, under the authority of parliament.

The opposition given to all the public-spirited measures of king William, by faction, rendered this proposal a matter of difficulty; but at last, after many parliamentary enquiries, the new subscription prevailed; and the subscribers, upon advancing two millions to the public at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a great interest both in the parliament and 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, the yearly fund of 8 per cent. for two millions, was reduced to 5 per cent. by a loan of 1,200,000*l.* to the public, without any additional interest; for which consideration the company obtained a prolongation of its exclusive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of "The United Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies." Its exclusive right of trade was prolonged from time to time; and a further sum was lent by the company in 1730, by which, though their privileges were extended for thirty-three years, yet the interest of their capital, which then amounted to 3,190,000*l.* was reduced to three per cent. and called the India 3 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 as is too often the case, pretended. A proprietor of stock to the amount of 1000*l.* whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council. Two thousand pounds is the qualification for a director: the directors are twenty-four in number, including the chairman and deputy-chairman, who may be re-elected in turn, six a year, for four years successively. The meetings, or court of directors, are to be held at least once a week; but are commonly oftener, being summoned as occasions require. Out of the body of directors are chosen several committees, who have the peculiar inspection of certain branches of the company's business; as the committee of correspondence, a committee of buying, a committee of treasury, a house committee, a committee of warehouse, a committee of shipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of law-suits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private trade; who have under them a secretary, cashier, clerks, and warehouse-keepers.

The amazing territorial acquisitions of this company, computed at the termination of the former war in India, to be 182,122 square miles, containing near eleven millions of people, with the addition of 21,580\* square miles, in the countries lately ceded by Tippoo Sultan, must be necessarily attended with a proportionable increase of trade †: and this, joined to the dissensions among its managers both at home and abroad, greatly engaged the attention of the legislature. A restriction

\* Rennell's Memoir of his Map of the Peninsula of India, p. 34.

† According to lists laid before the house of commons, the Company employed 110 ships and 8170 men.

Between India and Europe in carrying cargoes to and from	-	-	70 Ships and 7130 men,
			6 Packets -- 320
In the country trade and from China	:"	:"	34 Grabs -- 720

was

was occasionally laid on their dividends for a certain time. From a report of the committee, in 1773, appointed by parliament on India affairs, it appears that the India company, from the year 1708 to 1756, for the space of forty-seven years and a half, divided the sum of 12,000,000*l.* or above 280,000*l.* per annum, which on a capital of 3,190,000*l.* amounted to above eight and a half per cent: and that at the last mentioned period it appeared that, besides the above dividend, the capital stock of the company had been increased 180,000*l.* Considerable alterations were made in the affairs and constitution of the East India company by an act passed in 1773, intitled, "An act for establishing certain rules and orders, for the future management of the affairs of the East India company, as well in India as in Europe." It was thereby enacted, that the court of directors should, in future, be elected for four years: six members annually; but none to hold their seats longer than four years. That no person should vote at the election of the directors, who had not possessed their stock twelve months. That the stock of qualification should, instead of 500*l.* as it had formerly been, be 1000*l.* That the mayor's court at Calcutta should in future be confined to small mercantile causes, to which only its jurisdiction extended before the territorial acquisitions. That in lieu of this court, thus taken away, a new one be established, consisting of a chief justice and three puisne judges; and that these judges be appointed by the crown. That a superiority be given to the presidency of Bengal, over the other presidencies in India. That the right of nominating the governor and council of Bengal should be vested in the crown. The salaries of the judges were also fixed, at 8000*l.* to the chief justice, and 6000*l.* a year to each of the other three. The appointments of the governor-general and council were fixed, the first at 25,000*l.* and the four others at 10,000*l.* each annually.

In the month of November 1783, Mr. Fox, then secretary of state, brought forward a bill for new regulating the company, under the supposition of the incompetency of the directors, and the then insolvent state of the company. The intention of the bill was, to vest the whole powers of the East India company in *seven directors*, whose names were moved by the secretary of state, and adopted by the house of commons. They were to hold their offices four years, removable, like the twelve judges, by an address of either house of parliament, and not by any other power: and *nine gentlemen*, moved for and adopted in the same manner, were to assist them in managing the commercial affairs of the company.

The effect of this was, to vest in these seven directors the whole influence of the offices of every kind both in India and at home, belonging to the company; and the whole influence arising from their transactions in the purchase of goods for exportation, furnishing shipping, stores, and recruits; the influence arising from the method of selling their goods, by bringing forward or keeping back goods at the sales, or giving indulgencies as to payments, so as to accommodate those who were meant to be favoured; the influence arising from the favour they may shew to those who are now in England, and have left debts or effects in India, as to the mode of bringing home and recovering their fortunes; the influence of contracts of all kinds in India; of promotions, from step to step; of favour in the inland trade; of intimidation with respect to every person now there, who may come home with a fortune, with regard to recovering his debts, the means of remittance, and enquiries into his conduct; the influence upon foreign companies, or foreign states, who have establishments in that country, who, in return, may have the means of acting upon individuals in Britain; the influence upon the native princes of India, some of whom have already found the way of procuring the elections of members of parliament; and many other means of influence, which it is impossible to foresee, or to trace.

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The amount of the whole cannot be computed. It was called equal to two or three millions a year; but there can be no doubt that its magnitude was very great indeed, and that it might have produced very remarkable consequences.

This power was not, indeed, taken from the crown; but it was to be placed in new hands, independent, during four years, equally of the crown and of the people. These consequences were supposed necessarily to follow, that the whole power and patronage of India would be vested in the members of that present administration, not only during four years, but as long as India shall belong to this kingdom, and without any fear from a future parliament. The bill passed the commons, but, it seems, by the influence of the crown, an opposition was formed against it in the house of lords, as placing too dangerous a power in the hands of any men, and which would be sure to operate against the necessary power of the crown; and after long debates it was rejected by a majority of 19 peers. The consequence of this was the downfall of the ministry, and a general revolution of the cabinet.

A new bill passed at the close of the sessions, 1784, by which three things were intended. First, the establishing a power of control in this kingdom, by which the executive government in India is to be connected with that over the rest of the empire. Secondly; the regulating the conduct of the company's servants in India. Thirdly, the providing for the punishment of those guilty of malversation in office.

Accordingly, six persons were nominated by the king as commissioners for the affairs of India, of whom one of the secretaries of state and the chancellor of the exchequer for the time being shall be two, and the president is to have a casting vote. New commissioners are to be appointed at the pleasure of the crown. This board is to superintend and control all operations respecting the civil or military government or revenue of the British territorial possessions in the East Indies. The court of directors of the company are to deliver to this board all minutes and resolutions of themselves and of the courts of proprietors, and copies of all letters and instructions proposed to be sent abroad, for their approbation or alteration. The directors are still to appoint the servants abroad, but the king hath a power by his secretary of state to recall the governors and members of the councils, and all inferior magistrates. By this bill there is given to the governor and council of Bengal a control over the other presidencies in all public transactions; but the council of Bengal are subjected to the direction of the company at home, and except in cases of immediate danger and necessity, restrained from acting without orders received from hence.

Another object of the bill is the redress of the grievances of the natives of India; to provide for the payment of the just debts of the nabob of Arcot, which are a burthen on his country; to ascertain the indeterminate right and pretensions on which so many differences have arisen between him and the rajah of Tanjore, fomented by Europeans, and to deliver the zemindars, and other native landholders of India, from oppression.

A material part of this bill is directed also against the abuses said to have prevailed in the civil and military departments, enjoining a thorough revival of their establishment; together with a suppression of such places as are found to be useless, and of such expences as may be conveniently avoided. And, in order to prevent any delusive shew of retrenchment in the present motion, or any deviation from the wise system of œconomy at a future period, this reform is directed to be constantly submitted, in its whole state and progress, to parliament.

Cadets and writers had hitherto been sent to India in such numbers, as to remain a burthen upon the establishments of the company. No more of these are

now

now to be sent out, till their number is reduced within the proper complement, which is not to be exceeded in future.

The recommendations also of the directors to offices abroad are now rendered ineffectual; and a system is established, of succession by seniority. From this regulation necessarily flows a limitation of the age of persons entering upon the line of East India service from fifteen to twenty-two years; for, if no provision was made to prevent children being enrolled on the establishment, they might be brought by succession to many important employments before they arrived at manhood: or, on the other hand, persons advanced in years might be appointed to the stations of young men, for the sole purpose of repairing dissipated fortunes; and that without the prospect of being able to do it in the course of years by regular advancement and legal profit. On the same ground, and on that of preventing, as far as possible, the mischief of tainting the government of that continent, by introducing into it the parties of Great Britain, all persons who have resided five years in Europe, since their return from India, are precluded from any farther re-appointment to offices in that country.

The last body of regulations for the company's servants in India applies to offences committed in that country.

Security had been derived to Indian delinquents, from the circumstance of their offences being committed within the territories of Indian princes, so as not to come within the cognizance of the British government. This act provides against further evasions of this mischievous nature, by declaring the offence equally punishable in whatever territory of India it is committed. Under the specious name of *Presents*, the grossest extortion had frequently been practised; and all attempts to draw a line having proved nugatory, nothing remained but to put an entire stop to the practice. The act, therefore, of receiving presents, is declared to be in itself extortion, and punishable by law accordingly. Of the same kind with these are the regulations against disobedience of orders; and also against the bargaining for offices. Both of these offences are pronounced misdemeanours: and provision is made, that the guilty persons shall not compound for them with the company, nor ever be restored to appointments in their service.

To prevent, or more easily punish, the misconduct of the servants of the company, every person returning from India is, within the space of two calendar months after his return, to deliver in upon oath, before the barons of the exchequer, an inventory of all lands, tenements, goods, debts, monies, securities for money, &c. &c. specifying what part thereof was not acquired or purchased by property acquired in consequence of his residence in the East Indies. A duplicate is to be given to the court of directors, for the inspection of the proprietors of the company; and in case of a complaint within three years after the delivery of the inventory, that it is evasive, insufficient, or false, then the person is to be examined upon oath, in the exchequer, to such interrogatories as the court shall think fit, or be imprisoned; and if he hath been guilty of any omission or concealment to the value of 2000*l.* all his real and personal estate shall be forfeited, one moiety to the king, and the other to the united company. Any person who shall within the space of three years make discovery, on oath, of any part of the estate or property, real or personal, of any person delivering such an inventory, which shall have been concealed, shall, upon conviction of the person, be allowed ten per cent. of the value of the estate or effects so discovered. It is also, by this bill, lawful for the attorney-general, or court of directors, to exhibit an information against any person guilty of the crime of extortion or other misdemeanors committed in the East Indies, which information is to be tried by commissioners.

Soon after the passing of this act, Mr. Dundas, who had long given unwearied application to the affairs of India, being placed at the head of the board of con-  
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troul, introduced the laudable practice of bringing annually before a committee of the house of commons, a statement of the financial concerns of the company abroad, exhibiting the balance upon the comparison of the revenues and charges of the several settlements. As the company's right to their exclusive trade was, by an act passed in 1781, to terminate in March 1794, it became necessary to make provision for that event; which was effectually done by Mr. Dundas's bill, proposed the 25th February 1793; which meeting the approbation of parliament, had the singular good fortune of giving equal satisfaction to the public, and to the company; to the public, because instead of 400,000*l.* they were to receive 500,000*l.* per ann. from the revenues of India; and to the company, because they were still to preserve their power and privileges, in as far as these contributed to promote the interests of their commerce.

This salutary regulation proceeded on the principle, that the concerns of government and trade were to intimately blended in our Indian provinces, (it being by trade only that the revenues of India can be realized in Europe) that the two objects could not be separated without putting both to hazard, nor in any event without incurring great inconvenience and certain loss. Both the political and the commercial affairs of the company were to remain, therefore, for the term of twenty years under the management of the court of directors, subject to the controul of the executive power, itself responsible to parliament: the governor-general of Bengal was to appear in India, under the character of an absolute prince, to preside not only in the council of Calcutta, but in the councils of Madras and Bombay, when affairs called him thither, and his commands were to be obeyed over the whole of our Indian dominions, spreading over an extent of territory, little inferior to that of Europe. But while the governor-general thus displayed in Asia, a character analogous to the feelings and habits of thinking of the natives, and therefore essential to the efficiency of his government, he was still responsible for every act of his administration, from which he might be removed at pleasure, by the executive power at home; while he remained in Asia, he was to obey implicitly the orders sent to him from Britain; the inferior governors, with all the boards and tribunals, respecting the concerns of justice, police, revenue, and trade, were accountable in the first instance to the governor-general, and amenable in the next place to the laws of Great Britain. The magistrates who superintended the police, and the officers who collected the revenues, were no longer to be entrusted with the distribution of justice, and the judging and punishing of crimes; powers which in their hands, might have been employed as engines of oppression. The Mahomedans and Hindoos were to preserve their own religion and laws; and without offering violence to their feelings or prejudices by sudden innovations, means were to be employed for engrafting slowly, but firmly, on an Asiatic stock, the equity and liberality which distinguish the English laws, and the enlightened domestic policy which has raised this island to unrivalled prosperity.

The information which preceded or accompanied this salutary bill, gave the most favourable view of the company's affairs, and of the great national benefits which have already accrued, and which might be expected in future to flow in still greater abundance from the Indian trade and territory. The revenues of the countries ceded to the company by Tippoo Sultan, were stated at 390,000*l.* and the future revenues of the British possessions in India, were estimated at nearly 7,000,000*l.* leaving a net surplus, after deducting the interest on the debts in India and the civil, military, and commercial charges of 1,059,000*l.* per ann. The annual sales of India goods in Europe, are estimated at nearly 5,000,000*l.* which exceeds the prime cost and charges by 743,600*l.* and the net surplus on the whole of the revenues and trade of the East India company, after paying eight per cent. dividend on the capital stock of five millions, is estimated at 1,239,241*l.* per ann.

BANK

**BANK OF ENGLAND.]** The company of the Bank was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governors and Company of the Bank of England; in consideration of the loan of 1,200,000*l.* granted to the government; for which the subscribers received almost 8 per cent. By this charter the company are not to borrow under their common seal, unless by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or suffer any person in trust for them to trade, in any goods or merchandize; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or selling bullion, and in foreign gold and silver coin.

By an act of parliament, passed in the 8th and 9th year of Will. III. they were impowered to enlarge their capital stock to 2,201,171*l.* 10*s.* It was then also enacted that the Bank stock should be a personal, and not a real estate; that no contract, either in word or writing, for buying or selling Bank stock, should be good in law, unless registered in the books of the Bank within seven days, and the stock transferred in fourteen days, and that it should be felony, without the benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common seal of the Bank, or any Bank note, or to alter or erase such notes.

By another act, passed in the 7th of queen Anne, the company were impowered to augment their capital to 4,402,343*l.* and they then advanced 400,000*l.* more to the government; and in 1714 they advanced another loan of 1,500,000*l.*

In the third year of the reign of king George I. the interest of their capital stock was reduced to 5 per cent. when the Bank agreed to deliver up as many exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000*l.* and to accept an annuity of 100,000*l.* and it was declared lawful for the Bank to call from their members, in proportion to their interests in their capital stock, such sums of money as in a general court should be found necessary. If any member should neglect to pay his share of the monies so called for, at the time appointed, by notice in the London Gazette, and fixed upon the Royal Exchange, it should be lawful for the Bank, not only to stop the dividend of such member, and to apply it toward payment of the money in question; but also to stop the transfers of the share of such defaulter, and to charge him with the interest of five per cent. per annum, for the money so omitted to be paid; and if the principal and interest should be three months unpaid, the Bank should then have power to sell so much of the stock belonging to the defaulter as would satisfy the same.

After this, the Bank reduced the interest of the 2,000,000*l.* lent to the government, from 5 to 4 per cent, and purchased several other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government, and the national debt due to the Bank reduced to 1,600,000*l.* But in 1742, the company engaged to supply the government with 1,600,000*l.* at 3 per cent. which is now called the 3 per cent. annuities; so that the government was now indebted to the company 3,00,000*l.* the one half carrying 4, and the other 3 per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the sum of 986,800*l.* due to them in the Exchequer bills unsatisfied, on the duties for licences to sell spirituous liquors by retail, should be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept of an annuity of 39,442*l.* the interest of that sum at 4 per cent. The company also agreed to advance the farther sum of 1,000,000*l.* at 4 per cent. into the exchequer, for exchequer bills issued upon the credit of the duties arising from the malt and land-tax; in consideration of which, the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800*l.* the interest of which, as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to three and a half per cent. till the 25th of December, 1757, and from that time to carry only 3 per cent.

In order to enable them to circulate the said exchequer bills, they established what is now called Bank circulation: the nature of which may be explained thus:

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The company of the Bank are obliged to keep cash sufficient to answer not only the common, but also any extraordinary demand that may be made upon them; and whatever money they have by them, over and above the sum supposed necessary for these purposes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to say, in discounting bills of exchange, in buying gold and silver, and in government securities, &c. But when the Bank entered into the above mentioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger sum of money than what they deemed necessary to answer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current cash so large a sum as a million, with which they were obliged to furnish the government, without either lessening the sum employed in discounting, buying gold and silver, &c. (which would have been very disadvantageous to them), or inventing some method that should answer all the purposes of keeping the million in cash. The method which they chose, and which fully answers their end, was as follows:

They opened a subscription, which they renew annually, for a million of money; the subscribers advance 10 per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever the Bank shall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. so advanced; in consideration of which, the Bank pays the subscriber 4 per cent. interest for the money paid in, and one fourth per cent. for the whole sum they agree to furnish; and in case a call should be made upon them for the whole, or any part thereof, the Bank farther agrees to pay them at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum for such sum, till they repay it, which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the Bank obtains all the purposes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the subscribers, if no call is made upon them (which is in general the case), receive six and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the sum of 23,500l. per annum by the contract; as will appear by the following account:

The Bank receives from the government, for the advance of a million,	} £. 30,000
The Bank pays to the subscribers who advance, 100,000l. and engage to pay (when called for) 900,000l. more	} 6,500
The clear gain to the Bank therefore is	<u>23,500</u>

This is the state of the case, provided the company should make no call on the subscribers, which they will be very unwilling to do, because it would not only lessen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

Bank stock may not improperly be called a trading stock, as with this they deal very largely in foreign gold and silver, in discounting bills of exchange, at four per cent, until 1773, when it was advanced to five. Besides which they are allowed by government very considerable sums annually for the management of the annuities paid at their office. All which advantages render a share in their stock very valuable; though it is not equal in value to the East India stock. The company make dividends of the profits half-yearly, of which notice is publicly given; when those who have occasion for their money may readily receive it: but private persons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their interest added to the principal\*.

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general court, in the same manner

\* The Bank company is supposed to have twelve millions of circulating paper.

as in the East India company. Thirteen, or more, compose a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company.

**SOUTH SEA COMPANY.]** During the long war with France, in the reign of queen Anne, the payment of the sailors of the royal navy being neglected, they received tickets instead of money, and were frequently obliged, by their necessities, to sell these tickets to avaricious men at a discount of 40l. and sometimes 50l. per cent. By this and other means the debts of the nation unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of these usurers. On which Mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the Exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, proposed a scheme to allow the proprietors of these debts and deficiencies 6l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them for the purpose of carrying on a trade to the South Sea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of "the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain trading to the South Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the Fishery, &c."

Though this company seem formed for the sake of commerce, the ministry never thought seriously, during the course of the war, about making any settlement on the coast of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the Alliance, in pursuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furnishing the Spaniards with Negroes; of which this company was deprived, upon receiving 100,000l. in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great Britain and Spain, soon after the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748.

Some other sums were lent to the government, in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the interest of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and the company advanced two millions more to the government at the same interest. By the statute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that they might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in consideration of which, the company were empowered to augment their capital according to the sums they should discharge: and for enabling them to raise such sums for purchasing annuities, exchanging for ready money new Exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. they might, by such means as they should think proper, raise such sums of money as in a general court of the company should be judged necessary. The company were also empowered to raise money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations, under their common seal, on the credit of their capital stock. But if the sub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, should purchase lands or revenues of the crown upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation on any branch of the revenue, other than such part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, such sub-governor, or other member of the company, should forfeit treble the value of the money so lent.

The fatal South Sea scheme, transacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the last mentioned statute. The company had at first set out with good success, and the value of their stock, for the five years, had risen faster than that of any other company; and his majesty, after purchasing 10,000l. stock, had condescended to be their governor. Things were in this situation, when, taking advantage of the above statute, the South Sea bubble was projected. The pretence was, to raise a fund for carrying on a trade to the South Sea, and purchasing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and proposals were printed and distributed, shewing the advantages of this design. The sum necessary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to arise from it, were divided into a certain number of shares, or subscriptions, to be purchased by persons disposed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared, that every 100l. original stock would yield 50l. per annum: which occasioned so great a rise of their stock, that a share of 100l. was sold for upwards of

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800l. This was in the month of July; but before the end of September it fell to 150l. by which multitudes were ruined. Most of the directors were severely fined, because even those who had no share in the deception, ought to have foreseen and prevented it.

By a statute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital stock of this company, which amounted to 14,651,103l. 8s. 1d. and the shares of the respective proprietors, should be divided into four equal parts; three-fourths of which should be converted into a joint-stock, attended with annuities, after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption, by parliament, and should be called the New South Sea annuities; and the other fourth part should remain in the company as a trading capital stock, attended with the residue of the annuities or funds payable at the Exchequer to the company for their whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the same sums allowed for the charge of management, with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages, belonging to the South Sea company. That the accountant of the company should, twice every year, at Christmas, and Midsummer, or within one month after, state an account of the company's affairs, which should be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend: and all dividends should be made out of the clear profits, and should not exceed what the company might reasonably divide without incurring any farther debt; provided that the company should not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum, until their debts were discharged; and the South-Sea company, and their trading stock, should, exclusively from the new joint stock of annuities, be liable to all the debts and incumbrances of the company; and that the company should cause to be kept, within the city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities should be entered, and signed by the party making such transfer, or his attorney; and the person to whom such transfer should be made, or his attorney, should underwrite his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities should be good in law.

The annuities of this company, as well as the other are now reduced to 3l. per cent.

This company is under the direction of a governor, sub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no person is qualified to be governor, his majesty excepted, unless such governor has, in his own name and right, 5000l. in the trading stock; the sub-governor is to have 4000l. the deputy-governor 3000l. and a director 2000l. in the same stock. In every general court, every member having in his own name and right 500l. in trading stock, has one vote; if 2000l. two votes; if 3000l. three votes, and if 5000l. four votes.

The East India company, the Bank of England, and the South Sea company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the Million Bank, whose capital is only one million, constituted to purchase the rever- sion of the long Exchequer orders.

The interest of all the debts owing by the government was lately reduced to 3 per cent. excepting only the annuities for the year 1758, the life annuities, and the Exchequer orders: but the South-Sea company still continues to divide 4 per cent. on their present capital stock; which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the sums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the interest of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

As the prices of the different stocks are continually fluctuating above and below *par*, so when a person, who is not acquainted with transactions of that nature, reads in the papers the prices of stocks, where Bank stock is marked perhaps 127, India ditto 134 a 134½, South Sea ditto, 97½, &c. he is to understand that 100l. of those respective stocks fell at such a time for those several sums.

In comparing the prices of the different stocks one with another, it must be remembered, that the interest due on them from the time of the last payment, is taken into the current price, and the seller never receives any separate consideration for it, except in the case of India bonds, where the interest due is calculated to the day of the sale, and paid by the purchaser, over and above the premium agreed for. But as the interest on the different stock is paid at different times, this, if not rightly understood, would lead a person, not well acquainted with them, into considerable mistakes in his computation of their value; some always having a quarter's interest due in them more than others, which makes an appearance of a considerable difference in the price, when in reality there is none at all. Thus, for instance, Old South Sea annuities sell for 85*l.* or 85*l.* 10*s.* while New South Sea annuities fetch only 84*l.* or 84*l.* 15*s.* though each of them produces the same annual sum of 3 per cent; but the old annuities have a quarter's interest more due on them than the new annuities, which amounts to 15*s.* the exact difference. There are also considerations that will make one species of annuities sell somewhat lower than another, though of the same real value; one of which is, the annuities making but a small capital, and there not being, for that reason, so many people at all times ready to buy into that fund, as into others, where the capital is larger; because it is apprehended that whenever the government pays off the national debt, it will begin with that particular species of annuity, the capital of which is the smallest.

A stock may likewise be affected by the court of Chancery; for if that court should order the money which is under its direction to be laid out in any particular stock, that stock, by having more purchasers, will be raised to a higher price than any other of the like value.

By what has been said, the reader will perceive how much the credit and the interest of the nation depend on the support of the public funds, of which more particulars will be given under the article REVENUES. While the annuities are regularly paid, and the principal insured by the credit of both prince and people, foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be interested in our welfare; the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandise, and Great Britain can never want cash to carry her schemes into execution. In other nations, credit is founded on the word of the prince, if a monarchy; or that of the people, if a republic; but here it is established on the united interests of both, and to hold men by their interests, is deemed the surest tenure.

CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] Tacitus, in describing such a constitution as that of England, seems to think, that however beautiful it may be in theory, it would be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved his mistake; for by contrivances unknown to antiquity, the English constitution has existed for above 500 years. It must be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and suffered some interruptions: but its principles are the same with those described by the above mentioned historian, as belonging to the Germans, and the other northern ancestors of the English nation, and which are very improperly blended under the name of Gothic. On the first invasion of England by the Saxons, who came from Germany and the neighbouring countries, their laws and manners were pretty much the same as those celebrated by Tacitus. The people had a leader in time of war. The conquered lands, in proportion to the merits of his followers, and their abilities to serve him, were distributed among them; and the whole was considered as the common property which they were to unite in defending against all invaders. Fresh adventurers coming over, under separate leaders, the old inhabitants were driven into Wales; and those leaders, at last, assumed the title of kings over the several districts they had conquered. This change of appellation made them more respectable among the Britons, and their

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neighbour the Scots and Picts, but did not increase their power, which was still confined to military affairs.

All civil matters were proposed in a general assembly of the military officers and the people, till, by degrees, sheriffs and other civil officers were appointed. To Alfred we owe that masterpiece of judicial polity, the subdivision of England into wapentakes and hundreds, and the subdivision of hundreds into tythings, names that still subsist in England; and overseers were chosen to direct them for the good of the whole. The sheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters within the county, and to him, after the introduction of Christianity, was added the bishop. In process of time, as business multiplied, itinerant and other judges were appointed; but by the earliest records, it appears that all civil matters were decided by 12 or 16 men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the dispute lay; and here we have the original of English juries. It is certain that they were in use among the earliest Saxon colonies, the institution being ascribed by bishop Nicholson to Woden himself, their great legislator and captain. Hence we find traces of juries in the laws of all those countries which adopted the feudal system, as in Germany, France, and Italy; which had a tribunal composed of 12 good men and true, equals or peers of the party litigant. In England we find mention made of them so early as the laws of king Ethelred, and that not as a new invention.

Before the introduction of Christianity, we know not whether the Saxons admitted of juries in criminal matters; but we are certain that there was no action so criminal as not to be compensated by money\*. A *mulct* was imposed in proportion to the guilt, even if it was the murder of the king, upon the malefactor, and by paying it he purchased his pardon. Those barbarous usages seem to have ceased soon after the Saxons were converted to Christianity; and cases of murder and felony were then tried, even in the king's court, by a jury.

Royalty, among the Saxons, was not, strictly speaking, hereditary, though in fact it came to be rendered so through the affection which the people bore for the blood of their kings, and for preserving the regularity of government. Even estates and honours were not strictly hereditary, till they were made so by William the Norman.

That prince, though he made considerable innovations in the English constitution, and is generally styled the Conqueror, in consequence of the victory which he obtained over Harold at the battle of Hastings, yet before ascending the throne he made a compact with his new subjects, by his coronation oath, the same with that of the Saxon kings. His administration was, however, tyrannical in a very great degree; but the constitution established under him in this kingdom was not absolute monarchy, but rather an ingraftment of the feudal tenures and other customs of Normandy upon the ancient Saxon laws of Edward the Confessor. He more than once swore to maintain those laws; and in the fourth year of his reign confirmed them in parliament; yet not without great alterations, to which the whole legislature agreed, by a more complete introduction of the strict feudal law, as it was practiced in Normandy; which produced a different political system, and changed both power and property in many respects; though the first principles of that law, and general notions of it, had been in use among the English some ages before. It must, indeed, be admitted, that William divided many of the English estates among his Norman followers, under pretence that their former owners had fought against him at the battle of Hastings; and he portioned out the lands into knights fees, an indetermined number of which formed a barony, and those baronies were given to the great noblemen who composed what is called the King's Court, or

\* Called by the Saxons *GUELTY*, and thence the word *guilty* in criminal trials.

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Court of Peers, from every baron being a peer, or equal to another. In this court all civil, as well as military matters, and the proposition of knights and men, which each baron was to raise for the king's service, were settled. Even bishopricks were converted into lay baronies, and were obliged, as others, to furnish their quotas. In many respects, the first princes of the Norman line afterwards did all they could to efface from the minds of the people the remembrance of the Saxon constitution; but the attempt was to no purpose. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints against the crown, and after much war and bloodshed, the famous charter of English liberties, so well known by the name of Magna Charta, was forcibly obtained from king John, and confirmed by his son Henry III. who succeeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear, that till this reign, and after much blood had been spilt, the commons of England were represented in parliament, or the great council of the nation; so entirely had the barons engrossed the disposal of property.

The precise year when the house of commons was formed is not known; but we are certain there was one in the reign of Henry III. though we shall not enter into any disputes about their specific powers\*. We therefore now proceed to describe the CONSTITUTION as it stands at present.

In all states there is an absolute supreme power, to which the right of legislation belongs; and which, by the admirable constitution of these kingdoms, is vested in the king, lords, and commons.

OF THE KING.] The supreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland is vested by our constitution in a single person, king or queen; for it is indifferent to which sex the crown descends: the person entitled to it is immediately intrusted with all the ensigns, rights, and prerogatives of sovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim upon which the right of succession to the throne of these kingdoms depends, is: "that the crown, by common law and constitutional custom, is hereditary; and this in a manner peculiar to itself; but that the right of inheritance may be limited by act of parliament: under which limitations the crown still continues hereditary."

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the following royal succession, by its being transferred from the house of Tudor to that of Stuart, it may be proper to inform him, that on the death of queen Elizabeth, without issue, it became necessary to recur to the other issue of her grandfather Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York his queen: whose eldest daughter Margaret, having married James IV. king of Scotland; king James the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the First, was the lineal descendant from that alliance. So that in his person, as clearly as in Henry VIII. centered all the claims of the different competitors from the Norman invasion downward; he being indisputably the lineal heir of William I. And what is still more remarkable, in his person also centered the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been suspended from the Norman invasion till his succession; for Margaret the sister of Edgar Atheling, the daughter of Edward the

\* Judge Blackstone maintains, that a great or general council of the realm hath been held immemorially under the several names of *michel fynch*, or great council; *michel-gemote*, or great meeting; and more frequently *witena-gemote*, or the meeting of wise men. It was also styled in Latin *commune concilium regni*, and sometimes *communis regni Anglie*. We have instances of its meeting to order the affairs of the kingdom, to make new laws and amend the old, so early as the reign of Ina king of the West Saxons, A.D. 725, Offa, king of the Mercians, and Ethelbert king of Kent, in their several realms of the heptarchy. The Mix-

nova informs us, that king Alfred ordained for a perpetual usage, that these councils should meet twice a year or oftener if need be. Our succeeding Saxon and Danish monarchs held frequent councils of this sort, as appears from their respective codes of laws. There is also no doubt but these great councils were held regularly under the first princes of the Norman line; for in Edward the Third's time, an act of parliament made in the reign of William the Conqueror, was pleaded in the case of the Abbey of St. Edmundsbury, and judicially allowed by the court.

Outlaw,

Outlaw, and grand-daughter of king Edmund Ironside, was the person in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings, supposing it not abolished by the Conquest, resided. She married Malcolm III. king of Scotland; and Henry II. by a descent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the restorer of the Saxon line. But it must be remembered, that Malcolm by his Saxon queen, had sons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offspring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of this royal family king James I. was the lineal descendant; and therefore united in his person every possible claim by hereditary right, to the English as well as Scottish throne, being the heir both of Egbert and William the Norman.

At the Revolution in 1688, the convention of estates or representative body of the nation, declared, that the misconduct of James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant.

In consequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next Protestant heirs of the blood royal of king Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of succession; with a temporary exception, or preference to the person of king William III.

On the impending failure of the Protestant line of king Charles I. (whereby the throne might again have become vacant) the king and parliament extended the settlement of the crown to the Protestant line of king James I. viz. to the princess Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being protestants; and she is now the common stock, from whom the heirs of the crown descend\*.

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\* A Chronology, of English Kings, from the time that this country became united under one monarch, in the person of Egbert, who subdued the other princes of the Saxon heptarchy, and gave the name of Angle-land to this part of the Island, the Saxons and Angles having, about four centuries before, subdued the ancient Britons, whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

Began to reign.

800 Egbert	} Saxon Princes.
838 Ethelwolf	
857 Ethelbald	
860 Ethelbert	
866 Ethelred	
871 Alfred the Great	
901 Edward the Elder	
925 Athelstan	
941 Edmund	
946 Edred	
955 Edwy	
959 Edgar	
975 Edward the Martyr	
978 Ethelred II.	
1016 Edmund II. or Ironside	} Danish.
1017 Canute, king of Denmark	
1035 Harold	
1039 Hardicanute	} Saxon.
1041 Edward the Confessor	
1065 Harold	} (Commonly called the Conqueror) duke of Normandy, a province facing the south of England, now annexed to the French monarchy.
1066 William I.	
1087 William II.	} Sons of the Conqueror.
1100 Henry I.	
1135 Stephen, grandson to the Conqueror, by his fourth daughter Adela.	} (Plantagenet) grandson of Henry I. by his daughter the empress Maud, and her second husband Geoffry Plantagenet, the eldest son of the count of Anjou.
1154 Henry II.	
1189 Richard I.	} Sons of Henry II.
1199 John	
1216 Henry III. son of John.	
1272 Edward I. son of Henry III.	

1307 Ed-

1714 George  
1727 George  
1760 George

The true ground and principle, upon which the Revolution proceeded, was entirely a new case in politics, which had never before happened in our history; the abdication of the reigning monarch, and the vacancy of the throne thereupon. It was not a defeasance of the right of succession, and a new limitation of the crown, by the king and both houses of parliament: it was the act of the nation alone, upon a conviction that there was no king in being; for, in a full assembly of the lords and commons, met in convention upon the supposition of this vacancy, both houses constituted the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and by the advice of Jesuits, and other wicked persons, having violated the fundamental laws; and having withdrawn himself out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government, and that the throne is thereby vacant." Thus ended at once, by this sudden and unexpected revolution, the old line of succession: which from the Norman invasion had lasted above 600 years, and from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert, almost 900.

Though in some few points the revolution was not so perfect as might have been wished, yet from thence a new æra commenced, in which the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been better defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and understood, and the rights of the subject more explicitly guarded by legal provisions, than in any other period of the English history. It is worthy of observation, that the convention avoided with great wisdom the extremes into which the visionary theories of some zealous republicans would have led them.

- Began to reign.
- 1307 Edward II. son of Edward I.
- 1327 Edward III. son of Edward II.
- 1377 Richard II. grandson of Edward III. by his eldest son, the Black Prince.
- 1399 Henry IV. } Son to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, fourth son to Edward III. } House of Lancaster.
- 1413 Henry V. son of Henry IV.
- 1422 Henry VI. son of Henry V.
- 1461 Edward IV. descended from Edward III. by Lionel his 3d son. } House of York.
- 1483 Edward V. son of Edward IV.
- 1483 Richard III. brother of Edward IV.
- 1485 Henry VII. } (Tudor son of the countess of Richmond, of the house of Lancaster. } House of Tudor in whom were united the houses of Lancaster and York, by Henry VII.'s marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.
- 1509 Henry VIII. son of Henry VII.
- 1547 Edward VI. son of Henry VIII.
- 1553 Mary } Daughters of Henry VIII.
- 1558 Elizabeth }
- 1603 James I. } Great grandson of James IV. king of Scotland, by Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. and first of the Stuart family in England.
- 1625 Charles I. son of James I.
- Commonwealth, and protectorate of Cromwell.
- 1649 Charles II. } Sons of Charles I.
- 1685 James II. }
- 1688 } William III. nephew and son-in-law of James II.
- and Mary } Daughters of James II. in whom ended the Protestant line of Charles I. for James II. Pretender, who was excluded by act of parliament, which settled the succession in his death, were a son and a daughter, viz. Charles, who succeeded him, and the princess Elizabeth, who married the Elector Palatine, who took the title of king of Bohemia, and left a daughter, the princess Sophia, who married the duke of Brunswick Lunenburgh, by whom she had George, elector of Hanover, who ascended the throne, by act of parliament, expressly made in favour of his mother.
- 1702 Anne }
- 1714 George I. } House of Hanover.
- 1727 George II. son of George I.
- 1760 George III. grandson of George II. }

They held that the misconduct of king James amounted to an endeavour to subvert the constitution, and not to an actual subversion, or total dissolution of the government. They, therefore, very prudently voted it to amount to no more than an abdication of the government, and a consequent vacancy of the throne; whereby the government was allowed to subsist, though the executive magistrate was gone: and the kingly office to remain, though James was no longer king. Thus the constitution was kept entire; which, upon every sound principle of government, must otherwise have fallen to pieces, had so principal and constituent a part as the royal authority been abolished, or even suspended.

Hence it is easy to collect, that the title to the crown is at present hereditary, though not quite so absolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common stock or ancestor, from whom the descent must be derived, is also different. Formerly the common stock was king Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterward, in James I.'s time, the two common stocks united, and so continued till the vacancy of the throne in 1688: now it is the princess Sophia, in whom the inheritance was vested by the new king and parliament. Formerly the descent was absolute, and the crown went to the next heir without any restriction; but now, upon the new settlement, the inheritance is conditional; being limited to such heirs only, of the body of the princess Sophia, as are Protestant members of the church of England, and are married to none but Protestants.

In this due medium consists the true constitutional notion of right of succession to the imperial crown of these kingdoms. The extremes, between which it steers, have been found destructive to those ends for which societies were formed, and continued. Where the first magistrate, upon every succession, is elected by the people, and may by the express provision of the laws be deposed, (if not punished) by his subjects, this may sound like the perfection of liberty, and look well enough when delineated on paper; but in practice will be found always dangerous, often ruinous. On the other hand, divine indefeasible hereditary right, when joined with the doctrine of unlimited passive obedience, is of all constitutions the most thoroughly slavish and intolerable. But when such an hereditary right, as our laws have created and vested in the royal stock, is interwoven with those liberties which are equally the inheritance of the subject, this union will form a constitution, in theory the most beautiful of any, in practice the most approved, and, there is every reason to hope, in duration the most permanent. This constitution it is the duty of every Briton to understand, to revere, and to defend.

The principal duties of the king are expressed in his oath at the coronation, which is administered by one of the archbishops, or bishops of the realm, in the presence of all the people; who, on their parts, do reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown. This coronation oath is conceived in the following terms:

"*T.* archbishop, or bishop, shall say, Will you solemnly promise and swear, to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the statutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and customs of the same?—*The king or queen shall say,* I solemnly promise so to do.

"*Archbishop or bishop.* Will you to your power cause law and justice, in mercy, to be executed in all your judgments?—*King or Queen.* I will.

"*Archbishop or bishop.* Will you to the utmost of your power maintain the laws of God, the true profession of the gospel, and the Protestant reformed religion established by the law? And will you preserve unto the bishops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all such rights and privileges as by the law do or shall appertain unto them, or any of them?—*King or queen.* All this I promise to do.

"*After*

"After this the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy gospels, shall say, The things which I have here before promised, I will perform and keep: so help me God. And then kifs the book."

This is the form of the coronation oath, as it is now prescribed by our laws; and we may observe, that in the king's part, in this original contract, are expressed all the duties that a monarch can owe to his people; viz. to govern according to law; to execute judgment in mercy; and to maintain the established religion. With respect to the latter of these three branches, we may farther remark, that by the act of union, § Anne c. 8. two preceding statutes are recited and confirmed; the one of the parliament of Scotland, the other of the parliament of England, which enact, the former, that every king at his succession shall take and subscribe an oath, to preserve the Protestant religion, and Presbyterian church-government in Scotland: the latter that, at his coronation, he shall take and subscribe a similar oath, to preserve the settlement of the church of England within England, Ireland, Wales, and Berwick, and the territories thereunto belonging.

The king of Great Britain, notwithstanding the limitations of the power of the crown, is the greatest monarch reigning over a free people. His person is sacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treason to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himself, be deemed guilty of any crime, the law taking no cognizance of his actions, but only in the persons of his ministers, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it is very great, though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the ancient limits, or the boundaries prescribed by the constitution; he can make no new laws, nor raise any new taxes, nor act in opposition to any of the laws; but he can make war or peace; send and receive ambassadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, and fit out fleets; for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the suppression of rebellions; grant commissions to his officers both by sea and land, or revoke them at pleasure; dispose of all magazines, castles, &c. summon the parliament to meet, and when met, adjourn, prorogue, or dissolve it at pleasure; refuse his assent to any bill, though it had passed both houses; which, consequently, by such a refusal, has no more force than if it had never been moved; but this is a prerogative that the kings of England have very seldom chosen to exercise. He enjoys the right of choosing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of state, of the household, of the army, the navy, and the church: and in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. Such is the dignity and power of a king of Great Britain.

[OF THE PARLIAMENT.] Parliaments, or general councils, in some shape, are, as has been observed\*, of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this island, and coeval with the kingdom itself. Blackstone, in his valuable Commentaries, says, "it is generally agreed, that in the main the constitution of parliament, as it now stands, was marked out so long ago as the 17th of king John, A. D. 1215, in the great charter granted by that prince; wherein he promises to summon all archbishops, bishops, abbots, lords, and greater barons personally; and all other tenants in chief, under the crown, by the sheriff and bailiffs, to meet at a certain place, with forty days notice, to assess aids and scutages when necessary. And this constitution hath subsisted, in fact, at least from the year 1266, 49 Henry III. there being still extant writs of that date to summon knights, citizens, and burghers to parliament."

The parliament is assembled by the king's writs, and its sitting must not be intermitted above three years. Its constituent parts are, the king sitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three estates of the realm; the lords spiritual, the

\* See the note, page 255.

lords temporal (who sit together with the king in one house), and the commons, who sit by themselves in another. The king and these three estates together form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is said to be *caput, principium, et finis*. For upon their coming together the king meets them, either in person, or by representation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he also has alone the power of dissolving them.

It is highly necessary for preserving the balance of the constitution, that the executive power should be a branch, though not the whole, of the legislature. The crown cannot begin of itself any alterations in the present established law; but it may approve or disapprove of the alterations suggested and consented to by the two houses. The legislature therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own consent: since the law must perpetually stand as it now does, unless all the powers will agree to alter it. And herein consists the true excellence of the English government, that all the parts of it reciprocally checking each other's encroachments, each retains its due weight, and the constitution preserves its inalterable stability.

The lords spiritual consist of two archbishops and twenty-four bishops. The lords temporal consist of all the peers of the realm, the bishops not being in strictness held to be such, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers sit by descent, as do all ancient peers; some by creation, as do all the new-made ones: others, since the union with Scotland, by election, which is the case of the sixteen peers, who represent the body of the Scotch nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increased at will by the power of the crown.

A body of nobility is peculiarly necessary in our mixed constitution, in order to defend the rights of both the crown and the people. It creates and preserves that gradual scale of dignity, which proceeds from the peasant to the prince; rising like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminishing to a point as it rises. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to support the throne; and if that falls, they must also be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when in the last century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy, they also voted the house of lords to be useless and dangerous.

The commons consist of all such men of any property in the kingdom as have not seats in the house of lords; every one of which has a voice in parliament, either personally, or by his representatives\*. In a free state, every man, who is supposed a free agent, ought to be, in some measure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at least of the legislative power should reside in the whole body of the people. In so large a state as ours, it is very wisely contrived, that the people should do that by their representatives, which it is impracticable to perform in person: representatives, chosen by a number of minute and separate districts, wherein all the voters are, or easily may be, distinguished. The counties are therefore represented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands: the cities and boroughs are represented by citizens and burgesses, chosen by the mercantile part, or supposed trading interest of the nation †. The number of English representatives is 513, and

\* This must be understood with some limitation. Those who are possessed of land-estates, though to the value of only 4*s.* per annum, have a right to vote for members of parliament; as have most of the members of corporations, boroughs, &c. But there are very large trading towns, and populous places, which send no members to parliament; and of those towns which do send members, great numbers of the inhabitants have no votes. Many

thousand persons of great personal property, have, therefore, no representatives. Indeed, the inequality of the representation has been justly considered as one of the greatest imperfections in the English constitution.

† Copy of the bribery oath, which is administered to all persons before they poll:

" I do swear (or, heing one of the people called Quakers, do solemnly affirm)

of Scotch 45; in all 558. And every member, though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned, serves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general; not merely to serve his constituents, but also the commonwealth, and to advise his majesty, as appears from the writ of summons.

These are the constituent parts of a parliament, the king, the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons. Parts, of which each is so necessary, that the consent of all three is required to make any new law that should bind the subject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no statute; and to it no regard is due, unless in what relates to their own privileges.

The power and jurisdiction of parliament, says sir Edward Coke, is so transcendent and absolute, that it cannot be confined, either for causes or persons, within any bounds. It hath sovereign and uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all possible denominations, ecclesiastical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal: this being the place where that absolute despotic power, which must in all governments reside somewhere, is entrusted by the constitution of these kingdoms. All mischiefs and grievances, operations and remedies, that transcend the ordinary course of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new-model the succession to the crown; as was done in the reign of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter the established religion of the land; as was done in a variety of instances, in the reign of king Henry VIII. and his three children, Edward VI. Mary, and Elizabeth. It can change and create afresh even the constitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themselves; as was done by the act of union, and the several statutes for triennial and septennial elections. It can do every thing that is not naturally impossible; and therefore some have not scrupled to call its power by a figure rather too bold, the *omnipotence of parliament*. But then its power, however great, was given to it in trust, and therefore ought to be employed according to the rules of justice, and for the promotion of the general welfare of the people. And it is most essential to the liberties of the kingdom, that such members be delegated to this important trust, as are most eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and their knowledge; for it was a known apophthegm of the great lord treasurer Burleigh, "that England could never be ruined but by a parliament:" and, as sir Matthew Hale observes, this being the highest and greatest court, over which none other can have jurisdiction in the kingdom, if by any means a misgovernment should any way fall upon it, the subjects of this kingdom are left without all manner of legal remedy.

In order to prevent the mischiefs that might arise, by placing this extensive authority in hands that are either incapable, or else improper, to manage it, provision is made, that no one shall sit or vote in either house of parliament unless he be twenty-one years of age. To prevent innovations in religion and government, it is enacted that no member shall vote or sit in either house, till he hath, in the presence of the house, taken the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration; and subscribed and repeated the declaration against transubstantiation, the invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass. To prevent dangers that may arise to the kingdom from foreign attachments, connexions, or dependencies, it is enacted, that no alien, born out of the dominions of the crown of Great Britain, even

affirm) I have not received or had, by myself, or any person whatsoever in trust for me, or for my use and benefit, directly or indirectly, any sum or sums of money, office, place or employment, gift or reward, or any promise or security for any money, office, or employment, or gift, in order to give my vote at this election; and that I have not before been polled at this election. So help me God."

though

though he be naturalized, shall be capable of being a member of either house of parliament.

Some of the most important privileges of the members of either house are, privilege of speech, of person, of their domestics, and of their lands and goods. As to the first, privilege of speech, it is declared by the statute of 1 W. & M. ft. 2. c. 2. as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of speech, and debates, and proceedings in parliaments, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of parliament." And this freedom of speech is particularly demanded of the king in person, by the speaker of the house of commons, at the opening of every new parliament. So are the other privileges, of person, servants, lands, and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but also from legal arrests, and seizures by process from the courts of law. To assault by violence a member of either house, or his menial servants, is a high contempt of parliament, and as such punished with the utmost severity. Neither can any member of either house be arrested and taken into custody, nor served with any process of the courts of law; nor can his menial servants be arrested; nor can any entry be made on his lands; nor can his goods be distrained or seized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament\*.

The house of lords have a right to be attended, and consequently are, by the judges of the court of king's bench and common pleas, and such of the barons of the exchequer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made serjeants at law; as likewise by the masters of the court of chancery; for their advice in point of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings.

The speaker of the house of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord-keeper of the great seal, which dignities are commonly vested in the same person. Each peer has a right, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to enter his dissent on the journals of the house, with the reasons for such dissent; which is usually styled his protest. Upon particular occasions these protests have been so bold as to give offence to the majority of the house, and have therefore been expunged from the journals; but this is considered a violent measure.

The house of commons may be properly styled the grand inquest of Great Britain, empowered to enquire into all national grievances. The peculiar laws and customs of the house of commons relate principally to the raising of taxes, and the elections of members to serve in parliament. With regard to taxes, it is the ancient indisputable privilege, and the right of the house of commons, that all grants of subsidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their house, and be first bestowed by them; although their grants are not effectual until they have the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. The general reason given for this exclusive privilege of the house of commons is, that the supplies are raised upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone should have the right of taxing themselves. And so reasonably jealous are the commons of this privilege, that herein they will not suffer the other house to exert any power but that of rejecting; they will not permit the least alteration or amendment to be made by the lords to the mode of taxing the people by a money-bill. Under this appellation are included all bills by which money is directed to be raised upon the subject, for any purpose, or in any shape whatsoever; either for the exigencies of government, and collected from the kingdom in general, as the land-tax; or for private benefit, and collected in any particular district, as by turnpikes, parish-rates, and the like.

\* This exemption from arrests for lawful debts, was always considered by the public as a grievance. The lords and commons, therefore, generously relinquished their privilege by act of parliament in 1770; and members of both houses may now be sued like other debtors.

The method of making laws is much the same in both houses. In each house the act of the majority binds the whole: and this majority is declared by votes openly and publicly given; not as at Venice, and many other senatorial assemblies, privately or by ballot. This latter method may be serviceable to prevent intrigues, and unconstitutional combinations, but it is impossible to be practised in the house of commons, where every member's conduct is subject to the future censure of his constituents, and therefore should be openly submitted to their inspection.

To bring a bill into the house of commons, if the relief sought by it be of a private nature, it is first necessary to prefer a petition, setting forth the grievance desired to be remedied. This petition must be presented by a member, and, when founded on facts that may be in their nature disputed, is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and report it to the house; and then (or, otherwise, upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the house, without any petition. (In the house of lords, if the bill begins there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the state of the facts alleged, to see that all necessary parties consent, and to settle all points of technical propriety.) This is read a first time, and, at a convenient distance, a second time; and after each reading, the speaker explains to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question, whether it shall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be opposed, as the bill itself may at either of the readings; and, if the opposition succeeds, the bill must be dropt for that session.

After the second reading, it is committed, that is, referred to a committee; which is either selected by the house in business of small importance; or else, if the bill is a matter of great or national consequence, the house resolves itself into a committee of the whole house. A committee of the whole house is composed of every member; and, to form it, the speaker quits the chair, (another member being appointed chairman), and may sit and debate as a private member. In these committees, the bill is debated clause by clause, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and sometimes the bill entirely new-modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the house, with such amendments as the committee have made; and then the house reconsider the whole bill again, and the question is repeatedly put upon every clause and amendment. When the house has agreed or disagreed to the amendments of the committee, and sometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engrossed, or written in a strong gross hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment sewed together. When this is finished, it is read a third time, and amendments are sometimes then made to it; and if a new clause be added, it is done by tacking a separate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The speaker then again explains the contents; and, holding it up in his hands, puts the question, whether the bill shall pass? If this be agreed to, the title to it is then settled. After this, one of the members is directed to carry it to the lords, and desire their concurrence; who, attended by several more, carries it to the bar of the house of peers, and there delivers it to their speaker, who comes down from his woofack to receive it. If there passers through the forms, as in the other house (except engrossing, which is already done), and if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it passes *sub silentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it be agreed to, the lords send a message by two masters in chancery (or, sometimes, in matters of high importance, by two of the judges) that they have agreed to the same: and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment. But if any amendments are made, such amendments are sent down with the bill, to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons disagree to the amendments, a conference usually follows between

tween

tween members deputed from each house; who, for the most part, settle and adjust the difference: but if both houses remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is sent back to the lords by one of the members, with a message to acquaint them therewith. The same forms are observed, *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the house of lords. But when an act of grace or pardon is passed, it is first signed by his majesty, and then read once only in each of the houses, without any new engrossing or amendment. And when both houses have done with any bill, it is deposited in the house of peers, to wait the royal assent; except in the case of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is sent back to the house of commons. No expression can be inserted, nor the slightest alteration take place, till the speaker, or the chairman, puts the question; which, in the house of commons, is answered by *aye*, or *no*; and, in the house of peers, by *content*, or *not content*.

The giving the royal assent to bills is a matter of great form. When the king is to pass bills in person, he appears on his throne in the house of peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by his great officers of state, and heralds. A seat on the right hand of the throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England, formerly sat, is reserved for the prince of Wales. The other princes of the blood sit on the left hand of the king; and the chancellor on a close bench removed a little backwards. The viscounts and temporal barons, or lords, face the throne, on benches or wool-packs, covered with red cloth or baize. The bench of bishops runs along the house to the bar on the right hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. The chancellor and judges, on ordinary days, sit upon wool-packs between the barons and the throne. The common opinion is, that the house sitting on wool is symbolical of wool being formerly the staple commodity of the kingdom. Many of the peers, on solemn occasions, appear in their parliamentary robes. None of the commons have any robes, excepting the speaker, who wears a long black silk gown; and when he appears before the king, it is trimmed with gold.

The royal assent may be given two ways: 1. In person. When the king sends for the house of commons to the house of peers, the speaker carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and, in delivering them, he addresses his majesty in a solemn speech, in which he seldom fails to extol the generosity and loyalty of the commons, and to tell his majesty how necessary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this occasion, that the commons of Great Britain appear in their highest lustre. The titles of all bills that have passed both houses are read; and the king's answer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman-French. If the king consents to a public bill, the clerk usually declares, *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it so to be;" if to a private bill, *soit fait comme il est désiré*, "be it as it is desired." If the king refuses his assent, it is in the gentle language of *le roy l'avisera*, "the king will advise upon it." When a money-bill is passed, it is carried up and presented to the king by the speaker of the house of commons, and the royal assent is thus expressed, *le roy remercie ses loyaux sujets, accepte leur benevolence, et aussi le veut*, "the king thanks his loyal subjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it so to be." In case of an act of grace, which originally proceeds from the crown, and has the royal assent in the first stage of it, the clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the subject; *les prelates, seigneurs, et commons, en ce present parlement assemblez, au nom de tous vous autres sujets, remercient tres humblement votre majesté, et prient à Dieu vous donner en santé bonne vie et longue*; "the prelates, lords, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, in the name of all your other subjects, most humbly thank your majesty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the statute 33 Hen. 7. VIII. c. 21. the king may give his assent by letters patent under his great seal,

signed

signed with his hand, and notified, in his absence, to both houses assembled together in the high house, by commissioners, consisting of certain peers, named in the letters. And when the bill has received the royal assent in either of these ways, it is then, and not before, a statute or act of parliament.

This statute or act is placed among the records of the kingdom; there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law as was necessary by the civil law with regard to the emperor's edicts; because every man in England is, in judgment of law, party to the making of an act of parliament, being present by his representative. However, copies are usually printed at the king's press, for the information of the whole land.

An act of parliament, thus made, is the exercise of the highest authority that this kingdom acknowledges upon earth. It hath power to bind every subject in the land, and the dominions thereunto belonging; nay, even the king himself, if particularly named. And it cannot be altered, amended, dispensed with, suspended, or repealed, but in the same forms, and by the same authority of parliament: for it is a maxim in law, that it requires the same strength to dissolve as to create an obligation.

Such is the parliament of Great Britain; the source and guardian of our liberties and properties, the strong cement which binds the foundation and superstructure of our government, and the wisely concerted balance maintaining an equal poise, that no one part of the three estates overpower or distress either of the other.

From the above general view of the English constitution, it appears, that no security for its permanency, which men can devise, is wanting. If it should be objected, that parliaments may become so corrupted as to give up or betray the liberties of the people, the answer is, that parliaments, as every other body politic, are supposed to watch over their political existence as a private person does his natural life. If a parliament was to act treacherously to its constituents, it must become *sele de se*, an evil that no human provisions can guard against. But there are great resources of liberty in England; and though the constitution has been dangerously wounded, and sometimes overturned, yet its own innate powers have recovered, and still preserve it.

The king of England, besides his high court of parliament, has subordinate officers and ministers to assist him, who are responsible for their advice and conduct. They are named by the king, without either patent or grant; and on taking the necessary oaths, they become privy-counsellors during the life of the king that chooses them, but subject to removal at his pleasure.

The duty of a privy-counsellor appears from the oath of office, which consists of seven articles: 1. To advise the king according to the best of his cunning and discretion. 2. To advise for the king's honour and good of the public, without partiality through affection, love, need, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the king's counsel secret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and strengthen the execution of what shall be there resolved. 6. To withstand all persons who would attempt the contrary. And, lastly, in general, 7. To observe, keep, and do all that a good and true counsellor ought to do to his sovereign lord.

As no government can be so complete as to be provided with laws that may answer every unforeseen emergency, the privy-council, in such cases, must supply the deficiency. Upon great and urgent occasions, such as that of a famine, or the dread of one, they can supersede the operation of the law, if the parliament is not sitting; but this is considered as illegal, and an act of parliament must pass for the pardon and indemnification of those concerned.

Among the privy-counsellors, the two secretaries of state are more officially so than the others, as they are entrusted with the king's signet, and are supposed to

advise him in acts of government that may not be proper to be communicated even to a privy-counsellor; such as giving orders for secret expeditions, correspondence with foreign agents, securing traitors, and the like. The secretaryship of state is now held by two noblemen or gentlemen; formerly the king nominated three, but the office was not then of that consequence which it is now. Since the accession of the family of Hanover, we have likewise known three principal secretaries of state; but one of them was supposed to transact the affairs of Scotland, which are now often committed to other ministers. Upon the increase of the British colonies, a new board of trade was erected, and the first commissioner acted as secretary for the American affairs, but without that title. A third secretary of state was afterwards appointed for carrying on the American war, whose office ceased with the peace; the board of trade also hath been abolished as useless.

The office of secretary of state was formerly divided into a southern and a northern department. The southern contained France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiss Cantons, Constantinople, and, in short, all the states in the southern part. The northern comprehended the different states of Germany, Prussia, Poland, Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the Hanseatic towns. This distinction is now abolished; and there is one secretary for foreign, and another for domestic affairs.

The cabinet-council is a committee of the privy-council, consisting of a select number of ministers and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities, or attachment to the views of the court; but though its operations are powerful and extensive, a cabinet-council is not essential to the constitution of England.

This observation naturally leads me to mention the person who is so well known by the name of the *first minister*; a term unknown to the English constitution, though the office, in effect, is perhaps necessary. The constitution points out the lord high chancellor as minister, but the affairs of his own courts give him sufficient employment. When the office of first lord of the treasury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer in the same person, he is considered as first minister. The truth is, his majesty may make any of his servants his first minister. But though it is no office, yet there is a responsibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a post of difficulty and danger. I shall now take a short review of the nine great officers of the crown, who by their posts take place next to the princes of the royal family and the two primates.

The first is the lord high-steward of England. This is an office very ancient, and formerly was hereditary, or at least for life; but now, and for centuries past, it is exercised only occasionally; that is, at a coronation, or to sit as judge on a peer or peers, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations it is held for that day only, by some nobleman of the first rank. In cases of trials, it is exercised generally by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper; whose commission, as high steward, ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of office.

The lord high chancellor presides in the court of chancery, to moderate the severities of the law, in all cases where the property of the subject is concerned, and he is to determine according to the dictates of equity and reason. He is an officer of the greatest weight and power of any now subsisting in the kingdom, and is superior in precedence to every temporal lord. He is a privy-counsellor by his office, and, according to some, prolocutor of the house of lords by prescription. To him belongs the appointments of all justices of the peace; he is vintor in right of the king of all hospitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under the value of 20*l.* per annum in the king's books. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics; and hath the superintendance

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tendance of all charitable uses in the kingdom, over and above the extensive jurisdiction which he exercises in his judicial capacity in the court of chancery.

The post of lord high treasurer has of late been vested in a commission, consisting of five persons, who are called lords of the treasury; but the first commissioner is supposed to possess the power of lord high treasurer. He has the management and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the exchequer; as also the letting of the leases of all crown-lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the customs in the several parts of the kingdom. From this short view of his office, its importance may be easily understood; as he has, in fact, the public finances in his hands, besides the disposal of so great a number of lucrative places, that the bare catalogue of them would exceed the bounds we allot to a long article.

The lord president of the council was an officer formerly of great power, and hath precedence next after the lord chancellor and lord treasurer. His duty is to propose all the business transacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majesty is not present, all its debates and proceedings. It is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the number of American and West India causes, captures, and the like affairs, that come before the board; all which may be abridged, to the great conveniency of the subject, by an able president.

The office of lord privy seal consists in his putting the king's seal to all charters, grants, and the like, which are signed by the king, in order to their passing the great seal. The lord privy seal has likewise under his cognizance several other affairs, which do not require the great seal; and he is responsible if he should apply the privy seal to any thing against the law of the land.

The office of lord great chamberlain of England is hereditary to the duke of Ancafter's family. He attends the king's person, on his coronation, to dress him; he has likewise charge of the house of lords during the sitting of parliament; and of sitting up Westminster hall for coronations, trials of peers, or impeachments.

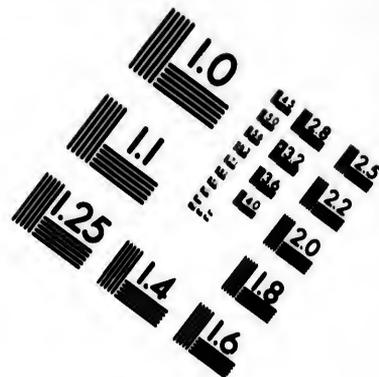
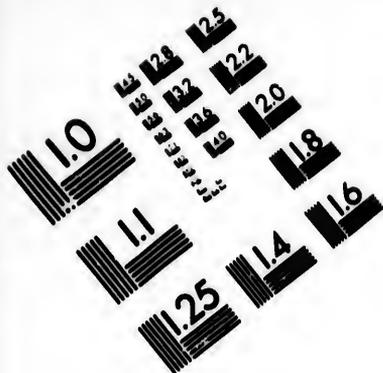
The office of lord high constable has been disused since the attainer and execution of Stafford duke of Buckingham, in the year 1521, but is occasionally revived for a coronation. It was formerly a place of the highest trust, as it commanded all the king's forts and garrisons, and took place of all officers in the field.

The duke of Norfolk is hereditary earl marshal of England. Before England became so commercial a country as it has been for a hundred years past, this office required great abilities, learning, and knowledge of the English history. In time of war he was judge of army-causes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cause did not admit of such a decision, it was left to a personal combat, which was attended with a variety of ceremonies; the arrangement of which fell within the marshal's province. To this day he, or his deputy, regulates all points of precedency according to the archives kept in the heralds' office, which is entirely within his jurisdiction. He directs all solemn processions, coronations, proclamations, general mournings, and the like.

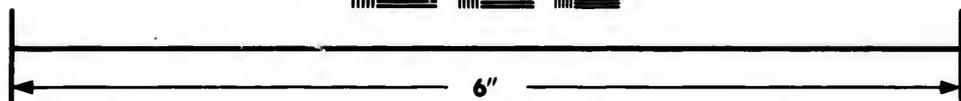
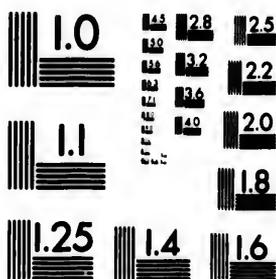
The office of lord high admiral of England\* is now likewise held by commission, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, especially since the increase of the British naval power. The English admiralty is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proceedings independent of the crown itself. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commission immediately issuing from that board; and the members, must sign even the death warrants for execution; but it may be easily conceived, that, as they are re-

\* The last lord high admiral was George prince of Denmark, and husband to queen Anne.





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moveable at pleasure, they do nothing that can interfere with the prerogative of the crown, and conform themselves to the directions they receive from his majesty. The board of admiralty regulates the naval force of the realm, and names all its officers, or confirms them when named; so that its jurisdiction is very extensive. They appoint vice-admirals under them; but an appeal from them lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nature: London is the place where it is held; and all its processes and proceedings run in the lord high admiral's name, or those of the commissioniers, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law, and its proceedings are according to the method of the civil law; but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at sea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witnesses and a jury, ever since the reign of Henry VIII. It now remains to treat of the courts of law in England.

[COURTS OF LAW.] The court of chancery, which is a court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is designed to relieve the subject against frauds, breaches of trust, and other oppressions; and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor sits as sole judge, and in his absence the master of the rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, answers, and decrees; the witnesses being examined in private: however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the persons of those concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and consequently, if a man refused to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than send him to the prison of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if a man be sent to prison, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he sees reason for it, grant a *habeas corpus*. The clerk of the crown likewise belongs to this court, he, or his deputy, being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he sits for the dispatch of business; through his hands pass all writs for summoning the parliament, or choosing of members; commissions of the peace, pardons, &c.

The King's Bench, so called either from the kings of England sometimes sitting there in person, or because all matters determinable by common law between the king and his subjects are here tried, except such affairs as properly belong to the court of Exchequer. This court is likewise a kind of checque upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and justices of the peace. Here preside four judges, the first of whom is styled lord chief justice of the king's bench, or, by way of eminence, lord chief justice of England, to express the great extent of his jurisdiction over the kingdom; for this court can grant prohibitions in any cause depending either in spiritual or temporal courts; and the house of peers does often direct the lord chief justice to issue out his warrant for apprehending persons under suspicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called justices or judges of the king's bench.

The court of Common Pleas take cognizance of all pleas debateable, and civil actions depending between subject and subject; and in it, besides all real actions, fines and recoveries are transacted, and prohibitions are likewise issued out of it, as well as from the King's Bench. The first judge of this court is styled lord chief justice of the Common Pleas, or common bench; beside whom there are likewise three other judges or justices of this court. None but serjeants at law are allowed to plead here.

The court of Exchequer was instituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and according to equity. In proceedings according to law, the lord chief baron of the Exchequer and three other barons preside as judges. They are styled barons, because formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Beside these, there is a fifth, called curfitor baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in administering the oath to sheriffs and their officers, and also to several of

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\* Sheriffs

the officers of the custom-house. But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the lord treasurer and the chancellor of the Exchequer preside, assisted by the other barons. All matters touching the king's treasury, revenue, customs, and fines, are here tried and determined. Besides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the Exchequer the king's remembrancer, who takes and states all accounts of the revenue, customs, excise, parliamentary aids and subsidies, &c. except the accounts of the sheriffs and their officers. The lord treasurer's remembrancer, whose business is to make out processes against sheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, a high-sheriff is annually appointed for every county (except Westmoreland and Middlesex) by the king\*; whose office is both ministerial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, and all writs directed to him out of the king's court of justice; to impanel juries, to bring causes and malefactors to trial, to see sentences, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed; and at the assize to attend the judges, and guard them while they are in his county. He is likewise to decide in the first instance, the elections of knights of the shire, or coroners, and of verderers; to judge, of the qualifications of voters, and to return such as he shall determine to be duly elected. It is also part of his office to collect all public fines, distresses and amerciaments into the Exchequer, or where the king shall appoint, and to make such payments out of them as his majesty shall think proper.

As his office is judicial, he keeps a court, called the county-court, to hear and determine all civil causes in the county, under forty shillings: this, however, is not now a court of record. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by common law and special commission, he is the first man in the county, and superior in rank to any nobleman therein, during his office. He may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *potestas comitatus*, or power of the county.

Under the sheriff are various officers; as the under-sheriff, clerks, stewards of courts, bailiffs (in London called serjeants), constables, gaolers, beadles, &c.

The next officer to the sheriff is the *justice of the peace*, several of whom are commissioned for each county: and to them is entrusted the power of putting great part of the statute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treasons, felonies, riots, the preservation of the game, &c. &c. They examine and commit to prison all who break or disturb the peace, and disquiet the king's subjects. In order to punish the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inquest of the county, is summoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to enquire into the cases of all delinquents, and to present them by bill guilty of the indictment, or not guilty: the justices commit the guilty to gaol for their trial at the next assizes. This is called the quarter-sessions for the county. The justice of peace ought to be a person of sagacity, and integrity, and not without some knowledge of the law; otherwise he will be apt to make mistakes, and to step beyond his authority, for which he is amenable to the court of king's bench.

Each county contains two *coroners*, who are to enquire by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any person came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another branch of his office is to enquire concerning shipwrecks, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in possession of the goods. In his ministerial office the coroner is the sheriff's substitute.

\* Sheriffs were formerly chosen by the inhabitants of the several counties. In some counties the sheriff's office was hereditary, and still continues in the county of Westmoreland. The city of London hath also the inheritance of the shirevalty of Middlesex vested in their body by charter.

The civil government of cities is a kind of small independant polity of itself; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a jurisdiction within itself, to judge in matters civil and criminal: with this restraint only, that all civil causes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Westminster; and all capital offences are committed to the judge of the assize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and constitutions. They are constituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgesses, who together make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor presides as judge. Some cities are counties, and chuse their own sheriffs; and all of them have a power of making bye-laws for their own government. Some have thought the government of cities, by mayor, aldermen, and common-council, is an epitome of the English government, by king, lords, and commons. The government of incorporated boroughs is nearly simular: in some there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs; who, during their mayoralty or magistracy, are justices of the peace within their liberties, and consequently esquires.

The cinque-ports are five havens, formerly esteemed most important ones, that lie on the east part of England toward France, as Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hastings, and Hythe, to which Winchelsea and Rye, have been since added, with simular franchises in many respects. These cinque-ports were endowed with particular privileges by our ancient kings, upon condition that they provide a certain number of ships at their own charge, to serve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the soil, or manor (who were formerly called barons), have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet and courts baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive justice. The business of courts-leet is chiefly to prevent and punish nuisances; and at courts-baron the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their estates on a descent or purchase.

A *constable* is a very ancient and respectable officer of the peace, under the English constitution. Every hundred has a high constable, and every parish in that hundred a constable; and they are to attend the high-constable upon proper occasions. They are assisted by another ancient officer, called the *tything-man*, who formerly superintended the tenth part of an hundred, or ten free burghs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, and each free burgh consisting of ten families. The business of constable is to keep the peace in all cases of quarrels and riots. He can prison offenders till they are brought before a justice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his district, every warrant directed to him from that magistrate, or a bench of justices. The neglect of the old Saxon courts, both for the preservation of the peace, and the more easy recovery of small debts, has been regretted by many eminent lawyers; and it has of late been found necessary to revive some of them, and to institute others of a simular nature.

Besides these, there are courts of conscience in many parts of England for the relief of the poor, in the recovery or payment of small debts, not exceeding forty shillings.

There neither is, nor ever was, any constitution provided with so many fences as that of England, for the security of personal liberty. Every man imprisoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge in Westminster-hall, called his Habeas Corpus. If that judge, after considering the cause of commitment, shall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned or acquitted in a proper court of justice.

The rights of individuals are so attentively guarded, that the subject may, without the least danger, sue his sovereign, or those who act in his name, and under his authority: he may do this in open court, where the king may be obliged to pay damages

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damages to his subject. The king cannot take away the liberty of the least individual, unless he has, by some illegal act, forfeited his right to liberty; or except when the state is in danger, and the representatives of the people think the public safety makes it necessary to confine persons suspected, and accused on oath. The king has a right to pardon; but neither he nor the judges, to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be first found guilty by twelve men, who must be his equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king, or his ministers, to misrepresent the case to the jury, they have now their salaries for life. Neither can the king take away, nor endanger the life of any subject without trial, and the persons being first charged with a capital crime, as treason, murder, felony, or some other act injurious to society; nor can any subject be deprived of his liberty, for the highest crime, till some proof of his guilt be given upon oath before a magistrate; and he has then a right to insist upon his being brought, the first opportunity, to a fair trial, or to be restored to liberty on giving bail for his appearance. If a man is charged with a capital offence, he must not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alleged to be committed, and not unless twelve of them agree to a bill of indictment against him. If they do this, he is to stand a second trial before twelve other men, whose opinion is definitive. By the 28 Edward III. it is enacted that where either party is an alien born, the jury shall be one half aliens, and the other denizens, if required, for the more impartial trial. A privilege indulged to strangers in no other country, but which is as ancient with us as the time of king Ethelred \*. In some cases, the man (who is always supposed innocent till there be sufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of his indictment, in order to help him to make his defence. He is also furnished with the pannel, or list of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters and discover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced against him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number †, and to as many more as he can give reason for their not being admitted as his judges; till at last twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accused, or living near the place where the supposed fact was committed, are approved of, who take the following oath, that they *shall well and truly try, and true deliverance make, between the king and the prisoners whom they shall have in charge, according to the evidence.* By challenging the jury, the prisoner prevents all possibility of bribery, or the influence of any superior power: by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are supposed to be men who knew the prisoner's course of life, and the credit of the evidence. Upon their integrity and understanding the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal: they are to be all of one mind, and after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the prisoner. Every jurymen is therefore invested with a solemn and awful trust: if he without evidence submits his opinion to that of any other of the jury, or yields in complaisance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the utmost care; if he questions the veracity of the witnesses, who may be of an infamous character; or, after the most impartial hearing, has the least doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the person accused; he will wound his own conscience, and bring upon himself the complicated guilt of perjury and murder. The freedom of Englishmen consists in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure them.

\* Statute de Moticolis Wallie.

† The party may challenge thirty-five, in case of treason.

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Were not this the case, tyranny might triumph over the lives and liberties of the subject.

Trial by jury being so great a security, it is much to be regretted, that persons of education and property are often too ready to evade serving the office. Those who, from indolence or pride, decline discharging this duty to their country, seem hardly to deserve that security and liberty which the inhabitants of England derive from this invaluable institution. Juries have, indeed, always been considered as giving the most effectual check to tyranny; for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing against law, they afford a security that he shall never make the laws, by a bad administration, the instruments of cruelty and oppression. Were it not for juries, the advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the republic of Venice, might take effect in its fullest latitude. "When the offence is committed by a nobleman against a subject, says he, let all ways be tried to justify him; if that be impossible, let him be chastised with greater noise than damage. If it be a subject that has assaulted a nobleman, let him be punished with the utmost severity, that the subjects may not get too great a custom of laying their hands on the Patrician order." But by our happy constitution, which breathes nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to the meanest as well as the greatest. When a prisoner is brought to take his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and though the judges are supposed to be his counsel, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cause, other counsel are allowed him; he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may set it aside, if it be contrary to law. Nothing is wanting to clear up the cause of innocence, and to prevent the sufferer from sinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppression of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly employed in other parts of Europe, to make a man accuse himself, are here unknown, and none punished without conviction, but he who refuses to plead in his own defence.

As the trial of malefactors in England is very different from that of other nations, the following account may be useful to foreigners and others, who have not seen those proceedings.

The court being met, and the prisoner called to the bar, the clerk commands him to hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accused, and asks him whether he is *guilty or not guilty*. If the prisoner answers *guilty*, his trial is at an end: but if he answers *not guilty*, the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may before have confessed the fact; for the law of England takes no notice of such confession; and unless the witnesses, who are upon oath, prove him guilty of the crime, the jury must acquit him: for they are directed to bring in their verdict according to the evidence given in court.

When the witnesses have given their evidence, and the prisoner has, by himself or his counsel, cross-examined them, the judge recites to the jury the substance of the evidence given against the prisoner, and bids them discharge their conscience; when, if the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of the court; and the foreman, for himself and the rest, declares the prisoner *guilty or not guilty*. But if any doubt arises among the jury, and the matter requires debate, they all withdraw into a room with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up till they are unanimously agreed on the verdict; and if any one of the jury should die during this their confinement, the prisoner will be acquitted. When the jury have agreed on the verdict, they inform the court thereof by an officer who waits without, and the prisoner is again set to the bar to hear his verdict. This is unalterable, except in doubtful cases, when the verdict is brought in *special*, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

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If the prisoner be found guilty, he is then asked what reason he can give why sentence of death should not be passed upon him? There is now properly no benefit of clergy—it is changed to transportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction the sentence of death, after a summary account of the trial, is pronounced on the prisoner, in these words: *The law is, That thou shalt return to the place from whence thou comest, and from thence be carried to the place of execution, where thou shalt be hanged by the neck till thy body be dead, and the Lord have mercy on thy soul!* whereupon the sheriff is charged with the execution.

All the prisoners found *not guilty* by the jury are immediately acquitted and discharged; and, in some cases, obtain a copy of their indictment from the court, to proceed at law against their prosecutors.

[OF PUNISHMENTS.] Though the laws of England are esteemed more merciful to offenders than those which at present prevail in any other part of the world, yet the punishment of such as at their trial refuse to plead guilty or not guilty was formerly very cruel. In this case the prisoner was laid upon his back upon the bare floor, naked, and his arms and legs being stretched out with cords, and a considerable weight of iron laid upon his breast, he was allowed only three morsels of barley bread the first day, the next day he was allowed nothing but three draughts of foul water that shall be nearest to the prison door; and, in this situation, this was to be alternately his daily diet till he expired. This punishment, however, there was seldom occasion to inflict, and by a late act of parliament the prisoner's refusal to plead is to be considered as a conviction, and he is to suffer the same punishment as if he had been tried, and found guilty. And formerly, in case of high treason, though the criminal stood mute, judgment was given against him, as if he had been convicted, and his estate was confiscated.

The law of England includes all capital crimes under *high treason*, *petty treason*, and *felony*. The first consists in plotting, conspiring, or rising up in arms against the sovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is punished by being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for some minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and exposed to public view, and the entrails burnt: the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is usually fixed on some conspicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loses her dowry, and his children both their estates and nobility. But though coining of money is adjudged high treason, the criminal is only drawn upon a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged. Though the sentence passed upon all traitors is the same, yet with respect to persons of quality, the punishment is generally altered to beheading: a scaffold is erected for that purpose, on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is struck off with an axe\*.

The punishment for misprision of high treason, that is for neglecting or concealing it, is imprisonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits arising from his lands.

*Petty treason* is when a child kills his father, a wife her husband, a clergyman his bishop, or a servant his master or mistress. This crime is punished by the offender's being drawn in a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till dead. Women guilty either of this crime or of high-treason, are sentenced to be burnt alive; but this law has been very lately repealed, and they are now hanged, without being burnt.

*Felony* includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. These are all punished by hanging, only † murderers are to be executed soon after sentence

\* This is not to be considered as a different punishment, but as a remission of all the parts of the sentence mentioned before, excepting the beheading.

† By a late act, murderers are to be executed with-

in twenty-four hours after sentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday; so that they obtain a respite till Monday.

is passed, and then delivered to surgeons in order to be publicly dissected. Persons guilty of robbery, when there were some alleviating circumstances, used sometimes to be transported for a term of years to his majesty's plantations; but since the American war, they are now generally condemned to hard labour in works of public utility, upon the river, &c. for a certain number of years; lately some have been sent to Africa, Nova Scotia, and Botany-Bay.

Other crimes punished by the laws are,

*Manslaughter*, which is the unlawful killing of a person, without premeditated malice, but with a present intent to kill; as when two, who formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other; in this case the criminal is allowed the benefit of his clergy for the first time, and only burnt in the hand.

*Chance-medley* is the accidental killing of a man without an evil intent, for which the offender is also to be burnt in the hand, unless the offender was doing an unlawful act: which last circumstance makes the punishment death.

*Shoplifting* and receiving goods knowing them to be stolen, are punished with hard labour for a number of years, or burning in the hand.

*Perjury*, or keeping disorderly houses, are punished with the pillory and imprisonment.

*Petty-larceny*, or small theft, under the value of twelve pence, is punished by whipping.

*Libelling*, using false weights and measures, and forestalling the market, are commonly punished with standing in the pillory.

For striking, so as to draw blood, in the king's court, the criminal is punished with losing his right hand.

For striking, in Westminster-hall, while the courts of justice are sitting, the punishment is imprisonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's estate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and loose, idle, disorderly persons, are punished by being fet in the stocks, or by paying a fine.

OF HUSBAND AND WIFE.] The first private relation of persons is that of marriage, which includes the reciprocal rights and duties of husband and wife; or, as most of our elder law-books call them, *baron* and *feme*. The holiness of the matrimonial state is left entirely to the ecclesiastical law; the punishment, therefore, or annulling, of incestuous, or other unscriptural marriages, is the province of spiritual courts.

The first legal disability is a prior marriage, or having another husband or wife living; in which case, besides the penalties consequent upon it as felony, the second marriage is to all intents and purposes void: polygamy being condemned both by the law of the New Testament, and the policy of all prudent states. The second legal disability is want of age. This is sufficient to void all other contracts, on account of the imbecility of judgment in the parties contracting. Therefore if a boy under fourteen, or a girl under twelve years of age, marries, this marriage is imperfect; and, when either of them comes to the age of consent aforesaid, they may disagree, and declare the marriage void, without any divorce or sentence in the spiritual court. This is founded on the civil law. But the canon law pays a greater regard to the constitution than the age of the parties: for if they are *habiles ad matrimonium*, it is a good marriage, whatever their age may be. And in our law it is so far a marriage, that if at the age of consent they agree to continue together, they need not be married again. If the husband be of years of discretion, and the wife under twelve, when she comes to years of discretion he may disagree as well as she may; for in contracts the obligation must be mutual; both must be bound, or neither; and so it is, *vice versa*, when the wife is of years of discretion, and the husband under.

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Another incapacity arises from want of consent of guardians. By the common law, if the parties themselves were of age to consent, there wanted no other concurrence to make the marriage valid; and this was agreeable to the canon law. But by several statutes, penalties of 100*l.* are laid on every clergyman, who marries a couple without either publication of banns (which may give notice to parents or guardians), or without a licence; to obtain which, the consent of parents or guardians must be sworn to. And it has been lately thought proper to enact, that all marriages celebrated by licence (for banns suppose notice), where either of the parties is under twenty-one (not being a widow, or widower, who are supposed free) without the consent of the father, or if he be not living, of the mother or guardians, shall be absolutely void. A provision is made, as in the civil law, when the mother or guardian is *non compos*, beyond the sea, or unreasonably forward, to dispense with such consent at the discretion of the lord chancellor; but no provision is made in case the father should labour under any mental, or other incapacity. Much may be, and much has been said, both for and against this innovation upon our ancient laws and constitution. On the one hand, it prevents the clandestine marriages of minors, which are often a great inconvenience to those private families wherein they happen. On the other hand, restraints upon marriages, especially among the lower class, are detrimental to the public, by hindering the increase of people; and to religion and morality, by encouraging licentiousness and debauchery among the single of both sexes.

A fourth incapacity is want of reason: without a competent share of which, as no other contract, so neither can that of marriage be valid.

Lastly, the parties must not only be willing and able to contract, but actually must contract themselves in due form of law, to make it a good civil marriage. Verbal contracts are now of no force, to compel a future marriage. Neither is any marriage at present valid, that is not celebrated in some parish-church or public chapel, unless by dispensation from the archbishop of Canterbury. It must also be preceded by publication of banns, or by licence from the spiritual judge. It is held to be also essential to marriage, that it be performed by a person in orders: though in the times of the civil war, all marriages were performed by the justices of the peace; and these marriages were declared valid in the succeeding reign; as the marriages of quakers are at present. As the law now stands, we may upon the whole collect, that no marriage by the temporal law is void, that is celebrated by a person in orders, in a parish church, or a public chapel (or elsewhere, by dispensation) in pursuance of banns or a licence, between single persons, consenting, of sound mind, and of the age of twenty-one years; or of the age of fourteen in male, and twelve in female, with consent of parents or guardians, or without it in case of widowhood.

There are two kinds of divorce, the one total, the other partial. The total divorce must be for some of the canonical causes of impediment, and those existing before the marriage: as consanguinity, affinity, or corporeal imbecility. The issue of such marriage, as it is thus entirely dissolved, are bastards.

The other kind of divorce is when the marriage is just and lawful, and therefore the law is tender of dissolving it; but, for some supervenient cause it becomes improper or impossible, for the parties to live together; as in the case of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either of the parties. In this case the law allows alimony to the wife (except when for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has happened frequently of late years), which is that allowance which is made to a woman, for her support, out of the husband's estate; being settled at the discretion of the ecclesiastical judge, on the consideration of all the circumstances of the case, and the rank and quality of the parties.

Having thus shewn how marriages may be made, or dissolved, I come now, lastly, to speak of the legal consequences of the making, or dissolution of them.

By marriage, the husband and wife are one person in law; that is, the very being, or legal existence of the woman, is suspended during the marriage, or at least is incorporated and consolidated into that of the husband: under whose protection, and *cover*, she performs every thing, and is therefore called in our Law French, a  *feme-covert*, under the guidance of her husband, her *baron* or lord; and her condition during her marriage, is called her *coverture*. Upon this principle of an union of person in husband and wife depends almost all the legal rights, duties, and disabilities, that either of them acquire by the marriage. I speak not at present of the rights of property, but of such as are merely *personal*. For this reason a man cannot grant any thing to his wife, or enter into a covenant with her; for the grant would be to suppose her separate existence; and the covenant with her would be only to covenant with himself; and therefore it is generally true, that all compacts made between husband and wife, when single, are voided by the inter-marriage. A woman indeed may be an attorney for her husband; for that implies no separation from, but is rather a representation of, her lord. And a husband may also bequeath any thing to his wife by will; for that cannot take effect till the *coverture* is determined by his death. The husband is bound to provide his wife with necessaries by law, as much as himself; and if the contracts debts for him, he is obliged to pay them; but for any thing besides necessaries, he is not chargeable. Also if the wife elopes, and lives with another man, the husband is not chargeable even for necessaries: at least, if the person who furnishes them is sufficiently apprized of her elopement. If the wife be indebted before marriage, the husband is bound afterwards to pay the debt; for he has adopted her and her circumstances together. If the wife be injured in her person or property, she can bring no action for redress, without her husband's concurrence, and in his name, as well as her own; neither can she be sued, without making the husband a defendant; except when the husband has abjured the realm, or is banished; for then he is dead in law. In criminal prosecutions, it is true, the wife may be indicted, and punished separately: for the union is only a civil union. But, in trials of any sort, they are not allowed to be evidences for, or against, each other; partly because it is impossible their testimony should be impartial; but principally because of the union of person. But where the offence is directly against the person of the wife, this rule has been usually dispensed with; and therefore, in case a woman be forcibly taken away, and married, she may be a witness against such her husband, in order to convict him of felony.

In the civil law, the husband and the wife are considered as two distinct persons; and may have separate estates, contracts, debts, and injuries; and therefore, in our ecclesiastical courts, a woman may sue, and be sued, without her husband. Though our law in general considers man and wife as one person, yet there are some instances in which she is separately considered, as inferior to him, and acting by his compulsion. Therefore all deeds executed, and acts done, by her, during her *coverture*, are void; except it be a fine, or the like matter of record, in which case she must be solely and secretly examined, to learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by will devise land to her husband, unless under special circumstances; for, at the time of making it, she is supposed to be under his coercion. And in some felonies, and other inferior crimes committed by her through constraint of her husband, the law excuses her; but this extends not to treason or murder.

The husband also (by the old, and likewise by the civil law) might give his wife moderate correction: for, as he is to answer for her misbehaviour, the law thought it reasonable to entrust him with this power of restraining her, by domestic chastisement, in the same moderation that a man is allowed to correct his servants or children: for whom the master or parent is also liable in some cases to answer. But in the poster reign of Charles II. this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have security of the peace against her husband; or,

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In return, a husband against his wife; yet the lower rank of people claim and exert their ancient privilege; and the courts of law will permit a husband to restrain a wife of her liberty, in case of any gross misbehaviour.

These are the chief legal effects of marriage during the coverture; upon which we may observe, that even the disabilities, which the wife lies under, are for the most part intended for her protection and benefit. So great a favourite is the female sex with the laws of England!

**REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT.** } The king's ecclesiastical revenues consist in, 1. The custody of the temporalities of vacant bishopricks; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corodies and pensions, formerly arising from allowances of meat, drink, and cloathing, due to the king from an abbey or monastery, and which he generally bestowed upon favourite servants; and his sending one of his chaplains to be maintained by the bishop, or to have a pension bestowed upon him till the bishop promoted him to a benefice. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The first fruits and tenths of benefices. But such has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that those branches now afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue, until the reign of his present majesty, consist in, 1. The demesne lands of the crown, which at present lie in a narrow compass. 2. The hereditary excise; being part of the consideration for the purchase of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual sum issuing from the duty on wine licences; being the residue of the same consideration. 4. His forests. 5. His courts of justice, &c. In lieu of all which 900,000*l.* per annum is now granted for the support of his civil list.

The extraordinary grants are usually called by the synonymous names of aids, subsidies, and supplies; and are granted by the commons of Great Britain, in parliament assembled: who, when they have voted a supply to his majesty, and settled the *quantum* of that supply, usually resolve themselves into what is called a committee of ways and means, to consider of the ways and means of raising the supply so voted. And in this committee, every member (though it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exchequer) may propose such scheme of taxation as he thinks will be least detrimental to the public. The resolutions of this committee (when approved by a vote of the house) are in general deemed final and conclusive; for, though the supply cannot be actually raised upon the subject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no monied man will scruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready cash, if the proposed terms be advantageous, on the credit of the bare vote of the house of commons.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land-tax or the ancient subsidy raised upon a new assessment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual excise on malt, mum, cyder, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The customs, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandise exported or imported. 2. The excise duty, or inland imposition on a great variety of commodities. 3. The salt duty. 4. The post-office\*, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The stamp-duty on paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houses and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and pensions, with a variety of new taxes imposed in the year 1784.

\* From the year 1644 to 1744, the annual amount of this revenue gradually increased from 500*l.* to 198,226*l.* but it should be observed, that the gross amount of both inland and foreign offices was in that year 235,492*l.* In 1764, the gross amount of the revenues of the Post-office for that year was 432,048*l.* which, by the act passed in the sessions of 1784, increasing the duty according to the distance, and abridging the franking, must be greatly augmented.

The neat annual produce of these several branches of the revenue, old and new taxes, after all charges of collecting and management paid, is estimated at eleven millions sterling; with two millions and a quarter raised at an average, by the land and malt-tax. How these immense sums are appropriated, is next to be considered. And this is, first and principally, to the payment of the *interest* of the national debt.

In order to take a clear and comprehensive view of the nature of this NATIONAL DEBT, it must be first premised, that after the Revolution, when our new connections with Europe introduced a new system of foreign politics; and the expences of the nation, not only in settling the new establishment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals, on the continent, for the security of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, settling the Spanish succession, supporting the house of Austria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purposes, increased to an unusual degree; it was not thought advisable to raise all the expences of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, lest the unaccustomed weight of them should create murmurs among the people. It was therefore the policy of the times, to anticipate the revenues of their posterity, by borrowing immense sums for the current service of the state, and to lay no more taxes upon the subject than would suffice to pay the annual interest of the sums so borrowed: by this means converting the principal debt into a new species of property, transferable from one man to another, at any time and in any quantity, a system which seems to have had its original in the state of Florence, A. D. 1344: which government then owed about 60,000l. sterling: and being unable to pay it, formed the principal into an aggregate sum, called, metaphorically, a mount or bank: the shares whereof were transferable like our stocks. This laid the foundation of what is called the NATIONAL DEBT: for a few long annuities created in the reign of Charles II. hardly deserve that name. And the example then set, has been so closely followed during the long wars in the reign of queen Anne, and since, that the capital of the funded debt at Midsummer 1775 was 129,860,018l. and the annual charge of it amounted to 4,219,254l. 7s. The American war commencing at this time, and the execrable policy continuing of alienating the sinking fund, with the extravagancies in every department of government, and the manner of borrowing the money for supplies, have considerably increased it\*.

The following was the state of the national debt in the year 1783, extracted from the eleventh report of the commissioners of public accounts:

£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
211,363,254	15	4½	Funded debt			
			Interest thereon	7,951,930	1	0
18,856,541	11	4½	Unfunded 1st of October, 1783:			
			fifteen millions of this bears interest now.			
			Interest thereon	612,742	0	0
<u>230,219,796</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>9½</u>				
			Charges at the Bank for managing the business	134,291	13	1
			Fees at the auditor's office of interest	19,874	2	8
			Some other fees of office	696	12	4
				<u>8,719,534</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>1</u>

\* In the course of the late war from 1776, to 1782, 46,553,000l. was added to the 3 per cent. annuity, 26,750,000l. to the 4 per cent. making together a capital of 73,400,000l. for which the money advanced was only 48 millions.

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Since this report the funded debt hath increased to -  
 The unfunded debt, meaning all expences, deficiencies,  
 arrears, and outstanding debts, for paying the principal  
 or interest of which no provision was made by  
 parliament, may be moderately reckoned  
 The amount of exchequer bills, &c. &c.

£	s.	d.
332,280,544	0	0
38,000,000	0	0
9,418,464	0	0
379,098,914	0	0

The best account we are able to give of the annual income and expenditure of the British nation is delivered from the last Budget of the minister :

REVENUE.		BUDGET, 1794.		EXPENDITURE.	
Land and Moh Tax	9,790,000				
Customs	3,668,777	18	0	Navy for 85,000 men ordinary and extraordinary	5,815,000
Excise	7,218,166	16	0	Army for 165,000 men foreign &c. &c.	6,139,000
Stamps	1,184,064	3	0	Ordnance ordinary and extraordinary and last years debt unfunded	1,342,000
Incident Taxes	1,796,107	3	11	Miscellaneous services	86,000
Duties of 1791 now permanent	821,100	14	1	Deficiency of variety of grants of Land and Moh Tax	110,000
East India Company	500,000	0	0	Commissioners for liquidating national debt	17,68,744
				Extraordinaries per exchequer bills	3,500,000
Exchequer Bills		3,500,000	0	Interest and management of the funded debt	9,919,514
Deficient balance by loan of £11,000,000 3 per cent consols, at 6 1/2 per cent. £1,730,000 of 4 per cent, at 3s and £81,971 19s 4d, long annuities, at 60 years purchase at per vote of £11,000,000 Sterling		11,028,197	14	101	920,000
		£13,397,167	11	101	£ 14,197,167

The produce of the several taxes were originally separate and distinct funds; being securities for the sums advanced on each several tax, and for them only. But at last it became necessary, in order to avoid confusion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of these separate funds, by uniting them together: superadding the faith of parliament for the general security of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account: the *aggregate fund*, the whole produce of which hath been for some years about 2,600,000*l.* per annum; which for some years have amounted to rather more than a million per annum; and the *South Sea fund*, being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the interest of such part of the national debt as was advanced by that company and its annuitants, the produce of which lately hath been about half a million per annum. The separate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual securities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay such interest or annuities as were formerly charged upon each distinct fund; the faith of the legislature being more-over engaged to supply any casual deficiencies.

The customs, excises, and other taxes, which are to support these funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and consumptions, must necessarily be of a very uncertain amount: but they have always been considerably more than sufficient to answer the charge upon them. The surplusses therefore of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South Sea funds, over and above the interest and annuities charged upon them, are directed by statute 3 George I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the disposition of parliament; and are usually denominated the *sinking fund*, because originally defined to sink or reduce the national debt. To this have been since added many other entire duties, granted in subsequent years; and the annual interest of the sums borrowed on their respective

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tive credits, is charged on, and payable out of, the produce of the sinking fund. However, the neat surplusses and savings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very considerable sum; for, as the interest on the national debt has been at several times reduced (by the consent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their interest, or be paid their principal), the savings from the appropriated revenues must be extremely large. This sinking fund is the last resort of the nation; its only domestic resource, on which must chiefly depend all the hopes we can entertain of ever discharging or moderating our incumbrances.

Between the years 1727 and 1732, several encroachments were made upon the sinking fund; and in the year 1733, half a million was taken from it, under pretence of easing the landed interest. The practice of alienating the sinking fund still continued; and in 1736, it was anticipated and mortgaged, and subsequent administrations repeatedly broke in upon it, thus converting an excellent expedient for saving the kingdom, into a supply for the worst purposes.

In some years, the sinking fund hath produced from two to three millions; and, if 1,212,000*l.* of it had been inviolably applied to the redemption of the public debts from the year 1733 to the present time, one hundred and sixty millions would have been paid off, and the nation much relieved. Different schemes have been formed for paying the public debts, but no method can be so expeditious and effectual, as an unalienable sinking fund, as this money is improved at *compound interest*, and therefore in the most perfect manner; but money procured by a loan bears only simple interest. "A nation therefore whenever it applies the income of such a fund to current expences, rather than the redemption of its debts, chooses to lose the benefit of compound interest, in order to avoid paying simple interest, and the loss in this case is equal to the difference between the increase of money at compound and simple interest\*."

No permanent provision had ever been made for the progressive and permanent payment of this immense debt, until 1736; when parliament had the wisdom and the firmness to pass an act for vesting unalienably, in commissioners, the sum of one million annually; in which act every possible precaution was taken that could be devised for preventing the surplus from being diverted at any future time, and for carrying to the account of the commissioners for the purposes of the act, the interest of such stock as should be purchased, and such temporary annuities as should fall in. Under the provisions of this act, *Eight Millions Two Hundred Thousand Pounds* of the capital of the debt has been purchased †; and the amount of the annual sum, now applicable for the reduction of it is 1,360,000*l.*

\* Dr. Price's calculation plainly shews that, "A million borrowed annually for twenty years, will pay off, in this time, 25 millions 3 per cent. stock, if discharged at 6*l.* in money for every 100*l.* stock, and in forty years more, without any further aid from loans, 537 millions (that is, 388 millions in all) would be paid off.

† The addition of thirteen years to this period would pay off 1000 millions.

‡ A surplus of half a million per annum, made up to a million, by borrowing half a million every year for twenty years, would discharge the same sums in the same periods.

§ It is, therefore, necessary it is at present to expedite, by every possible means, the redemption of our debts, that, let the surplus which can be ob-

tained for a sinking fund be what it will, an addition to it, by annual loans, will be proper in order to give it greater efficiency and a better chance for relieving the kingdom.—The increase of taxes which such a measure must occasion, would be so inconsiderable and so gradual, as to be scarcely perceptible; and at the same time, it would manifestly shew a determined resolution in our rulers to reduce our debt, as might have the happiest influence on public credit.

¶ Debenture, as a compensation to Loyalties, for the loss of property in America, have been raised to the amount of 650,000*l.* which may be considered as a further reduction of the debt to that amount.

FUNDS.	Capital of each stock.		Annual Interest.		Funds purchased by the command- ers, from August 1786, to Transfer days at the January 1794. Principal.		Interest.		Transfer days at the Banks, &c.		Dividends on each fund when due.		Holidays.		Unfunded debt to January 1794.	
	£.	s.	£.	s.	£.	s.	£.	s.	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			
1 per cent. navy annuities *	19,819,313	14 5	960,096	3 8	5,378,435	0	161,248	13 0	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			
3 per cent. consol.	124,640,966	5 12 1/2	3,739,490	17 5	5,378,435	0	161,248	13 0	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			
South Sea Stock	1,000,000	0	30,000	0	-	-	-	-	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			
3 per cent. new South Sea annuities	3,668,784	8 6	128,197	9 1	-	-	-	-	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			
India Stock	4,994,730	6 10	154,428	18 1	1,550,000	0	45,480	0	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			
Eschequer annuity	6,500,000	0	65,000	0	439,200	0	1,079	0	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			
Life & Tontine ditto	-	-	80,222	18 0	-	-	-	-	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			
Bank Stock	11,686,800	0	116,868	12 0	-	-	-	-	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			
4 per cent. consol.	35,500,000	0	1,420,000	0	-	-	-	-	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			
3 per cent. reduced	41,540,073	16 4	1,245,202	4 3	3,475,000	0	107,333	0	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			
1 per cent. old South Sea annuities	17,900,470	3 7	557,248	1 8	1,946,100	0	38,134	0	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			
Long annuities	-	-	418,331	0 11	-	-	-	-	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			
Annunities 1773 and 1779 †	156,181,578	9 5 1/2	12,983,849	16 5	12,374,605	0	386,238	3 6	Mon. Wed. & Fri. Tues. Wed. Th. & Fri. Wed. Thurs. & Fri. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat. Thurs. Thurs. & Sat.	Jan. 5th and July 5th.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 31. Feb. 2, 24 Mar. 1, 2, 25. April 2, 25. May 1, 25. June 4, 11, 24, 29. July 25. Aug. 1, 12, 24. Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29. Oct. 18, 25, 29, 31. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30 Dec. 2, 5, 27, 28. Shrove-Tu. Ash. W. Good Friday. E. M. T. W. H. T. Whit. M. Tu. & W.	£.	s.			

N. B. Dividends paid at the Bank from 9 to 11, and 1 to 3.—Transfers 11 to 1.—Dividends at the S. S. and India House, from 9 to 12.—Transfers from 12 to 1.

\* This stock comprised the whole of the unfunded debt in 1784, which consisted of certain navy, victualling, and transport bills, bearing interest at 4 per cent. as well as ordinance and other bills at non-interest. No part of this stock can be redeemed till 25 millions of the 3 or 4 per cents are paid off.

† Last year the India Company added one million to their capital, by a subscription of the Stockholders at 200l. per cent. and this year (1794) 2 millions by bonds.

‡ Fall in January 1865, the original annuity was for 99 years.

§ These fall in 1868.

In

FUNDS

In lieu of their hereditary revenues, our late kings received the produce of certain branches of the excise and customs, &c. but his present majesty is pleased to accept the annual sum of 900,000*l.* chargeable on the aggregate fund, which is called his Civil List. The expences defrayed by the civil list, are those that in any shape relate to civil government; as the expences of the household, all salaries to officers of state, to the judges, and every one of the king's servants; the appointments to foreign ambassadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expences, or privy purse, and other very numerous outgoings; as secret service-money, pensions, and other bounties. These sometimes have so far exceeded the revenues appointed for that purpose, that application has been made to parliament, to discharge the debts contracted on the civil list, which is properly the whole of the king's revenue in his own distinct capacity; the rest being rather the revenue of the public, or its creditors, though collected and distributed again in the name, and by the officers of the crown.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH } The *military state* includes the whole of  
OF GREAT BRITAIN. } the soldiery; or, such persons as are peculiarly appointed among the rest of the people, for the safeguard and defence of the realm.

In a land of liberty (says judge Blackstone), it is extremely dangerous to make a distinct order of the profession of arms. In such, no man should take up arms, but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is because he is a citizen, and would wish to continue so, that he makes himself for a while a soldier. The laws and constitution of these kingdoms formerly knew no such state, as that of a perpetual standing foldier, bred up to no other profession than that of war; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had so much as a guard about their persons.

It seems universally agreed by all historians, that king Alfred first settled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent discipline made all the subjects of his dominions soldiers. In the mean time we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence, in case of domestic insurrections, or the prospect of foreign invasions. Besides those, who by their military tenures were bound to perform forty days service in the field, the statute of Winchester obliged every man, according to his estate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of such arms as were then in use, in order to keep the peace; and constables were appointed in all hundreds, to see that such arms were provided. These weapons were changed by the statute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 2. into others of more modern service. It was usual from time to time, for our princes to issue commissions of array, and send into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muster and array (or set in military order) the inhabitants of every district; and the form of the commission of array was settled in parliament in the 5 Henry IV. But at the same time it was provided, that no man should be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate; nor out of his thire, but in cases of urgent necessity; nor should himself serve, or provide soldiers, unless by consent of parliament. About the reign of king Henry VIII. lord lieutenants began to be introduced, as standing representatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order; for we find them mentioned as known officers in the statute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 3. though they had not been then long in use; for Camden speaks of them in the time of queen Elizabeth as extraordinary magistrates, constituted only in times of difficulty and danger.

Soon after the Restoration of king Charles II. when the military tenures were abolished, it was thought proper to new-model the militia; the general scheme of which, as it now stands, is to discipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, chosen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord lieutenant, the

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49,000 men.

the deputy-lieutenants, and other principal land-holders, under a commission from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unless in case of invasion, or actual rebellion, nor in any case to be sent out of the kingdom. They are to be exercised at stated times, and their discipline in general is liberal and easy; but when drawn out into actual service, they are subject to martial law. This is the constitutional security which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm against foreign or domestic violence.

But as the mode of keeping standing armies has prevailed over all Europe for a considerable time, it has also for many years past been annually judged necessary by our legislature, for the safety of the kingdom, the defence of the possessions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preservation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a standing body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are, however, *ipso facto*, disbanded at the expiration of every year, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garrisons in Ireland, Gibraltar, the East Indies, and America; but in time of war, there have formerly been in British pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000. To regulate this body of troops an annual act of parliament passes, "to punish mutiny and desertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be dispersed among the several innkeepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and establishes a law martial for their government. By this, among other things, it is enacted, that if any officer and soldier shall excite, or join any mutiny, or knowing of it, shall not give notice to the commanding officer; or shall desert, or list in any other regiment, or sleep upon his post, or leave it before he is relieved, or hold correspondence with a rebel or enemy, or strike or use violence to his superior officer, or disobey his lawful command; such offender shall suffer such punishment as a court martial shall inflict, though it extend to death itself.

Officers and soldiers that have been in the king's service are, by several statutes, at liberty to use any trade or occupation they are fit for, in any town of the kingdom (except the two universities), notwithstanding any statute, custom, or charter to the contrary. And soldiers, in actual military service, may make verbal wills, and dispose of their goods, wages, and other personal chattles, without those forms, solemnities, and expences, which the law requires in other cases.

\* The land forces consist of,

CAVALRY

- 2 Regiments of life guards, raised in 1660.
- 1 Royal regiment of horse guards, raised in 1661.
- 7 Regiments dragoon guards, raised in 1685, and 1688.
- 19 Regiments of dragoons, raised between 1683, and 1781.

INFANTRY.

- 3 Regiments of foot guards, raised in 1650, and 1660.
- 77 Regiments of foot, raised between 1633, and 1778.
- 70 Companies of marines.
- 4 Battalions of royal artillery.

Invalids.

In time of peace, most regiments consist only of one battalion, composed of ten companies; in time of war additional companies are raised, and the number of regiments increased. The whole of the army last war, including the foreign troops in English pay, amounted to about 135,000 men. Twelve regiments of cavalry, and 20 of infantry, are usually in Ireland, and are maintained by that kingdom, amounting from about 12 to 14,000 men. For the service of Great Britain, the garrisons, and colonies, about 17,000 are voted annually by parliament, exclusive of marines. A militia of about 40,000 men.

Daily Pay of each Rank in his Majesty's Land-Forces on the British Establishment.

	Royal Reg. of Horse-guards.		Dragoons.		Foot Guards.		Foot.	
	P. Pay.	Subsid.	P. Pay.	Subsid.	P. Pay.	Subsid.	P. Pay.	Subsid.
Colonel and Captain	1 1 0	11 6	1 1 6	11 6	1 1 0	11 6	1 4 0	18 0
Lieutenant Colonel and Captain	1 9 6	11 6	1 4 6	18 6	1 1 8	11 6	1 1 0	17 0
Major and Captain	1 7 0	11 6	1 0 0	17 6	1 4 6	18 6	1 5 0	11 6
Captain	1 1 6	16 6	1 3 6	11 6	1 1 0	16 6	1 6 0	10 0
Captain Lieutenant or Lieutenant	0 15 0	11 6	0 9 0	9 0	7 10	6 0	4 8 0	3 6
Coronet h. gd. & dr. Enl. ft. g. Enl. or ad Lt. ft.	0 14 0	11 6	0 8 0	8 0	6 10	4 6 0	3 8 0	3 0
Chaplain	0 6 0	3 0	0 6 0	3 0	0 6 0	3 0	0 6 0	3 0
Adjutant	0 1 0	4 6	0 1 0	4 6	0 4 0	3 0	0 4 0	1 0
Quarter-Master	0 8 6	6 0	0 6 0	6 0	0 4 0	3 0	0 4 8 0	3 6
Surgeon	0 6 0	4 6	0 6 0	4 6	0 3 0	3 0	0 4 0	3 0
Surgeon's Mate	0 0 0	0 0	0 0 0	0 0	0 3 6	1 0	0 3 6	3 0
Drum-Major	0 0 0	0 0	0 0 0	0 0	0 1 6	1 0	0 0 0	0 0
Deputy Marshal	0 0 0	0 0	0 0 0	0 0	0 1 0	0 9 0	0 0 0	0 0
Serjeant	0 0 0	0 0	0 1 9 0	1 9 0	1 10 0	1 4 0	1 6 0	1 0
Corporal	0 3 0	2 6	0 2 3 0	2 3 0	1 9 0	1 10 0	1 0 0	8 0
Drummer	0 3 0	1 6	0 3 0	1 6	1 1 0	1 1 0	0 8 0	1 0 0
FTrumpeter	0 2 8 0	1 0	0 0 0	0 0	0 0 0	0 0	0 0 0	0 0
Private Man	0 2 6 0	3 0	0 1 9 0	1 9 0	1 10 0	0 6 0	0 8 0	0 0
Allowance on the Establishment to	0 4 0	3 0	0 2 6 0	2 6 0	1 7 0	0 6 0	1 2 0	0 6 0
Colonel Do. for haubois	0 0 0	0 0	0 3 0	3 0	0 2 0	0 0	0 0 0	0 0
Captain per troop or company.	0 4 0	4 0	0 4 0	4 0	1 4 0	1 1 0	1 1 0	1 0 0
Agent	2 0 0	2 0	1 2 0	1 2 0	0 6 0	6 0	0 6 0	6 0

New Establishment of the Corps of Engineers, October 1st, 1784

Rank.	Per Day.		Per Ann.		Rank.	Per Day.		Per Ann.	
	L.	s. d.	L.	s. d.		L.	s. d.	L.	s. d.
Master General	0	0	0	0	Ten Captains	0	6	0	1095
Lieutenant General	0	0	0	0	Twenty Lieutenants	0	7	8	1703
Chief Engineer	2	4	823	0	Ten Second Lieutenants	0	4	0	730
Five Colonels, each	0	18	1644	10	Corps of Invalids	3	17	8	1334
Five Lieutenant Colonels	0	15	1308	15					
Ten Captains	0	10	1825	0					
					Total L. 10,402 10 0				

The royal navy of England hath ever been its greatest defence and ornament ; it is its ancient and natural strength ; the floating bulwark of the island ; from which, however strong and powerful, no danger can be apprehended to liberty ; and accordingly it has been assiduously cultivated, from the earliest ages. To such perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the Laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe as the ground of their marine constitutions, was confessedly compiled by our king Richard I. at the isle of Oleron, on the coast of France, then part of the possessions of the crown of England. And yet, so inferior were our ancestors in this point to the present age, that, even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, sir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boast that the royal navy of England consisted of 33 ships. The present condition of our marine is by many ascribed to the navigation act framed in 1650, which prohibited all ships of foreign nations from trading with the English plantations without licence from the council of state. In 1651, the prohibition was extended also to the mother-country ; and no goods were suffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than English bottoms, or in the ships of that European nation, of which the merchandise imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the Restoration, the former provisions were continued, by statute 12 Car. II. c. 18. with this very material improvement, that the master, and three-fourths of the mariners, shall also be English subjects.

The complement of seamen, in time of peace, hath usually amounted to 12 or 15,000. In time of war, they have formerly amounted to no less than 80,000 men ; and after the commencement of the American war, they amounted to above 100,000 men, including marines.

This navy is commonly divided into three squadrons ; namely, the red, white, and

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and blue, which are so termed from the differences of their colours. Each squadron has its admiral: but the admiral of the red Squadron has the principal command of the whole, and is styled vice-admiral of Great Britain: subject to each admiral is also a vice and rear-admiral. But the supreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commissioners of the admiralty.

Many laws have been made for the supply of the royal navy with seamen for their regulation when on board; and to confer privileges and rewards on them during, and after their service.

1. For their supply. The power of impressing men for the sea-service by the king's commission, has been a matter of much dispute, and submitted to with great reluctance; though it hath very learnedly been shewn by sir Michael Foster, that the practice of impressing, and granting powers to the admiralty for that purpose, is of very ancient date, and hath been uniformly continued by a regular series of precedents to the presents time; whence he concludes it to be a part of the common law. The difficulty arises from hence, that no statute, or act of parliament, has expressly declared this power to be in the crown, though many of them very strongly imply it.

Besides this method of impressing (which, even if legal, is only defensible from public necessity), the principal trading cities, and sometimes the government, offer bounty-money to seamen who enter voluntarily into his majesty's service: and every foreign seaman who, during a war, shall serve two years in any man of war, merchantman, or privateer, is naturalized *ipso facto*.

The wages of seamen on board of merchantmen, in time of war, is usually 50s. to 4l. per month; on board of the royal navy, they receive considerably less. They are flattered indeed with the hopes of prize-money, which, if divided in a more equitable manner, would produce the happiest effects. There would then be less occasion for bounty-money or pressing; our fleets would be speedily manned, and regularly supplied with experienced and able seamen; on whom, under Providence, not only the very existence of this nation, its commerce, and foreign settlements, but the liberties of Europe, and security of the Protestant religion, solely depend\*.

2. The method of discipline in the royal fleet is directed by certain express rules, first enacted by authority of parliament soon after the Restoration; but new-modelled and altered since the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, to remedy some defects, which were severely felt in conducting the preceding war. In these articles of the navy almost every possible offence is set down, and the punishment thereof annexed, in which respect the seamen have much the advantage over their brethren in the land service; whose articles of war are not enacted by parliament, but framed from time to time at the pleasure of the crown.

\* The Royal Navy of GREAT BRITAIN, as it stood at August 31, 1784.

Rates of Ships.	Complement of Men.			Weight of Metal.
	Guns.	No. of each rate.	Men.	
1st. 100 and upward	—	5	875 to 850	42 24 12 6
2d. 98 to 90	—	20	750 to 700	32 18 12 6
3d. 80 to 64	—	130	650 to 500	32 18 9 6
4th. 60 to 50	—	27	420 to 380	24 12 6 & 18 9 6
5th. 44 to 32	—	102	300 to 220	18 9 6 & 12 6
6th. 30 to 20	—	50	200 to 160	9 4
Sloops, 18 to 14	—	334		
Bombs, Fireships, &c.	—	143	125 to 110	
		19		
Total,		496		

In commission 25 of the line, 7 frigates, 36 frigates, and 105 sloops. When a ship of war becomes old, or unfit for service, the same name is transferred to another, which is built, as it is called, upon her bottom. While a single beam of the old ship remains, the name cannot be changed unless by act of parliament.

3. With

3. With regard to the privileges conferred on sailors, they are pretty much the same with those conferred on soldiers; with regard to relief, when maimed or wounded, or superannuated, it is afforded them either by county rates, or from the royal hospital at Greenwich; they are also allowed the exercise of trades in corporations, and the power of making verbal testaments; and, farther, no seaman aboard his majesty's ships can be arrested for any debt, unless the same be sworn to amount to at least twenty pounds; though by the annual mutiny act, a foldier may be arrested for a debt which extends to half that value.

I shall close this account of the military and maritime strength of Great Britain, by observing, that though sea-officers † and sailors are subject to a perpetual act of

† The Pay of the Officers of the Royal Navy in each Rate. FLAG OFFICERS, and the CAPTAINS to

	Flags.					
	per day.					
Admirals and Commanders in Chief of the Fleet	-	-	-	-	-	£. 5 0 0
An Admiral	-	-	-	-	-	3 10 0
Vice-Admiral	-	-	-	-	-	2 10 0
Rear-Admiral	-	-	-	-	-	1 15 0
First Captain to the Commander in Chief	-	-	-	-	-	1 15 0
Second ditto, and Captain to other Admirals	-	-	-	-	-	1 0 0
----- to V. Admirals { if first or second Rates, to }	-	-	-	-	-	0 16 0
----- to R. Admirals { have the pay of such Rates }	-	-	-	-	-	0 13 0

OFFICERS.	First.		Second.		Third.		Fourth.		Fifth.		Sixth.	
	l.	s. d.	l.	s. d.	l.	s. d.	l.	s. d.	l.	s. d.	l.	s. d.
Captain per day	1	0 0 0	0	16 0 0	0	13 6 0	0	10 0 0	0	8 0 0	0	5 8 0
Lieutenant per day	0	5 0 0	0	5 0 0	0	4 0 0	0	4 0 0	0	4 0 0	0	4 0 0
Master per month	9	2 0 8	8	0 7 6	0	6 12 8 6	0	2 0 5 0 0	0	0 0 0	0	0 0 0
2d master and pilots of Yachts, each 3l. 10s.												
Master's mate	3	6 0 3	0	0 2 16	2	2 7 10 2	2	0 2 2 0 2	2	0 2 2 0 0		
Midshipman	2	5 0 2	0	0 1 17	6	1 13 9 1	10	0 1 10 0 0	10	0 1 10 0 0		
Schoolmaster	0	0 0 0	0	0 1 17	6	1 13 9 1	10	0 1 10 0 0	10	0 1 10 0 0		
Captain's Clerk	2	5 0 2	0	0 1 17	6	1 13 9 1	10	0 1 10 0 0	10	0 1 10 0 0		
Quarter-master	1	15 0 1	15	0 1 12	0	1 10 0 1	8	0 1 8 0 1	8	0 1 6 0 1	6	0 0 0
Quarter-master's mate	1	10 0 1	10	0 1 8	0	1 8 0 1	8	0 1 6 0 1	8	0 1 5 0 1	5	0 0 0
Boatswain	4	0 0 3	10	0 3 0	0	2 10 0 2	5	0 2 0 0 0	5	0 2 0 0 0		
Boatswain's mate	1	15 0 1	15	0 1 12	0	1 10 0 1	8	0 1 8 0 1	8	0 1 6 0 1	6	0 0 0
Yeoman of the Sheets	1	12 0 1	10	0 1 8	0	1 8 0 1	8	0 1 6 0 1	8	0 1 6 0 1	6	0 0 0
Coxswain	1	12 0 1	10	0 1 8	0	1 8 0 1	8	0 1 6 0 1	8	0 1 6 0 1	6	0 0 0
Master sail maker	1	15 0 1	15	0 1 15	0	1 14 0 1	12	0 1 12 0 1	12	0 1 10 0 1	10	0 0 0
Sail-maker's mate	1	8 0 1	8	0 1 8	0	1 8 0 1	8	0 1 8 0 1	8	0 1 8 0 1	8	0 0 0
Sail-maker's crew	1	5 0 1	5	0 1 5	0	1 5 0 1	5	0 1 5 0 1	5	0 1 5 0 1	5	0 0 0
Gunner	4	0 0 3	10	0 3 0	0	2 10 0 2	5	0 2 0 0 0	5	0 2 0 0 0		
Gunner's mate	1	15 0 1	15	0 1 12	0	1 10 0 1	10	0 1 8 0 1	10	0 1 6 0 1	6	0 0 0
Yeo. of powder room	1	15 0 1	15	0 1 12	0	1 10 0 1	10	0 1 8 0 1	10	0 1 6 0 1	6	0 0 0
Quarter gunner*	1	6 0 1	6	0 1 5	0	1 5 0 1	5	0 1 5 0 1	5	0 1 5 0 1	5	0 0 0
Armourer	2	5 0 2	0	0 1 17	6	1 13 9 1	10	0 1 10 0 0	10	0 1 10 0 0		
Armourer's mate	1	10 0 1	10	0 1 8	0	1 8 0 1	8	0 1 6 0 1	8	0 1 5 0 1	5	0 0 0
Gunsmith	1	5 0 1	5	0 1 5	0	1 5 0 1	5	0 1 5 0 1	5	0 1 5 0 1	5	0 0 0
Carpenter	4	0 0 3	10	0 3 0	0	2 10 0 2	5	0 2 0 0 0	5	0 2 0 0 0		
Carpenter's mate	2	0 0 2	0	0 1 16	0	1 14 0 1	12	0 1 12 0 1	12	0 1 10 0 1	10	0 0 0
Carpenter's crew	1	6 0 1	6	0 1 5	0	1 5 0 1	5	0 1 5 0 1	5	0 1 5 0 1	5	0 0 0
Purser	4	0 0 3	10	0 3 0	0	2 10 0 2	5	0 2 0 0 0	5	0 2 0 0 0		
Steward	1	5 0 1	5	0 1 5	0	1 3 4 1	0	8 1 0 0	8	1 0 0 0		
Steward's mate	1	0 8 1	0	8 1 0	8	1 0 8 1	0	8 1 0 0	8	1 0 0 0		
Cook	1	5 0 1	5	0 1 5	0	1 5 0 1	5	0 1 5 0 1	5	0 1 4 0 0		
Surgeon †	5	0 0 5	0	0 3 0	0	5 0 5 0	0	5 0 5 0	0	5 0 5 0		
Surgeon's first mate	3	0 0 3	0	0 3 0	0	3 0 3 0	0	3 0 3 0	0	3 0 3 0		
----- second mate	2	10 0 2	10	0 1 10	0	2 10 0 2	10	0 2 10 0 0				
----- third mate	2	0 0 2	0	0 2 0	0	0 0 0						
----- fourth and fifth	1	10 0 1	10	0 1 10	0	0 0 0						
Chaplain ‡	0	19 0 0	19	0 0 19	0	0 19 0						

\* One to every four guns.

† Besides 2d. a month for cash man.

‡ Besides 2d. a month from each man.

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of Richard I

parliament, which answers the annual military act, that is passed for the government of the army, yet neither of those bodies are exempted from legal jurisdiction in civil or criminal cases, but in a few instances of no great moment. The soldiers particularly may be called upon by a civil magistrate, to enable him to preserve the peace against all attempts to break it. The military officer who commands the soldiers on those occasions, is to take his directions from the magistrate; and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified against all consequences, be they ever so fatal. But those civil magistrates who understand the principles of the constitution, are extremely cautious in calling for the military on these occasions, or indeed upon any commotion whatever, and with good reason; for the frequent employment of the military power in a free government is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded against with too much caution.

**COINS.** In Great Britain money is computed by pounds, shillings, and pence; twelve pence making a shilling, and twenty shillings one pound, which pound is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces consist only of guineas, halves, and quarters: the silver, of crowns, half-crowns, shillings, six-pences, groats, and even down to a silver penny, and the copper money only of half-pence and farthings.

In a country like England, where the intrinsic value of silver is nearly equal, and in some coins, crown pieces particularly, superior to the nominal, the coinage of silver money is a matter of great consequence; and yet the present state of the national currency seems to demand a new coinage of shillings and six-pences; the intrinsic value of the latter being, as to many of them, worn down to half their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of parliament, and by the public losing the difference between the bullion of the new and the old money. Besides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are impressed at the Tower of London, but they are not generally current; nor is any silver coin that is lower than six-pence. The coins of the famous Simon, in the time of Cromwell, and in the beginning of Charles II's reign, are remarkable for their beauty.

**ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, & ORDERS.** The title of the king of England, is, By the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, his or her Grace, or Highness, till Henry VIII. to put himself on a footing with the emperor Charles V. assumed that of majesty; but the old designation was not abolished till towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign. The title of Defender of the Faith above mentioned was given to Henry VIII. by the pope, on account of a book written by the king against Luther, and the Reformation. To the titles already given, the King of Great Britain has others from his German dominions, as Elector of Hanover, Duke of Brunswick Lunenburg, &c.

Since the accession of the present royal family of Great Britain, anno 1714, the royal achievement is marshalled as follows: quarterly, in the first grand quarter, *Mars, three lions passant guardant, in pale, Sol*, the imperial ensigns of England, impaled, with the royal arms of Scotland, which are *Sol, a lion rampant within a double tressure flowered, and counterflowered, with fleurs-de-lis, Mars*. The second quarter is the royal arms of France, viz. *Jupiter, three fleurs-de-lis, Sol*. The third, the ensigns of Ireland: which is, *Jupiter, an harp, Sol, stringed Luna*. And the fourth grand quarter is his present majesty's own coat, viz. *Mars, two lions passant, guardant, Sol, for Brunswick, impaled with Lunenburg, which is, Sol senée of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter; having ancient Saxony, viz. Mars on horse currant Luna, ente (or grafted) in base; and in a shield fourtout, Mars, the diadem, or crown of Charlemagne; the whole, within a garter, as sovereign of that most noble order of knighthood.*

The motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right*, is as old as the reign of Richard I. who assumed it to shew his independency upon all earthly powers.

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It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he laid claim to the crown of France. Almost every king of England had a particular badge or cognisance; sometimes a white hart; sometimes a fetlock with a falcon, by which it is said Edward IV. alluded to the infidelity of one of his mistresses; and sometimes a portcullis, which was that of the house of Lancaster, many of the princes of which were born in the castle of Beaufort. The white rose was the bearing of the house of York; and that of Lancaster, by way of contradistinction, adopted the red. The thistle, which is now part of the royal armorial bearings, belonged to Scotland, and was very significant, when joined to its motto, *Nemo me impune lacesset*, "None shall provoke me unpunished."

The titles of the king's eldest son, are, prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothsay, earl of Chester, electoral prince of Brunswick and Lunenburg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the Isles, great steward of Scotland, and captain general of the artillery company.

The order of the GARTER, the most honourable in England, was instituted by Edward III. January 19, 1344. It consists of the sovereign who is always the king or queen of England, of 25 companions called Knights of the Garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, supposed to be the titular saint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, suspended from a blue ribband, which was formerly worn about their necks, but since the latter end of James I. crosses their bodies from the shoulder. The garter, which is of blue velvet, bordered with gold, buckled under the left knee, and gives the name to the order, was designed as an ensign of unity and combination; on it is embroidered the words, *Honi soit qui mal y pense*, "Evil to him who evil thinks." Authors are divided as to the original of that motto; but it probably alluded to the bad faith of the French king John, Edward's contemporary; the latter thereby declaring the equity of his own intention, and retorting shame on any who should think ill of the enterprize he had engaged in to support his right to the crown of France. This order is so respectable, that some of the most illustrious foreign princes have been companions of it. It has a prelate, who is the bishop of Winchester, and a chancellor, who is the bishop of Salisbury for the time being. It has likewise a register, who is dean of Windsor, and a principal king at arms, called Garter, whose office it is to marshal and manage the solemnities at the installation, and seats of the knights. The place of installation is Edward III.'s chapel at Windsor, on which occasion the knights appear in magnificent robes, appropriated to their order, and in their collars of SS. The collar and cap and feathers were introduced by Henry VIII. and to the cross of the order encompassed with the garter worn on the left side of their coat, Charles II. added a silver star of eight points.

Knights of the BATH, so called from their bathing at the time of their creation, are supposed to have been instituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399, but the order seems to be more ancient. For many reigns they were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or other solemn occasions, and they wear a scarlet ribband hanging from the left shoulder, with an enamelled medal the badge of the order, a rose issuing from the dexter side of a sceptre, and a thistle from the sinister, between three imperial crowns placed within the motto, *Tria juncta in uno*, "Three joined in one." This order being discontinued, was revived by king George I. on the 18th of May, 1725, and the month following eighteen noblemen and as many commoners were installed knights of the order, with great ceremony, at Westminster, where the place of installment is Henry VII.'s chapel. Their robes are splendid and showy, and the number of knights is undetermined. The bishop of Rochester is perpetual dean of the order, which has likewise a register and other officers.

The order of the THISTLE, as belonging to Scotland, is mentioned in the account

of

of that country; as is also the order of St. PATRICK, newly instituted for Ireland, in our account of that kingdom.

The origin of the English peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. Their titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and lords or barons.

Baronets can scarcely be said to belong to an order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field, argent, in their arms. They are the only hereditary honour under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the Garter, were it not that the latter are always privy counsellors; there being no intermediate honour between them and the parliamentary barons of England. They were instituted by James I. about the year 1615. Their number was then two hundred, and each paid about 1000*l.* on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulster in Ireland: but at present their number amounts to 700.

A knight is a term used almost in every nation in Europe, and in general signifies a soldier serving on horseback; a rank of no mean estimation in ancient armies, and entitling the party himself to the appellation of *Sir*. In the common laws they are called *militis* or *soldiers*; and they are made, by the king laying a sword upon their shoulders, and desiring them to rise by the title of *Sir*. It is a mark of personal regard from the crown, and therefore the title does not descend to posterity. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England; such as those of *bannerets*, bachelors, knights of the carpet, and the like, but they are now disused. Indeed in the year 1773, at a review of the royal navy at Portsmouth, the king conferred the honour of Knights Bannerets on two admirals and three captains. They have no particular badge on their garments, but their arms are painted on a banner placed in the frames of the supporters.

It is somewhat difficult to account for the origin of the word *esquire*, which formerly signified a person bearing the arms of a nobleman or knight, and they were therefore called *armigeri*. This title denoted any person, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but is at present applied promiscuously to any man who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman without trade, and even a tradesman, if he is a justice of peace, demands the appellation. This degree, so late as in the reign of Henry IV. was an order, and confirmed by the king, by putting about the party's neck a collar of SS. and giving him a pair of silver spurs. Gower the poet appears from his effigies on his tomb in Southwark, to have been an esquire by creation. Serjeants-at-law, and other serjeants belonging to the king's household, justices of the peace, doctors in divinity, law, and physic, take place of other esquires; and it is remarkable, that all the sons of dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons, are in the eye of the law no more than esquires, though commonly designed by noble titles. The appellation of gentleman, though now bestowed so promiscuously, is the root of all English honour; for every nobleman is presumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

[HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the first inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtae, that settled on the opposite shore: a supposition founded upon their evident conformity in language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

When Julius Caesar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Christ, meditated the conquest of Britain, the natives were much connected with the Gauls, and other people of the continent. Caesar wrote the history of his two expeditions, which were accompanied with great difficulties. It plainly appears, from the subsequent history of Britain, that his victories were indidicive; nor did the Romans derive the least advantage from the tribute which he imposed on the islanders. The Britons at that period were governed in the time of war by a political con-

federacy, of which Cassibelan, whose territories lay in Hertfordshire, and some of the adjacent counties, was the head: and this form of government long continued among them.

In their manner of life, as described by Cæsar and the best authors, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates that have been already mentioned; they sowed corn, but chiefly subsisted upon animal food and milk. Their cloathing was skins, and their fortifications beams of wood. They were incredibly dexterous in the management of their chariots; and they fought with lances, darts, and swords. Women sometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognised as sovereigns of particular districts. They favoured a primogeniture or seniority, in their succession to royalty, but set it aside on the smallest inconveniency attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluish or greenish cast; and they are said to have had figures of animals and heavenly bodies on their skins. In their marriages they were not very delicate. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common to them all, but her children belonged to the original husband.

The Britons lived, during the long reign of Augustus Cæsar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæsar, about forty-two years after the birth of Christ, undertook an expedition in person, in which he seems to have been successful. His conquests, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicea, though a woman, made noble stands against the Romans. The former was taken prisoner after a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors. Boadicea being oppressed in a manner that disgraces the Roman name, and defeated, disdained to survive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing South Britain, carried his arms northwards, as has been already seen in the history of Scotland, where his successors had no reason to boast of their progress, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time the Romans remained in this island, they erected those walls which have been so often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invasions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts; and we are told, that the Roman language, learning, and customs, became familiar in Britain. There seems to be no great foundation for this assertion; and it is more probable, that the Romans considered Britain chiefly as a nursery for their armies, on account of the superior strength of body and courage of the inhabitants. That this was the case appears plainly enough from the defenceless state of the Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that island. I have already taken notice, that during the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and it is certain, that under them the South-Britons were reduced to a state of great vassalage, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives made a brave resistance against those tyrants of nations. The Roman emperors and generals, while in this island, assisted by the Britons, were frequently employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts (the latter are thought to have been the southern Britons retired northwards), and they appeared to have had no difficulty in maintaining their authority in the southern provinces.

Upon the mighty inundations of those barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire with infinite numbers, and with danger to Rome itself\*, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the British youth, for the defence of the capital and centre of the empire. As the Roman forces decreased in Britain, the Scots and Picts,

\* See the Introduction.

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who had always opposed the progress of the Romans in this island, advanced the more boldly into the southern parts, carrying terror and desolation over the whole country. The effeminated Britons were so accustomed to have recourse to the Romans for defence, that they again and again implored their return. But the Romans, at length reduced to extremities at home, and fatigued with distant expeditions, acquainted the Britons that they must no longer look to them for protection, and exhorted them to arm in their own defence; and that they might leave the island with a good grace, they assisted the Britons in rebuilding with stone the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, which they lined with forts and watch-towers; and having done this good office, took their last farewell of Britain about the year 448, after having been masters of the most fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invasion of Julius Cæsar, near 500 years.

The Scots and Picts finding the island finally deserted by the Roman legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacked Severus's wall with redoubled forces, ravaged all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in those ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inspire. The poor Britons, like a helpless family deprived of their parent and protector, already subdued by their own fears, had again recourse to Rome, and sent over their miserable epistle for relief (still upon record), which was addressed in these words: *To Actius, thirce consul: The groans of the Britons;* and, after other lamentable complaints, said, *That the barbarians drove them to the sea, and the sea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left of perishing by the sword or by the waves.* But having no hopes given them by the Roman general of any succours from that side, they began to consider what other nation they might call over to their relief: Gildas, who was himself a Briton, describes the degeneracy of his countrymen at this time in mournful strains, and gives some confused hints of their officers, and the names of some of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, chief of the *Daumonii*, by whose advice the Britons struck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengist and Horsa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in those days masters of what is now called the English Channel, and their native countries comprehending Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany, being overstocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons, whom they relieved, by checking the progress of the Scots and Picts, and had the island of Thanet allowed them for their residence. But their own country was so barren, and the fertile lands of Britain so alluring, that in a very little time Hengist and Horsa began to meditate a settlement for themselves: and fresh supplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons soon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent struggle of near 150 years, they subdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and descendants still remain.

Literature at this time in England was so rude, that we know but little of its history. The Saxons were ignorant of letters, and public transactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, whom they held in great veneration. Nennius, who seems to have been contemporary with Gildas, mentions indeed a few facts, but nothing that can be relied on, or that can form a connected history. We can therefore only mention the names of Merlin, a reputed prince and prophet; Pendragon, the celebrated Arthur, and Thaislin, whose works are said to be extant, with others of less note. After many repeated bloody wars, in which the Britons were sometimes the enemies and sometimes the allies of the Scots and Picts, the Saxons became masters of all England to the south of Adrian's, or rather Severus's wall; but the Scots and Picts seem to have been masters of all the territory to the north, though they suffered the Britons, who had been driven into their territories, to be governed by their own tributary kings: an intermixture that has created much confusion in history.

A sketch of the constitution and government which the Saxons imported into England, and which form by far the most valuable part of their ancient history, has already been given. We have no account of their conversion to Christianity but from Popish writers, who generally endeavour to magnify the merits of their superiors. According to them, Ethelbert king of Kent, who claimed pre-eminence in the heptarchy, as being descended from Hengist, one of the first invaders, married the king of France's daughter, and she being a Christian, pope Gregory the Great seized that opportunity to enforce the conversion of her husband to Christianity, or rather to Popery. For that purpose, about the year 596, he sent over to England the famous Austin, the monk, who probably found no great difficulty in converting the king and his people, and also Sebert, king of the East Saxons, who was baptized, and founded the cathedral of St. Paul in London. The monk then, by his master's order, attempted to bring the churches of the Britons in Wales to a conformity with that of Rome, particularly as to the celebration of Easter; but finding a stout resistance on the part of the bishops and clergy, he persuaded his Christian converts to massacre them, which they did to the number of 1200 priests and monks, and reduced the Britons, who were found in the heptarchy, to a state of slavery, which some think gave rise to the ancient villenage in England. Austin is accounted the first archbishop of Canterbury, and died in 603, as his convert Athelbert did soon after.

It does not fall within the design of this work to relate the separate history of each particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is sufficient to say, that the pope, in Austin's time, supplied England with about 400 monks, and that the popish clergy took care to keep their kings and laity under the most deplorable ignorance, but always magnifying the power and sanctity of his holiness. Hence it was that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by priests and monks; and, as they saw convenient, persuaded their kings either to shut themselves up in cloisters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finished their days; no less than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, resigned their crowns in that manner, and among them was Ina, king of the West Saxons, in other respects a wise and brave prince. The bounty of those Anglo-Saxon kings to the see of Rome was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, imposed an annual tax of a penny upon every house, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's pence, because paid on the holiday of *St. Peter ad Vincula*, August 1st\*.

The Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, commonly chose one who was to be the head of their political confederacy, for regulating their concerns, but without any jurisdiction in the dominion of others. The clergy, we may easily suppose, had great influence on those occasions; and the history of the Saxon heptarchy is little more than that of crimes, treasons, and murders, committed at the instigation of priests and monks. Even their criminal law, as hath been already observed, admitted of a pecuniary compensation for murder, and regicide itself.

Under all those disadvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-Saxons were happier than the nations on the continent; being free from the invasion of the Saracens, who had erected an empire in the East upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then a place of very considerable trade; and if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles quoted by Tyrrel, Withred, king of Kent, paid at one time to Ina, king of Wessex, a sum

\* This tax was imposed at first for the support of a college at Rome for the education of English youth, founded by Ina, king of Wessex, under the

name of *Rome-Scot*, but in process of time the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St. Peter and his successors.

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in silver equal to 90,000l. sterling in the year 694. England, therefore, we may suppose to have been about this time a *refuge* for the people of the continent. The venerable but superstitious Bede, about the year 749, composed his Church History of Britain, from the coming in of the Saxons down to the year 731. The Saxon Chronicle is one of the oldest and most authentic monuments of history that any nation can produce. Architecture, such as it was, with stone and glass-working, was introduced into England; and we read, in 799, of a Northumbrian prelate who was served in silver-plate. It must however be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouses are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this state was the Saxon heptarchy in England when, about the year 800, most of the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy Egbert, who was the eldest remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who first arrived in Britain. On the submission of the Northumbrians, in the year 827, he became king of all England.

Charles the Great, otherwise Charlemagne, was then king of France and emperor of Germany. In a former part of this work has been mentioned the commercial treaty between him and Offa, king of Mercia, to whom he sent as a present a Hungarian sword, a belt, and two silken vests. Egbert had been obliged by state-jealousies to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the persecutions of Eadburga, daughter of Offa, wife to Birthric, king of the West Saxons. At the court of Charles he acquired the arts both of war and government. His prosperity excited the envy of the northern nations, who, under the name of Danes, then infested the seas, and were no strangers to the coasts of England; for about the year 833 they made descents upon Kent and Dorsetshire, where they defeated Egbert in person, and carried off abundance of booty to their ships. About two years after they landed in Cornwall, and, though they were joined by the Cornish Britons, they were driven out of England by Egbert, who died in the year 838 at Winchester, his chief residence.

Egbert was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldest son Athelstan. By this time England had become a scene of desolation, through the renewal of the Danish invasions; and Ethelwolf, after some time bravely opposing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried with him his youngest son, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the English constitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occasion (copies of which are still remaining) are so prodigious, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they shew his head to have been turned by his devotion, or his heart gained by the arts of Swithin, bishop of Winchester. Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of his sons (Athelstan being then dead), Ethelbald and Ethelbert, but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert, who was the surviving son, left his kingdom, in 866, to his brother Ethelred; in whose time, notwithstanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became masters of the sea-coasts, and the finest counties in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greatest princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in history. He fought seven battles with the Danes with various success, and when defeated, he found resources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was at one time reduced to an uncommon state of distress, being forced to live in the disguise of a cowherd; but still kept up a secret correspondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together, and by their assistance gave the Danes many signal overthrows, till at last he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes who had been settled in it to swear obedience to his government.

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Among the other glories of Alfred's reign was that of raising a maritime power, by which he secured his coasts from future invasions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the university of Oxford about the year 895: he divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; or rather he revived those divisions, and the use of juries, which had fallen into decay since the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was not only a scholar but an author: and he tells us, that upon his accession to the throne, he had scarcely a lay subject who could read English, or an ecclesiastic who understood Latin. He introduced stone and brick buildings in palaces as well as churches, though it is certain that his subjects, for many years after his death, were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may seem incredible to modern times, but he had merchants who traded in East India jewels; and William of Malmibury says, that some of their gems were repositied in the church of Sherbone in his time. He received from one Oether, about the year 890, a full discovery of the coasts of Norway and Lapland, as far as Russia; and he tells the king, in his memorial printed by Hakluyt, "that he sailed along the Norway coast so far north as commonly the whale hunters use to travel." Alfred invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and useful allies against the Danes, in the two Scotch kings his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald. He is said to have fought no less than fifty-six pitched battles. He was inexorable against his corrupt judges, whom he used to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is so completely amiable and heroic, that he is justly dignified with the epithet of the Great.

Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their invasions. He died in the year 925, and was succeeded by his eldest son Athelstan. This prince, to encourage commerce, enacted, that every merchant who made three voyages on his own account to the Mediterranean, should be put upon a footing with a *thane*, or *noblesman* of the first rank. He caused the Scriptures to be translated into the Saxon tongue. He encouraged coinage, and we find by his laws, that archbishops, bishops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of coining money. His dominions were confined towards the north by the Danes, although his vassals still kept a footing in those counties. He was successful in his wars with the Scots, and died in 941. The reigns of his successors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, they being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or disgraced by the influence of priests. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, and is said to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight kings, his vassals, he sitting at the helm; but, like his predecessors, he was the slave of priests, particularly St. Dunstan. His reign, however, was pacific and happy, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of the Twe. He was succeeded in 975, by his eldest son Edward, who was barbarously murdered by his stepmother, whose son Ethelred mounted the throne in 978. The nation was at that time harassed by the Danes. To get rid of them, Ethelred agreed to pay them 30,000*l.* which was levied by way of tax, and called *Danegeld*, and was the first land-tax in England. In the year 1002 they had made such settlements in England, that Ethelred consented to a general massacre of them by the English. But this atrocious design served only to enrage the Danish king Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen, and two sons, out of England into Normandy, a province of France, facing the south-east coast of England, at that time governed by its own princes, styled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed, was succeeded by his son Canute the Great; but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vast army, and obliged

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ligned Edmund Ironside (so called for his great bodily strength), Ethelred's son, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being assassinated, Canute succeeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1035, his son Harold Harefoot did nothing memorable, and his successor Hardicanute was so degenerate a prince that the Danish royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, commonly called the Confessor, mounted it, though Edgar Atheling, a weak youth, being descended from an elder branch, had the lineal right. Edward the Confessor was a soft, good natured prince, a great benefactor to the church, and excessively fond of the Normans, with whom he had resided. He was governed by his minister earl Godwin, and his sons, the eldest of whom was Harold. He durst not resent, though he felt, their ignominious treatment of him. It is said, that he desired the succession of his crown to William duke of Normandy. Be that as it will, it is certain that, upon the death of the Confessor, in the year 1066, Harold, son to Godwin, earl of Kent, mounted the throne.

William duke of Normandy, though a bastard, possessed that great duchy, and resolved to assert his right to the crown of England. For that purpose, he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vassals, to join him, and made liberal promises to his followers, of lands and honours in England, to induce them to assist him effectually. By these means he collected 40,000 of the bravest and most regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarrassed with fresh invasions of the Danes, William landed in England without opposition. Harold returning from the North, encountered William in the place where the town of Hastings now stands, in Suffex, and a most bloody battle was fought between the two armies; but Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

Few improvements, either in arts or arms, were made by the Saxons in England, during the Danish invasions. These barbarians seem to have carried off with them almost all the bullion and ready money of the Anglo-Saxons; for Alfred the Great left no more to his two daughters for their portions than 100l. each. The return of the Danes to England, and the victories which had been gained over them, had undoubtedly brought back great part of the money and bullion they had carried off: for we are told, that Harold in his last victory over the Danes, regained as much treasure as twelve lusty men could carry off. We have indeed very particular accounts of the value of provisions and manufactures in those days; a palfrey cost 1s. an acre of land (according to bishop Fleetwood, in his *Chronicon Pretiosum*) 1s. a hide of land containing 120 acres, 100s. but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which those things bore to the present standard of money, though many ingenious treatises have been written on that head. A sheep was estimated at 1s. an ox was computed at 6s. a cow at 4s. a man at 3l. The board wages of a child the first year was 8s. The tenants of Shireburne were obliged at their choice to pay either 6d. or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much used. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceased. Entails were sometimes practised in those times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons, we can say little, but that they were in general a rude uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unskilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to submission under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. Even so low as the reign of Canute, they sold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their best quality was their military courage, which yet was not supported by discipline or conduct. Even the Norman historians, notwithstanding the low state of the arts in their own country, speak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invasion made upon them by the duke of

of Normandy. Conquest put the people in a situation of receiving slowly from abroad the rudiments of science and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners.

The loss which both sides suffered at the battle of Hastings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors say, that Harold was so impatient to fight, he attacked William with half of his army, so that the advantage of numbers was on the side of the Norman; and, indeed, the death of Harold seems to have decided the day; and William, with little farther difficulty, took possession of the throne, and made a considerable alteration in the constitution of England, by converting lands into knight's fees \*, which are said to have amounted to 62,000, held by the tenure of assisting him in his wars. To one of his favourites he gave the whole county of Chester, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almost independent of the crown. William found it no easy matter to keep possession of his crown. Edgar Atheling, and his sister, the next Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms, and formed conspiracies in England. William got the better of all difficulties, especially after he had made a peace with Malcolm king of Scotland, who married Atheling's sister; but not without exercising horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced the Norman laws and language. He built the stone square tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; bridled the country with forts, and disarmed the old inhabitants; in short, he attempted every thing possible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon constitution; though, at his coronation, he took the same oath that used to be taken by the ancient Saxon kings.

He caused a general survey of all the lands of England to be made, or rather to be completed (for it was begun in Edward the Confessor's time), and an account to be taken of the villains, slaves, and live stock upon each estate; all which were recorded in a book called Doomsday-book, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repose of this fortunate and victorious king, was disturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldest son Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now assumed the government as sovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. In this transaction we have the rise of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, and been attended with more memorable achievements, than any other national quarrel we read of in ancient or modern history. William seeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his usual vigour, and with incredible celerity, transporting a brave English army, invaded France, where he was every where victorious, but died before he had finished the war, in the year 1087, the sixty-first of his age, and twenty-first of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

By the Norman conquest, England not only lost the true line of her ancient Saxon kings, but also her principal nobility; who either fell in battle in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland, where, being kindly received by King Malcolm, they established themselves; and, what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or English, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

On the other hand, England, by virtue of the conquest, became much greater, both in dominion and power, by the accession of so much territory upon the continent. For though the Normans gained much of the English land and riches, yet England gained the large and fertile dukedom of Normandy, which became an appendage to its crown. England likewise gained much by the great increase of naval

\* Four hides of land made one knight's fee; a barony was twelve times greater than a knight's-

fee; and when Doomsday-book was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.

power,

power, and multitude of ships, wherein Normandy then abounded. This, with the perpetual intercourse between England and the continent, gave us an increase of trade and commerce, and of treasure to the crown and kingdom, besides a natural right to the dominion of the Channel, which had been before maintained only by the greater naval power of Edgar, and other Saxon kings. For the dominion of the narrow seas seems naturally to belong, like that of rivers, to those who possess the banks or coasts on both sides; and thus the former title was confirmed, by so long a coast as that of Normandy on one side, and of England on the other side of the Channel.

The succession of the crown of England was disputed between the Conqueror's sons, Robert and William (commonly called Rufus, from his being red-haired), and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have therefore been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewise hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother, and consequently he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers and rebellious subjects. About this time the crusades to the Holy Land began, and Robert, who was among the first to engage, accommodated matters with William for a sum of money, which he levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generosity towards Edgar Atheling and the court of Scotland, notwithstanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter, but was accidentally killed by an arrow shot by Tyrrel at a stag, as he was hunting in New Forest in Hampshire, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age. He is chiefly accused of rapacity and oppression; but the circumstances of his reign required money, which he had no other means of raising but from a luxurious, over-grown clergy, who had engrossed all the riches of the kingdom.

This prince built Westminster-hall as it now stands, and added several works to the Tower, which he surrounded with a wall and ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the sea which overflowed great part of earl Goodwin's estate in Kent, and formed those shallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin Sands.

William Rufus was succeeded by his brother Henry I. surnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was then returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be said to have purchased the throne; first by his brother's treasures, which he seized at Winchester; secondly, by a charter, in which he restored his subjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings; and thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the ancient Saxon line. His reign restored the clergy to their influence in the state, and they formed a separate body dependent upon the pope, which afterwards created great convulsions in England. Henry, partly by force and partly by stratagem, made himself master of his brother Robert's person, and duchy of Normandy; and, with a most ungenerous meanness, detained him a prisoner for twenty-eight years, till the time of his death; meanwhile quieting his conscience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but successful war with France; and before his death he settled the succession upon his daughter the empress Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her son Henry, by her second husband Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a surfeit of lampreys in the seventy-eighth year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithstanding the late settlement of the succession, the crown of England was claimed, and seized by Stephen earl of Blois, the son of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and her son were then abroad; and Stephen was assisted in his usurpation by his brother the bishop of Winchester, and the other great prelates, that he might hold the crown dependent upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland; and a

worthy subject in her natural brother Robert, earl of Gloucester, who headed her party until her son grew up. A long and bloody war ensued, the clergy having absolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of succession; but at length, the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, having been abandoned by his partizans, was defeated and taken prisoner in 1141. Being carried before Matilda, she impotently upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak, the clergy were bold and ambitious; and when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, they were an overmatch for the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his accession; and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the earl of Gloucester, who had been likewise taken prisoner, upon obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from the government, by building 1100 castles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. Stephen attempted to force them to declare his son Eustace heir apparent to the kingdom; and exasperated the clergy so much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This measure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehensive of a second conquest; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay aristocracy, proposed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time lost his son Eustace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact invested with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his successor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received with joy by the English, who had seen and suffered so many evils during the late civil wars: and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne, without a rival, in 1154.

Henry II. surnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greatest prince of his time. He soon discovered extraordinary abilities for government, and had performed, in the sixteenth year of his age, exploits that would not have disgraced the most experienced warriors. At his accession to the throne, he found the condition of the English boroughs greatly bettered, by the privileges granted them in the struggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to such a height, that if a bondman or servant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by such residence made free. He erected Wallingford, Winchester, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the services the inhabitants had done to his mother and himself.

Without being very scrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he resumed the excessive grants of crown lands made by Stephen, which were represented as illegal. He demolished many of the castles that had been built by the barons; but when he came to touch the clergy, he found their usurpations not to be shaken. He perceived that the root of all their enormous disorders lay in Rome, where the popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay courts, but civil taxes. The bloody cruelties and disorders occasioned by those exemptions, all over the kingdom, would be incredible, were they not attested by the most unexceptionable evidences. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the English church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man, powerful from his offices, and still more by his popularity, arising from a pretended sanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but withal cool and politic. The king assembled his nobility at Clarendon, in Wiltshire, the name of which place is still famous for the constitutions there enacted; which in fact, abolished the authority of the Romish see over the English clergy.

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Becket finding it in vain to resist the stream, signed those constitutions, till they could be ratified by the pope, who, as he foresaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the most determined spirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his neighbours; and the see of Rome was in its meridian grandeur. Becket having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public, while he was chancellor, fled to France, where the pope and the French king espoused his quarrel. The effect was, that all the English clergy who were on the king's side were excommunicated, and the laity absolved from their allegiance. This disconcerted Henry so much, that he submitted to treat, and even to be insulted by his rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the streets of London in 1170. His return swelled his pride, and increased his insolence, till both became insupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the first subject of his own dominions, he was heard to say in the anguish of his heart, "Is there none who will revenge his monarch's cause upon this audacious priest?" These words reached the ears of four knights, Reginal Fitzurse, William de Tracy, Hugh de Moreville, and Richard Brito; who, without apprising Henry of their intentions, went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury, in the year 1171. Henry was in no condition to defend the blind obedience of his knights; and the public resentment rose so high, on the supposition that he was privy to the murder, that he submitted to be scourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in consequence of his well known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and occasioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken prisoner; and, to deliver himself from captivity, was obliged to pay liege homage to king Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and for all his other dominions. It was also agreed, that liege homage should be done, and fealty sworn to Henry, without reserve or exception, by all the earls and barons of the territories of the king of Scotland, from whom Henry should desire it, in the same manner as by his other vassals. The heirs of the king of Scotland, and the heirs of his earls, barons, and tenants in chief, were likewise obliged to render the liege homage to the heirs of the king of England.

Henry likewise distinguished his reign by the conquest of Ireland; and by marrying Eleanor the divorced queen of France, heiress of Guienne and Poictou, he became almost as powerful in France as the French king himself, and the greatest prince in Christendom. In his last years he was unhappy, having embarrassed himself by intrigues with women, particularly the fair Rosamond. His infidelity was resented by his queen Eleanor, even to the seducing her sons, Henry, (whom his father had unadvisedly caused to be crowned in his own life-time) Richard, and John, in repeated rebellions, which affected their father so much as to throw him into a fever, and he died at Chinon in France, in the year 1189, and 57th of his age. The sum he left in ready money at his death has perhaps been exaggerated, since the most moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000*l.* of our money.

During the reign of Henry, corporation charters were established all over England, by which the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Those corporations encouraged trade; but manufactures, especially those of silk, seem still to have been confined to Spain and Italy; for the silk coronation robes, made use of by young Henry and his queen, cost 87*l.* 10*s.* 4*d.* in the sheriff of London's account, printed by Mr. Maddox; a vast sum in those days. Henry introduced the use of glass windows into England, and stone arches in building. William of Malmshury,

Henry

Henry archdeacon of Huntingdon, and other historians who lived under him, are remarkable for their Latin style, which is often pure and elegant.

In this reign, and in those barbarous ages, it was a custom in London for great numbers, to the amount of a hundred or more, of the sons and relations of eminent citizens, to form themselves into a licentious confederacy, to break into rich houses and plunder them, to rob and murder passengers, and to commit the most daring crimes. Henry, about the year 1176, divided England into six parts, called *circuits*, appointing judges to go at certain times of the year and hold *assizes*, to administer justice to the people, as is practised to this day.

Henry so far abolished the barbarous and absurd practice of forfeiting ships which had been wrecked on the coast, that if one man or animal were alive in the ship, the vessel and goods were restored to the owners. This prince was also the first who levied a tax on the moveable or personal estates of his subjects, nobles as well as people. Their zeal for the holy war made them submit to this innovation; and a precedent being once obtained, this taxation became in following reigns an usual method of supplying the necessities of the crown. It was the practice of some kings of England to repeat the ceremony of their coronation thrice a year, on assembling the states at the three great festivals. Henry, after the first years of his reign, never renewed this ceremony, which was found to be very expensive and very useless. None of his successors ever revived it. Since we are here collecting some detached instances, which show the genius of those ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger archbishop of York and Richard archbishop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when ecclesiastics would proceed to such extremities. The pope's legate having summoned an assembly of the clergy at London, and as both the archbishops pretended to sit on his right hand, this question of precedency begot a controversy between them. The monks and retainers of archbishop Richard fell upon Roger in the presence of the cardinal and of the synod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and so bruised him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty saved from their violence.

Richard I. surnamed *Cœur de Lion*, from his great courage, was the third, but eldest surviving son of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over, and for their own ends they persuaded him to make a most magnificent, but ruinous crusade to the Holy Land, where he took Ascalon, and performed such actions of valour as give countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After several glorious, but fruitless campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin emperor of the Saracens; and, in his return to England, he was treacherously surpris'd by the duke of Austria, who, in 1193, sent him a prisoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ransom was fixed by the fardid emperor at 150,000 marks; about 300,000. of our present money: According to temporary authors, the raising of this ransom proved to be a matter of so much difficulty, that all the church plate was melted down, and a tax was laid on all persons, both ecclesiastical and secular, of one-fourth part of their income for one year; and twenty shillings on every knight's fee; also one year's wool borrowed of the Cistercians; besides money raised upon the clergy of the king's French dominions; and 2000 marks which were furnished by William king of Scotland, in gratitude for Richard's generous behaviour to him before his departure. Though all these sums are well authenticated, yet it is not easy to reconcile them with certain other money-transactions of this reign, but by supposing that Richard carried off with him, and expended abroad, all the visible specie in the kingdom; and that the people had reserved vast hoards, which they afterwards produced, when commerce took a brisker turn.

Whilst the Scottish kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their interest,

\* It appears Scotland, and the king's revenue, to be

interest, once generally in every king's reign, to perform homage; but when they were deprived of their said lands, they paid it no more \*.

Woollen broad cloths were made in England at this time. An ox sold for three shilling, which answers to nine shillings of our money, and a sheep at four pence, or one shilling. Weights and measures were now ordered to be the same all over the kingdom. Richard, upon his return, found his dominions in great disorder, through the practices of his brother John, whom he however pardoned; and by the invasions of the French, whom he repelled; but was slain in besieging the castle of Chalons, in the year 1199, the 42d of his age, and 10th of his reign.

The reign of his brother John, who succeeded him, is infamous in the English history. He is said to have put to death Arthur, the eldest son of his brother Geoffry, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother, Constance, complained to Philip the king of France; who, upon John's non-appearance at his court as a vassal, deprived him of Normandy. John notwithstanding, in his wars with the French, Scotch, and Irish, gave many proofs of personal valour; but became at last so apprehensive of a French invasion, that he rendered himself a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons resented his meanness, by taking arms; but he repeated his shameful submissions to the pope, and, after experiencing various fortunes of war, was at last brought so low, that the barons obliged him, in 1216, to sign the great deed, so well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of English liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of those immunities which the barons and their followers had enjoyed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and Henry II. As the principles of liberty came to be more enlarged, and property to be better secured, this charter, by various subsequent acts and explanations, came to be applicable to every English subject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burghesses. John had scarcely signed it, when he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection, when the barons withdrew their allegiance from him, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldest son of Philip Augustus, king of France. This gave umbrage to the pope; and the barons being apprehensive lest their country should become a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance; but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refused to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the 18th year of his reign, and the 49th of his age, just as he had a glimpse of resuming his authority. Without disputing what historians have said of his arbitrary, inconstant, and cruel disposition, it is evident, from the same relations, that he had great provocations from the clergy and the barons, who in their turns attempted to annihilate the regal prerogative. It is undeniable at the same time that, under John, the commons of England laid the foundation of all the wealth and privileges they now enjoy; and the commerce of England received a most surprising increase. He may be called the father of the privileges of free boroughs, which he established and endowed all over his kingdom.

The city of London owes some of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to chuse a mayor out of their own body annually, and to elect their sheriffs and common council annually, as at present.

\* It appears however, that William I. king of Scotland, and his subjects, consented to acknowledge the king of England and his heirs, to all perpetuity, to be their sovereigns and liege lords, and

that they did homage for the kingdom of Scotland accordingly; but this advantage was given up by Richard I. *Vide* Lord Lyttelton's History of Henry. II. vol. v. p. 220, 223, 225. 8vo. edit.

England was in a deplorable situation when her crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's son, who was but nine years old. The earl of Pembroke was chosen his guardian; the pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent, earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died in 1219, and the regency devolved upon the bishop of Winchester. The French king all this time kept possession of Normandy; but at home the power of the pope became exorbitant; and he sent no fewer than 300 of his rapacious clergy, in the year 1240, to take possession of the best English benefices, and to load the people with taxes. This evil was increased by the marriage of Henry with the daughter of the earl of Provence, a needy prince, whose poor relations engrossed the best estates and places in the kingdom. The king was of a soft, pliable disposition, and had been persuaded to violate the Great Charter. Indeed he seemed always endeavouring to evade the privileges which he had been compelled to grant and confirm. An association of the barons was formed against him, and a civil war breaking out, Henry seemed to be abandoned by all but his Gascons and foreign mercenaries. His profusion brought him into inexplicable difficulties; and the famous Stephen Montfort, who had married his sister, and was made earl of Leicester, being chosen general of the association, the king and his two sons were defeated, and taken prisoners at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort and the earl of Gloucester, a nobleman of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's eldest son, obtained his liberty, and assembling as many as he could of his father's subjects, who were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Evesham, August 4, 1265, and killed Montfort. The representatives of the commons of England, both knight and burgeses, now formed part of the English legislature, in a separate house; and before this reign historians are not agreed as to the office or powers of this branch of the parliament. Prince Edward being engaged in a crusade, Henry, during his absence, died in 1272, the 64th year of his age, and 56th of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious; and yet to the struggles at that time the people in great measure owe the liberties of the present day. During his reign, the principal customs arose from the importation of French and Rhenish wines, the English being as yet strangers to those of Spain, Portugal, and Italy. Interest had in that age amounted to an enormous height: there are instances of 50l. per cent. being paid for money, which tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithstanding the grievous oppressions they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age and Henry's extortions. In 1255 Henry made a fresh demand of 8000 marks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them if they refused compliance. They now lost all patience, and desired leave to remove with their effects from the kingdom. But the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppression you complain of? I am myself a beggar; I am despoiled; I am stripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had said 300,000, I should not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my son, prince Edward, 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing, and I must have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John his father once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew at Bristol; and, on his refusal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he should consent: the Jew lost seven teeth, and then paid the sum required. Trial by *ordeal* was now entirely disused, and that by *duel* discouraged. Bracton's famous law treatise was published in this reign.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite* to his coronation dinner, which consisted (that

the reader may have some idea of the luxury of the times) of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 sheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats (see Rymer's *Fœdera*). Alexander III. king of Scotland was at the solemnity, and on the occasion 300 horses were let loose, for those that could catch them to keep them.

Edward was a brave and politic prince, and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, interests, and constitution of his kingdom, his regulations and reformation of the laws, have justly given him the title of the English Justinian. He passed the famous mortmain act, whereby all persons "were restrained from giving, by will or otherwise, their estates to (those so called) religious purposes, and the societies that never die, without a licence from the crown." He granted certain privileges to the cinque-ports, which, though now very inconsiderable, were then obliged to attend the king, when he went beyond sea, with fifty-seven ships, each having twenty armed soldiers on board, and to maintain them at their own costs for the space of fifteen days. He reduced the Welch to pay him tribute, and annexed its principality to his crown, and was the first who gave the title of prince of Wales to his eldest son.

His vast connections with the continent were productive of many benefits to his subjects, particularly by the introduction of reading-glasses and spectacles; though they are said to have been invented, in the former reign, by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were erected in England about the same time, and the regulation of gold and silver workmanship was ascertained by an assay and mark of the goldsmith's company. Edward was often embroiled with the pope, especially upon the affairs of Scotland; and he died in 1307, the 69th year of his age and 35th of his reign, while he was upon a fresh expedition against Scotland. He ordered his heart to be sent to the Holy Land, with 32,000*l.* for the maintenance of what was called the *Holy Sepulchre*.

His son and successor Edward II. shewed early dispositions for encouraging favourites; but Gaveston, his chief minion, a Gascon, being banished by his father, he mounted the throne with vast advantages, both political and personal, all which he soon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveston, and loaded him with honours, and married Isabella, daughter to the French king, who restored to him part of the territories which Edward I. had lost in France. The barons, however, obliged him once more to banish his favourite, and to confirm the great charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland, except the castle of Stirling; near to which, at Bannockburn, Edward in person received the greatest defeat that England ever suffered, in 1314. Gaveston being beheaded by the barons, they fixed upon young Hugh Spencer as a spy upon the king, but he soon became his favourite. Through his pride, avarice, and ambition, he was banished, together with his father, who had been created earl of Winchester. The queen, an ambitious and worthless woman, persuaded her husband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's standard, and after defeating them, restored him to the exercise of all his prerogatives. A cruel use was made of those successes, and many noble patriots, with their estates, fell victims to the queen's revenge; but at last she became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her prisoner, and had been one of the most active of the anti-royalist lords. A breach between her and the Spencers soon followed, and, going over to France with her lover, she found means to form such a party in England, that, returning with some French troops, she put the eldest Spencer to an ignominious death, made her husband prisoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown in favour of his son Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was wanting to complete her guilt; and he was most barbarously murdered in

in Berkeley-castle by ruffians, supposed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer, in the year 1327.

Upon an average, the difference of living then and now, seems to be nearly as 5 or 6 is to 1, always remembering that their money contained thrice as much silver as our money or coin of the same denomination does. Thus, for example, if a goose then cost 2½*d.* that is 7½*d.* of our money, according to the proportion of 6 to 1, it would now cost 3*s.* 9*d.* The Knights Templars were suppressed in this reign, owing to their enormous vices.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer; and they endeavoured to keep possession of their power, by promoting many popular measures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland, for which Mortimer was created earl of March. Edward, young as he was, became sensible of their designs. He surprised them in person at the head of a few chosen friends in the castle of Nottingham. Mortimer was hanged as a traitor on the common gallows at Tyburn, and the queen herself was shut up in confinement twenty-eight years, to her death. It was not long before Edward found means to quarrel with David king of Scotland, though he had married his sister. David was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who did homage to Edward for Scotland. Upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without issue), who had succeeded by virtue of the Salic law, which the French pretended cut off all female succession to that crown, Philip of Valois claimed it, as being the next heir male; but he was opposed by Edward, who asserted his right as son of Isabella, who was sister to the three last mentioned kings of France, and first in the female succession. The former was preferred; but, the case being doubtful, Edward pursued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

On this occasion the vast difference between the feudal constitutions of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable to public liberty, appeared. The French officers knew no subordination. They and their men were equally undisciplined and disobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies in the field. The English freemen, on the other hand, having now vast property to fight for, which they could call their own, knew its value, and had learned to defend it by providing themselves with proper armour, and submitting to military exercise and proper subordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward, was therefore a continued scene of success and victory. In 1340 he took the title of king of France, using it in all public acts, and quartered the arms of France with his own, adding this motto, *Dieu et mon droit*, "God and my right." At Cressly, August 26th, 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated by 30,000 English, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but sixteen years of age (his father being no more than thirty-four). The loss of the French far exceeded the number of the English army, whose loss consisted of no more than three knights, one esquire, and about fifty private men. The battle of Poitiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with greatly superior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and their king and his favourite son Philip taken prisoners. It is thought that the number of French killed in this battle was double that of all the English army; but the modesty and politeness with which the prince treated his royal prisoners, formed the brightest wreath in his garland.

Edward's glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, he had the good fortune to take prisoner David king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England about six weeks after the battle of Cressly. Thus Edward had the glory to see two crowned heads

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heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards ransomed; David for 100,000 marks, after being eleven years in captivity, and John for three millions of gold crowns; but John returned to England, in order to adjust some differences respecting his ransom, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Bretigny, into which Edward III. is said to have been frightened by a dreadful storm, his fortunes declined. He had resigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales, and he sunk in the esteem of his subject at home, on account of his attachment to his mistress, one Alice Pierce. The prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince \*, from his wearing that coloured armour, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinstated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was seized with a consumptive disorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long survive him; for he died, dispirited and obscure, at Shene, in Surry, in the year 1377, the 65th of his age, and 51st of his reign.

Edward was one of the most illustrious kings that sat on the English throne. Bent on the conquest of France, he gratified the more readily his people in their demands for security to their liberties and properties: but his ambition exhausted his regal dominions; and his successor, when he mounted the throne, was less powerful than Edward in the beginning of his reign. He has the glory of inviting over and protecting fullers, dyers, weavers, and other artificers from Flanders, and of establishing the woollen manufacture among the English, who, till this time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign seems to have been much the same as in the preceding; and few of the English ships, even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But, notwithstanding the vast increase of property in England, villenage still continued in the royal, episcopal, and baronial manors. Historians are not agreed whether Edward made use of artillery in his first invasion of France, but it certainly was well known before his death. The magnificent castle of Windsor was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that work may serve as a specimen of the condition of the people in that age. Instead of alluring workmen by contract and wages, he assailed every country in England to send him to many masons, tilers, and carpenters. Soldiers were enlisted only for a short time; they lived idle all the rest of the year, and commonly all the rest of their lives; one successful campaign, by pay and plunder, and the ransom of prisoners, was supposed to be a small fortune; which was a great allurements to enter into the service. The wages of a master carpenter was limited through the whole year to three pence a-day, a common carpenter to two pence, money of that age.

Dr. John Wickliffe, a secular priest, born at Oxford, began, in the latter end of this reign, to spread the doctrines of Luther, by his discourses, and writings; and he made many disciples of all ranks. He was a man of learning, and piety; and has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question those doctrines which had passed for certain during so many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe being derived from his search into the scriptures, and into ecclesiastical antiquity, were nearly the same with those propagated by the reformers in the sixteenth century. But, though many seemed strongly disposed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, reserved for a more free and enquiring age. He had many friends in the university of Oxford and at court, and was powerfully protected against the evil designs of the pope and bishops, by John of Gaunt duke of Lancaster, one of the king's sons, and

\* He was also the first in England that had the title of Duke, being created by his father duke of Cornwall; and ever since, the eldest son of the king of England is by birth duke of Cornwall.

great men. His disciples were distinguished by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.

Richard II. son of the Black Prince, was only eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. The English arms were then unsuccessful both in France and Scotland; but the doctrines of Wickliffe took root under the influence of the duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle and one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains, the lower ranks of people. The truth is, that agriculture was then in so flourishing a state, that corn, and other victuals, were suffered to be transported, and the English had fallen upon a way of manufacturing, for exportation, their leather, horns, and other native commodities; and with regard to the woollen manufactures, they seem from records to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Gaunt's foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain were of prejudice to his country; and so many men were employed in unsuccessful wars, that the commons of England, like powder, receiving a spark of fire, all at once flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball, a priest, Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others, the lowest of the populace. The conduct of these insurgents was violent and unjustifiable; but it cannot be denied, that the common people of England then laboured under many oppressions, particularly a *poll tax*.

Richard was not then above sixteen, but he acted with great spirit and wisdom. He faced the storm of the insurgents, at the head of the Londoners, while Walsworth, the mayor, and Philpot, an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the leader of the malcontents, to death, in the midst of his adherents. This, with the reasonable behaviour of Richard, quelled the insurrection for that time; but it broke out with the most bloody effects in other parts of England; and, though it was suppressed by making many examples of severity among the insurgents, yet the common people never after abandoned the cause, till by degrees they obtained those privileges which they now enjoy. Had Richard been a prince of real abilities, he might, after the suppression of those insurgents, have established the tranquillity of his dominions on a sure foundation; but he delivered himself up to worthless favourites, particularly Michael de la Pole, son to a merchant of London, whom he created earl of Suffolk and lord chancellor, judge Tretilian, and, above all, Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, whom he created marquis\* of Dublin and duke of Ireland. They were obnoxious both to the parliament and people, attainted, and condemned to suffer as traitors. The chief justice Tretilian was hanged at Tyburn, but de la Pole and the duke of Ireland escaped abroad, where they died in obscurity. Richard then associated to himself a new set of favourites. His people and great lords again took up arms, and being headed by the duke of Gloucester the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into terms; but being insincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more despotic than any king of England had ever been, when he lost his crown and life by a sudden catastrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, son to the duke of Lancaster, and the duke of Norfolk; and Richard banished them both, with particular marks of injustice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaster by his father's death. Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a strong party was formed in England, the natural result of Richard's tyranny, who offered the duke of Lancaster the crown. He landed from France at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, and was soon at the head of 60,000 men, all of them English. Richard hurried back to England, where his troops refusing to fight, and his subjects, whom he had

\* The first who bore the title of marquis in England.

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affected to despise, generally deserting him, he was made prisoner with no more than twenty attendants; and being carried to London, he was deposed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and misconduct; and soon after he is supposed to have been starved to death in prison, in the year 1399, the 32d of his age, and the 23d of his reign. He had no issue by either of his marriages.

Though the nobility of England were possessed of great power at the time of this revolution, yet we do not find that it abated the influence of the commons. They had the courage to remonstrate boldly in parliament against the usury, which was but too much practised in England, and other abuses of both clergy and laity; and the destruction of the feudal powers soon followed.

Henry the Fourth\*, son of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III. being settled on the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward III.'s family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect of his title would render him dependent upon them. At first some conspiracies were formed against him by the dukes of Surry and Exeter, the earls of Gloucester and Salisbury, and the archbishop of York; but he crushed them by his activity and steadiness, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown power. This was understood by the Percy family, the greatest in the north of England, who complained of Henry having deprived them of some Scotch prisoners, whom they had taken in battle, and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his son the famous Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur; but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune, Henry suppressed the insurrections of the Welch, under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent concessions to his parliament, to the commons particularly, he at last conquered all opposition, while, to remedy the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, thereby shutting out all female succession. The young duke of Rothsay, heir to the crown of Scotland (afterwards James I. of that kingdom), falling a prisoner into Henry's hands, kept the northern frontier from invasion; and before his death, which happened in 1413, in the 46th year of his age, and 13th of his reign, he had the satisfaction to see his son and successor, the prince of Wales, disengage himself from many youthful follies, which had till then disgraced his conduct.

The English marine was now so greatly increased, that we find an English vessel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ships of equal burden, carrying on trade in various parts, particularly with the Hanse towns. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV. as I have already hinted, was the first prince who gave the different orders in parliament, especially that of the commons, their due weight. It is, however, a little surprising, that learning was at this time at a much lower pass in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Bishops, when testifying synodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy, in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot read myself, N. N. hath subscribed for me;" or, "As my lord bishop cannot write himself, at his request I have subscribed." By the influence of the court and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the sessions of parliament 1401 for the burning of heretics, occasioned by the great in-

\* The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaster stepped forth, and having crossed himself on his forehead and on his breast, and called upon the name of Christ, he pronounced these words, which I shall give in the original language, because of their singularity.

*In the name of Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, I Henry of Lancaster, challenge the crown of Eng-*

*land, and the crown, which all the members, and the appurtenances; als I that am descended by right line of the blood (meaning a claim in right of his mother) coming from the said king Henry third, and charge that right that God of his grace hath sent me, with help of kyn, and of my frendes, to recover it; the which crown was in point to be online by default of governance, and undoying of the gode helpe.*

crease of the Wickliffites or Lollards; and immediately after, one Sawtree, parish-priest of St. Osithe, in London, was burnt alive by the king's writ, directed to the mayor and sheriffs of London.

The balance of trade with foreign parts was against England at the accession of Henry V. in 1413, so greatly had luxury increased. The Lollards, or the followers of Wickliffe, were excessively numerous, and sir John Oldcastle, lord Cobham, having joined them, it was pretended that he had agreed to put himself at their head, with a design to overturn the government; but this appears to have been a groundless accusation, from the bloody zeal of the clergy, though he was put to death in consequence of it. His only real crime seems to have been the spirit with which he opposed the superstition of the age, and he was the first of the nobility who suffered on account of religion. Henry was about this time engaged in a contest with France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a restitution of Normandy, and other provinces, that had been ravaged from England in the preceding reigns; also the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ransom since the reign of Edward III. and availing himself of the distracted state of that kingdom by the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he invaded it, took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled the glory of Cressy and Poitiers, but exceeded them in its consequences, on account of the vast number of French princes of the blood, and other great noblemen, who were slain. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made such alliances, and divided the French among themselves so effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whose husband Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princess Catherine, to disinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France during her husband's life, and him and his issue successors to the French monarchy, which must at this time have been destroyed, had not the Scots (though their king still continued Henry's captive) furnished the dauphin with effectual supplies, and preserved the French crown for his head. Henry, however, made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proscribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might crush the dauphin and his Scotch auxiliaries. He probably would have been successful, had he not died of a pleuritic disorder, 1422, the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

By an authentic and exact account of the ordinary revenues of the crown during this reign, it appears that they amounted only to 55,714*l.* a year, which is nearly the same with the revenues in Henry III.'s time, and the kings of England had neither become much richer nor poorer in the course of 200 years. The ordinary expences of the government amounted to 52,507*l.* so that the king had of surplus only 3207*l.* for the support of his household, for his wardrobe, for the expence of embassies, and other articles. This sum, though money of the same denomination then contained thrice as much silver as it does at present, was not nearly sufficient even in time of peace; and to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to many miserable shifts: he borrowed from all quarters; he pawned his jewels and sometimes the crown itself; he ran in arrears to his army; and he was often obliged to stop in the midst of his career of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy. From these particulars the reader may judge of the simplicity and temperance of our predecessors near four centuries ago, when the expences of the greatest king in Europe were little better than the emolument of a superannuated courtier of the present age.

It required a prince equally able with Henry IV. and V. to confirm the title of the Lancaster house to the throne of England. Henry VI. furnished of Windfor, was no more than nine months old, when, in consequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France

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as well as England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, both of them princes of great accomplishments, virtues, and courage, but unable to preserve their brother's conquests. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the person of his son and successor Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at last laid siege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conquest of France. The siege was raised by the valour and good conduct of the Maid of Orleans, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in history, she being born of the lowest extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and sometimes a helper in stables at public inns. She mult, notwithstanding, have possessed an amazing fund of sagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of heroic actions, and placing the crown upon her sovereign's head, she was taken prisoner by the English in making a sally during the siege of Compiègne, and burnt alive for a witch at Roan, May 30, 1431.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the English, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire ruin of the English interest in France, and the loss of all their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithstanding the heroic resistance of Talbot, the first earl of Shrewsbury, and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its disunion at home. The duke of Gloucester lost his authority in the government, and the king married Margaret of Anjou, daughter to the needy king of Sicily; a woman of a high spirit, but an implacable disposition; while the cardinal of Winchester, who was the richest subject in England, if not in Europe, presided at the head of the treasury, and by his avarice ruined the interest of his country, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the most powerful subject in England. He was descended by the mother's side from Lionel, an elder son of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was descended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngest son; and he affected to keep up the distinction of a white rose, that of the house of Lancaster being red. It is certain that he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family, and he lost no opportunity of forming a party to assert his right, but acted at first with profound dissimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, and a professed enemy to the duke of York; but, being impeached in parliament, he was banished for five years, and had his head struck off on board a ship, by a common sailor. This was followed by an insurrection of 20,000 Kentish men, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who sent to the court a list of grievances; but he was defeated by the valour of the citizens of London. The inglorious management of the English affairs in France proved advantageous to the duke of York, and, upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a strong party of the nobility his friends; but being considered as the fomentor of Cade's rebellion, he professed the most profound reverence to Henry.

The persons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Salisbury, and his son the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greatest land estate of any subject in England, and his vast abilities, joined to some virtues, rendered him equally popular. Both father and son were secretly on the side of York; and during a fit of illness of the king that duke was made protector of the realm. Both sides now prepared for arms, and the king recovering, the queen, with wonderful activity assembled an army; but the royalists were defeated in the first battle of St. Alban's, and the king himself was taken prisoner. The duke of York was once more declared protector of the kingdom; but it was not long before the queen resumed all her influence in the government, and the

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king, though his weakness became every day more and more visible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this, threw off the mask, and, in 1459, openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the King-maker. A parliament being assembled, it was enacted, that Henry should possess the throne for life, but that the duke of York should succeed him, to the exclusion of all Henry's issue. The queen alone rejected this compromise. She retreated northwards, and the king being still a prisoner, she pleaded his cause so well, that assembling a fresh army, she fought the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and slain in 1460.

It is remarkable, that though the duke of York and his party openly asserted his claim to the crown, they still professed allegiance to Henry; but the duke of York's son, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained several victories over the royalists. The queen, however, advanced towards London, and, defeating the earl of Warwick in the second battle of St. Alban's, delivered her husband; but the disorders committed by her northern troops disgusted the Londoners so much, that she durst not enter London, where the duke of York was received on the 28th of February, 1461, while the queen and her husband were obliged to retreat northward. She soon raised another army, and fought the battle of Towton, the most bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both sides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her husband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with a generous protection.

This civil war was carried on with uncommon animosity. Margaret was as blood-thirsty as her opponents, and when prisoners of either side were made, their deaths, especially if they were persons of rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the concessions she made to the Scots, soon raised a fresh army there, and in the north of England, but met with defeat upon defeat, till at last her husband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried prisoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with, and privately married Elizabeth, the widow of sir John Gray, though he had some time before sent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's sister in marriage, in which embassy Warwick was successful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princess into England. When the secret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl, deeming himself affronted, returned to England inflamed with rage and indignation; and from being Edward's best friend became his most formidable enemy, and gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward was made prisoner, but escaping from his confinement, Warwick, and the French king, Lewis XI. declared for the restoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, and Edward narrowly escaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received into the capital, he resumed the exercise of royal authority, made king Henry once more his prisoner, and defeated and killed Warwick, in the battle of Barnet. A few days after, he defeated a fresh army of Lancastrians, and made queen Margaret prisoner, together with her son prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the duke of Gloucester, murdered in cold blood, as he is said (but with no great show of probability) to have done his father Henry VI. then a prisoner in the Tower of London, a few days after, in the year 1471. Edward being now settled on the throne, was guilty of the utmost cruelty to all the Lancastrian party, whom he put to death, wherever he could find them.

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The great object of his vengeance was Henry, earl of Richmond. He was descended from John Beaufort the eldest son of the earl of Somerset, who was the eldest son of John of Gaunt, by his last wife Catherine Swinford, but born in adultery, during her husband's life-time. This disability, however, was afterwards removed both by the pope and by the parliament, and the descendants of John of Gaunt, by that lady, as far as could be done, were declared legitimate. The last duke of Somerset left a daughter, Margaret, who was married to Edmund Tudor, earl of Richmond, son of the widow of Henry V. by Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman whom she had condescended to marry; and their son was Henry, earl of Richmond (afterwards Henry VII.), who then lived in France, to secure himself from the cruelty of Edward. The reader may see, from the detail of this important genealogy; that the young earl of Richmond had not the smallest claim in blood (even supposing the illegitimacy of his ancestors had been removed) to the crown of England.

In 1474, the kingdom was in a deplorable situation. The king was immersed in expensive and criminal luxuries, in which he was imitated by his great men; who, to support their extravagancies, became pensioners to France. The parliament seemed to act only as the executioners of Edward's bloody mandates. The best blood in England was shed on scaffolds; and even the duke of Clarence fell a victim to his brother's jealousy. Edward, partly to amuse the public, and partly to supply the vast expences of his court, pretended sometimes to quarrel, and sometimes to treat with France; but his irregularities occasioned his death (1483) in the twenty-third year of his reign, and forty-second of his age.

Notwithstanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increased during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was contrived by the English, as the only means to preserve the benefit of being the sole carriers of their own merchandise; but foreign influence prevented Henry's passing the bill for that purpose. The invention of printing, which is generally supposed to have been imported into England by William Caxton, and which received some countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor state. The lord Tiptoft was its chief patron, and seems to have been the first English nobleman who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres. The books printed by Caxton are mostly re-translations, or compilations from the French or Monkish Latin; but it must be acknowledged, at the same time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progress among the English than it did in any other European nation. The famous Littleton, judge of the common pleas, and Fortescue, chancellor of England, flourished at this period.

Edward IV. left two sons by his queen, who had exercised her power with little prudence, and nobilitated many of her obscure relations. Her eldest son Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle the duke of Gloucester, taking advantage of the queen's want of popularity among the great men, found means to bastardize her issue, by act of parliament, under the scandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the same time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and at last accepted the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners; having first put to death all the great men whom he thought well affected to the late king's family. Whether the king and his brother were murdered in the Tower by his direction, is doubtful. The most probable opinion is, that they were clandestinely sent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger survived, and was the same who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the English were prepossessed so strongly against Richard, as the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Rich-

mond, who still remained in France, carried on a secret correspondence with the remains of Edward IV.'s friends, and by offering to marry his eldest daughter, he was encouraged to invade England at the head of about 2000 foreign troops; who were soon joined by 7000 English and Welch. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, ensued at Bosworth-field, in which Richard, after displaying the most astonishing acts of personal valour, was killed, having been first abandoned by a main division of his army, under lord Stanley his brother, in the year 1485.

There can scarcely be a doubt but that the crimes of Richard have been exaggerated by historians. He was exemplary in his distributive justice. He kept a watchful eye over the great barons, whose oppression he abolished, and was a father to the common people. He founded the society of heralds; an institution, which, in his time, was found necessary to prevent disputes among great families. During his reign, short as it was, we have repeated instances of his relieving cities and corporations that had gone into decay. He was remarkable for the encouragement of the hardware manufactures, and for preventing their importation into England, no fewer than seventy-two different kinds being prohibited by one act. He was the first English king who appointed a consul for the superintendency of English commerce abroad; one Strozzi being nominated for Pisa, with an income of one quarter per cent. on all goods of Englishmen imported to or exported from thence.

Though the act of bastardy obtained by Richard affected the daughters as well as the sons of his brother, yet no disputes were raised upon the legitimacy of the princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter to Edward IV. and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaster earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houses, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending families of York and Lancaster. Henry, however, rested his right upon conquest, and seemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the most sagacious monarch that had ever reigned in England; but, at the same time, the most jealous of his power; for he shut up the earl of Warwick, son to the duke of Clarence, brother to Edward IV. a close prisoner in the Tower, though he was but a boy, and though nothing was alledged against him but his propinquity to the house of York. He was the first who instituted that guard called *Yeoman*, which still subsists, and, in imitation of his predecessor, he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges assumed by the barons, in abolishing liveries and retainers, by which every malefactor could shelter himself from the law, on assuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his person. Some rebellions happened in the beginning of his reign, but they were easily suppressed; as was the imposture of Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the imprisoned earl of Warwick: Simnel was taken prisoner, and after being employed in the king's kitchen, was made one of his falconers. The despotic court of star-chamber owed its original to Henry; but, at the same time, it must be acknowledged, that he passed many acts, especially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his subjects. They expressed their gratitude by the great supplies and benevolences they afforded him; and, as a finishing stroke to the feudal tenures, an act passed by which the barons and gentlemen of landed interest were at liberty to sell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for the alienation.

This, if we regard its consequences, is perhaps the most important act that ever passed in an English parliament, though its tendency seems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increase of trade, and the discovery of America, had broken with irresistible force into England, and money being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the estates of the barons became theirs, but without any

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any of their dangerous privileges; and thus the baronial powers were soon extinguished.

Henry, after encountering and surmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the possession of his throne by a young man, one Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York, second son to Edward IV. and was acknowledged as such by the dukes of Burgundy, Edward's sister. We shall not follow the adventures of this young man, which were various and uncommon; but it is certain that many of the English, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to prove the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public satisfaction; and though James IV. of Scotland banished Perkin his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's eldest daughter, yet, by the kind manner in which he entertained and dismissed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, especially as he refused to deliver up his person, which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impostor. Perkin, after various misfortunes, fell into Henry's hands, and was shut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to escape along with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. It is said, that Perkin made a confession of his impostures before his death; but if he did, it might have been extorted from him, either by the hope of pardon, or the fear of torture. In 1499, Henry's eldest son, Arthur prince of Wales, was married to the princess Catharine of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain, and he dying soon after, such was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, 200,000 crowns of gold, that he consented to her being married again to his second son, then prince of Wales, on pretence that the first match had not been consummated. Soon after, Henry's eldest daughter, the princess Margaret, was sent with a magnificent train to Scotland, where she was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the 52d year of his age, and 24th of his reign, was possessed of 1,800,000l. sterling, which is equivalent to five millions at present; so that he may be supposed to have been master of more ready money than all the kings in Europe besides possessed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being then only beginning to be worked. He was immoderately fond of replenishing his coffers, and often tricked his parliament into subsidies for foreign alliances, which he intended not to pursue.

The vast alteration which happened in the constitution of England during Henry VII's reign, has been mentioned. His excessive love of money and avarice was the probable reason why he did not become master of the West Indies, he having the first offer of the discovery from Columbus, whose proposals being rejected by Henry, that great man applied to the court of Spain. Henry, however, made some amends by encouraging Cabot a Venetian, who discovered the main land of North-America, in 1498; and we may observe, to the praise of this king, that sometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants sums of money without interest. From the proportional prices of living, produced by Maddox, Fleetwood, and other writers, agriculture and breeding of cattle must have been prodigiously advanced before Henry's death; an instance of this is given in the case of lady Anne, sister to Henry's queen, who had an allowance of 20s. per week, for her exhibition, sustentation, and convenient diet of meat and drink; also for two gentlewomen, one woman child, one gentleman, one yeoman, and three grooms, (in all eight persons) 51l. 11s. 8d. per annum, for their wages, diet and clothing; and for the maintenance of seven horses yearly, 16l. 9s. 4d. *i. e.* for each horse 2l. 17s. od.; yearly, money being then  $1\frac{1}{2}$  times as weighty as our modern silver coin. Wheat sold that year at 3s. 4d. a quarter, which answers to 5s. of our money, consequently it was about seven times as cheap as at present.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the accession of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we except Italy: and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did on the exercise of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, unrivalled master of the throne, he might have held the balance of power in Europe, had he been careful to improve his advantages. Inauguring he stood not in need of a supply, he improved not Cabot's discoveries, but suffered the East and West Indies to be engrossed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent, and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conquest of France. These projects, and his establishing what is properly called a *navy royal*, for the permanent defence of the nation (a most excellent measure), led him into incredible expences. He was on all occasions the dupe of the emperor Maximilian, the poorest prince in Europe; and early in his reign he gave himself also entirely up to the guidance of the celebrated cardinal Wolsey, the son of a butcher at Ipswich, but educated at Oxford, and made dean of Lincoln by Henry VII. While involved in a war with France, his lieutenant, the earl of Surrey, conquered and killed James IV. of Scotland, who had invaded England; and Henry became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy, but soon resigned his pretensions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Austria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between those princes, was directed by Wolsey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the interest of Charles; but finding himself twice deceived, he persuaded his master to declare himself for Francis, who had been taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of both parties, and to pay great part of their expences, till at last he was forced to lay vast burthens upon his subjects.

Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the Reformation, and the champion of the popes and the Romish church. He wrote a book against Luther, "of the *Seven Sacraments*," about the year 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which his successors retain to this day; but about the year 1527, he began to have some scruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. I shall not say how far, on this occasion, he might be influenced by scruples of conscience, or aversion to the queen, or the charms of the famous Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, whom he married, before he had obtained a divorce from Rome. The difficulties he met with in this process ruined Wolsey, who died heart-broken, at being stript of his immense power and possessions.

A variety of circumstances, it is well known, induced Henry at last to throw off all relation to, or dependence upon, the church of Rome, and to bring about a Reformation; in which, however, many of the Romish errors and superstitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this mighty measure, had it not been for his despotic disposition, which broke out on every occasion. Upon a slight suspicion of his queen's inconstancy, and after a sham trial, he cut off her head in the Tower, and put to death some of her nearest relations; and in many respects he acted in the most arbitrary manner, his wishes, however unreasonable, being too rapidly complied with, in consequence of the shameful servility of his parliaments. The dissolution of the religious houses, and immense wealth that came to Henry, by seizing all the ecclesiastical property in the kingdom, enabled him to give full scope to his sanguinary disposition; so that the best and most innocent blood of England was shed on scaffolds. Among others, was the aged counsellor of Salisbury, descended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to cardinal Pole; the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correspondence with that cardinal.

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His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but she died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, sister to the duke of Cleves; he disliked her so much, that he separated with her, and obtaining a divorce, suffered her to reside in England, on a pension of 3000*l.* a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whose head he cut off for anti-nuptial incontinency. His last wife was Catharine Parr, in whose possession he died, after she had narrowly escaped being brought to the stake for her religious opinions, which favoured the Reformation. Henry's cruelty increased with his years, and was now exercised promiscuously on Protestants and Catholics. He put the brave earl of Surrey to death without a crime being proved against him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, must have suffered the next day, had he not been saved by Henry's own death, in the year 1547, in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th year of his reign.

By the help of printing, the reign of Henry VIII. is better known than that of his predecessors. His attention to the naval security of England is highly commendable; and he sometimes employed his unjust and arbitrary power for the glory and interest of his subjects. Without enquiring into his religious motives, it must be candidly confessed, that had the Reformation gone through all the forms prescribed by the laws, and the courts of justice, it probably could never have taken place, or at least not for many years; and whatever Henry's personal crimes or failings might have been, the partition he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby rescuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted the present greatness and future prosperity of England. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a pension to Erasmus, the greatest scholar of his age. He brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign noblemen's houses began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a constant and generous friend to Cranmer: and though, upon the whole, rather whimsical than settled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who became afterwards the instruments of a more pure reformation.

In his reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in English. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was erected into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king instead of lord of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but nine years old at the time of his father's death; and after some disputes were over, the regency was settled in the person of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector and duke of Somerset, a declared friend of the Reformation, and a bitter enemy to the see of Rome. Much of the popish leaven, however, still remained in the council, which was embroiled at once with France and Scotland. The protector marched with an army into Scotland, to force that people to give their young queen Mary, only child of James V. in marriage to Edward, with a view to unite the two kingdoms; a measure which the late king had recommended with his dying breath to his executors. The protector defeated the Scots at Pinkey, but the match never took place; and the factions now forming against the protector, obliged him to return with his army to England. His own brother, who married the queen dowager, was at the head of his enemies; and, she dying, he paid his addresses to the princess Elizabeth, afterwards queen. This gave a handle to the protector to bring his brother, who was lord admiral, to the block.

The reader is to observe in general, that the Reformation was not effected without many public disturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the vast relief they had from abbeyes and religious houses, and being ejected from their small corn-growing farms, had often taken

arms, but had been as often suppressed by the government. A war, which was not very happily managed, broke out with Scotland; and the protector, who was upon the whole a weak, but conscientious man, was first driven from the helm of state, and then lost his head upon a scaffold. Dudley, who was created duke of Northumberland, then took the lead in the government, and drove Edward, who, though young, meant extremely well, and was a sincere Protestant, into many impolitic acts; so that England made but an inconsiderable figure in this reign.

The Reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and others, some of them foreign divines. In some cases, particularly with regard to the princess Mary, they lost sight of that moderation which the reformers had before so strongly recommended; and some sanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuses him from blame, and his charitable endowments, as Bridewell and St. Thomas's hospitals, and also several schools which still exist and flourish, shew the goodness of his heart. He died of a consumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconstitutional will, for he set aside his sister Mary from the succession, which was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the duchess of Suffolk, younger sister to Henry VIII. This lady, though she had scarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the English nation recognized the claim of the princess Mary, who cut off lady Jane's head. Her husband lord Guildford Dudley, and his father, the duke of Northumberland, shared the same fate.

Mary being thus settled on a bloody throne, suppressed an insurrection under Wyatt, and proceeded, like a female fury, to re-establish popery over England. She recalled cardinal Pole from banishment, made him instrumental in her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of persecution, in which archbishop Cranmer, the bishops Ridley, Cooper, and Latimer, and many other illustrious confessors of the English reformed church, were consumed; not to mention a vast number of other sacrifices of both sexes and all ranks. Bonner, bishop of London, and Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, were the chief executioners of her sanguinary mandates; and had she lived, she would have endeavoured to exterminate all her Protestant subjects.

Mary now married Philip II. king of Spain, who, like herself, was an unfeeling bigot; and the chief praise of her reign is, that, by the marriage articles, provision was made for the independency of the English crown. By the assistance of troops, which she furnished to her husband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was so ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guise, soon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the English in France, and which had been held ever since the reign of Edward III. This loss, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's secret connections with the French court, is said to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign. "In the heat of her persecuting flames (says a contemporary writer of credit), were burnt to ashes, one archbishop, 4 bishops, 21 divines, 8 gentlemen, 84 artificers, and 100 husbandmen, servants, and labourers, 26 wives, 20 widows, 9 virgins, 2 boys, and 2 infants; one of them whipped to death by Bonner, and the other, springing out of the mother's womb from the stake as she burned, thrown again into the fire." Several also died in prison, and many were otherwise cruelly treated.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, mounted the throne under the most discouraging circumstances, both at home and abroad. Popery was the established religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumstances attending her mother's marriage and death, was disputed by Mary

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queen of Scots, grandchild to Henry VII.'s eldest daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally she had on the continent was Philip king of Spain, who was the main support of the popish cause, both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was no more than twenty-five years of age at the time of her inauguration; but her sufferings under her bigoted sister, joined to the superiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy.

In matters of religion she succeeded with surprising facility; for in her first parliament, in 1559, the laws establishing Popery were repealed, her supremacy was restored, and an act of uniformity passed soon after. And it is observed, that of 9400 beneficed clergymen in England, only about 120 refused to comply with the Reformation. With regard to her title, she took advantage of the divided state of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to suspend her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, sent troops and money, which supported the Scotch malcontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the supposed murderer of the former, and her other misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where she had been often promised a safe and an honourable asylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profession of friendship, and that she detained the unhappy prisoner eighteen years in England, then brought her to a sham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and, with unfeeling cruelty, cut off her head.

The same Philip, who had been the husband of her late sister, upon Elizabeth's accession to the throne, offered to marry her, but she dexterously avoided his addresses; and by a train of skilful negotiations between her court and that of France, she kept the balance of Europe so undetermined, that she had leisure to unite her people at home, and to establish an excellent internal policy. She sometimes supported the Protestants of France against their persecuting princes; and sometimes gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brothers of the French king, the strongest assurances that one or other of them should be her husband; by which she kept that court, who dreaded Spain, in such good humour with her government, that it shewed no resentment when she cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be imposed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had so long amused and baffled him, it is well known that he made use of the immense sums he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the most formidable armament that perhaps had ever been put to sea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the best captain of that age; and that he procured a papal bull for absolving Elizabeth's subjects from their allegiance. No reader can be so uninformed as to be ignorant of the consequences, — that the largeness of the Spanish ships proved disadvantageous to them on the seas where they engaged; that the lord admiral Howard, and the brave sea officers under him engaged, beat, and chased the Spanish fleet for several days; and that the seas and tempests finished the destruction which the English arms had begun, and that few of the enemy recovered their ports. Next to the admiral lord Howard of Effingham, sir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Frobisher, distinguished themselves against this formidable invasion, in which the Spaniards are said to have lost 81 ships of war, large and small, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for some time supported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip, and had sent them her favourite, the earl of Leicester, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though Leicester behaved ill, yet her measures were so wise, that the Dutch established their independency; and then she sent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers, into the East and West Indies, from whence they brought prodigious treasures, taken from the Spaniards.

After

After the death of the earl of Leicester, the young earl of Essex became Elizabeth's chief favourite, and commanded the land forces in a joint expedition with the lord admiral Howard, in which they took and plundered the city of Cadiz, destroyed the ships in the harbour, and did other damage to the Spaniards, to the amount of twenty millions of ducats.

Elizabeth, in her old age, grew distrustful, peevish, and jealous. Though she undoubtedly loved the earl of Essex, she teased him by her capriciousness into the madness of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained that she had been betrayed into this sanguinary measure, and this occasioned a sinking of her spirits, which brought her to her grave in 1603, the 70th year of her age, and 45th of her reign, having previously named her kinsman James VI. king of Scotland, and son to Mary, for her successor.

The above form the great lines of Elizabeth's reign; and from them may be traced, either immediately or remotely, every act of her government. She supported the protestants in Germany against the house of Austria, of which Philip, king of Spain, was the head. She crushed the papists in her own dominions, and made a farther reformation in the church of England, in which state it has remained ever since. In 1600 the English East India company received its first formation, that trade being till then in the hands of the Portuguese (in consequence of their having first discovered the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, by Vasco de Gama in the reign of Henry VII.) who at this time were subjects to Spain; and factories were established in China, Japan, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

Before queen Elizabeth's reign, the kings of England had usually recourse to the city of Antwerp for voluntary loans; and their credit was so low, that, besides the exorbitant interest of 10 or 12 per cent. they were obliged to make the city of London join in the security. The trade to Turkey was begun about 1583; and that commerce was immediately confined to a company by queen Elizabeth. About 1590 there were in London four persons only rated in the subsidy book so high as 400l. In 1567 there were found, on enquiry, to be 4851 strangers of all nations in London, of whom 3838 were Flemings, and only 58 Scots.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the successes of her reign have disguised it; for she was far from being a friend to liberty, civil or religious; witness her cruel statutes against the Puritans, which were as cruelly put in execution.

We can scarcely require a stronger proof that the English began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy testified by all ranks at the accession of the Scottish prince, notwithstanding the inveterate animosities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being destitute of natural abilities for government; but he had received wrong impressions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the English throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconstitutional powers that had been occasionally exercised by Elizabeth and the house of Tudor; and which various causes had prevented the people from opposing with proper vigour. The nation had been wearied and exhausted by the long and destructive wars between the houses of Lancaster and York, and was inclined to endure much rather than again involve itself in similar calamities. James made not any allowance for the glories of Elizabeth; which, as I have observed, disguised her most arbitrary acts. He forgot to consider the free, liberal sentiments, which the improvement of knowledge and learning had diffused through England, and the vast increase of property, through trade and navigation, which might encourage and enable the people manfully to defend their liberties. James's first important measure was an attempt to effect an union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this, he shewed no violent resentment at the disappointment. It was

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an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign, that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increased by the discovery and defeat of the gunpowder treason\*.

The obligations which commerce and colonization owed to this prince, have already been observed; and it must be acknowledged, that he laid the foundations of great national advantages. But his pedantry was ridiculous; and with the assistance of his ministers, he was continually contriving new and often illegal means for raising money. Among other expedients, he sold the titles of baron, viscount, and earl, at a certain price; made a number of knights of Nova Scotia, each to pay such a sum; and instituted a new order of knights baronets, which was to be hereditary, for which each person paid 1095*l*.

His pacific reign was a series of theological contests, in which he shewed himself more the theologian than the prince, and in 1617 he attempted to establish episcopacy in Scotland, but the zeal of the people baffled his design. Without enquiring from what motive his love of peace proceeded, it was eventually productive of many blessings to England; and though his perpetual negotiations have given rise to much satire against his person and government, yet they were less expensive and destructive to his people than any wars he could have entered into. He restored to the Dutch their cautionary towns, upon their discharging part of the sum for which they had been mortgaged; but he procured from Spain at the same time an acknowledgment of their independency.

James gave his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, in marriage to the elector palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, who soon after assumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abused for his tame behaviour, after that prince had lost his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it should be observed, that he strongly opposed his son-in-law's assuming the crown of Bohemia; that had he kindled a war to reinstate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have stood single in the contest, except the feeble and uncertain assistance he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. It is certain, that James furnished the elector with large sums of money; and that he actually raised a regiment of 2200 men, under sir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany, where the Germans, under the marquis of Anspach, refused to assist them against Spinola the Spanish general.

James has been greatly and justly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His

\* This was a scheme of the Roman catholics to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of parliament, when it was also expected that the queen and prince of Wales would be present. The manner of enlisting any new conspirator was by oath, and administering the sacrament; and this dreadful secret, after being religiously kept near 18 months, was happily discovered in the following manner: about ten days before the long-winded-for meeting of parliament, a Roman catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his servant by an unknown hand, earnestly advising him to shun off his attendance on parliament at that time; but which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he considered the letter as a foolish attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who studying the contents with more attention, began to suspect some dangerous contrivance by gun-powder; and it was judged advisable to inspect all the vaults below the houses of parliament; but the search was purposely delayed till

the night immediately preceding the meeting, when a justice of peace was sent with proper attendants, and before the door of the vault under the upper house, finding one Fawkes, who had just finished all his preparations, he immediately seized him, and at the same time discovered in the vault 36 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots and piles of wood. The match, with every thing proper for setting fire to the train, were found in Fawkes's pocket, whose countenance bespoke his savage disposition, and who, after regretting that he had lost the opportunity of destroying so many heretics, made a full discovery. The conspirators, who never exceeded 80 in number, being seized by the country people, confessed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of England. Notwithstanding this horrid crime, the bigoted catholics were so devoted to Garnet, a Jesuit, one of the conspirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was considered as a martyr.

first was Robert Carr, a private Scotch gentleman, who was created earl of Somerset. He married the countess of Essex, who had obtained a divorce from her husband, and was with her found guilty of poisoning sir Thomas Overbury in the Tower; but James, contrary, as is said, to a solemn oath he made, pardoned them both. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private English gentleman, who, upon Somerset's disgrace, was admitted to an unusual share of favour and familiarity with his sovereign. James had at that time formed a system of policy for attaching himself intimately to the court of Spain, that it might assist him in recovering the palatinate; and to this system he had sacrificed the brave sir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hostilities against the Spanish settlements in the West Indies. James having lost his eldest son Henry prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popish match, threw his eyes upon the infanta of Spain, as a proper wife for his son Charles, who had succeeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the son as with the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humour, and against the king's will they travelled in disguise to Spain, where a most solemn farce of courtship was played; but the prince returned without his bride, and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Bristol, who was then ambassador in Spain, would probably have brought the duke of Buckingham to the block.

James was all this while perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not persuade to furnish money equal to his demands: and at last he agreed to his son's marrying the princess Henrietta Maria, sister to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. James died before the celebration of these nuptials. His death happened in 1625, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty-two years. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who restored the pure taste of architecture, and in his reign the poetical genius of England displayed its greatest lustre, though not much encouraged at court. Mr. Middleton at this time projected the conveying water into the city from Hertfordshire, by means of pipes, which is now called the *New River*.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, the king's favourite, who was assassinated by one Felton, a sabalern officer, in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the English patriots, in that enlightened age, justly considered as so many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impositions upon trade, which were refused to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the house of commons. Some of them were imprisoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The house of commons resented those proceedings by denying admittance to the gentleman-usher of the black rod (who came to adjourn them), until the protest, which they were drawing up, should be finished. This served only to widen the breach, and the king dissolved the parliament; after which he exhibited informations against nine of the most eminent members, among whom was the great Mr. Selden, who was as much distinguished by his love of liberty as by his uncommon erudition. They objected to the jurisdiction of the court, but their plea was over-ruled, and they were sent to prison during the king's pleasure.

Every thing now operated towards the destruction of Charles. The commons would vote no supplies without some redress of the national grievances; upon which Charles, presuming on what had been practised in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly understood, levied money upon monopolies of salt, soap, and such necessaries, and other obsolete claims, particularly for knighthood, and raised various taxes without authority of parliament. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne a lawyer, and Balthazar, a physician, men of no great eminence or abilities, but warm and resolute,

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published several pieces which gave offence to the court, and which contained some severe strictures against the ruling clergy. They were prosecuted for these pieces in the star-chamber in a very arbitrary and cruel manner; and punished with so much rigour, as excited an almost universal indignation against the authors of their sufferings. Thus was the government rendered still more odious, and unfortunately for Charles, he put his conscience into the hands of Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himself, both in church and state. Laud advised him to persecute the puritans, and in the year 1637 to introduce episcopacy into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed secret connections with the discontented English, and invaded England, in August 1640, where Charles was so ill-served by his officers and his armies, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots, who made themselves masters of Newcastle and Durham; and being now openly befriended by the house of commons, obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles had made Wentworth, earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities, president of the council of the North, and lord lieutenant of Ireland; and he was generally believed to be the first minister of state. Strafford had been a leading member of the opposition to the court, but he afterwards, in conjunction with Laud, exerted himself so vigorously in carrying the king's despotic schemes into execution, that he became an object of public detestation. As lord president of the North, as lord lieutenant of Ireland, and as a minister and privy-counsellor in England, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and was guilty of many actions of great injustice and oppression. He was, in consequence, at length, on the 22d of May, 1641, brought to the block, though much against the inclinations of the king, who was in a manner forced by the parliament and people to sign the warrant for his execution. Archbishop Laud was also beheaded; but his execution did not take place till a considerable time after that of Strafford, the 10th of January, 1645.

In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had passed the *petition of right* into a law, which was intended by the parliament for the future security of the subject. It is enacted, "That no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or such like charge without common consent by act of parliament;" but he afterwards violated it in numerous instances, so that an almost universal discontent at his administration prevailed throughout the nation. A rebellion also broke out in Ireland, on October 23, 1641, where the protestants, without distinction of age, sex, or condition, to the amount of many thousands, were massacred by the papists; and great pains were taken to persuade the public that Charles secretly favoured them, out of hatred to his English subjects. The bishops were expelled the house of peers, on account of their constantly opposing the designs and bills of the other house; and the leaders of the English house of commons still kept up a correspondence with the discontented Scots. Charles went in person to the house of commons, January 4, 1642, and demanded that lord Kimbolton, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, sir Arthur Haselrig, and Mr. Stroud, should be apprehended; but they had previously made their escape. This act of Charles was resented as high treason against his people.

Notwithstanding the many acts of tyranny and oppression of which the king and his ministers had been guilty, yet, when the civil war broke out, there were great numbers who repaired to the regal standard. Many of the nobility and gentry, and the greatest part of the landed interest, were much attached to the crown. The parliament, however, took upon themselves the executive power, and were favoured by most of the trading towns and corporations; but their great resource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindsey, a brave, but not an enterprising commander; but he had great dependence on his nephews,

the princes Rupert and Maurice, sons to the elector Palatine, by his sister the princess Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war, the royal army had the ascendancy, but in the progress of it, affairs took a different turn. The earl of Essex was made general under the parliament, and the first battle was fought at Edge-hill, in Warwickshire, the 23d of October, 1642; both parties claimed the victory, but the parliament was so much distressed, that they invited the Scots to come to their assistance, and they accordingly entered England anew with about 20,000 horse and foot. Charles attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houses met; but his enemies were still sitting at Westminster, and continued to carry on the war against him with great animosity. The independent party, which had scarcely before been thought of, began now to distinguish themselves at Westminster. They were averse to the presbyterians, who till then had conducted the war against the king, nearly as much as to the royalists; and such was their management, under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, that a plan was formed for dismissing the earls of Essex and Manchester, and the heads of the presbyterians, from the parliament's service, on a supposition that they were not for bringing the war to a speedy end, nor for reducing the king too low; and for promoting Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a presbyterian, and some independent officers. In the mean while, the war went on with resentment and loss on both sides. Two battles were fought at Newbury; one on September 20, 1643, and the other October 27, 1644, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewise many other successes; and having defeated sir William Waller, he pursued the earl of Essex, who remained still in command, into Cornwall, from whence he was obliged to escape by sea; but his infantry surrendered prisoners to the royalists, though his cavalry delivered themselves by their valour.

The first fatal blow the king's army received, was at Marston-moor, July 2d, 1644, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Manchester defeated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed, and 1500 taken prisoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell; and though it might have been balanced by the successes of Charles in the West, yet his whole conduct was a string of mistakes, till at last his affairs became irretrievable. It is true, many treaties of peace, particularly one at Uxbridge, were set on foot, and the heads of the presbyterian party would have agreed to terms that would have little bounded the king's prerogative. They were outwitted and overruled by the independents, who were assisted by the stiffness, insincerity, and unamiable behaviour of Charles himself. In short, the independents at last succeeded, in persuading the members at Westminster, that Charles was not to be trusted, whatever his concessions might be. From *that* moment the affairs of the royalists became desperate. Sir Thomas Fairfax, whose father, lord Fairfax, remained in the North, was at the head of the army, which was now new-modelled; so that Charles successively lost all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the decisive battle of Naseby, June 14, 1645, owing partly, as usual, to the misconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed by fresh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought himself safe.

The Scots were then besieging Newark; and no good understanding subsisted between them and the English parliamentarians. In this situation of his affairs, Charles escaped in disguise from Oxford and came to the Scotch army before Newark, on May 6, 1646, upon a promise of protection. The Scots, however, were so intimidated, by the resolutions of the parliament at Westminster, that in consideration of receiving 400,000*l.* of their arrears, they put the person of

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Charles into the hands of the parliament's commissioners, not suspecting the consequences.

The presbyterians were now more inclined than ever to make peace with the king, but they were no longer matters, being forced to receive laws from the army and the independents. The army now avowed their intentions. They first by force took Charles out of the hands of the commissioners, June 4, 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might still take place with the king, they imprisoned 41 of the presbyterian members, voted the house of peers to be useless, and that of the commons was reduced to 150, most of them officers of the army. In the mean while Charles, who unhappily promised himself relief from those dissensions, was carried from prison to prison, and sometimes cajoled by the independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were set on foot, but all miscarried; and he had been imprudent enough, after effecting his escape, to put himself into colonel Mammond's hands, the parliament's governor of the Isle of Wight. A fresh negotiation was begun, and almost finished, when the independents, dreading the general disposition of the people for peace, and strongly persuaded of the innocence of the king, once more seized upon his person, brought him a prisoner to London, carried him before a court of justice of their own erecting, and, after an extraordinary trial, his head was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648-9, being the 49th year of his age, and 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues, and some have supposed that affliction had taught him so much wisdom and moderation, that had he been restored to his throne, he would have become an excellent prince; but there is abundant reason to conclude, from his private letters, that he retained his arbitrary principles to the last, and that he would again have regulated his conduct by them, if he had been reinstated in power. It is however certain, that, notwithstanding the tyrannical nature of his government, his death was exceedingly lamented by great numbers; and many, in the course of the civil war, who had been his great opponents in parliament, became converts to his cause, in which they lost their lives and fortunes. We cannot reflect upon the great loss of lives, to the amount of at least 100,000 fighting men, during the six years of the civil war, without admiring the populousness of England at that period. Though the history has been minutely related, by writers of all parties, who had the best opportunities to know the truth, yet we do not find that the loss of men had any influence upon agriculture or commerce, or the exercise of the common arts of life, and provisions rather sunk than rose in their value. The surviving children of Charles, were Charles and James, who were successively kings of England; Henry, duke of Gloucester, who died soon after his brother's restoration; the princess Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England; and the princess Henrietta Maria, who was married to Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy and king of Sardinia.

They who brought Charles to the block, omitted no measure that could give a perpetual exclusion to kingly power in England; they erected themselves into a commonwealth, and successfully exerted themselves for retrieving the glory of England by sea. They were joined by many of the presbyterians, and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards against the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced a fleet superior to any that had ever been seen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland, and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots at the battles of Dunbar and Worcester. The same commonwealth passed an act of navigation; and declaring war against the Dutch,

who were thought till then invincible at sea, they effectually humbled those republicans.

By this time Cromwell, who hated subordination to a parliament, had the address to get himself declared commander in chief of the English army. Admiral Blake, and the other English admirals, carried the terror of the English name by sea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell, having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his services would be forgotten, for which reason he went, April 20, 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 musqueteers, and dissolved the parliament, opprobriously driving the members from the house. He next annihilated the council of state, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the administration of government to about 140 persons, whom he summoned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the English were again victorious, still continued. Seven bloody engagements by sea were fought in little more than the compass of one year; and in the last, which was decisive in favour of England, the Dutch lost their brave admiral Van Tromp. Cromwell all this time wanted to be declared king; but he perceived that he must encounter unfurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood, and his other friends, if he should persist in that resolution. He was, however, declared *lord protector* of the commonwealth of England; a title under which he exercised greater power than had ever been annexed to the regal dignity. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more despotically than he did, yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends, and even those few threatened to oppose him, if he should take upon him the title of king. Historians, in drawing the character of Cromwell, have been imposed upon by his amazing success, and dazzled by the lustre of his fortune; but when we consult his secretary Thurlo's, and other state papers, the imposition in a great measure vanishes. After a most uncomfortable usurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

It is not to be denied that England received much more respect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than she had been treated with since the death of Elizabeth. This was owing to the abilities of those who formed the republic, which Cromwell abolished, and who, as it were, instantaneously called forth the naval strength of the kingdom. In the year 1656, the public expenditure amounted to one million three hundred thousand pounds; of which a million went to the support of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of the civil government. In the same year, Cromwell abolished all tenures *in capite*, by knight's service, and soccage in chief, and likewise the courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances, that had been complained of during the late reigns, were likewise removed. Next year the public expence of England amounted to two millions three hundred twenty-six thousand nine hundred and eighty-nine pounds. The collections by assessments, excise, and customs, paid into the Exchequer, amounted to two millions three hundred and sixty-two thousand pounds, four shillings.

Upon the whole it appears, that England, from the year 1648, to the year 1658, increased greatly in riches and in power. The legal interest of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. a sure symptom of increasing commerce. The famous navigation-act was now planned and established, and afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were abolished, and liberty of conscience to all sects was granted, to the vast advantage of population and manufactures, which had suffered greatly by Laud's intolerant measures. To the above national meliorations, we may add the modesty and frugality introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to augment their

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their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly settled in the government, would have broken through the sober maxims of the republicans; for a short time before his death, he affected great magnificence in his person, court, and attendants. He maintained firmly the honour of the nation, and in many instances interposed effectually in favour of the Protestants abroad. Arts and sciences were not much patronized; but he had the good fortune to find in Cooper an excellent miniature painter, and his coins done by Simon exceed in beauty and workmanship any of that age. He certainly did many things worthy of praise; and as his genius and capacity led him to the choice of fit persons for the several parts of administration, so he paid some regard to men of learning, and particularly to those entrusted with the care of youth at the universities.

No friend to the British constitution, consisting in the proper equilibrium of the three estates of the kingdom, can ever speak of Cromwell or his usurpation with respect. Under the name of a republic, there was all the tyrannical spirit of despotism. The people had no share in legislation. Cromwell, with the title of Protector, exercised all the powers of an arbitrary monarch. His parliaments were but a name. He made what laws he pleased; and, by the help of his army, which supported them, he carried them into execution, and forced all to submit to his will. In comparison of Cromwell, Henry the VIII. revered the English constitution.

Richard Cromwell, a weak unambitious man, succeeded his father in the protectorship. He was placed in his dignity by those who wanted to make him the author of their own government; and he was soon after driven, without the least struggle or opposition, into obscurity. It is in vain for historians of any party to ascribe the restoration of Charles II. (who, with his mother and brothers, during the usurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious subsistence) to the merits of any particular persons. The presbyterians were very zealous in promoting it, but it was effected by a general concurrence of the people, who seem to have thought that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by restoring the ancient constitution of monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but devoid of probity, had the sagacity to observe this; and after temporizing in various shapes, being at the head of the army, he had the principal share in restoring Charles II. for which service he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. being restored in 1660, in the first year of his reign seemed to have a real desire to promote his people's happiness. Upon his confirming the abolition of the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the excise for life; and in this act coffee and tea are first mentioned. By his long residence, and that of his friends, abroad, he imported into England the culture of many useful vegetables; such as that of asparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and several kinds of beans, peas, and fallads. Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered by the English under the government of Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a sugar colony. The Royal Society was instituted, and many popular acts respecting trade and colonization were passed. In short, Charles knew and cultivated the true interests of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleasure, and sunk in indolence; failings that had the same consequences as despotism itself. He appeared to interest himself in the sufferings of his subjects when London was burnt down in 1666; and its being rebuilt with greater lustre and conveniency is a proof of the increase of trade; but there were no bounds to Charles's love of pleasure, which led him into the most extravagant expences. He has been severely censured for selling Dunkirk to the French king, to supply his necessities, after he had squandered the immense sums granted him by parliament. The price was about

250,000l. sterling. But even in this, his conduct was more defensible than in his secret connections with France, which were of the most scandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of the kingdom, and such as must for ever reflect infamy on his memory.

Among the evidences of his degeneracy as a king, may be mentioned his giving way to the popular clamour against the lord Clarendon, as the chief adviser of the late of Dunkirk; a man of extensive knowledge and great abilities, and more honest in his intentions than most of his other ministers, but whom he sacrificed to the sycophants of his pleasurable hours. The first Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on with great resolution and spirit under the duke of York; but through Charles's misapplication of the public money, which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending at Breda, found means to insult the royal navy of England, by sailing up the Medway as far as Chatham, and destroyed several ships of the line. Soon after this, a peace was concluded at Breda between Great Britain and the States General, for the preservation of the Spanish Netherlands; and Sweden having acceded to the treaty, in 1668, it was called the *triple alliance*.

In 1671, Charles was so ill advised as to seize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8 per cent. and to shut up the exchequer. This was an indefensible step; but Charles pretended to justify it by the necessity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a fresh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had almost proved fatal to that republic, for the English fleet and army acted in conjunction with those of France. The duke of York commanded the English fleet, and displayed great gallantry in that station. The duke of Monmouth, the eldest and favourite natural son of Charles, commanded 6000 English forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries; and all Holland must have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the vanity of their monarch Lewis XIV. who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital. All confidence was now lost between Charles and his parliament, notwithstanding the glory which the English fleet obtained by sea against the Dutch. The popular clamour at last obliged Charles to give peace to that people, in consideration of 200,000l. which was paid him.

In some things Charles acted very despotically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houses, and ordered them to be shut up, but in a few days after they were opened again. Great Rigour and severity were exercised against the presbyterians, and all other nonconformists to episcopacy, which was again established with a high hand in Scotland as well as in England. His parliament addressed him, but in vain, to make war with France in the year 1677, for he was entirely devoted to that crown, and regularly received its money as a pensioner, and hoped through its influence and power to be absolute. It is not, however, to be denied, that the trade of England was now incredibly increased, and Charles entered into many vigorous measures for its protection and support.

Charles's connections with France gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more exasperated against the French and the papists; at the head of whom was the presumptive heir of the crown, the duke of York. Charles dreaded the prospect of a civil war, and offered any concessions to avoid it. But many of the members of parliament were bent upon such a revolution as afterwards took place, and were secretly determined that the duke of York should never reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and some others, opened a plot, charging the papists with a design to murder the king, and to introduce popery by means of Jesuits in England, and from St. Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more self-contradictory, than some parts of

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their narrative, yet it was supported with the utmost zeal on the part of the parliament. The aged lord Strafford, Coleman, secretary to the duke of York, with many Jesuits, and other Papists, were publicly executed; on evidences supposed now to have been perjured by those who will have the whole plot to be a fiction. The queen herself escaped with difficulty; the duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts; and Charles, though convinced, it is said, that the whole was an imposture, yielded to the torrent. At last it spent its force. The earl of Shaftesbury, who was at the head of the opposition, pushed on the total exclusion of the duke of York from the throne. He was seconded by the ill-advised duke of Monmouth; and the bill, after passing the commons, miscarried in the house of peers. All England was again in a flame; but the king, by a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, seemed to recover the affections of his people.

The duke of York and his party made a scandalous use of their victory. They trumped up on their side a plot of the protestants for killing or seizing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as false as that which had been laid against the Papists. Lord Russel, who had been remarkable in his opposition to the popish succession, Algernon Sidney, and several other distinguished protestants were tried, condemned, and suffered death, and the king set his foot upon the neck of opposition. Even the city of London was intimidated into the measures of the court, as were almost all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth and the earl of Shaftesbury were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles repented of some of his arbitrary steps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and have executed some measures for the future quiet of his reign; when he died February 6th, 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, by whom he had received a large fortune in ready money, besides the town and fortress of Tangier in Africa; but he left behind him no lawful issue. The descendants of his natural sons and daughters are now amongst the most distinguished of the British nobility.

The principles, both of the king and of the opposition to his government, have been already delineated. The heads of the latter were presbyterians and moderate churchmen, who had been raised and preferred by Charles, in hopes of their being useful in bringing their party into his measures; and he would probably have succeeded, had not the remains of the old royalists, and the dissipated part of the court, fallen in with the king's foible for pleasure. The presbyterians, however, availed themselves of their credit, in the early part of his reign, when the fervor of loyalty was abated, to bring into parliament such a number of their friends as rendered the reign of Charles very uneasy, and it was owing, perhaps, to them, that civil liberty and protestantism now exist in the English government. On the other hand, they seemed to have carried their jealousy of a popish successor too far; and many of the people without doors certainly thought that the parliament ought to have been satisfied with the legal restraints and disabilities which Charles offered to impose upon his successor. This gave such a turn to the affections of the people as left Charles, and his brother, at the time of his death, almost masters of the laws and liberties of England; and they governed in an absolute and arbitrary manner, supported by the clergy's preaching up the old doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance, and the flattering addictions presented from many persons advancing the prerogative of the crown to the most extravagant height.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and gallantry, but both were coarse and indelicate. The court was the nursery of vice, and the stage exhibited scenes of impurity. Some readers were found who could admire Milton's ver-

as Dryden, and never perhaps were the pulpits of England so well supplied with preachers as in this reign. Our language was much improved in harmony and refinement; and the days of Charles may be called the Augustan age of the mathematics and natural philosophy. Charles loved, patronized, and understood the arts, more than he encouraged or rewarded them, especially those of English growth; but this neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedness, but indolence and want of reflection. If the memory of Charles II. has been traduced for his being the first English prince who formed a body of standing forces, as guards to his person, it ought to be remembered, at the same time, that he carried the art of ship-building to the highest perfection; and that the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its finest improvements to his and his brother's attention to naval affairs. As to his religion, James, soon after his death, published to the world, that his brother, notwithstanding his repeated professions of regard to the protestant faith, was a papist, and died such, of which there are now incontestible proofs.

The opposition which, during the late reign, had shaken the throne, seems to have vanished at the accession of James II. The popular affection towards him was increased by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all resistance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almost ruined protestantism. The army and people supported him in crushing an ill-concerted rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful son of Charles II. and, as such, had assumed the title of king. The duke's head being cut off, July 15, 1685, and some hundreds of his followers hanged, drawn, and quartered, in the west of England, exhibiting a scene of barbarity, scarcely ever known in this country, by the instrumentality of Jefferies and colonel Kirke, James desperately resolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-resistance. The experiment failed him. He pretended to a power of dispensing with the known laws, he instituted an illegal ecclesiastical court, openly received and admitted into his privy-council the pope's emissaries, and treated them with uncommon respect. He sent an embassy to Rome, and received at court the pope's nuncio. His imprisoning seven bishops for presenting a petition against reading his declaration for liberty of conscience, greatly alarmed his protestant friends; and his encroachments upon the civil and religious rights of his subjects, are almost beyond description, and were disapproved, it is said, by the pope himself, and all sober Roman catholics.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wished well to James, applied for relief to William prince of Orange, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Louis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince of Orange was the nephew and son-in-law of James, having married the princess Mary; he embarked with a fleet of 500 sail for England, avowing it to be his design to restore the church and state to their due rights. Upon his arrival, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had considered as his best friends; and even his daughter the Princess Anne, and her husband, George prince of Denmark, left him and joined the prince of Orange. James might still have reigned; but he was surrounded with French emissaries, and ignorant Jesuits, who wished him not to reign rather than not restore popery. They secretly persuaded him to send his queen and son, real or pretended, then but six months old, to France, and to follow them in person, which he did; and thus, in 1688, ended his reign in England; which event in English history is termed *the Revolution*.

It is well known that king William's chief object was to humble the power of France, and his reign was spent in an almost uninterrupted course of hostilities with that power, which were maintained by England, at an expence never before known.

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known. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two last reigns, and he gave his consent to the *bill of rights*, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and secured. The two last kings had made a very bad use of the national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found sufficient to raise and maintain a standing army. The revenue was therefore now divided; part was allotted for the current national service of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament; and part, which is still called the civil list money, was given to the king for the support of his house and dignity.

It was the just sense the people of England had of their civil and religious rights alone, that could provoke them to agree to the late revolution; for they never in other respects had been at so high a pitch of wealth and prosperity, as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ships, according to Dr. Davenant, was that year nearly double to what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which in 1660, was only 62,594 tons, was in 1688 increased to 101,032 tons. The increase of the customs, and the annual rental of England, grew in the same proportion. It was therefore no wonder, that a strong party, both in the parliament and nation, should be formed against the government, which was hourly increased by the king's predilection for the Dutch. The war with France, which on the king's part was far from being successful, required an enormous expence, and the Irish continued, in general, faithful to king James. But many English, who wished well to the Stuart family, dreaded its restoration by conquest; and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne against James, who there lost all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France proved superior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue.

Invasions were threatened, and conspiracies discovered every day against the government, and the supply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new resources for money. A land-tax was imposed, and every subject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the several counties. Those who were the most loyal gave the highest valuations, and were the heaviest taxed, and this preposterous burthen still continues; but the greatest and boldest operation in finances, that ever took place, was established in this reign, which was the carrying on the war by borrowing money upon parliamentary securities, which form what are now called the *public funds*. The chief projector of this scheme is said to have been Charles Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. His chief argument for such a project was, that it would oblige the monied part of the nation to befriend the Revolution interest; because, after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid but by supporting that interest, and the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more industrious.

William, notwithstanding the vast service he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auspices, particularly in the establishment of the bank of England, and the recoining the silver money, met with so many mortifications from his parliament, that he actually resolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a speech for that purpose, which he was prevailed upon to suppress. He long bore the affronts he met with, in hopes of being supported in his war with France; but at last, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryswick with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had lost his queen\*, but the government was continued in his person. After peace was restored, the commons obliged him to disband his army, all but an inconsiderable number, and to dismiss his favourite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign, his fears of seeing the whole Spanish

\* She died of the small-pox, Dec. 28, 1694, in the thirty-third year of her age.

monarchy in possession of France at the death of the catholic king Charles II. which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic measure, which was the partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the houses of Bourbon and Austria. This treaty was highly resented by the parliament, and some of his ministry were impeached for advising it. It is thought that William saw his error when it was too late. His ministers were acquitted from their impeachment, and the death of king James discovered the insincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his son king of Great Britain.

This perfidy rendered William again popular in England. The two houses passed the bill of abjuration, and an address for a war with France. The last and most glorious act of William's reign was his passing the bill for settling the succession to the crown in the house of Hanover, on the 12th of June, 1701. His death was hastened by a fall he had from his horse, soon after he had renewed the grand alliance against France, on the 8th of March, 1702, the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding; he seemed also sometimes almost to lose sight of those principles of liberty, for the support of which he had been raised to the throne; and though he owed his royalty to the whigs, yet he often favoured the Tories. The former had the mortification of seeing those who had acted most hostilely to the free principles of the constitution, as the marquis of Halifax, the earl of Danby, and lord Nottingham, taken into favour, and resume their places in the cabinet; and the whole influence of government extended to silence all enquiries into the guilt of those who had been the chief instruments in the cruel persecutions of the past reign. The recovery of religion and public liberty were glorious to William; but England under him suffered severely both by sea and land, and the public debt, at the time of his death, amounted to 14,000,000.

Anne, princess of Denmark, by virtue of the act of settlement, and being the next protestant heir to her father James II. succeeded to the throne. As she had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought she would have deviated from his measures; but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, who has since been well known by the name of the Pretender, left her no choice, and she resolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, who had been imprisoned in the late reign on a suspicion of Jacobitism, and whose wife was her favourite, as her general. She could not have made a better choice of a general and a statesman, for that earl excelled in both capacities. No sooner was he placed at the head of the English army abroad, than his genius and activity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II. of Spain, in consequence of the intrigues of France, and at the same time resenting the partition treaty, to which his consent had not been asked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV. and Philip was immediately proclaimed king of Spain, which laid the foundation of the family-alliance between France and that nation. Philip's succession was disputed by the second son of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himself the title of Charles III. and his cause was favoured by the Empire, England, Holland, and other powers, who joined in a confederacy against the house of Bourbon.

The capital measure of continuing the war against France being fixed, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her ministry, who were for the most part Tories; and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading whig) was thought all his life to have a predilection for the late king James and his queen,

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was placed at the head of the treasury. His son had married the earl of Marlborough's eldest daughter, and the earl could trust no other with that important department.

In the course of the war several glorious victories were obtained by the earl, who was soon made duke of Marlborough. Those of Blenheim and Ramillies gave the first effectual checks to the French Power. By that of Blenheim in 1704, the empire of Germany was saved from immediate destruction. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confessedly owing to the latter. The french general Tallard was taken prisoner, and sent to England; and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, besides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the same time, the English admiral, sir George Rook, reduced Gibraltar, which still remains in our possession. The battle of Ramillies in 1706, was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loss of the enemy there has been variously reported; it is generally supposed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken prisoners; but the consequences shewed its importance.

After the battle of Ramillies, the states of Flanders assembled at Ghent, and recognized Charles for their sovereign, while the confederates took possession of Louvain, Brussels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and several other considerable places in Flanders and Brabant acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was at Oudenarde, 1708, where they lost 3000 on the field, and about 7000 were taken prisoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet, near Mons, after a very bloody action, in which the French lost 15,000 men. These flattering successes of the English were balanced by great misfortunes.

The queen had sent a very fine army to assist Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portuguese, the English were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Prince George of Denmark, husband to the queen, was then lord high admiral: and though some advantages were gained at sea, yet great complaints were made against the general management of the naval department; and England felt severely the scarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures.

As Lewis XIV. professed a readiness for peace, the whigs at last consented to a negotiation, and conferences were held at Gertruydenburg, 1710. They were managed, on the part of England, by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townshend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. The French king was gradually brought to comply with all the demands of the allies, except that of employing his own troops against the duke of Anjou, in Spain, where the fortune of war continued still doubtful. But all his offers were rejected by the duke and his associate, as only designed to amuse and divide the allies, and the war was continued.

The unreasonable haughtiness of the English plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburg, (as some term it) and the then expected change of the ministry in England, saved France, and affairs from that day took a turn in its favour. Means were found to convince the queen, who was faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war in the end, if continued, must prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the deluded people was, "that the church was in danger," which, though groundless, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthless preacher, had espoused this clamour in one of his sermons, with the slavish doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance. It was agreed by both parties to try their strength in this man's cause. He was impeached by the commons, and found

gully by the lords, who ventured to pass upon him only a very small censure. After this trial the queen's affections were entirely alienated from the duchess of Marlborough and the whig administration. Her friends lost their places, which were supplied by Tories, and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough in 1712, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a cessation of arms; but they were disregarded by the queen's allies in the British pay. And, indeed, the removal of the duke of Marlborough from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greatest imprudence, and excited the astonishment of all Europe. So numerous had been his successes, and so great his reputation, that his very name was almost equivalent to an army. But the honour and interest of the nation was sacrificed to court intrigues, managed by Mrs. Masham, a relation of the duchess of Marlborough, who had supplanted her benefactress, and by Mr. Harley.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, in January 1712, to which the queen and the French king sent plenipotentiaries; and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew sensible that they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the English. In short, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader need not be informed of the particular conditions made by the French, especially that of Dunkirk: but, after all, the peace would have been still more indefensible and shameful than it was, had it not been for the death of the emperor Joseph, by which his brother Charles III. for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany; and the dilatoriness, if not bad faith of the allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the British parliament almost the whole weight of the war.

The Whigs condemned the peace as injurious to the honour and interest of the nation. The majority of the house of lords was of that party, but the house of commons favoured the court. The queen was afraid that the peers would reject the peace, and by an unprecedented exercise of her prerogative, she created twelve peers at one time, which secured the approbation of her measures. Such was the state of affairs at this critical period; from the complexion of which, it has been conjectured, that the queen had, by some secret influence, which was even concealed from some of her ministers, inclined to call her brother to the succession. The rest of the queen's life was rendered uneasy by the jarring of parties, and the contentious among her ministers. The Whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England, and she was obliged hastily to dismiss her lord-treasurer; when she fell into a lethargic disorder, which carried her off the first of August, 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign\*. I have nothing to add to what I have already said of her character, but that though she was a favourite with neither party in her parliament till towards the end of her reign, when the Tories affected to idolize her, yet her people dignified her with the name of the good queen Anne. The public credit was little or nothing affected by her death, though the national debt then

\* With her ended the line of the Stuarts, who, from the accession of James I. anno 1603, had swayed the sceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 343 years, from the accession of Robert II. anno 1371. James, the late pretender, known by the name of the CHEVALIER DE SAINT GEORGE, son of James II. and brother to queen Anne, upon his father's decease, anno 1701, was proclaimed king of England, by Lewis XIV. at St. Germans, and for some time treated as such by the courts of Rome, France, Spain, and Turin. He resided at Rome, where he kept up the appear-

ance of a court, and continued firm in the Romish faith till his death, which happened in 1765. He left two sons, viz. Charles Edward, known by the name of the Young Chevalier, born in 1720, who was defeated at Culloden in 1746, and upon his father's death repaired to Rome, where he continued several years, and afterwards resided at Florence, under the title of count Albany, but died lately. Henry, his second son, who enjoys a dignified place in the church of Rome, and is known by the name of cardinal York.

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amounted to about fifty millions; so firm was the dependence of the people upon the security of parliament.

In terms of the act of settlement above mentioned, George I. elector of Hanover, son of the princess Sophia, grand-daughter of James I. was proclaimed king of Great Britain; his mother, who would have been next in succession, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with strong prepossessions against the tory-ministry, most of whom he displaced; but this did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England. Many of the Scots, by the influence of the earl of Mar, and other chiefs, were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was happily suppressed the beginning of the next year.

After all, the nation was in such a disposition that the ministry durst not venture to call a new parliament, and the members of that which was sitting voted a continuance of their duration from three to seven years, which is thought to have been the greatest stretch of parliamentary power ever known. Several other extraordinary measures took place about the same time. Mr. Shippen, an excellent speaker, and member of parliament, was sent to the Tower for saying that the king's speech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather than of London; and one Matthews, a young journeyman printer, was hanged for composing a silly pamphlet, that in later times would not have been thought worthy of animadversion. The truth is, the whig ministry were exceedingly jealous of every thing that seemed to affect their master's title; and George I. though a sagacious, moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too subservient to his continental connections, which were various and complicated. He had a dispute with the czar of Muscovy about their German concerns, and had not Charles XII. king of Sweden been killed so critically as he was, Great Britain probably would have been invaded by that northern conqueror, great preparations being made for that purpose, he being incensed at George as elector of Hanover, for purchasing Bremen and Verden of the Danes, which had been a part of his dominions.

In 1718, George quarrelled with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance that had been formed by Great Britain, France, Germany, and the States-general; and his admiral, sir George Byng, by his orders, destroyed the Spanish fleet near Syracuse. A trilling war with Spain then commenced, but it was soon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily; the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor.

A national punishment, different from plague, pestilence, and famine, overtook England in the year 1720, by the sudden rise of the South-sea stock, one of the trading companies; but of this we have already given an account under the article SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

The Jacobites thought to avail themselves of the national discontent at the South-sea scheme and England's connections with the continent, which every day increased. One Lyster, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high treason. Several persons of great quality and distinction were apprehended on suspicion, but the storm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, lord bishop of Rochelle, who was deprived of his see and sent in parliament, and banished for life. So fluctuating was the state of Europe at this time, that in September, 1725, a fresh treaty was concluded at Hanover between the kings of Great Britain, France, and Prussia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A squadron was sent to the Baltic, to hinder the Russians from attacking Sweden, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hoſier, to the West Indies, to watch the Spanish plate-fleet. This last was a fatal as well as an inglorious expedition. The admiral and most of his men perished by epidemical diseases, and the hulks of his ships rotted so as to render them unfit for service. The manage-

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ment of the Spaniards was little better. They lost near 10,000 men in the siege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raise.

A quarrel with the emperor was the most dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; and though an opposition in the house of commons was formed by sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament grew more lavish in granting money and enormous subsidies for the protection of that electorate, to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Hesse Cassel. Such was the state of affairs in Europe, when George I. suddenly died on the 11th of June 1727, at Osnaburgh, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the 13th of his reign. The reign of George I. is remarkable for an incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects; and for the great concern which the English took in the affairs of the continent. The institution of the sinking fund, for diminishing the national debt, is likewise owing to this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom began now to be better understood than formerly, and the state of manufactures began to shift. This was chiefly owing to the unequal distribution of the land-tax, which rendered it difficult for the poor to subsist in certain counties, which had been forward in giving in the true value of their estates when that tax took place.

Sir Robert Walpole was considered as first minister of England when George I. died, and some differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, upon the accession of the latter to the crown, that sir Robert would be displaced. That might have been the case, could another person have been found equally capable of managing the house of commons, and equally willing to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No minister ever understood better the temper of the people of England, and none, perhaps, ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, trust, and profit, and almost the house of commons itself, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, because he thought that war must be fatal to his power. During his long administration he never lost a question that he was in earnest to carry. The excise scheme was the first measure that gave a shock to his power; and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the spirit of the people without doors, which might have either produced an insurrection, or endangered his interest at the next general election.

His pacific system brought him into inconveniences both at home and abroad. It encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the British shipping in the American seas, and the French to treat the English court with insolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themselves slighted, and they interested themselves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the disgust of the people at the proposed excise scheme, and passing the *Gin Act*, in the year 1736, increased the minority in the house of commons to 130, some of whom were as able men and as good speakers as ever had sat in parliament; and taking advantage of the increasing complaints against the Spaniards, they attacked the minister with great strength of argument, and with great eloquence. In justice to Walpole, it should be observed, that he filled the courts of justice with able and upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any perversion of the known laws of the kingdom. He was so far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the most scurrilous abuse that was thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two prosecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themselves affected by them; but it is certain, that the press of England never was more open or free than during his administration. And as to his pacific system, it undoubtedly more than repaid to the nation all that was required to support it, by the increase of her trade and the improvement of her manufactures.

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With regard to the king's own personal concern in public matters, Walpole was rather his minister than his favourite; and his majesty often hinted to him, as Walpole himself has been heard to acknowledge, that he was responsible for all measures of government. The debates concerning the Spanish depredations in the West Indies, and the proofs that were brought to support the complaints of the merchants, made at last an impression even upon many of Walpole's friends. The heads of the opposition, in both houses of parliament, accused the minister of having, by the treaty of Seville, and other negotiations, introduced a branch of the house of Bourbon into Italy, and depressed the house of Austria, the ancient and natural ally of England. They exposed, with invincible force of eloquence and reasoning, the injustice and disgrace, as well as loss arising from the Spanish depredations, and the necessity of repelling force by force. Sir Robert still adhered to his pacific system, and concluded a shameful and indefensible compromise under the title of a convention with the court of Spain, which produced a war with that nation.

Queen Caroline, consort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the minister; but she died November 20th, 1737, when a variance subsisted between the king and his son, the prince of Wales. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence he was deprived not only of the power but the promotion to which his birth entitled him; and he put himself at the head of the opposition with so much firmness, that it was generally foreseen that Walpole's power was drawing to a close. Admiral Vernon, who hated the minister, was sent, in 1739, with a squadron of six ships to the West-Indies, where he took and demolished Porto-Bello; but being a hot, impracticable man, he miscarried in his other attempts, especially that upon Carthagena, in which some thousands of British lives were wantonly thrown away. The opposition exulted in Vernon's success, and afterwards imputed his miscarriages to the minister's starving the war, by withholding the means for carrying it on. The general election approaching, so prevalent was the interest of the prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the minister, and after a few trying divisions, he retired from the house, on the 9th of February, 1742, was created earl of Orford, and the 11th resigned all his employments.

George II. bore the loss of his minister with the greatest equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour, and posts of distinction, upon the heads of the opposition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic sanction (which meant the succession of his daughter to all the Austrian dominions) through the ambition of France, and many other concurrent causes, introduced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Granville, (an able, but a headstrong minister, whom George had made his secretary of state) and indeed by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himself at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, June 16, 1743, and his not suffering his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, was thought to proceed from tenderness for his electoral dominions. This partiality excited an universal flame in England; and a clamour raised against his lordship's measures was increased by the duke of Newcastle and his brother, lord chancellor Hardwicke, the lord Harrington, and other ministers, who resigned, or desired to resign their places, if lord Carteret should retain his influence in the cabinet. His majesty was obliged to give way to what he thought the voice of his people, and he indulged them with accepting the services of some gentlemen who never had been considered as zealous friends to the house of Hanover. After various removals, Mr. Pelham was placed at the head of the treasury, and appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and consequently

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was considered as first minister; or rather the power of the premiership was divided between him and his brother the duke of Newcastle.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expensive war both against the French and Spaniards, and her enemies sought to avail themselves of the general discontent that prevailed in England on account of the king's predilection for Hanover. This naturally suggested to them the idea of applying to the Pretender, who resided at Rome; and he agreed that his son Charles, who was a sprightly young man, should repair to France, from whence he set sail, and narrowly escaped, with a few followers, in a frigate, to the western coasts of Scotland, between the islands of Mull and Sky, where he discovered himself, assembled his followers, and published a manifesto exciting the nation to rebellion. It is necessary, before we relate the true cause of this enterprize, to make a short retrospect to foreign parts.

The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the West Indies, through the fatal divisions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops; and it was thought that above 20,000 British soldiers and seamen perished in the impracticable attempt on Carthage, and the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742, had been spent in negotiations with the courts of Petersburg and Berlin, which, though expensive, proved of little or no service to Great Britain; so that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the same situation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Lestock had suffered the Spanish and French fleets to escape out of Toulon with but little loss; and soon after, the French, who had before acted only as allies to the Spaniards, declared war against Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war against the French. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war, carried on a most lucrative trade; nor could they be brought to act against the French, till the people entered into associations and insurrections against the government. Their marine was in a miserable condition, and when they at last sent a body of troops to join the British and Austrian armies, which had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with so bad a grace, that it was plain they intended not to act in earnest. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himself the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almost masters of the barrier in the Netherlands, and were besieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raise the siege, but by the coldness of the Austrians, and the cowardice of the Dutch, whose government all along held a secret correspondence with France, he lost the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his best men; though it is generally allowed that his dispositions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance such a train of misfortunes, admiral Anson returned this year to England, with an immense treasure (about a million sterling) which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortress of Louisbourg, in the island of Cape Breton.

Such was the state of affairs abroad in August 1745, when the Pretender's eldest son, at the head of some Highland followers, surprised and disarmed a party of the king's troops in the western Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. The government never so thoroughly experienced, as it did at that time, the benefit of the public debt for the support of the Revolution. The French and the Jacobite party, (for such there was at that time in England) had laid a scheme for distressing the Bank; but common danger abolished all distinctions, and united the nation in the defence of one interest, which was private property. The merchants undertook, in their address to the king, to support it, by receiving bank-notes in payment. This seasonable measure saved the public credit; but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, in the year 1746, did not restore tranquillity to

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Europe. Though the prince of Orange, son-in-law to George II. was, by the credit of his majesty, and the spirit of the people of the United Provinces, raised to be their stadtholder, the Dutch could never be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Maastricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made prisoner. Bergen-op-zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been explained. The allies suffered other disgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was necessary to save the duke and his army from total destruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the English fleet, under the command of the admirals Anson, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers: but the English arms were not so successful as could have been wished, under rear-admiral Boscawen in the East Indies. In this state of affairs, the successes of the French and English, during the war, may be said to have been balanced, and both ministries turned their thoughts to peace. The question is not yet decided which party had greatest reason to desire it; the French and Spaniards for the immense losses they had sustained by sea, or the allies for the disgraces they had suffered by land.

The preliminaries for peace were signed in April 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in October, the basis of which was, the restitution on both sides of all places taken during the war. The number of prizes taken by the English in this war, from its commencement to the signing the preliminaries, was 3434; namely, 1249 from the Spaniards, and 2185 from the French: they lost during the same time, 3238; 1360 being taken by the Spaniards, and 1878 by the French. Several of the ships taken from the Spaniards were immensely rich; so that the balance, upon the whole, amounted to almost two millions in favour of England. Such is the gross calculation on both sides; but the consequences plainly proved that the losses of the French and Spaniards must have been much greater. The vast fortunes made by private persons in England all of a sudden, sufficiently shewed that immense sums had not been brought to the public account; but the greatest proof was, the next year the interest of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent. for seven years, after which the whole was to stand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldest stroke of financing ever attempted perhaps in any country, consistently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after an ineffectual opposition, continued their money in the funds, and a few who sold out even made interest to have it replaced on the same security, or were paid off their principal sums out of the sinking fund. This was an era of improvements: Mr. Pelham's candour and rectitude of administration leaving him few or no enemies in parliament, he omitted no opportunity of carrying into execution every scheme for the improvement of commerce, manufactures, and the fisheries; the benefits of which were felt during the succeeding war, and are to this day. Every intelligent person, however, considered the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle as no better than a mere cessation of hostilities. The French employed themselves in recruiting and repairing their marine, and had formed the design of seizing the British back settlements in America, and for cutting off all communication between the English and the native Indians; in which case our colonies must have been reduced to a narrow slip on the coasts, without the means of getting subsistence but from the mother country.

In the mean while, a new treaty of commerce was signed at Madrid, between Great Britain and Spain, by which, in consideration of 100,000*l.* the South-Sea company gave up all their future claims to the assiento contract, by virtue of which, that company had supplied the Spanish West-Indies with negroes. In March, 1750, died universally lamented, his royal highness Frederick prince of Wales

In May, 1751, an act passed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old style was abolished, and the new one established. This was done by sinking eleven days in September 1752, and from that time beginning the year on the first of January. In 1753 the famous act passed for preventing clandestine marriages; but whether it is for the benefit of the subject, is a point that is still very questionable. The people of England about this time sustained an immense loss by the death of Mr. Pelham, who was one of the most honest, wife, and able ministers England had ever seen.

The barefaced encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back settlements in America, and the dispositions they made for sending over vast bodies of veteran troops to support those encroachments, produced a wonderful spirit in England, especially after admiral Boscawen was ordered with eleven ships of the line to sail to the Banks of Newfoundland, where he took two French men of war, the rest of their fleet escaping up the river St. Lawrence, by the straits of Belleisle. No sooner was it known that hostilities were begun, than the people of England poured their money into the government's loan, and orders were issued for making general reprisals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ships, whether outward or homeward bound, should be stopped and brought into British ports. These orders were so effectual, that before the end of the year 1755, above 300 of the richest French merchant ships, and above 8,000 of their best sailors, were brought into the kingdom. This vigorous measure was followed by farther success, for about two years after, near 30,000 French seamen were found to be prisoners in England.

In July, 1755, general Braddock, who had been sent from England to attack the French, and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuscade of the French and Indians near Fort du Quesne; but major-general Johnson defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

The English navy, in 1755, consisted of one ship of 110 guns, five of 100 guns each, thirteen of 90, eight of 80, five of 74, twenty-nine of 70, four of 66, one of 64, thirty-three of 60, three of 54, twenty-eight of 50, four of 44, thirty-five of 40, and forty-two of 20; four sloops of war of 18 guns each, two of 16, eleven of 14, thirteen of 12, and one of 10; besides a great number of bomb-ketches, fire-ships, and tenders; a force sufficient to oppose the maritime strength of all the powers of Europe. Whilst that of the French, even at the end of this year, and including the ships then upon the stocks, amounted to no more than six ships of 80 guns, twenty-one of 74, one of 72, four of 70, thirty-one of 64, two of 60, six of 50, and thirty-two frigates.

In proportion as the spirits of the public were elevated by those invincible armaments, they were sunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack Fort St. Philip there; that admiral Byng, who had been sent out with a squadron at least equal to that of the French, had been baffled, if not defeated, by their admiral Galissoniere, and that at last Minorca was surrendered by general Blakerney. The public outcry was such, that the king gave up Byng to public justice, and he was shot to death at Portsmouth for not doing all that was in his power against the enemy.

It was about this time that Mr. Pitt was placed, as secretary of state, at the head of the administration. He had been long known as a bold, energetic speaker, and he soon proved himself to be a spirited minister. The miscarriages in the Mediterranean had no consequence but the loss of Fort St. Philip, which was more than repaired by the vast success of the English privateers, both in Europe and America. The successes of the English in the East Indies, under colonel Clive, were extraordinary. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar and Orixia,

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Orixa, and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient seat of the nabobs of those provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French interest, a few days after his being defeated, was taken by the new nabob Jaffier Ally Cawn's son, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the great extent of territory which the English now possess in the East Indies.

Mr. Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new system of operations against France, than which nothing could be better calculated to restore the spirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invasion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itself; and the descent was to be made at Rochefort, under general sir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land-troops. Nothing could be more promising than the dispositions for this expedition. It failed on the 8th of September, 1757; but admiral Hawke brought back the sea and land forces on the 6th of October to St. Helen's, the general having made no attempt to land on the coast of France.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a powerful army, the English parliament voted large supplies of men and money to defend the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been sent thither to command an army of observation, but was so powerfully pressed by a superior army, that he found himself obliged to lay down his arms; and the French, under the duke of Richelieu, took possession of that electorate and its capital. At this time a scarcity, bordering on famine, raged in England; and the Hessian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been sent to defend the kingdom from an invasion intended by the French, still remained in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758, a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majesty and the king of Prussia: in consequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000*l.* to his majesty; and also voted large sums, amounting in the whole to near two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards so burdensome to England, was intended to unite the Protestant interest in Germany.

George II. with the consent of his Prussian majesty, declaring that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Closterseven, ordered his Hanoverian subjects to resume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, a Prussian general, who instantly drove the French out of Hanover; and the duke of Marlborough, after the English had repeatedly insulted the French coasts, by destroying their stores and shipping at St. Maloes and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined Prince Ferdinand with 12,000 British troops, which were afterwards increased to 25,000. A war ensued, in the course of which the English gained great victories, which produced no decisive effects. Even the battle of Minden, one of the most glorious in the English annals, in which about 7000 English defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops, contributed nothing to the conclusion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The expences of the war were borne with cheerfulness, and the activity and spirit of Mr. Pitt's administration were greatly applauded. Admiral Boscawen and general Amherst, in August 1758, reduced and demolished Louisbourg, in North America, which had been restored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and was become the scourge of the British trade, and took five or six French ships of the line; Frontenac and Fort du Quebec, in the same quarter, fell also into our hands; acquisitions that far over-balanced a check received at Ticonderago, and the loss of above 300 of the English guards, as they were returning under general Bligh from the coast of France.

The English affairs in the East Indies this year proved equally fortunate; and the lords of the admiralty received letters from thence, with an account that admiral Pococke had engaged the French fleet near Fort St. David's on the 29th of March, in which engagement a French man of war, called the *Bien Aimé*, of 74 guns, was so much damaged that they run her on shore. The French had 600 men killed and wounded on this occasion, and the English only 29 killed, and 89 wounded. That on the 3d of August following, he engaged the French fleet a second time near Pondicherry; when, after a brisk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the sail they could make, and got safe into the road of Pondicherry: and that, on the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in those parts, marched to besiege Madras, which was defended by the English colonels Laurence and Draper; and after a brisk cannonade, which lasted till the 16th of February following, the English having received a reinforcement of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to raise the siege, and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the island of Gorée, on the coast of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions had been planned for this year in America, which were all successful. One of them was against the French islands in the West Indies, where Guadaloupe was reduced. The second expedition was against Quebec, the capital of French Canada. The command was given, by the minister's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was opposed with far superior force by Montcalm, the best and most successful general the French had. Though the situation of the country which Wolfe was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a descent of the English, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perseverance, however, surmounted incredible difficulties; he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was killed himself, as was Montcalm; general Monkton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reserved for brigadier-general (now lord viscount) Townshend.

General Amherst, who was the first English general on command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Lawrence. It is to the honour of the minister, that Mr. Amherst, in this expedition, was so well provided with every thing that could make it successful, that there scarcely appeared any chance for its miscarriage; and thus the French empire in North America became subject to Great Britain.

The affairs of the French being now desperate, and their credit ruined, they resolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invasion of Great Britain; but, on the 18th of August, 1759, admiral Boscawen attacked the Toulon squadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the straits of Gibraltar, took *Le Centaur*, of 74, *Le Téméraire* of 74, and *Le Modeste* of 74 guns; and burnt *L'Océan* of 80, and *Le Redoutable* of 74 guns. The rest of the fleet, consisting of seven ships of the line, and three frigates, made their escape in the night; and on November 20, sir Edward Hawke defeated the Brest fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the island of Dumet, in the Bay of Biscay. The *Formidable*, a French man of war of 80 guns, was taken; the *Thésée* of 74, and the *Superbe* of 70 guns, were sunk; and the *Soleil Royal* of 80, and the *Héros* of 74 guns, were burnt and afterwards the *Juste* of 70, perished in the mouth of the Loire. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Vilaine, by throwing their guns over board; and the rest of the fleet, consisting of five ships of the line, and three frigates, escaped in the night. The English lost on this occasion, the *Ellex*

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of 64, and the Resolution of 74 guns, which ran on shore in the chase. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their intended invasion of Great Britain.

In February 1760, captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who had with three sloops of war alarmed the coasts of Scotland, and actually made a descent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed by captain Elliot, the commodore of three ships, inferior in force to the Frenchman's squadron. Every day's gazette added to the accounts of the successes of the English, and the utter ruin of the French finances, which that government did not blush publicly to avow. In short, Great Britain now reigned as sole mistress of the main.

The war in Germany, however, continued still as undecided as it was expensive, and many in England began to consider it now as foreign to the internal interests of Great Britain. The French again and again shewed dispositions for treating, and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little less than eighteen millions sterling yearly, inclined the British ministry to listen to their proposals. A negotiation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation; but on the 25th of October 1760, George II. died suddenly (from a rupture in the right ventricle of the heart), full of years and glory, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign, and was succeeded by his grandson, now George III. eldest son to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehensible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could separate an idea that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions; and he was sometimes ill enough advised to declare so much in his speeches to parliament. We are, however, to remember, that his people gratified him in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or prerogative. He was just, rather than generous; and in matters of economy, either in his state or his household, he was willing to connive at abuses, if they had the sanction of law and custom. He was not very accessible in conversation, and therefore it is no wonder that, having left Germany, after he had attained to man's estate, he still retained foreign notions both of men and things. In government he had no favourite, for he parted with sir Robert Walpole with great indifference, and shewed very little concern at the subsequent revolutions among his servants. This quality may be deemed a virtue, as it contributed greatly to the internal quiet of his reign, and prevented the people from loading the king with the faults of his ministers. In his personal disposition he was passionate, but placable, fearless of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he served when young.

King George III. ascended the throne with great advantages. His being a native of England prejudiced the people in his favour: he was in the bloom of youth, in his person tall and comely; at the time of his accession Great Britain was in the highest degree of reputation and prosperity, and the most salutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among the people. The first acts of his reign seemed also calculated to convince the public that the death of his predecessor should not relax the operations of the war. Accordingly, in 1761, the island of Belleisle, on the coast of France, surrendered to his majesty's ships and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgson; as did the important fortrefs of Pondichery, in the East Indies, to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations against the French West Indies still continued under general Monkton, lord Kollo, and sir James Douglas; and in 1762, the island of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the islands of Grenada, St. Lucia, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of less note, were subdued by the British arms with inconceivable rapidity.

As his majesty could not espouse a Roman catholic, he was precluded from intermarrying

marrying into any of the great families of Europe; he therefore chose a wife from the house of Mecklenburg Strelitz, the head of a small but sovereign state in the north-west of Germany; and the conduct of his excellent consort has hitherto been such as most highly to justify his choice. She was conveyed to England in great pomp, and the nuptials were celebrated on the very night of her arrival, viz. Sept. 8, 1761: and on the 22d of the same month, the ceremony of the coronation was performed with great magnificence in Westminster-abbey.

In the mean time, Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war against France with such eminent ability, and who had received the best information of the hostile intentions and private intrigues of the court of Spain, proposed in council an immediate declaration of war against that kingdom. He urged his reasons for this measure with his usual energy; asserting that "this was the time for humbling the whole house of Bourbon; that Spain was in daily expectation of a rich fleet from the West Indies; that if we could intercept that, it would give a disheartening blow to their power and pride; and that, should this opportunity escape, it might never be recovered." But he was over-ruled in the council. Mr. Pitt now found the decline of his influence; and it was supposed that the earl of Bute, who had a considerable share in directing the education of the king, had acquired an ascendancy in the royal favour\*. Mr. Pitt, however, said, that "as he was called to the ministry by the voice of the people, to whom he considered himself as accountable for his conduct, he would no longer remain in a situation which made him responsible for measures that he was not allowed to guide." He, therefore, resigned the seals, and lord Temple his brother-in-law also gave up the post which he held in the administration. But the next day, the king settled a pension of three thousand pounds a year upon Mr. Pitt, and at the same time was conferred upon his lady and her issue; and the pension was to be continued for three lives. These advantages and honours had unquestionably been well deserved by his public services; but his acceptance of them greatly lessened his popularity. A very considerable degree of discontent notwithstanding prevailed in the nation, on account of his removal from power; and it was extremely natural, that the people should behold, with the utmost regret, the removal of a minister, of whose abilities and integrity they had the highest opinion, and in the midst of a war which he had conducted with so much honour to himself and to his country. This great man had not resigned the seals many weeks, when the Spanish fleet arrived safe in their ports, richly laden. After this, the court of Spain soon threw off the mask, and gave the most unequivocal marks of their hostile intentions.

The war still continued to be carried on with vigour after the resignation of Mr. Pitt, and the plans were pursued that he had previously concerted. Lord Egremont was appointed to succeed him, as secretary for the southern department. It was at length also found indispensably necessary to engage in a war with Spain, the famous family compact among all the different branches of the Bourbon family being now generally known; and accordingly war was declared against that kingdom, on the 4th of January 1762. A respectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces; and the vitals of the Spanish monarchy were struck at, by the reduction of the Havannah, the strongest and most important fort which his catholic majesty held in the West Indies, after a siege of two months and eight days. The capture of the *Hermione*, a large Spanish register ship, bound from Lima to Cadiz, the cargo of which was valued at a million sterling, preceded the birth of the prince of Wales, and the treasure passed in triumph through Westminster to the Bank, the very hour he was

\* It was on the 25th of March 1761, that the earl of Bute was appointed one of the principal secretaries of state; and on the 5th of October following, Mr. Pitt resigned the seals.

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born. The loss of the *Havannah*, with the ships and treasures there taken from the Spaniards, was succeeded by the reduction of *Manilla* and the Philippine islands in the East Indies, under general Draper and admiral Cornish, with the capture of the *Trinidad*, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract those dreadful blows given to the family compact, the French and Spaniards employed their last resource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, the faithful but feeble ally of Great Britain. Whether this quarrel was real or pretended, is not easy to decide. It certainly embarrassed his Britannic majesty, who was obliged to send thither armaments both by sea and land.

The negotiations for peace were now resumed; and the enemy at last offered such terms as the British ministry thought admissible. The defection of the Russians from the confederacy against the king of Prussia, and his consequent successes, produced a cessation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majesty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal. March 10, the ratifications were exchanged at Paris. The 22d, the peace was solemnly proclaimed at Westminster and London; and the treaty having on the 18th been laid before the parliament, it met the approbation of a majority of both houses.

By this treaty, the extensive province of Canada, with the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, were confirmed to Great Britain; also the two Floridas, containing the whole of the continent of North America, on this side the Mississippi, (except the town of New Orleans, with a small district round it,) was surrendered to us by France and Spain, in consideration of restoring to Spain the island of Cuba; and to the French the islands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Desirade; and in consideration of our granting to the French the two small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the coast of Newfoundland; and quitting our pretensions to the neutral island of St. Lucia, they yielded to us the islands of Grenada and the Grenadilles, and quitted their pretensions to the neutral islands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the settlement of Senegal, by which we nearly engrossed the whole gum trade of that country; but we restored Goree, a small island of little value. The article that relates to the East Indies, restores to the French all the places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they shall maintain neither fort nor forces in the province of Bengal. And the city of *Manilla* was restored to the Spaniards; but they confirmed to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the bay of Honduras in America. In Europe, likewise, the French restored to us the island of Minorca, and we restored to them the island of Belleisle. In Germany, after six years spent in marches and countermarches, numerous skirmishes and bloody battles, Great Britain acquired much military fame, but at the expence of 30 millions sterling! As to the objects of that war, it was agreed that a mutual restitution and oblivion should take place, and each party sit down at the end of the war, in the same situation in which they began it. And peace was restored between Portugal and Spain, both sides to be upon the same footing as before the war.

The war, to which a period was now put, was the most brilliant in the British annals. No national prejudices nor party disputes then existed. The same truly British spirit by which the minister was animated, fired the breast of the soldier and seaman. The nation had then arrived at a pitch of wealth unknown to former ages; and the monied man, pleased with the aspect of the times, confiding in the abilities of the minister, and courage of the people, cheerfully opened his purse. The incredible sums of 18, 19, and 22 millions, raised by a few citizens of London, upon a short notice, for the service of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, were no less

astonishing to Europe, than the success which attended the British fleets and armies in every quarter of the globe.

But the peace, though it received the sanction of a majority of both houses of parliament, was far from giving universal satisfaction to the people. The manner in which it was begun, and the precipitation with which it was concluded, were condemned. The terms also were censured by many, as extremely inadequate to what might justly have been expected from the numerous victories and advantages, which had been obtained against the enemy. And from this period various causes concurred to excite a spirit of discontent in the nation.

On the 30th of April, 1763, three of the king's messengers entered the house of John Wilkes, esq. member of parliament for Aylesbury, and seized his person, by virtue of a general warrant from the secretary of state, which directed them to seize "the authors, printers, and publishers, of a seditious and treasonable paper, intitled, *The North Briton*, No. 45." The papers published under this title, severely arraigned the conduct of the administration, and represented the earl of Bute as the favourite of the king, and the person from whom measures of government of a very pernicious tendency originated. The 45th number contained strictures on the king's speech. Mr. Wilkes was suspected to be the author, but his name was not mentioned in the warrant by which he was apprehended. He objected to being taken into custody by such a warrant, alleging that it was illegal. However he was forcibly carried before the secretaries of state for examination, and they committed him close prisoner to the Tower, his most secret and confidential papers, being also seized. He was likewise deprived of his commission as colonel of the Buckinghamshire militia. Not to mention the privilege of parliament, which was flagrantly violated, the warrants, though conformable to precedent, were inconsistent with the spirit of the British constitution, substituting discretion in the place of law, which knows no discretion, nor leaves the construction to be put on warrants to those low creatures who must be entrusted with their execution. A writ of habeas corpus being procured by his friends, he was brought up to the court of Common Pleas, and the matter being there argued, he was ordered to be discharged. This affair made a great noise; people of all ranks interested themselves in it, and Westminster-hall resounded with acclamations when he was set at liberty. An information, however, was filed against him in the court of King's Bench at his majesty's suit, as author of the *North Briton*, No. 45; on the first day of the meeting of parliament, after these transactions, Mr. Wilkes stood up in his place, and made a speech, in which he complained to the house, that in his person the rights of all the commons of England, and the privileges of parliament, had been violated by his imprisonment, the plundering of his house, and the seizure of his papers. The same day, a message was sent to acquaint the house of commons with the information his majesty had received, that John Wilkes, esq. a member of that house, was the author of a most seditious and dangerous libel, and the measures that had been taken thereupon. The next day a duel was fought in Hyde Park between Mr. Wilkes and Mr. Martin, another member of parliament, and secretary of the treasury, in which Mr. Wilkes received a dangerous wound in the belly with a pistol-bullet. Both houses of parliament soon concurred in voting the *North-Briton*, No. 45, to be a false, scandalous, and seditious libel, and ordered it to be burnt by the common hangman. This order was accordingly executed, though not without great opposition from the populace; and Mr. Harley, one of the sheriffs who attended, was wounded, and obliged to take shelter in the Mansion-house. Another prosecution was commenced against Mr. Wilkes, for having caused an obscene and profane poem to be printed, intitled, "*An Essay on Woman*." Of this, only twelve copies had been privately printed; and it did not appear to have been intended for publication. Finding, however, that he

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should continue to be prosecuted with the utmost rigour, when his wound was in some degree healed, he thought proper to quit the kingdom. He was soon after expelled the house of commons; verdicts were also given against him, both on account of the *North Briton* and the *Essay on Woman*, and towards the end of the year 1764 he was outlawed. Sundry other persons had been taken up for being concerned in printing and publishing the *North Briton*; but some of them obtained verdicts against the king's messengers for false imprisonment.

In the mean while, the earl of Bute, who had been made first lord of the treasury, resigned that office, and was succeeded by Mr. George Grenville. And under this gentleman's administration, an act was passed, said to have been framed by him, entitled, "An Act for laying a *stamp-duty* in the British Colonies of North-America," which received the royal assent on the 22d of March 1765. Some other regulations were previously made, under pretence of preventing smuggling in America; but which in effect so cramped the trade of the colonies, as to be prejudicial both to them and to the mother-country. As soon as it was known in North America that the *stamp-act* was passed, the whole continent was kindled in to a flame. As the Americans had hitherto been taxed by their own representatives in their provincial assemblies, they loudly asserted, that the British parliament, in which they were not represented, had no right to tax them. Indeed, the same doctrine had been maintained in the British parliament, when the stamp-act was under consideration. On the other hand, it was contended, that the colonies, who had been protected by Great Britain, ought, in reason and justice, to contribute towards the expence of the mother-country. "These children of our own planting," said Mr. George Grenville, speaking of the Americans, "nourished by our indulgence, until they are grown to a good degree of strength and opulence, and protected by our arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load of national expence which we lie under?"

When the stamp-act, as printed by royal authority, reached the colonies, it was treated with every mark of indignation and contempt. Several acts of violence were likewise committed, with a view of preventing its operation; and associations were also formed in the respective states, whereby the people bound themselves not to import or purchase any British manufactures, till that act should be repealed. The inhabitants of the different colonies also established committees to correspond with each other, concerning the general affairs of the whole, and even appointed deputies from those committees to meet in CONGRESS at New-York. They assembled in that city, in October 1765, and this was the first congress held on the American continent.

These commotions in America occasioned so great an alarm in England, that the king thought proper to dismiss his ministers. The marquis of Rockingham was appointed first lord of the treasury; and some of his lordship's friends succeeded to the vacant places. In March 1766, an act was passed for repealing the American stamp-act. This was countenanced and supported by the new ministry; and Mr. Pitt, though not connected with them, yet spoke with great force in favour of the repeal. He said of the late ministry, that "every capital measure they had taken was entirely wrong." He contended that the parliament of Great Britain had no right to tax the colonies. "For the commons of America, represented in their several assemblies, have ever been in possession of the exercise of their constitutional right, of giving and granting their own money. They would have been slaves if they had not enjoyed it. At the same time, this kingdom, as the supreme governing and legislative power, has always bound the colonies by her laws, by her regulations, and restrictions in trade, in navigation, in manufactures—in every thing except that of taking their money out of their pockets without their consent."

At the time that the stamp-act was repealed, an act was also passed for securing the dependence of the American colonies on Great Britain. But this does not appear then to have given much umbrage to the colonists; and the repeal of the stamp-act occasioned great rejoicings both in America and Great Britain.

The marquis of Rockingham and his friends continued in administration but a short time. On the 30th of July, 1766, the duke of Grafton was appointed first lord of the treasury, in the room of the marquis of Rockingham; the earl of Shelburne, secretary of state, in the room of the duke of Richmond; Charles Townshend, chancellor of the exchequer; and Mr. Pitt, now created earl of Chatham, was appointed lord-privy-seal; but that eminent statesman's acceptance of a peerage, as it removed him from the house of commons, greatly lessened his influence. Upon the death of Mr. Charles Townshend, who had exerted great ability both in the cabinet and in parliament, lord North was made chancellor of the exchequer, and afterwards first lord of the treasury, and head of the administration, which began the American war without necessity, conducted it without spirit or prudence, and at last concluded it with infinite dishonour and disadvantage.

In the year 1768, Mr. Wilkes, who had for a considerable time resided in France, came over to England, and again became an object of public attention. The parliament had just before been dissolved; and on his arrival in London, though he still lay under the sentence of outlawry, he offered himself a candidate to represent that city in the ensuing parliament. He was received with loud acclamations, and the generality appeared greatly interested in his favour, but he lost his election; only 1247 livesmen voted for him. His want of success did not discourage him, for he immediately offered himself a candidate for the county of Middlesex. He was attended by an amazing number of people to Brentford, the place of election. The two other candidates had large fortunes, and great connections in the county; they had represented it for several years, and were supported by the whole interest of the court. Mr. Wilkes, however, being considered as a man who had been unjustly and unconstitutionally persecuted by the government, was elected by a great majority, on the 28th of March. The extreme joy of the populace at this event, produced some irregularities in the city of London, on the evening of the day of election; and, on the following day, orders were given to the guards on duty at St. James's to be in readiness at the beat of drum, to march to suppress any riot that might happen. In May following, Mr. Wilkes having voluntarily surrendered himself to the court of king's-bench, was committed to the king's-bench prison. Soon after this, a number of persons having assembled in St. George's Fields, near that prison, in hopes of seeing Mr. Wilkes, some disorder ensued, and the soldiers were rashly ordered to fire among the mob. Several persons were killed, and in particular one William Allen, who was singled out, pursued by one of the soldiers, and shot near his father's house, in a manner which the occasion could in no respect justify. This affair made a great noise; and the pains taken by the minister to support and vindicate the military, increased the odium of the transaction. On the 8th of June Mr. Wilkes's outlawry was reversed, and on the 18th of the same month sentence was passed on him; that, for the republication of *The North Briton*, No. 45, he should pay a fine of five hundred pounds, and be imprisoned ten months; and for publishing the *Essay on Woman*, that he should pay the same fine and be imprisoned twelve months, to be computed from the expiration of the term of the former imprisonment. He afterwards petitioned the house of commons, complaining of the injustice and illegality of the proceedings against him; but the house voted, that his complaints were frivolous and groundless. He was also again expelled, for publishing some prefatory remarks on a letter written by one of the secretaries of state to the chairman of the quarter-sessions at Lambeth, previous to the unhappy affair of St. George's Fields, and

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a new writ was ordered to be issued for the election of a member for the county of Middlesex.

The rigour with which Mr. Wilkes was prosecuted only increased his popularity. Before his expulsion he had been chosen an alderman of London; and on the 16th of February, 1769, he was re-elected at Brentford member for the county of Middlesex. The return having been made to the house, it was resolved, that Mr. Wilkes, having been expelled that session, was incapable of being elected a member of that parliament. The late election, therefore, was declared void, and a new writ issued for another. He was once more unanimously re-elected by the freeholders, and the election was again declared void by the house of commons. After this a new election being ordered, colonel Luttrell, in order to recommend himself to the court, vacated the seat which he already had in parliament, by the acceptance of a nominal place, and declared himself a candidate for the county of Middlesex. Though the whole weight of court interest was thrown into the scale in this gentleman's favour, yet a majority of near four to one appeared against him on the day of election; the numbers for Wilkes being 1143, and for Luttrell only 296. Notwithstanding this, two days after the election, it was resolved in the house of commons, that Mr. Luttrell ought to have been returned a knight of the shire for the county of Middlesex; and the deputy-clerk of the crown was ordered to amend the return, by erasing the name of Mr. Wilkes, and inserting that of colonel Luttrell. The latter accordingly took his seat in parliament; but this was thought to gross a violation of the rights of the electors, that it excited a very general discontent.

Petitions, couched in very strong terms, were presented to the throne from different places, complaining of this and other national grievances. The county of Middlesex, as the most immediately affected, took the lead on this occasion, and presented a petition, in which they complained, "that their legal and free choice of a representative had been repeatedly rejected, and the right of election finally taken from them, by the unprecedented seating of a candidate who was never chosen by the county." They also said, that "instead of the ancient and legal civil police, the military were introduced at every opportunity, unnecessarily and unlawfully; that the civil magistracy was rendered contemptible, by the appointment of improper and incapable persons; and that the civil magistrates, being tampered with by administration, neglected and refused to discharge their duty." These petitioners likewise addressed his majesty in the following terms: "With great grief and sorrow we have long beheld the endeavours of certain evil-minded persons to infuse into your royal mind notions and opinions of the most pernicious tendency, and who promote and counsel such measures as cannot fail to destroy that harmony and confidence which should ever subsist between a just and virtuous prince, and a free and loyal people." Petitions of a similar nature were presented from the livery of London, the electors of Westminster, from several other cities and boroughs, and about seventeen counties. These petitions were said to be signed by upwards of 60,000 electors. Some of them were principally confined to the violated right of election, but others were more diffuse; and Yorkshire, Westminster, and some others, prayed, in express terms, for a dissolution of parliament, under the idea of its being venal and corrupt. Addresses were, however, procured from sundry other places, of a very different tendency, and breathing nothing but loyalty and attachment to the government; notwithstanding which, it was extremely manifest that a great spirit of discontent prevailed throughout the nation.

In the course of this year a very important act was passed for regulating the conduct of the house of commons in controverted elections. These used formerly to be determined by the house at large, and by a majority of votes, so that they were considered merely as party-matters; and the strongest party, which was always that

of the ministry, was sure to carry the point, without paying the least regard to the merits of the question on either side. But by the bill, which was now passed, commonly called the Grenville-act, as it was drawn up and brought in by Mr. Grenville, they were ordered for the future to be decided by a committee of thirteen members, chosen by lot, and under the sacred obligation of an oath; and since the enactment of this law, no well-grounded complaint has been made against their decisions.

After the term of Mr. Wilkes's imprisonment was expired, in the year 1771, he was chosen one of the sheriffs for London and Middlesex; and the same year a remarkable contest happened between the city of London and the house of commons. Several printers had been ordered to attend that house, being charged with having inserted in their news-papers, accounts of the speeches of members of parliament, contrary to a standing order of the house. One of these printers, who had refused to attend the summons of the house, was apprehended by a messenger of the house of commons in his own house; whereupon he immediately sent for a constable, and the messenger was carried before the lord-mayor at the mansion-house, where the aldermen Wilkes and Oliver also then were. The deputy serjeant at arms also attended, and demanded, in the name of the speaker, that both the messenger and the printer should be delivered up to him. This was refused by the lord-mayor, who asked, for what crime, and upon what authority, the messenger had arrested the printer? The messenger answered, he had done it by warrant from the speaker. It was then asked, if the warrant had been backed by a city magistrate? Which being answered in the negative, the warrant was demanded, and, after much altercation, produced; and its validity being argued by the printer's counsel, the three magistrates present discharged him from confinement. His complaint for an assault and false imprisonment being then heard, and the facts proved and admitted, the messenger was asked for bail, which the serjeant having refused to give, a warrant for his commitment to prison was made out, and signed by the lord-mayor and the two aldermen; but the serjeant then offered bail, which was accepted. The consequence of this transaction was, that a few days after, the lord-mayor Crosby, and alderman Oliver, members of the house of commons, were committed prisoners to the Tower for their share in this business, by the authority of the house; but they avoided, as much as possible, any new contest with Mr. Wilkes. That gentleman was chosen member for Middlesex in the subsequent parliament, and in the year 1783, after the change of lord North's administration, all the declarations, orders, and resolutions of the house of commons respecting his election for the county of Middlesex, were ordered to be expunged from the journals of that house, "as being subversive of the rights of the whole body of electors of this kingdom." And it should be remembered, that in consequence of his manly and spirited contests with the government, general warrants were declared to be illegal, and an end was put to such warrants, and to the unlawful seizure of an Englishman's papers by state messengers.

Elective kingdoms are subject to such violent shocks and convulsions upon every vacancy of the throne, that it has been thought proper in most of the modern states of Europe, to establish hereditary monarchies; and even in these last a disputed title is always attended with such civil wars and bloodshed, that it has been found expedient to keep the line of succession as clear and distinct as possible. This is the reason why so much attention is given in this kingdom to the marriages of the royal family. The king's two brothers, the dukes of Gloucester and Cumberland, having married privately, the former the countess dowager of Waldegrave, the latter a widow lady of the name of Horton, daughter to lord Iringham; a bill was now passed, in the year 1772, enacting, That all the descendants of his late majesty (other than the issue of princesses, who have married, or may hereafter marry into foreign

foreign families) shall be incapable of contracting marriage without the consent of the king, or his successors on the throne, signified under the great seal, and declared in council; that every such marriage, without such consent, shall be void; that, nevertheless, such descendants being above the age of twenty-five years, upon their giving the privy-council twelve months notice of their design, may, after the expiration of that term, enter into marriage without the royal consent, unless both houses of parliament shall within that time expressly declare their disapprobation of it.

After the repeal of the stamp-act, which was received with great joy in America, all things became quiet there: but unhappily new attempts were made to tax them in the British parliament, though, besides the experience of the ill success of the stamp-act, governor Pownall, a gentleman well acquainted with the disposition of the colonists, said in the house of commons in 1767, "It is a fact which this house ought to be apprised of in all its extent, that the people of America, universally, unitedly, and unalterably, are resolved not to submit to any internal tax imposed upon them by any legislature, in which they have not a share by representatives of their own election." He added, "this claim must not be understood, as though it were only the pretences of party leaders and demagogues; as though it were only the visions of speculative enthusiasts; as though it were the mere ebullition of a faction which must subside; as though it were only temporary, and partial—it is the cool, deliberate, principled maxim of every man of business in the country." The event verified the justice of these observations; yet the same year an act was passed, laying certain duties on paper, glass, tea, &c. imported into America, to be paid by the colonies for the purpose of raising a revenue to the government. About two years after, it was thought proper to repeal these duties, except that on tea; but as it was not the amount of the duties, but the right of the parliament of Great Britain to impose taxes in America, which was the subject of dispute, the repealing the other duties answered no purpose, while that on tea remained, which accordingly became a fresh subject of contest between the mother-country and the colonies.

In order to induce the East India company to become instrumental in enforcing the tea-duty in America, an act was passed, by which they were enabled to export their teas, duty-free, to all places whatsoever. Several ships were accordingly freighted with teas for the different colonies, by the company, who also appointed agents there for the disposal of that commodity. This was considered by the Americans as a scheme calculated to pave the way to an unlimited taxation. For it was easily comprehended, that if the tea was once landed, and in the custody of the consignees, no associations nor other measures would be sufficient to prevent its sale and consumption; and it was not to be supposed, that when taxation was established in one instance, it would be restrained in others. These ideas being generally prevalent in America, it was resolved by the colonists to prevent the landing of the tea-cargoes amongst them, at whatever hazard. Accordingly, three ships laden with tea having arrived in the port of Boston in December, 1773, a number of armed men, under the disguise of Mohawk Indians, boarded these ships, and in a few hours discharged their whole cargoes into the sea, without doing any other damage, or offering any injury to the captains or crews. Some smaller quantities of tea met afterwards with a similar fate at Boston, and a few other places; but in general, the commissioners for the sale of that commodity were obliged to relinquish their employments, and the masters of the tea-vessels, from an apprehension of danger, returned again to England with their cargoes. At New York, indeed, the tea was landed under the cannon of a man of war. But the persons in the service of government there, were obliged to consent to its being locked up from use. And in South Carolina some was thrown into the river, as at Boston, and the rest put into damp warehouses, where it perished.

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These proceedings in America excited so much indignation in the English government, that on the 31st of March, 1774, an act was passed for removing the custom-house officers from the town of Boston, and shutting up the port. Another act was soon after passed "for better regulating the government in the province of Massachusetts' Bay." The design of this act was to alter the constitution of that province as it stood upon the charter of king William; to take the whole executive power out of the hands of the people, and to vest the nomination of the counsellors, judges, and magistrates of all kinds, including sheriffs, in the crown, and in some cases in the king's governor, and all to be removeable at the pleasure of the crown. Another act was also passed, empowering the governor of Massachusetts' Bay to send persons accused of crimes there, to be tried in England for such offences. Some time after an act was likewise passed "for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec," enabling the king to establish a legislative council for that province, in which his majesty's Canadian Roman catholic subjects were entitled to a place. The French laws, and a trial without jury, were also established in civil cases, and the English laws, with a trial by jury, in criminal; and the popish clergy were invested with a legal right to their tithes from all who were of their own religion. No assembly of the people, as in other British colonies, was appointed, it being said in the act, that it was then inexpedient; but the king was to erect such courts of criminal, civil, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction, as he should think proper. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were likewise extended by the act, thousands of miles at the back of the other colonies, whereby, it was said, a government little better than despotic was established throughout an extensive country. It was also thought extremely injurious to the British settlers in Canada, that they should be compelled to submit to French laws, and be deprived of those privileges which they would have enjoyed in other parts of his majesty's dominions.

The measures of government had so universally exasperated America, that agreements were entered into in the different colonies, whereby the subscribers bound themselves in the most solemn manner, and in the presence of God, to suspend all commercial intercourse with Great Britain, from the last day of the month of August, 1774, until the Boston-port bill, and the other late obnoxious laws, were repealed, and the colony of Massachusetts' Bay fully restored to its chartered rights. The flame continued to increase and extend in America, till at length twelve of the colonies, including that whole extent of country which reaches from Nova Scotia to Georgia, had appointed deputies to attend a General Congress, which was opened at Philadelphia, the 5th of September, 1774. They met accordingly, and the number of delegates amounted to fifty-one; who represented the several colonies of New Hampshire (2 delegates), Massachusetts' Bay (4), Rhode Island and Providence Plantations (2), Connecticut (3), New York (7), New Jersey (4), Pennsylvania (7), the lower counties on Delaware (3), Maryland (4), Virginia (7), North Carolina (3), and South Carolina (5); Georgia afterwards acceded to the confederacy, and sent deputies to the Congress. They entered into an association, in which they bound themselves and their constituents, not to import into British America, from Great Britain or Ireland, any goods, wares, or merchandise whatsoever, from the 1st day of December following; nor to import any East India tea from any part of the world; nor to export any merchandise or commodity whatsoever to Great Britain, Ireland, or the West Indies, from the 10th of September 1775, unless the act for stopping the port and blocking up the harbour of Boston, that for altering the charter and government of the province of Massachusetts' Bay, the Quebec act, the acts by which duties were imposed on any commodities imported into America, and some other acts, which they enumerated, were repealed. They avowed their allegiance to his majesty, and their affection

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and regard for their fellow subjects in Great Britain, but asserted the necessity of their adopting such measures as were calculated to obtain a redress of those grievances which they laboured under; and which, they said, "threatened destruction to the lives, liberty, and property of the inhabitants of the colonies."

They also drew up a petition to the king, in which they enumerated their several grievances, and solicited his majesty to grant them peace, liberty, and safety. They likewise published an address to the people of Great Britain, another to the colonies in general, and another to the inhabitants of the province of Quebec. The congress broke up on the 26th of October, having resolved, that another congress should be held in the same place, on the 10th of May following, unless the grievances of which they complained should be redressed before that time: and they recommended to all the colonies to choose deputies, as soon as possible, for that purpose.

Shortly after these events, the earl of Chatham, who had been long in an infirm state of health, appeared in the house of lords, and expressed in the strongest terms his disapprobation of the whole system of American politics. He also made a motion for immediately recalling the troops from Boston. He represented this as a matter which should be instantly adopted; urging, that an hour then lost, in allaying the ferment in America, might produce years of calamity. He alleged, that this conciliatory measure would be well-timed; and as a mark of affection and good-will on our side, would remove all jealousy and apprehension on the other, and instantaneously produce the happiest effects to both. His lordship's motion was rejected by a large majority, 68 against 18; as was also a bill which he brought in soon after for settling the American troubles, by 61 to 32. The methods proposed in the house of commons for promoting an accommodation, met also with a similar fate. The number of his majesty's troops was ordered to be augmented; and an act was passed for restraining the commerce of the New England colonies, and to prohibit their fishery on the Banks of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed, afterwards made in the house of commons, by lord North, first lord of the treasury, for suspending the exercise of the right of taxation in America, claimed by the British parliament, in such of the colonies as should, in their general assemblies, raise such contributions as were approved of by the king in parliament. This motion was carried, and afterwards communicated to some of the provincial assemblies; but it was rejected by them as delusive and unsatisfactory, and only calculated to disunite them. The petition from the congress to the king was ordered by his majesty to be laid before the parliament: whereupon Dr. Franklin, and two other American agents, solicited to be heard at the bar of the house of commons, on behalf of the colonies, in support of that petition: but their application was rejected; it being said, that the American congress was no legal assembly, and that therefore no petition could be received from it with propriety.

In the mean time, the inhabitants of the American colonies began to prepare for war; they trained and exercised their militia with great industry; and when advice was received of a proclamation which was issued in England, to prevent the exportation of arms and ammunition to America, measures were immediately adopted to remedy the defect. And to render themselves as independent as possible of foreigners, for the supply of those articles, mills were erected, and manufactories formed, both in Philadelphia and Virginia, for the making of gun-powder; and encouragement was given in all the colonies, for the fabrication of arms of every kind.

It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the first blood was drawn in this unhappy civil war. The Americans having collected some military stores at the town of Concord in New-England, general Gage, governor of the colony, sent the grenadiers and light infantry of the army to destroy them. The detachment, consisting

of about 900 men, embarked in boats at Boston, and having landed at a place called Phipps's Farm, proceeded with expedition towards Concord. When they arrived at Lexington, they found a company of militia, of about 100 men, mustered near a meeting-house. It was just before sun-rise when the British troops came in sight of them; whereupon an officer in the van called out, "Disperse, you rebels! throw down your arms, and disperse!" the soldiers at the same time running up with loud huzzas. Some scattering shots were first fired, and immediately succeeded by a general discharge, by which eight of the American militia were killed, and several wounded. After this the detachment advanced to Concord, and proceeded to execute their commission, by rendering three pieces of cannon unserviceable, burning some new gun-carriages, a number of carriage wheels, and throwing into the river a considerable quantity of flour, gunpowder, musket-balls, and other articles. In the mean time a small body of the militia returned towards the bridge which they had lately passed; and upon this movement, the light infantry retired on the Concord side of the river, and began to destroy the bridge; but, upon the near approach of the militia, the soldiers immediately fired, and killed two men. The Americans returned the fire, and a skirmish ensued at the bridge, in which the English troops were forced to retreat, having several men killed and wounded, and a lieutenant and some others taken. About this time the country people began to rise more generally against the king's troops, and to attack them on all quarters; skirmish succeeded upon skirmish; and a continued, though irregular fire, was supported through the whole of a long and hot day. In the march back to Lexington, a distance of six miles, the troops were extremely annoyed, and it is probable that their whole body would have been cut off, had not general Gage sent lord Percy in the morning to support them with sixteen companies of foot, and a body of marines, with two pieces of cannon. This powerful reinforcement obliged the provincials for some time to keep their distance: but as soon as the king's troops resumed their march, the attacks, as the country people became more numerous, grew in proportion more violent, and the danger was continually augmenting, until they arrived, about sun-set, at Charles-Town, from whence they passed over directly to Boston, extremely harassed and fatigued. The loss of the king's troops amounted to 65 killed, 170 wounded, and about 20 prisoners. The Americans were computed not to have lost more than 60, including killed and wounded.

Soon after this action, numerous bodies of the American militia invested the town of Boston, in which general Gage and his troops were. In all the colonies they prepared for war with the utmost dispatch; and a stop was almost every where put to the exportation of provisions. The continental congress met at Philadelphia on the 10th of May, 1775, as proposed, and soon adopted such measures as confirmed the people in their resolutions to oppose the British government to the utmost. Among their first acts, were resolutions for the raising of an army, and the establishment of a large paper currency for its payment. They assumed the appellation of "The United Colonies of America," who were securities for realizing the nominal value of this currency. They also strictly prohibited the supplying of the British fisheries with any kind of provisions; and to render this order the more effectual, stopt all exportation to those colonies, islands, and places, which still retained their obedience.

In the mean time, a body of provincial adventurers, amounting to about 240 men, surprised the garrisons of Ticonderago and Crown Point. These fortresses were taken without the loss of a man on either side: and the provincials found in the forts a considerable number of pieces of cannon, besides mortars, and sundry kinds of military stores. However, the force of Great Britain in America was now augmented, by the arrival at Boston, from England, of the generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with considerable reinforcements. But the continental con-

gress

gress were so little intimidated by this, that they voted, a few days after, that the compact between the crown and the people of Massachusetts' Bay was dissolved, by the violation of the charter of William and Mary; and therefore recommended to the people of that province, to proceed to the establishment of a new government, by electing a governor, assistants, and house of assembly, according to the powers contained in their original charter.

The town of Boston had now been for some time blocked up by the provincials: but the post of Charles-Town, which is separated from Boston only by a river, had hitherto been neglected by both parties. The Americans at last thought this post necessary for them, whether they should chuse to act on the offensive or defensive. They accordingly made preparations, and sent a body of men at night to throw up works upon Bunker's hill, a high ground that lies just within the isthmus, or neck of land that joins the peninsula to the continent. The party carried on their works with such order and silence, that though the peninsula was surrounded with ships of war, they were not heard during the night, and used such incredible dispatch in the execution, that they had a small but strong redoubt, considerable entrenchments, and a breast-work, which was in some parts cannon-proof, far advanced towards completion, by the break of day, June 17th, 1775. The sight of the works was the first notice that alarmed the Lively man of war early in the morning; and her guns called the town, camp, and fleet, to behold a sight which seemed little less than a prodigy. Upon this discovery, a heavy and continual fire of cannon, howitzers, and mortars, was carried on upon the works of the provincials, from the ships, from floating batteries, and from the top of Cop's Hill in Boston: but the Americans bore this severe fire with great firmness, and appeared to pursue their business as if no enemy had been near. About noon general Gage caused a considerable body of troops to be embarked under the command of major-general Howe, and brigadier-general Pigot, to drive the provincials from their works. This detachment, together with a reinforcement which it afterwards received, amounted in the whole to more than 2000 men. The attack was begun by a most severe fire of cannon and howitzers, under which the troops advanced very slowly towards the enemy, and halted several times, to afford an opportunity to the artillery to ruin the works, and to put the Americans into confusion. The Americans, on their part, sustained a severe and continual fire of small arms and artillery with remarkable firmness and resolution. They did not return a shot, until the king's forces had approached almost to the works, when a most dreadful fire took place, by which numbers of the British troops fell, and many of their officers. They were thereupon thrown into disorder; but being rallied, and again brought to the charge, they attacked the works of the Americans with fixed bayonets, and forced them in every quarter. Many of the provincials were destitute of bayonets, and their ammunition is said to have been expended; however, a number of them fought desperately within the works, from which they were not driven without great difficulty, and they at length retreated slowly over Charles Town Neck. Charles Town itself, during the action, was set on fire in several places, and burnt to the ground. This was the first settlement made in the colony, and was considered as the mother of Boston, that town owing its birth and nurture to emigrants from the former: it contained about 400 houses, and had a great trade. The loss of the king's troops in the action at Bunker's Hill amounted to 220 killed, and more than 800 wounded, including many officers.

After this action, the Americans immediately threw up works upon another hill, opposite to it, on their side of Charles Town Neck; so that the troops were as closely invested in that peninsula as they had been in Boston. About this time the congress appointed George Washington, esq. a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, who had acquired considerable experience in the command of different bodies of provincials during the last war, to be general and commander in chief

of all the American forces. They also published a declaration, in which they styled themselves "the Representatives of the United Colonies of North America," and assigned their reasons for taking up arms. It was written in a very animated strain, and contained the following passage: "In our own native land, in defence of the freedom that is our birth-right, and which we ever enjoyed till the late violation of it; for the protection of our property, acquired solely by the honest industry of our forefathers and ourselves; against violence actually offered, we have taken up arms. We shall lay them down when hostilities shall cease on the part of the aggressors, and all danger of their being renewed shall be removed, and not before." A second petition to the king was also voted by the congress, in which they earnestly solicited his majesty to adopt some method of putting a stop to the unhappy contest between Great Britain and the colonies. This petition was presented by Mr. Penn, late governor, and one of the proprietors of Pennsylvania, through the hands of lord Dartmouth, secretary of state for the American department; but Mr. Penn was soon after informed, that no answer would be given to it. The refusal of the king to give an answer to this petition, from near three millions of people, contributed exceedingly towards farther exasperating the minds of the Americans. An Address was now published by the congress to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and to the people of Ireland.

But as no conciliatory measures were adopted, hostilities still continued; and an expedition was set on foot by the Americans against Canada, to which they were induced by an extraordinary commission given to general Carleton, the governor of Canada; by which he was empowered to embody and arm the Canadians, to march out of the country for the subjugation of the other colonies, and to proceed even to capital punishments against all those whom he should deem rebels and opposers of the laws. The American expedition against Canada was chiefly conducted by Richard Montgomery, an Irishman, on whom the congress conferred the rank of brigadier-general. He first made himself master of Chamblée, a small fort, in which he found 120 barrels of gunpowder, and other military stores. He afterwards took the fort of St. John's, in which was a garrison of about 500 regulars, together with some Canadian volunteers; and the town of Montreal also surrendered to him on the 13th of November, 1775. In the mean time colonel Benedict Arnold undertook to march with a body of Americans from Boston to Quebec, by a rout which had hitherto been considered as impracticable. After overcoming innumerable difficulties, in a march through thick woods, deep swamps, and steep mountains, they arrived in Canada, where Arnold published an address to the people of that province, signed by general Washington, in which they were invited to join with the other colonies in an indissoluble union, and to range themselves under the standard of general liberty. A similar publication had before been issued by Montgomery. Arnold appeared before Quebec on the 9th of November, and soon after joined Montgomery, on whom the chief command of the force devolved. General Carleton, the governor, employed every effort to repel the assailants. On the 31st of December, Montgomery attempted to gain possession of the place by storm, but was killed in the first fire from a battery, as advancing in the front of his men: Arnold was also dangerously wounded, about 60 of their men were likewise killed and wounded, and 300 taken prisoners. The besiegers immediately quitted their camp, and retired about three miles from the city, and the siege was for some months converted into a blockade. On general Carleton's receiving considerable reinforcements and supplies of provisions from England, May 1776, Arnold was obliged to make a precipitate retreat; Montreal, Chamblée, and St. John's were re-taken, and all Canada recovered by the king's troops.

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During these transactions the royal army at Boston was distressed for want of provisions; the town was bombarded by the Americans, and general Howe, who now commanded the king's troops, which amounted to upwards of seven thousand men, was obliged to quit Boston, and embark for Halifax, leaving his artillery and stores behind. The town was evacuated on the 17th of March, 1776, and general Washington immediately took possession of it. On the 4th of July following, the congress declared the colonies, for reasons assigned in the act, absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally dissolved; and also that, as free and independent states, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things, which independent states may of right do. They likewise published articles of confederation and perpetual union among themselves, in which they assumed the title of "the United States of America." In the same month, an attempt was made by commodore sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charles-town in South Carolina. But this place was so ably defended by the Americans under general Lee, that the British commodore and general were obliged to retire, the king's ships having sustained considerable loss, and a twenty-eight gun ship, which ran a-ground, was obliged to be burnt. However, a more successful attack against the Americans was soon after made under the command of general Howe, then joined with a large body of Hessians, and a considerable number of Highlanders. The fleet was commanded by his brother vice-admiral lord Howe; and both the general and admiral were invested with a power, under the title of "Commissioners for granting Peace to the Colonies," of granting pardons to those who would lay down their arms. But their offers of this kind were contemptuously rejected. An attack upon the town of New-York seems to have been expected by the provincials, and therefore they had fortified it in the best manner they were able. On Long Island, near New-York, the Americans had also a large body of troops encamped, and several works thrown up. General Howe first landed on Staten Island, where he met with no opposition; but early in the morning of the 22d of August, a descent was made by the British troops upon Long Island, and towards noon about fifteen thousand were landed. They had greatly the advantage of the Americans, by their superior skill and discipline, and being better provided with artillery, and every kind of military accommodation; and the American passes were far from being properly secured. Some skirmishes happened during several successive days; in which the British troops engaged their enemies with great ardour, and the Americans suffered exceedingly. Finding themselves so much overpowered, they at length resolved to quit the island, and general Washington came over from New-York to conduct their retreat, in which he displayed great ability. In the night of the 29th of July, the American troops were withdrawn from the camp and their different works, and with their baggage, stores, and part of their artillery, were conveyed to the water-side, embarked, and passed over a long ferry to New-York, with such extraordinary silence and order, that the British army did not perceive the least motion, and were surpris'd in the morning at finding the American lines abandoned, and seeing the last of their rear-guard in their boats, and out of danger. In the different actions previous to their retreat, the loss of the Americans had been very considerable. Upwards of a thousand of them were taken prisoners, including three generals, three colonels, and many inferior officers; their number of killed and wounded was computed to be still greater; they left also five field-pieces, and a quantity of ordnance was found in the different redoubts and forts on the island; whilst the whole loss of the British troops did not amount to more than three hundred killed and wounded.

But this success of the royal army was far from bringing the Americans to submission. When some overtures, tending towards a reconciliation, were, a few days after, made by lord Howe, he was answered by a committee from the congress, "that the colonies now considered themselves as independent states, and were settling, or had settled, their government accordingly; but that they were willing to enter into any treaty with Great Britain which might be beneficial to both countries." Soon after this, the Americans abandoned the city of New-York to the king's troops, who took possession of it with little opposition, and found therein a large quantity of ordnance and military stores. Some of the provincials afterwards found means to set fire to the city in several places, and a third part of it was burnt down.

After the surrender of New-York, the royal army obtained another important advantage at the White Plains, and took Fort-Washington, with a garrison of 2500 men, and Fort Lee, with a great quantity of stores, which losses obliged the American general to retreat through the Jerseys to the river Delaware, a distance of ninety miles. Also on the 8th of December, general Clinton and sir Peter Parker obtained possession of Rhode-Island; and the British troops covered the Jerseys. This was the crisis of American danger. Their forts were taken, the time of military service of the greatest part was expired, and the few that remained with their officers were ill prepared for defence. Had general Howe hastened at that time to Philadelphia, after Washington, it hath been maintained, there would have been an end of the contest. His delay gave time for volunteer reinforcements of gentlemen, merchants, farmers, tradesmen, and labourers, to join general Washington, who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidst snow, storms, and ice, with a small detachment, crossed the Delaware, and surprised a brigade of Hessian troops at Trenton. He took upwards of 900 of them prisoners, with whom he passed the river; having also taken three standards, six pieces of brass cannon, and near one thousand stand of arms. Immediately after this surprise of the Hessians, and depositing them in safety, Washington recrossed the river, and resumed his former post at Trenton. The British troops collected in force to attack him, and only waited for the morning. Washington ordered a line of fires in front of his camp, and then moving in the night, with his baggage and artillery, by a circuitous march of eighteen miles, reached Prince-town early in the morning, carried the British post at that place, and set off with near 300 prisoners on his return to the Delaware, just as the British troops at Trenton were under arms and proceeding to attack him, supposing him in his former position. By the skilful employment of a comparatively small force, Washington thus deranged all the measures of the British general; made him draw in his troops to a closer compass, to protect his magazines at Brunswick; and closed the campaign which had such an unpromising beginning, with signal glory to himself, and signal advantage to his country. The Americans had also fitted out a great number of privateers, which took many prizes; and, on the other hand, not a few of the American vessels fell into the hands of the English, but they were generally of little value.

In the month of September 1777, two actions of some importance happened between the armies of general Howe and general Washington, in both of which the former had the advantage; and soon after, the city of Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition, that had for some time been concerted, of invading the northern colonies by the way of Canada, proved extremely unsuccessful. The command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne. He set out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and a fine train of artillery, and was joined by a considerable body of the Indians. For some time he drove the Americans before him, and made himself master of Ticonderago; but at length he encountered such difficulties, and was so vigorous-

ly opposed by the Americans under Gates and Arnold, that after two severe actions, in which great numbers fell, general Burgoyne and his army of 5,600 men were obliged to lay down their arms, October 17, 1777: they were, however, permitted to march out of their camp with all the honours of war, and were to be allowed to return to Europe, upon condition of their not serving again during the present contest. In one of the actions previous to this convention, brigadier-general Frazer, a very gallant officer, was killed; and at the time of their surrender, the British army was exceedingly reduced in numbers; and their stock of provisions was not more than sufficient for three days subsistence: whilst on the other hand, the American army had been joined by numerous bodies of the militia, who were exasperated at some late cruelties committed by the Indians in the service of Great Britain.

About the same time, sir Henry Clinton and general Vaughan made a successful expedition against the Americans up the North River; but the Americans complained that the British troops had wantonly set fire to houses and towns, particularly Esopus, and carried on the war in a manner not usual among civilized nations. General Howe soon after returned to England, and the command of the British army in America devolved upon general Clinton: but it was now found necessary to evacuate Philadelphia; and accordingly Clinton retreated with the army to New-York, in June 1778. The British troops were attacked on their march by the Americans, but the retreat was so ably conducted, or the American general Lee behaved so ill, that their loss did not amount to 300 killed and wounded.

This war with the colonies, the French court regarded as a favourable crisis for diminishing the British power. They supplied the Americans with arms and ammunition; some French officers also entered into the American service; and on the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris, between the king and the Thirteen United Colonies; and of this treaty, it was declared, that the essential and direct end was, "to maintain effectually the liberty, sovereignty, and independence, absolute and unlimited, of the United States of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

In June, 1778, the earl of Carlisle, William Eden, and George Johnstone, esqrs. arrived at Philadelphia, as commissioners from his majesty, to settle the disputes between the mother-country and the colonies. They were invested with certain powers for this purpose by act of parliament. But it was now too late: the terms, which, at an earlier period of the contest, would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with disdain. The congress refused to enter into any treaty with the British commissioners, unless the independency of the United States of America was previously acknowledged, or the British fleets and armies withdrawn from America. Neither of these requisitions being complied with, the war continued to be carried on with mutual animosity. At the close of the year, Georgia was invaded by the king's troops, the town of Savannah taken, and the whole province at length reduced.

The flagitious conduct of France towards Great Britain, in taking part with the revolted colonies, occasioned the commencement of hostilities between the two nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either side. On the 17th of June, 1778, the *Licorne* and *La Belle Poule*, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel. Orders were immediately issued by the French court for making reprisals on the ships of Great Britain; and on the 27th of July a battle was fought off Brest between the English fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet, under the command of the count d'Orvilliers. The English fleet consisted of 30 ships of the line, and the French of 32, besides frigates: they engaged for about three hours; but the action was not decisive, no ship being

taken.

taken on either side, and the French fleet at length retreated into the harbour of Brest. Of the English, 133 were killed in the action, and 373 wounded; and the loss of the French is supposed to have been very great. After the engagement, there was much murmuring throughout the English fleet, because a decisive victory had not been obtained over the French; at last the blame was thrown upon sir Hugh Palliser, vice-admiral of the blue, who was charged in a newspaper with misconduct and disobedience of orders. Though no regular accusation was brought against him, he required of admiral Keppel publicly to vindicate his conduct from the unfavourable reports that were propagated against him. This the admiral declined, which gave rise to some altercation between them; and sir Hugh Palliser afterwards thought proper to exhibit to the board of admiralty (of which he himself was a member) articles of accusation against admiral Keppel, though, for many months after the action, he had continued to act under him. A mode of conduct so extraordinary was very generally and severely censured; but the lords of the admiralty ordered a court-martial to be held for the trial of admiral Keppel. Soon after, a memorial was presented to the king by the duke of Bolton, signed by twelve admirals, among whom was lord Hawke, remonstrating against the injustice of holding a court-martial on admiral Keppel, upon the accusation of an inferior officer, "after forty years of meritorious service, and a variety of actions in which he had exerted eminent courage and conduct, by which the honour and power of this nation, and the glory of the British flag, had been maintained and increased in various parts of the world." When the court-martial was held, admiral Keppel was honourably acquitted; and sir Hugh Palliser's charge against him was declared by the court to be "malicious and ill-founded." Sir Hugh Palliser being afterwards tried by another court-martial, partly composed from some of the captains of his own division, he likewise was acquitted; and his disobedience to the admiral's orders was ascribed to the disabled state of his ship.

In the East Indies an engagement happened between some English ships of war under the command of sir Edward Vernon, and some French ships under the command of Mons. de Tronjolly, on the 10th of August, in which the former obliged the latter to retire; and on the 17th of October following, Pondicherry surrendered to the arms of Great Britain. In the course of the same year the island of St. Lucia, in the West Indies, was taken from the French; who in return made themselves masters of Dominica, and the following year they obtained possession of St. Vincent's and Grenada. In September, 1779, the count D'Estaing arrived at the mouth of the river Savannah, with a large fleet, and a considerable body of French troops, to the assistance of the Americans. An unprovoked attack was made upon the British troops at Savannah, under the command of general Prevost. But the latter defended themselves so well, that the French and Americans were driven off with great loss, and D'Estaing soon after totally abandoned the coast of America; and at the close of the year 1779, several French ships of war and merchant ships were taken in the West Indies, by a fleet under the command of sir Hyde Parker.

By the intrigues of the French court, Spain was at length brought to engage in the war against England, and to assemble forces to besiege Gibraltar, which was defended by the garrison with great vigour. The naval force of Spain was also added to that of France, now become extremely formidable, and their combined fleets seemed for a time to ride triumphant in the British Channel. So great were their armaments, that the nation was under no inconsiderable apprehensions of an invasion; but they did not venture to make an experiment of that kind, and after parading for some time in the Channel, thought proper to retire to their own ports. On the 8th of January, 1780, sir George Brydges Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured seven Spanish ships and vessels of war belonging

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to the royal company of Carraccas, with a number of trading vessels under their convoy; and in a few days after the same admiral engaged, near Cape St. Vincent, a Spanish fleet, consisting of eleven ships of the line and two frigates, under Don Juan de Langara. Four of the largest Spanish ships were taken, and carried into Gibraltar, and two others driven on shore, one of which was afterwards recovered by the English. A Spanish 70 gun ship, with 600 men, was also blown up in the action. In April and May three actions likewise happened in the West Indies, between the English fleet under admiral Rodney, who was now arrived in that part of the world, (having previously thrown supplies into Gibraltar), and the French fleet under the count de Guichen; but no ship was taken on either side. In July following admiral Geary took twelve valuable French merchant ships from Port au Prince; but on the 8th of August, the combined fleets of France and Spain took five English East Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships, bound for the West Indies, which was a very severe stroke to the commerce of Great Britain.

On the 4th of May, 1780, sir Henry Clinton made himself master of Charlestown, South Carolina; and on the 16th of August, earl Cornwallis obtained a very signal victory over general Gates in that province, in which about a thousand American prisoners were taken, besides seven pieces of brass cannon, a number of colours, and their ammunition-waggons. But on the 10th of July, Mons. Ternay, with a fleet consisting of seven ships of the line, besides frigates, and a large body of French troops, commanded by the count de Rochambeau, arrived at Rhode Island, and landed 6000 men there. The American inhabitants congratulated the French general upon his arrival, and he assured them, that the king, his master, had sent him to the assistance of his good and faithful allies, the United States of America; and that the French troops were to act under the orders of general Washington, and would live with the Americans as their brethren.

Soon after, major-general Arnold deserted the service of the congress, made his escape to New York, and was appointed a brigadier-general in the royal service. His behaviour in the government of Philadelphia had incurred the displeasure of the Americans. He was reprimanded by a court-martial, but afterwards taken into service in the principal army, with considerable rank and trust. His affections however were totally estranged from the American cause. Accordingly, when the strong and important post of West Point, with its dependencies, and a wing or considerable division of the army were entrusted to him, a negotiation was discovered between him and general Clinton for the purpose of delivering up the post which he commanded. This would have enabled Clinton to surprize the other posts and batteries, and final ruin to the Americans must have been the result. Major André, adjutant-general of the British army, was employed in this clandestine negotiation. After an interview with Arnold, and staying in his tent a whole night and day, on his return to New York he was taken, disguised, within the American lines, and in his boot were found, in Arnold's hand-writing, exact returns of the state of the forces, ordnance, and distances at West Point and its dependencies, the artillery orders, critical remarks on the works, estimates of the number of men on duty to man them, and a copy of very interesting matters, which had been laid before a council of war by the commander in chief. These papers that were found upon him subjected him to instant execution, in the summary way usually practised with spies; but general Washington appointed a board of fourteen general officers to examine into his case, who reported, that he ought to be considered as a spy, and as such to suffer death, which was inflicted on him at Tappan, in the province of New York.

The great expences of the American war, and the burthens which were thereby laid upon the people, naturally occasioned much discontent, and seemed to convince persons of all ranks of the necessity of public economy. Meetings were  
therefore:

therefore held in various counties of the kingdom, at the close of the year 1779, and the beginning of the year 1780, at which great numbers of freeholders were present, who agreed to present petitions to the house of commons; in which they earnestly requested, "that before any new burthens were laid upon this country, " effectual measures might be taken by the house to inquire into and correct the " gross abuses in the expenditure of public money; to reduce all exorbitant emolument; to rescind and abolish all sinecure places and unmerited pensions; and " to appropriate the produce to the necessities of the state, in such manner as to " the wisdom of parliament should seem meet." The first petition of this kind was agreed to in the county of York; and the example was followed by the counties of Cheshire, Hertford, Suffex, Surry, Essex, Somerset, Wilts, Gloucester, Huntingdon, Dorset, Cumberland, Norfolk, Devon, Berks, Nottingham, Bucks, Cambridge, Bedford, Suffolk, Northumberland, Hereford, and Denbigh. The cities of London and Westminster, and several other towns and corporations, concurred in similar petitions. Some trivial attempts were made to remedy the grievances stated, but nothing important was effected; the ministry soon found means to regain their influence; a diversity of sentiment occasioned dissension among the popular leaders; and various causes conspired to bring the greatest part of the nation to a passive acquiescence in the measures of administration.

The middle of the year 1780 was distinguished by one of the most disgraceful exhibitions of religious bigotry that had ever appeared in this country; especially if it be considered as happening in an age, in which the principles of toleration were well understood, and very prevalent. An act of parliament had been lately passed " for relieving his majesty's subjects professing the Romish religion, from certain penalties and disabilities imposed upon them in the 11th and 12th years of " the reign of king William III." This act was generally approved by men of sense, and of liberal sentiments, by whom the laws against papists were justly deemed too severe. The act at first seemed to give little offence to persons of any class in England, but in Scotland it excited much indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. Resolutions were formed to oppose any law for granting indulgences to Papists in Scotland; and a Romish chapel was burned, and the houses of several Papists demolished, in the city of Edinburgh. The contagion of bigotry at length reached England; a number of persons assembled themselves together, with a view of promoting a petition to parliament, for a repeal of the late act in favour of the Papists, and they assumed the title of the Protestant Association. They were chiefly Methodists, and bigoted Calvinists, in the lower ranks of life; many of them well-intentioned persons, and having a just dislike to popery; but not sufficiently enlightened to consider, that a spirit of persecution was one of the worst characteristics of that system of superstition. They continued to hold frequent meetings; lord George Gordon, a young man, discontented at not being promoted from a lieutenant to a captain in the navy, became their president, and they increased in numbers. At a time when the nation was surrounded with real dangers, the heads of these weak men were filled with nothing but the fear of popery; and they even seemed to fancy that they were contending for religious liberty, when they were labouring to excite the legislature to prevent some of their fellow-subjects from worshipping God according to the dictates of their consciences. The Protestant Association at length agreed to a petition, which was said to have been subscribed by more than one hundred thousand persons. It was then resolved, in order to give the more weight to their petition, that it should be attended by great numbers of the petitioners in person; and a public advertisement was issued for that purpose, signed by lord George Gordon. Fifty thousand persons are supposed to have assembled with this view, on Friday the 2d of June, in St. George's Fields; from whence they proceeded, with blue cockades in their hats, to the house of commons,

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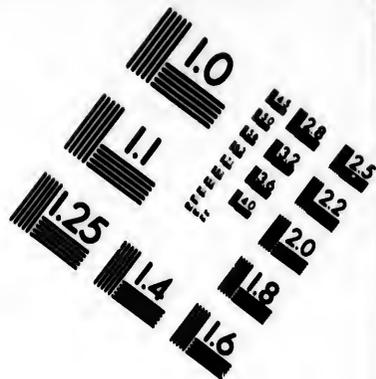
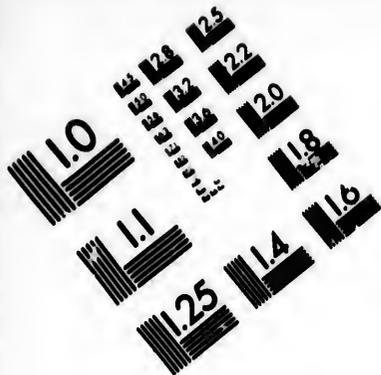
\* Lord Ge  
quired.

commons, where their petition was presented by their president. In the course of the day several members of both houses of parliament were grossly insulted and ill-treated by the populace; and a mob assembled the same evening, by which the Sardinian chapel in Lincoln's-inn Fields, and another Romish chapel in Warwick-street, Golden-square, were entirely demolished. A party of the guards was then sent for, to put a stop to the farther progress of these violences, and thirteen of the rioters were taken, five of whom were afterwards committed to Newgate, escorted by the military. On the Sunday following another mob assembled, and destroyed a Popish chapel in Ropemaker's-Alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demolished a school-house, and three dwelling-houses, in the same place, belonging to the Romish priests, with a valuable library of books, and a mass-house in Virginia-street. They also destroyed all the household furniture of sir George Savile, because he had brought in the bill in favour of the Papists. On Tuesday great numbers again assembled about the parliament-house, and behaved so tumultuously, that both houses thought proper to adjourn. In the evening, a most daring and violent attempt was made to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to release the rioters who were confined there: and the keeper having refused to deliver them, his house was set on fire, the prison was soon in flames, and great part of it consumed, though a new stone edifice of uncommon strength; and more than three hundred prisoners made their escape, many of whom joined the mob. The Protestant Association, as they thought proper to style themselves, had been chiefly actuated by ignorance and bigotry; and their new confederates were animated by the love of mischief, and the hope of plunder. Two other prisons, the houses of lord Mansfield, and sir John Fielding, and several other private houses, were destroyed the same evening. The following day, the King's Bench prison, the New Bridewell, in St. George's Fields, some Popish chapels, several private houses of Papists, and other buildings, were destroyed by the rioters; some were pulled down, and others set on fire; and every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and disorder, tumults and conflagrations.

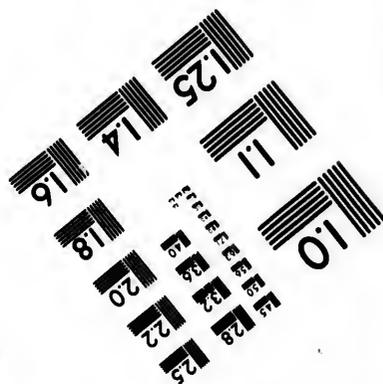
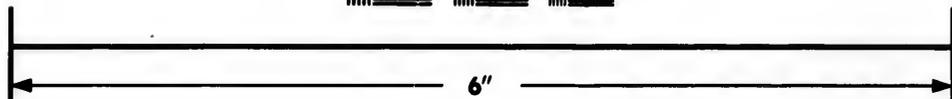
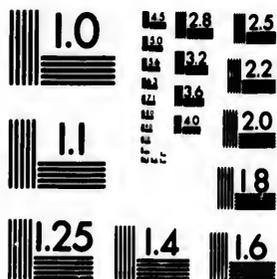
During these extraordinary scenes, there was a shameful inactivity in the lord-mayor of London, and in most of the other magistrates of the metropolis, and its neighbourhood; and even the ministry appeared to be panic-struck, and to be only attentive to the preservation of their own houses, and of the royal palace. The magistrates, at the beginning of the riots, declined giving orders to the military to fire; but at length, as all property began to be insecure, there was an evident necessity for making vigorous opposition to the rioters; large bodies of troops were brought to the metropolis from many miles round it; and an order was issued, by the authority of the king in council, "for the military to act without waiting for directions from the civil magistrates, and to use force for dispersing the illegal and tumultuous assemblies of the people." The troops exerted themselves with diligence in the suppression of these alarming tumults, great numbers of the rioters were killed, many were apprehended, who were afterwards tried and executed for felony\*, and the metropolis was at length restored to order and tranquillity. It is pretended, that no member of the Protestant association was executed, or tried, for any share in these riots. But however this may be, it was manifestly the bigotry of a few leaders of this pretended Protestant Association, to which these riots owed their origin. The manner in which these tumults were suppressed by the operations of the military, without any authority from the civil magistrate, however necessary from the peculiar circumstances of the case, was thought to be a very dangerous precedent; and that an act of indemnity ought

\* Lord George Gordon was himself committed to the Tower, and tried for high-treason, but acquitted.





**IMAGE EVALUATION  
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to have been passed, not only with regard to inferior persons who had acted in the suppression of these riots, but also with respect to the ministry themselves, for the part they had taken in this transaction.

While the internal peace of the kingdom was disturbed by these commotions, there appeared reason to apprehend an increase of its foreign enemies. The American war had occasioned various disputes between Great Britain and Holland. Complaints were made by the Dutch, that their ships were seized by the English cruizers, without just cause. On the other hand, loud remonstrances were made by the British minister to the States-general, complaining that an unlawful commerce was carried on between their subjects and the Americans; that this was particularly the case at St. Eustatia, which was nothing better than one great magazine of military and naval stores. These disputes continued to increase; and on the first of January, 1780, commodore Fielding brought to Spithead several ships laden with naval stores, which were under the convoy of a Dutch admiral. The States-general alleged, that the naval stores which had been seized were not contraband goods, according to the express tenor of the treaties between Great Britain and Holland, and that the conduct of the English commodore, which was approved by his sovereign, was a direct insult upon the Dutch flag, and a violation of the treaties subsisting between the two nations. Previous to this transaction, the British minister had demanded of the States-general the succours which were stipulated in the treaty of 1678, and others; and which were now claimed particularly on account of the invasion with which Great Britain was menaced by her enemies. Repeated applications were made to the States-general on this subject, but they delayed giving any answer. On the 17th of April, a declaration was published by his Britannic majesty, by which it was announced, that repeated memorials having been presented by his majesty's ambassador to the States-general, demanding the succours stipulated by treaty; to which requisitions they had given no answer, and thereby deserted the alliance that had so long subsisted between Great Britain and the republic, and placed themselves in the condition of a neutral power; his majesty would consider them henceforth as standing only in that distant relation. He therefore declared, that the subjects of the United Provinces were henceforward to be considered upon the same footing with other neutral states, not privileged by treaty; and he suspended provisionally, and till further orders, all the particular stipulations respecting the subjects of the States-general, contained in the several treaties subsisting between Great Britain and the republic.

An incident happened, which shewed how necessary this declaration was. On the third of September, the Mercury, a congress packet, was taken by the Vestal, captain Keppel, near Newfoundland. On board this packet was Mr. Laurens, late president of the congress, who was bound on an embassy to Holland. Among his papers was found the sketch of a treaty of amity and commerce between the republic of Holland and the United States of America. Indeed it did not appear that the States-general were at all consulted upon the transaction, so that it was more properly a provisional treaty with the states of Amsterdam, or of the province of Holland, than with the United Provinces at large. This treaty appeared to be approved by Mr. Van Berkel, counsellor and pensionary of the city of Amsterdam. In consequence of this discovery, his Britannic majesty demanded a formal disavowal of the whole transaction, and the exemplary punishment of the pensionary Van Berkel, and his accomplices. The States-general not giving an immediate answer to this requisition, fresh applications were made on this subject by the British minister; who received for answer, that his memorial had been taken *ad referendum* by the deputies of the respective provinces, according to their received custom and constitution of government; and that they would endeavour to frame an answer to his memorial, as soon as the constitution of their government would permit.

permit. This gave so little satisfaction to the British court, that their ambassador was ordered to withdraw from the Hague; and a declaration of hostilities against Holland was published on the 20th of December, 1780. This measure seemed, at first, to be generally applauded by the British nation; but there were many who thought it a very rash and impolitic step, and that a war with Holland ought not to have been so much precipitated, at a time when Great Britain was already involved in hostilities with so many enemies.

The war with Holland commenced with great vigour; and that republic soon suffered a very severe stroke in the loss of the island of St. Eustatia, which was taken by the English on the 3d of February, 1781. When admiral Rodney, and general Vaughan, who arrived there with a large fleet, and a considerable body of troops, summoned the place to surrender, the inhabitants were seized with such consternation, that no resistance was made. Not only the military and naval stores, but the private property, goods, merchandize, and specie of the inhabitants, were considered as lawful plunder. The capture of shipping was also very great; upwards of 200 vessels being taken, besides a 60 gun ship, and a frigate of 38 guns. The islands of St. Martin and Saba likewise surrendered, but the seizure of the private property, at St. Eustatia, was thought a very rigorous measure. The inhabitants of the island of St. Christopher remonstrated against it as a dangerous precedent; and the British West India planters petitioned the king on the occasion, representing to him, they had always conceived it to be a maxim among nations, established in humanity and sound policy, that war should be carried on with the least possible injury to private property.

On the 5th of August, the same year, a very bloody engagement was fought between an English squadron of ships of war, under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch squadron, under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank. According to the English accounts, the Dutch squadron consisted of eight ships of the line, and the English only of seven; but the Dutch represent their force to be inferior to that of the English. On both sides great gallantry was displayed. All the ships were much shattered, and a Dutch 74 gun ship sunk after the action. The English had 104 men killed, and 339 wounded; and the loss of the Dutch is supposed to have been much greater.

The war continued to be prosecuted with various success; the French made themselves masters of the island of Tobago; and the Spaniards of Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida. Earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over the Americans commanded by general Green, at Guilford, in North Carolina, March 15, 1781, but it was a hard-fought battle, and the loss on both sides considerable. Indeed the victory was productive of all the consequences of a defeat; for three days after, lord Cornwallis was obliged to leave part of his sick and wounded behind him, and to make a circuitous retreat of 200 miles to Wilmington in North Carolina. The generals Philips and Arnold committed some ravages in Virginia, destroyed much shipping, and about 8000 hogheads of tobacco; but these events only contributed to draw the attention of the Americans and the French to Rhode Island to Virginia, where the next year the decisive blow was struck, which firmly established American independence. Lord Cornwallis's situation at Wilmington was very disagreeable, and his force reduced so low that he could not think of marching to Charles-Town by land; he turned his thoughts then to a co-operation in Virginia with Philips and Arnold, and began his march, April 25; 1781: In this central province, all the scattered operations of the war began at length to converge into a point. By different reinforcements, lord Cornwallis's force amounted to above 7000 excellent troops. Sir Henry Clinton, the commander in chief, amused by some intercepted letters of general Washington's, was prevented from sending those succours to Lord Cornwallis which he otherwise

would have done, by his fears for New York, against which he apprehend Washington meditated a formidable attack.

But that general, having kept New York and its dependencies in a continued state of alarm for about six weeks, suddenly marched across the Jerseys and through Pennsylvania to the head of Elk, at the bottom of the Chesapeake, from which the light troops were conveyed by shipping down the bay, and the bulk of the army, after reaching Maryland by forced marches, were also there embarked, and soon joined the other body under the marquis de la Fayette. Sir Henry Clinton receiving information that the count de Grasse was expected every moment in the Chesapeake, with a large French fleet to co-operate with Washington, now seriously attempted to reinforce lord Cornwallis, but without success, for on the 5th of September, after a partial action of a few hours between the British fleet under the admiral Graves, and that of the French under De Grasse, Graves returned to New York to refit, and left the French masters of the navigation of the Chesapeake. Presently the most effectual measures were adopted by general Washington for surrounding lord Cornwallis's army, and on the last of September it was closely invested in York-town, and at Gloucester on the opposite side of the river, with a considerable body of troops on one side, and a large naval force on the other. The trenches were opened in the night between the 6th and 7th of October, with a considerable train of artillery. The works which had been raised by the British, sunk under the weight of the enemies' batteries; the troops were much diminished by the sword and sickness, and worn down by constant watching and fatigue, and all hope of relief failing, the 19th of October lord Cornwallis surrendered himself and his whole army by capitulation\*, to general Washington, as prisoners of war. Fifteen hundred seamen underwent the fate of the garrison, but these, with the Guadalupe frigate of 24 guns, and a number of transports, were assigned to M. de Grasse, in return for the French naval assistance.

The surrender of this second British army may be considered as the closing scene of the war in America; for the expence incurred by a war so remote from the seat of preparation; the debt accumulated, the blood shed, the diminution of trade, and the vast increase of taxes—these were evils of such a magnitude, as could no longer be dissembled. Accordingly on the 1st of March, 1782, after repeated struggles in the house of commons, the house addressed the king, requesting him to put a stop to any farther prosecution of the war with America. This event rendered a change of councils absolutely necessary. Those country gentlemen who had generally voted with the ministry, feeling the pressure of the public burdens, at length deserted the standard of administration; a complete revolution in the cabinet was effected, March 27, 1782; and the marquis of Rockingham was appointed first lord of the treasury.

Peace was the first object of attention with the new ministry. Mr. Grenville was invested with full powers to treat at Paris with all the parties at war, and was also directed to propose the independency of the Thirteen United Provinces of America in the first instance, instead of making it a condition of a general treaty. The commanders in chief in America were also directed to acquaint the Congress with the pacific views of the British court, and with the offer to acknowledge the independency of the United States.

The new ministers also applied themselves to make some retrenchment in the public expences, and to reform some abuses, against which they had often inveighed. A bill was carried for excluding custom-house and excise officers from voting at the elections for members of the house of commons.—Another for excluding all contractors from being members; and by another bill, which also received the

\* The American return made the number of prisoners 7,247, land and marine.

royal assent, the board of trade, the board of works, the great wardrobe, and the different offices of third secretary of state, treasurer of the chamber, cofferer of the household, the lords of the police in Scotland, the pay-master of the pensions, master of the harriers, master of the stag-hounds, and clerks to the board of green-cloth, were abolished, which, with other savings specified in the bill, were computed to amount to 72,368*l.* per annum.

A series of losses had agitated the minds of the people. January 14th, 1782, the French took Nevis. On the 5th of February, the island of Minorca surrendered to the Spaniards; and on the 13th of the same month, the island of St. Christopher's was given up to the French. The valuable island of Jamaica would probably have soon shared the same fate, had not the British fleet under admiral Rodney fallen in with that of the French under the Count de Grasse in their way to join the Spanish fleet at St. Domingo. The van of the French was too far advanced to support the centre, and a signal victory was obtained over them. The French admiral, in the *Ville de Paris* of 110 guns (a present from the city of Paris to the French king) was taken, with two seventy-fours, and one of 64 guns; a 74 gun ship blew up by accident soon after she was in our possession, and another 74 sunk during the engagement. A few days after, two more of the same fleet, of 64 guns each, were captured. By this victory of the 12th of April, the design against Jamaica was frustrated. The new ministry had superseded Admiral Rodney, and intended to have prosecuted the inquiry into his transaction at Eustatia; but this victory silenced all, and procured him the dignity of an English peer.

May 8th, the Bahama islands surrendered to the Spaniards, while the credit of the British arms was gloriously sustained at Gibraltar, under general Elliot. The formidable attack on the 13th September with floating batteries of 212 brass cannon, &c. in ships from 1400 to 600 tons burden, ended in disappointment, and the destruction of all the ships and most of the assailants. The garrison was at length relieved by lord Howe in the month of October, who offered battle to the combined force of France and Spain, though 12 sail of the line inferior. The military operations, after this, were few and of little consequence. Negapatnam, a settlement in the East Indies, and Trincomale on the island of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the British forces; but the French soon receiving considerable succours from Cuddalore, retook Trincomale, forced the British fleet in several actions, but none decisive, and enabled Hyder Ally to resist the efforts of sir Eyre Coote and his troops.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham, on the 1st of July, occasioned much commotion in the cabinet, and lessened the hopes which had been formed of important national benefits from the new administration. Lord Shelburne succeeded the marquis as first lord of the treasury, and it is said, without the knowledge of his colleagues. This gave great offence to some, particularly to Mr. Fox, and lord John Cavendish; who, with others, resigned their places, and commenced a fierce opposition in the house of commons. Mr. Fox declared, "that the principles on which the ministry first came in, were abandoned by lord Shelburne and his adherents; that the *old system* was to be revived, most probably, with the *old men*, or indeed with any men that could be found. They were persons whom neither promises could bind, nor principles of honour secure: they would abandon fifty principles for the sake of power, and they would now strive to strengthen themselves by any means which corruption could procure; and he expected to see, in a very short time, they would be joined by those very men whom that house had precipitated from their seats." The duke of Richmond, general Conway, and others, maintained, that there was no deviation in the present cabinet from the principles on which they had entered into office, and continued to act with lord Shelburne, till under his auspices, the preliminaries for a general peace were settled. Then,

then

royal

the public beheld Mr. Fox, and even lord John Cavendish, coalescing with the old ministers, lord North particularly; embracing the very men whom they had driven from their seats, and threatened with impeachments; and continuing to join with them in reprobating the peace as making too great concessions to the enemy, that they might storm the cabinet, drive lord Shelburne and his friends from it, and seat themselves and the men they had despised, in their places.

By the treaty of peace between Great Britain and France\*, Great Britain restored to France the island of Tobago, in the West Indies, and the river Senegal in Africa, with its dependencies and the forts on the river; and gave up a few districts in the East Indies, as dependencies on Pondicherry; it restored also the islands of St. Lucia, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and the island of Goree, with Pondicherry, Karical, Mahe, Chandernagore, and the factory of Surat. To prevent disputes about boundaries in the Newfoundland fishery, it was agreed, that the French line for fishing should begin from Cape St. John on the eastern side, and going round by the North, should have for its boundary Cape Ray on the western side; and Great Britain renounced every claim respecting the demolition of Dunkirk. France on the other hand was to restore to Great Britain the islands of Grenada, and the Grenadines, St. Christopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Montserrat; and guaranteed Fort James in the river Gambia, agreeing that the gum trade should remain in the same condition as before the war, 1755. The allies of each state in the East Indies were to be invited to accede to the pacification, but if they were averse to peace, no assistance on either side was to be given to them.

By the treaty with Spain, Great Britain gave up to that power East Florida, and ceded West Florida and Minorca, which Spain had taken during the war. To prevent all causes of complaint and misunderstanding in future, it was agreed that British subjects should have the right of cutting and carrying away logwood in the district lying between the rivers Wallis or Bellize, and Rio Hondo, taking the course of the said rivers for unalterable boundaries. Spain agreed to restore the islands of Providence, and the Bahamas, to Great Britain, but they had been retaken before the peace was signed.

In the treaty with the United States of America, the king of Great Britain acknowledges New Hampshire, Massachusetts' Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, to be *free, sovereign, and independent states*; and for himself, his heirs and successors, relinquishes all claims to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the same, and every part thereof. To prevent disputes in future on the subject of boundaries between these states and the British provinces, lines were very minutely drawn, which will be noticed in the proper place, as well as delineated on the map of the United States of America: and some favourable clauses were obtained for the loyalists. The navigation of the Mississippi to remain open to both parties, as also the Newfoundland fisheries.

In the treaty with the Dutch, great difficulties arose, but at length it was stipulated, that Great Britain should restore Trincomale in the island of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it, and that the Dutch should yield to us the town of Negapatnam, with its dependencies, in the East Indies.

Thus a period was put to a most calamitous war, in which Great Britain lost the best part of her American colonies, and many thousands of valuable lives, and expended or squandered nearly 150 millions of money. The terms of the peace were,

\* Preliminary articles settled January 20, 1783.

to many, a subject of great regret; but had the war continued, it would have been necessary to borrow annually 17 millions and a half, by which a million *per annum* would have been added to the taxes, and 25 millions at least to the capital of the public debt, according to the usual modes of funding. The address of thanks for the peace was carried in the house of lords by a majority of 72 to 59, but lost in the house of commons by a majority of 224 to 208.

The majority of the commons, thus enlisted under the banner of the *famous coalition leaders*, Mr. Fox and lord North, plainly indicated a ministerial revolution, unless the cabinet should call a new parliament. As they did not, the peace-makers were obliged to withdraw from power. The two gentlemen just mentioned were made secretaries of state, and the duke of Portland, first lord of the Treasury, on April 2, 1783. All plans of reformation in public offices, and for preserving the nation, which lord Shelburne proposed, seemed now to be laid aside. Mr. Pitt's motion for correcting the defects in the representation of parliament, was lost by a majority of 293 to 149; and Mr. Sawbridge's motion, that leave be given to bring in a bill for shortening the duration of parliaments, was rejected by 123 to 56. Mr. Pitt also proposed a bill for reforming the boards of the Treasury, Admiralty, Ordnance, Excise, Stamps, and other offices, which was opposed by Mr. Burke and other members of administration, who had most strenuously contended for that measure before they themselves had attained lucrative places. This bill was suffered to pass the commons to amuse the public, but was rejected by the lords, 40 to 24. Every thing went on just as the coalition administration pleased, till Mr. Fox brought into parliament his famous bill for new regulating the government of the East India company, and their commercial affairs and territories; a plan of which bill, its progress and fate, are already given in our account of that trading company. This bill being rejected in the house of lords, on December 17, by a majority of 19, occasioned a great ferment in the cabinet and in both houses of parliament. A royal message was sent between 12 and 1 of the morning of the 19th of December, to desire the two secretaries to resign the seals of their office; and Mr. Pitt succeeded the duke of Portland as first lord of the Treasury, bringing with him his friends into the respective departments, which formed the tenth administration since his majesty's accession.

Some independent gentlemen (as they styled themselves) interposed to unite the contending parties, which had filled parliament and the country with distractions; but their endeavours to form what they called a firm, efficient, extended, and united administration, proved unsuccessful.

Persons of the most distinguished and independent character in the house of commons, and in the kingdom, now wished that a dissolution had taken place weeks before, even at the first forming of the coalition.

At last, after strong and repeated contests between the two parties, on the 25th of March 1784, a proclamation was issued for dissolving the parliament and calling a new one, agreeably to the desires and addresses of a great part of the kingdom. At that juncture, the great seal was stolen from the house of the lord chancellor, which occasioned many suspicions as if done by more than ordinary felons; but nothing farther appeared, and a new seal was presently made. On the 18th of May the new parliament assembled, and the commons chose Mr. Cornwall, the speaker of the late house, for their present speaker. The next day, his majesty addressed them from the throne. A very feeble opposition was made to the address of thanks in the house of lords, and it soon appeared that the appeal to the people had turned out greatly in Mr. Pitt's favour, for on May 24th, on a division of the house for an address to the king's speech, the numbers for it, without any alteration or amendment, were 282 against 114.

Mr.

Mr. Pitt brought in his East India bill the 5th of July, the leading particulars of which we have given in our account of that company \*.

On the 25th of January 1785, the parliament assembled. Amongst a variety of matter which pressed on their attention, none seemed of more consequence than the state of parliamentary representation, the system of fortifications proposed by the duke of Richmond, the affairs of India, and the propositions for a trading intercourse with Ireland. The business of parliamentary reform having been taken up by Mr. Pitt, he accordingly introduced a specific plan for that purpose on the 18th of April, which he prefaced by a history of parliamentary representation from a very remote period. The plan was to give one hundred members to the popular interest of the kingdom, and to extend the right of election to above one hundred thousand persons, who, by the existing provisions of law, were excluded from it. This accession to the popular interest was to be principally obtained by the suppression of decayed boroughs, and the transfer of their representatives to the counties; so that the number of the house of commons would remain the same. After a debate of considerable length, it was rejected by a majority of 74; the noes being 248, and the ayes 174.

From the apprehensions of the nation, during the late war, for the safety of the dock-yards, whilst the combined fleets were in the channel, and no adequate naval force to oppose them, the duke of Richmond conceived the idea of fortifying them, as the best protection from future insult or danger. Considerable sums had been annually granted for this purpose, but the greatness of the expence at length attracted the attention of a respectable part of the house of commons, and after a full discussion of the utility of the plan, it was determined (usually in the following session) to discontinue the works as useless; and, in some respects, as dangerous.

The Irish propositions were another subject which engaged the attention of parliament. This new system of intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland was first introduced into the parliament of the latter kingdom by Mr. Orde on the 7th of February, in the form of ten propositions; these, by a small alteration, and the distribution of the subject of one of them into two heads, were increased to eleven. They received the assent of both houses in that kingdom, and on the 22d of the same month, were communicated to the parliament of Great Britain by Mr. Pitt, chancellor of the exchequer. The leading principle in this plan was the equalizing the duties on the produce and manufactures of both countries; and for the benefits communicated thereby to the sister kingdom, she was in return to give a certain portion of her hereditary revenue towards the maintenance of the navy of the empire.—The subject had received but little discussion, when the fears and prejudices of the manufacturers were roused in every part of the kingdom; innumerable petitions were presented, and evidences heard; committees were formed from assemblies of these manufacturers, who were directed to oppose the passing the propositions into a law. These circumstances, together with the strength of opposition in the house of commons, produced such an alteration in the propositions that they were extended to twenty. After having passed through both houses, when they arrived in Ireland thus multiplied and thus altered, they met with the most violent opposition, and though there appeared in their favour, in the Irish house of commons, 127 against 108, yet the majority being so small, administration thought it prudent to avoid the risk of a defeat in the progress of the bill, and therefore withdrew it in two days after.

In consequence of severe prohibitions having been laid on the importation of British manufactures into the Austrian dominions, and several restrictions on their introduction into France, the minister opened a negotiation with the latter King-

dom, for a more liberal commercial intercourse between the two countries, and appointed Mr. Eden envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary for that purpose. A treaty was accordingly concluded and ratified by both houses of parliament. This was a measure of great political consequence, as it tended to break asunder the national prejudices, which had existed for many ages between the two countries.

Parliament assembled on the 24th of January 1786, and amongst the various measures agitated, the plan for establishing a sinking fund, and employing a million annually for reducing the national debt, engaged their most immediate attention. This million is produced by the yearly income of the state exceeding the permanent level of its expenditure by a sum of 900,000l. which may be increased to a million by means in nowise burthensome to the people. This measure, which had the concurrence of every man who desired the emancipation of the kingdom from the accumulated load of debt and taxes, was enacted into a law, which created commissioners for carrying the purposes of this valuable act into execution.

We come now to a very extraordinary transaction of the present times, the impeachment of Mr. Warren Hastings, late governor-general of Bengal: a transaction which derives splendour from the dignity of the party accused, a man of an indefatigable and ardent mind, of boundless spirit and enterprise, and who, in the opinion of his employers at home, and of those who witnessed his administration abroad, governed our Indian empire for upwards of a dozen years, with incomparable ability; and that in the peculiarly trying times, when England stood alone against the world in arms. On the 17th of February, Mr. Burke, who took the lead in this tedious and expensive business, explained the mode of proceeding he was desirous to adopt; and, in the course of the session, moved for a multitude of papers to ground and substantiate his charges upon. These were produced, and Mr. Hastings heard at the bar of the house of commons in his defence. The debates which arose on the subject terminated in resolutions, That certain of the charges contained matter of impeachment against the late governor general of Bengal. Mr. Hastings was therefore impeached by the commons at the bar of the house of peers. His trial has occupied a considerable portion of the seven sessions of parliament, which have since elapsed; and it is but recently that the lords have heard all the speeches and evidences deemed requisite to their passing sentence; which they will do next session.

The feeble attempt of an obscure and contemptible maniac, of the name of Margaret Nicholson, against the life of the sovereign, in the face of day, and in the sight of a multitude of spectators, on the 2d of August, was productive of no other effect than to shew how much our sovereign was beloved by his subjects. The general exultation which prevailed after that event, reflected honour on the people as well as the king.

The consolidation of the customs and excise was the most important circumstance deserving of attention in the year 1787. This was a measure of incredible labour and detail, as well as of infinite advantage to commerce, by facilitating and simplifying the intricacies attendant on mercantile transactions, and the payment of duties; a regulation which was duly and permanently effected.

The trade carried on by this country, and other European nations, upon the coast of Africa, for the purpose of purchasing negro-slaves, to be employed in the cultivation of the West-India islands, and certain parts of the continent of America, does not appear till of late years to have been considered with that general attention which such a practice might have been expected to excite; a practice so abhorrent in its nature to the mild principles of modern policy and manners. The first public attempt, we believe, that was made to put a stop to this traffic, was by the Quakers of the southern provinces of America, who, soon after the establishment

ment of their independence, not only presented for this purpose a strong and pathetic address to their several legislative assemblies, but actually proceeded, as is said, in many instances to emancipate the slaves that were in their possession. The measures taken by the American legislatures, in consequence of this application, are before the public. In Great Britain the same society appears also to have taken the lead, and, after the example of their American brethren, presented a similar petition to the parliament of this kingdom. The cause soon after became extremely popular. Many pamphlets were published upon the subject; several eminent divines recommended it from the pulpit and in printed discourses; and petitions were presented to the legislature from the two universities, and from several of the most considerable towns and corporations in the kingdom.

His majesty's ministers thought fit to institute an inquiry, before a committee of the privy council, into the facts and allegations contained in the representations of both parties upon the subject. The first public notice that was taken of this business was in an information communicated by Mr. Wilberforce, soon after the meeting of parliament, of his intention to bring forward a measure respecting the slave-trade. That gentleman being much indisposed, Mr. Pitt came forward on the 9th of May, 1783, in the name of his friend, and moved the following resolution, "That this house will early in the next session of parliament proceed to take into consideration the circumstances of the slave-trade complained of in the petitions presented to the house, and what may be fit to be done thereupon;" which was unanimously carried. After this, on the 21st of May, sir William Dolben moved the house for leave to bring in a bill to regulate the transportation of the natives of Africa to the British colonies in the West Indies\*. By the bill now proposed, the number of slaves to be transported in any ship was to be regulated according to its bulk or tonnage, allowing nearly one ton to each man. This was only intended as a temporary relief till some more permanent expedient could be devised by the legislature. Having passed through the commons, it was carried up to the lords, where it also passed, after having received several amendments; some of which being thought to interfere with the privileges of the lower-house, a new bill was brought in, which passed both houses, and received the royal assent.

The year 1788, being the hundredth anniversary of the glorious Revolution in 1688, the 4th of November being the birth-day of King William, the instrument under Providence, who completed that event, and the fifth of this month being the anniversary of his landing, were observed by many societies in London, and other parts of the kingdom, not only with festivity, but with devotion and thanksgiving. At Dublin this auspicious anniversary was observed at the castle with more than ordinary solemnity. The appearance of nobility and gentry at the levee was such as evinced their attachment to the Revolution in favour of that illustrious monarch, and its happy consequences in the establishment of the present royal family on the throne of these realms. After the levee, his excellency, attended by

\* That there was a necessity for adopting this proposition will most clearly appear from the facts which were proved in the course of the debate. It appeared that five feet six inches in length, and sixteen inches in breadth was the space allowed on an average to each slave. The lower deck of the vessels was entirely covered with bodies, and the space between the floor of that deck and the roof above, which seldom amounted to five feet eight inches, was divided by a platform also covered with bodies. Five persons in every hundred perished at the lowest computation, in a voyage of six weeks continuance, which, according to the most accurate esti-

mates of human life, was seventeen times the usual rate of mortality. It was, indeed, much more, because, in the estimate of mortality, persons of every age were included, while in an African voyage the aged were entirely excluded, and few infants were admitted. Such was the ruinous nature of the trade in the most favourable circumstances; but, in the voyage from the more distant parts of Africa, the mortality was stated to be twice as great; and consequently, thirty four persons perished, at the lowest estimation, for one that would have died in the course of nature.

a numerous train of the first personages in the kingdom, and escorted by the guard usual on such occasions, went from the castle to College-Green, and after saluting the equestrian statue of King William, proceeded from thence round Stephen's Green. The appearance on this occasion was splendid, and the number of equipages greater than had been known for many years.—At Edinburgh this day was observed as a day of solemn thanksgiving, as directed by an act of the general assembly of the church of Scotland passed on the 30th of May in this year; and by this act all the ministers of that national church were enjoined to observe the same. By the publication of this act nearly six months before the annual return of the day, that assembly had the honour to take the lead, in their resolution to celebrate this glorious event: and it ought to be mentioned, to the honour of that high-spirited and noble-minded people, that the principles of the Revolution are well understood and warmly embraced by them.—At Whittington, between Sheffield and Chesterfield, adjoining to a decent modern building, is an old thatched cottage, the upper story of which, lighted by a very small window, is shewn as the apartment called by the antirevolutionists, "the plotting parlour," in which the glorious business was planned. To this place the illustrious leaders, the earls of Devonshire and Danby, lord Delamere, and Mr. John Darcy, came disguised, and concerted the measures which happily produced so much good to this country; and, in an oak chest, still preserved in a corner of the room, the minutes of the meeting were deposited; here is also to be seen the old armed chair in which the earl of Devonshire is said to have sat. The descendants of the illustrious houses of Cavendish, Osborne, Booth, and Darcy (for the venerable duke of Leeds, whose age would not allow him to attend, had sent his two grandsons, in whom the blood of Osborne and Darcy is united); a numerous and powerful gentry; a wealthy and respectable yeomanry; a hardy, yet decent and attentive peasantry; whose intelligent countenances shewed that they understood, and would be firm to preserve that blessing, for which they were assembled to return thanks to Almighty God, presented a truly solemn spectacle, and to the eye of a philosopher, the most interesting that can be imagined. It was not the least pleasing circumstance attending this solemnity, that all party distinctions were forgotten. Persons of all ranks and denominations wore orange and blue, in memory of our glorious deliverer. And the most respectable Roman-catholic families, satisfied with the mild toleration of government in the exercise of their religion, vied in their endeavours to shew how just a sense they had of the value of civil liberty.

In the space of only four years which had elapsed since the complete triumph of the sovereign and the nation over the "Coalition," Great Britain, under the conduct of a minister, who had not yet attained his thirtieth year, had risen from a state of unexampled depression to her ancient superiority among the European kingdoms. In this state of public felicity, the nation was suddenly alarmed by the reports of his majesty being attacked with an unexpected and dangerous illness. The precise nature of it was for several days unexplained and unascertained, even by those whose residence near the court should have enabled them to obtain early and authentic information. Meanwhile fame augmented the evil, and the death of the sovereign was believed to have either already taken place, or to be imminent and inevitable.

Time, however, gradually divulged the truth, and changed the apprehensions of the nation for the situation of the king. His disorder was understood to have fallen upon the brain, and to have produced, as might be expected, a temporary privation of reason. A species of interregnum, in fact, took place; though unaccompanied by any of those circumstances which usually characterize and accompany that unfortunate state. The kingdom, anxious, and with eyes directed towards their sovereign, betrayed no symptoms of confusion, anarchy, or civil commotion.

The first minister continued to exercise, by a general submission and consent, the powers delegated to him before the king's indisposition; and the political machine, well constructed and properly organized, sustained no derangement or injury whatsoever from this shock, except those inseparably connected with delay in the transactions or negotiations pending with foreign courts.

The two houses of parliament, in consequence of the preceding prorogation, met in a few days subsequent to these extraordinary events. The general agitation and curiosity, even if they had not been aided by other emotions of hope and fear, of ambition, and of public duty, would alone have produced a numerous attendance. Mr. Pitt opened the subject of their meeting in a very concise and pathetic manner; lamented the occasion, expressed his hope that the cause would speedily be removed, and, in pursuance of that idea, advised an immediate adjournment of a fortnight. The proposition was received in deep silence by the opposite side of the house, and assented to in mute acquiescence. As soon as the adjournment was at an end, Mr. Fox laid claim to the vacant sceptre, in the name and on the behalf of the heir apparent, as belonging and devolving to him of right.

Mr. Pitt demanded the discussion and decision of so great and leading a principle, which led to conclusions unlimited and undefined, as well as subversive of the tenure on which a king of England had originally received his crown; and parliament, roused to a sense of the necessity of declaring itself solely competent to fill the vacant throne, proceeded to that great act without circumlocution or delay; and having pronounced upon this important preliminary, then decided that the prince of Wales should be invited and requested to accept the regency, under certain limitations.

The month of December elapsed in these contests, and the year 1789 commenced under the most gloomy presages. Mutual asperity and reproach embittered every debate. No appearances of convalescence or recovery, so ardently anticipated by the nation, had yet manifested themselves in the malady of the king. A second examination of the physicians who had attended his majesty during the course of his disorder, which took place before a committee of the house of commons, and which was certainly not conducted, on the part of opposition, with either delicacy or judgment, tended to throw very little light on the great object of public inquiry, the probable duration and period of this afflicting malady. Mr. Pitt constantly and warmly maintained the probability of its happy termination; and, regarding this as neither distant nor hopeless, made the resumption of the royal power by the sovereign with facility and celerity, as soon as he should be enabled to wield the sceptre, the first and leading principle of all his measures and propositions. The adherents of the prince of Wales saw the prospect of his father's recovery through a very different medium, and conceived of it not only as improbable, but as hourly augmenting in that improbability. They were sustained in this opinion by Warren, as the minister was confirmed in his opposite sentiment by Willis; the former an eminent London practitioner, the latter brought from a distant province to attend the sovereign under his severe disorder, and who being peculiarly conversant in that species of disease, boldly and early asserted, that he entertained scarcely any doubts of the king's perfect re-establishment at no remote period. The event fully justified his prediction.

A very short period, probably not exceeding three days, must have completed the bill, which was to declare the incapacity of the sovereign to conduct the national affairs, and to transfer the sceptre, though with diminished influence, to his son. The members of administration were on the point of resigning their charges, and the new ministry, already settled, prepared to enter on office; while the English people, fondly attached by every sense of loyalty and affection to their monarch, as well as from gratitude and esteem to the first minister, in dejection and silence

looked on, and saw the government transferred to others, who, whatever abilities they might collectively possess, certainly neither merited nor enjoyed the general approbation and confidence.

But the term of interregnum and misfortune was now arrived; and the impending calamity which had menaced England with all the evils of a regency, far more to be deprecated and dreaded than those from which the country had escaped in 1784, was suddenly and unexpectedly dissipated. The disorder, under which the king had suffered during three months, and whose violence had hitherto appeared to baffle all medical skill and exertion, gradually, but rapidly, subsided. Sanity of mind and reason resumed their seat, and left no trace of their temporary subversion. Time confirmed the cure, and restored to his subjects a prince, rendered supremely and peculiarly dear to them by the recent prospect and apprehension of his loss. The vision of a regency faded and disappeared, as the sovereign came forward to public view, and was totally extinguished by his resumption of all the regal functions. The demonstrations of national joy far exceeded any recorded in the English annals, and were probably more real and unfeigned than ever were offered on similar occasions. It was not only that a king, beloved and respected, was recovered from the most afflictive of all situations incident to humanity, and enabled to re-ascend the throne. Sentiments of disapprobation and of general condemnation, affixed to the measures and language of the party in opposition, heightened the emotions of pleasure, by a comparison with that state from which the kingdom had been so fortunately delivered. No efforts of despotism, or mandates of arbitrary power could have produced the illuminations which not only the capital but almost every town and village throughout the kingdom, exhibited in testimony of its loyalty; and these proofs of attachment were renewed, and even augmented, on the occasion of his majesty's first appearance in public, and his solemn procession to St. Paul's (on the 23d of April 1789), to return thanks to Heaven for his recovery.

Whilst the ancient government of France was entirely overthrown, and a revolution the most extraordinary was effected there; it is difficult to imagine a picture of more complete serenity than England presented. At peace with all the world, in the bosom of repose, she saw her commerce and manufactures extend, her credit augment, and her name excite respect among the most distant nations; while many of the great surrounding European kingdoms were either involved in foreign war, or desolated by domestic troubles. In this happy situation, a storm unexpectedly and suddenly arose from a quarter, where, it would seem, that no foresight or precautions could have anticipated the danger. Among the new and unexplored paths of commerce, which the spirit of a discerning and adventurous people had attempted to open since the peace of 1783, were particularly two, which appeared to promise the most beneficial returns. The first was a whale-fishery, similar to that which had been carried on for ages near the coasts of Greenland; but transferred to the southern hemisphere, near the extremity of Patagonia, and in the stormy seas which surround Cape Horn; as well as in the Pacific Ocean. In the course of a few years, this branch of trade had augmented rapidly, and was found on trial to afford very important advantages; nor had it received any impediments from the vague pretensions of the Spanish crown to the sovereignty of the shores washed by that ocean, which was the scene of their exertions.

The second of these enterprises, original in its own nature, able in its conception, bold in its execution, and having no precedent for its guidance, was directed to countries and to objects almost as much unknown to geographical, as to commercial knowledge or experience. The north-west coast of America, the part of the earth to which this embarkation was destined, extending northward from California and New Albion to the Frozen Sea, had been partly explored and faintly traced:

traced by capt. Cook; but much remained for future enterprize and industry to accomplish, before this discovery could be converted to any purpose of public utility. He had, however, ascertained the existence of the continent; and he had received from the barbarous natives, with whom he established a species of barter, some valuable specimens of furs, in exchange for European commodities of a far inferior nature.

The hope of procuring a considerable quantity of these rare and costly skins, for the sale of which a very advantageous market presented itself at Canton in China, was the leading inducement to the adventurers, who engaged in the expedition. Animated by these views, and having received the most affirmative marks of the protection of government previous to their departure, five ships were fitted out from London in 1785, and the two succeeding years. Four of these vessels, after doubling Cape Horn, arrived safely on the north-west coast of America. The sanguine expectations which had been entertained, of effecting a lucrative exchange of commodities with the natives, were fully and speedily realized. Cargoes of the finest furs were procured, and sold to the Chinese, even under great commercial discouragements, and pecuniary impositions, at so high a price, as amply to reimburse, and enrich the adventurers. Other attempts of a similar nature were made from Bengal; and two vessels were successively dispatched from the Gaages to the same coast in the year 1786. A factory was established at Nootka Sound, a port situated in the fiftieth degree of northern latitude, on the shore of America. Possession of it was solemnly taken in the name of the sovereign and crown of England; amicable treaties were concluded with the chiefs of the neighbouring districts; and a tract of land was purchased from one of them, on which the new proprietors proceeded to form a settlement, and to construct storehouses. Every thing bore the appearance of a rising colony, and each year opened new sources of commerce and advantage.

Although individuals, occupied in exertions of this private nature, could not be expected to extend their views or efforts to objects of public utility, yet some further information was collaterally and incidentally acquired respecting the continent of America, in the course of their voyages. It is even pretended that a sloop named the "Washington," navigated for some hundred miles along a vast number of islands, scattered in a sea, which intersects that continent in a north-east direction; and though the accounts hitherto received or transmitted, of this extraordinary and interesting fact, are not either so minute, or so accurate, as by any means to entitle them to be implicitly received, yet they appear to be not totally destitute of foundation or probability.

That, upon every principle of the law of nations, upon the established usage in all similar cases, and as being *the first settlers*, the British adventurers had an undoubted title to the place in question, is beyond dispute. Notwithstanding this, in the month of May 1789, a Spanish ship of war from St. Blas, called the *Princesa*, commanded by M. Martinez, and mounting 20 guns, anchored there. The various avocations of trade having led the greater part of the persons employed at this settlement to different parts of the coast, the only English trading ship remaining in the bays was the *Iphigenia*. The *Princesa* was soon joined by a Spanish sloop of 16 guns; and, for some time mutual civilities passed between the Spaniards and English. These, however, were at length interrupted, by an order being sent to capt. Douglas (the commander of the *Iphigenia*) to come on board of the *Princesa*; when he was informed by M. Martinez, that he had the king of Spain's orders to seize all vessels which he might find upon that coast, and that he (capt. Douglas) was his prisoner. In consequence of this, M. Martinez took possession of the *Iphigenia* in the name of his catholic majesty, and conveyed the crew prisoners on board the Spanish ships, where they were ironed. M. Martinez also took

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took possession of the settlement, hoisted the Spanish flag, and proceeded to erect various buildings, on which he employed, together with his own men, some of the crew of the *Iphigenia*. He afterwards permitted captain Douglas to resume the command of his ship; and on his representing, that he had been stript of his merchandize, and other stores, M. Martinez gave him a small supply of stores and provisions (for which he took bills on the owners), by means of which, about a fortnight after he was at first detained, he was enabled to proceed to China.

Shortly afterwards, the English vessels, the *North-west America*, the *Argonaut*, and the *Princess Royal*, arriving separately at Nootka, from their trading voyages, were captured by M. Martinez, their crews were made prisoners, and their cargo seized. After some detention the crew of the *North-west America* were sent to China, the two other vessels with their crews were sent to St. Blas in Mexico, and some Chinese, who had been brought to the settlement by our people, were detained and employed as labourers.

Of the *North-west America*, sent to China, no authentic account has been received; but on the arrival of the two vessels at St. Blas, a representation of their case having been made to the Spanish governor, the ships were restored (on the officers giving security to indemnify the governor, should it be proved they were lawful prizes) and the crews were furnished with provisions, stores and money, to enable them to resume their voyage.

Of these transactions only a partial, vague, and uncircumstantial account was known by his majesty's ministers till the 30th of April 1790, when captain Meares presented his memorial to the secretary of state. This paper indeed conveyed an intelligence of a very different nature from that which had been previously received. Within one week after the affair was communicated, the most active and formidable preparations were made, a positive demand of preliminary satisfaction and restitution was sent to Madrid, and the people of England were called upon to avenge the public wrongs. The first publication of this business was by his majesty's message to parliament on the 5th of May.

An attention to the honour of their country made it necessary for our ministers, to call upon the court of Spain itself to give direct satisfaction for an injury committed by an officer acting under its immediate commission, and grounded on its pretension of an exclusive right to the whole continent of America. To do this, it was necessary for his catholic majesty to acknowledge that *such an injury* had been committed, and this was most expressly declared and signed by count de Florida Blanca, in the name and by the order of his Catholic majesty, at Madrid the 24th of July, 1790. The acknowledgment of the injury was an expression which implied a concession that the court of Spain had no right to use force in preventing British subjects from visiting the coasts in question for the purposes of trade and settlement.

The nation were waiting with painful anxiety for the determination of the objects of the depending negotiation; deprecating indeed the dreadful alternative of appealing to the sword for the vindication of our rights; yet satisfied of the justice of our cause, and confidently looking forward to an honourable and happy termination of a contest, originating in the violent proceedings, and unfounded claims of the court of Spain, when the agreeable news arrived that a convention was agreed upon between his Britannic majesty and the king of Spain, the 28th of October, 1790; which was finally ratified by both parties, on the 22d of November.

To defray the expence attending the naval and military armaments, Mr. Pitt proposed to raise, not merely the interest of the debt recently incurred; but to extinguish the principal itself, in the space of four years; though amounting to above three millions sterling. The effect of so judicious and provident a measure, which

must evince the resources of the country which adopted it, will be felt through every kingdom of Europe.

But though Great Britain was thus happily rescued from war in this quarter of the globe, accident or ambition involved our Indian possessions in contest and in blood. At so remote a distance, it is difficult to judge accurately of causes and effects; but as nearly as a diligent inquiry has enabled us to collect the truth, we shall give it in our historical narrative of that country, under which it will more naturally fall.

The cause of toleration received, in the year 1791, an accession which must be peculiarly grateful to the friends of freedom. It is remarkable, that, notwithstanding the radical freedom of our constitution, no nation in Europe has been more jealous of their religious establishment, and scarcely have the Roman Catholic states themselves loaded with a more oppressive weight of civil penalties, those who dissented in religious opinion. It has, for almost half a century, been the task of the legislature, to root out gradually and cautiously, from the code of our laws, those disgraceful statutes. They are not yet entirely removed, but in proportion as the peaceful influence of philosophy shall extend over the minds of men, we have little doubt but all parties will see the absurdity of sacrificing the cardinal virtue charity, at the shrine of vain speculation; and as the fears and jealousies of mankind shall subside, in the course of a few years, every trace of persecution will fade away. As the Romish church was the grand object of terror in the first ages of reformation, it was scarcely matter of surprise that our statute-book should be loaded with the most rigorous and sanguinary edicts, directed against the professors of that obnoxious faith; and though in the year 1780, some of these were removed, yet in 1791, in a well-known book, *Burn's Ecclesiastical Law*, not less than seventy pages were to be found, entirely occupied with the bare enumeration of the penal statutes, in force against the Roman Catholics. Among these were some of the most sanguinary nature. It was high treason and death to make a convert to the Roman Catholic faith. Severe penalties were enacted on Papists for hearing mass, by some statutes; and by others they were compelled to attend the established worship, however contrary to their consciences. That such laws should have been framed in times of difficulty and danger, in times when the church of Rome flourished in all the vigour of temporal power, and urged her authority by all the rigours of persecution, and all the artifices of bigotry, is not surprising; it is only surprising that they should have been suffered to remain in force for centuries of peace and tranquillity, when the power of the pope is annihilated even in countries professing his religion, and when all the obnoxious principles of that religion are disavowed by its professors. A reform in the penal statutes became the more necessary, since, in the course of the year 1790, a large body of Catholic dissenters had formally protested against the temporal power of the pope, against his assumed authority of releasing men from their civil obligations, or dispensing with the sacredness of oaths.

It was upon these principles, and supported by these arguments, that Mr. Mitford moved, on the 21st of February 1791, for a committee of the whole house to enable him to bring in a bill "to relieve, upon conditions and under restrictions, persons called protesting catholic dissenters, from certain penalties and disabilities, to which papists, or persons professing the popish religion, are by law subject." This bill, Mr. Mitford added, would be similar to that which had passed in Ireland some years since; and as no ill consequences had resulted in a country where the Roman Catholics were so much more numerous than in this, he should hope the house would see no impropriety in the proposition. The house entered upon the subject with a liberality which does them infinite honour, and the bill proceeded through its several stages without opposition.

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The rights of juries had long been in an indefinite and indeterminate state, particularly in the case of libels; and disputes disgraceful in themselves, and injurious to the administration of justice, had frequently arisen between the court and the jury, between the judges and the counsel; even among the professors of the law, a difference of opinion had long existed. While the herd of mere technical practitioners earnestly supported the indefeasible authority of the bench, that oracle of constitutional jurisprudence, lord Camden, Mr. Erskine, and many others of the greatest eminence, held the rights of an English jury in too sacred a light to suffer the great constitutional principle, on which that institution was founded, to be undermined by the fallacious doctrine of precedents.

On the 25th of May in this year Mr. Fox presented his bill for removing doubts with respect to the rights of juries in criminal cases. The bill sets forth that juries in cases of libels should have a power of judging of the whole matter, and of finding a general verdict of guilty or not guilty. With a slight opposition from the legal profession, it completed its progress through the house of commons. In the house of lords, where the influence of the law is more predominant, it experienced a very different reception, and was strongly opposed. However, in the following year, this great constitutional point was at last decided by the lords and commons, that **JURIES ARE JUDGES OF BOTH THE LAW AND THE FACT.**

Early in the sessions of 1791, Mr. Wilberforce made a motion, in a committee of the house of commons, appointed for receiving and examining evidence on the slave-trade, "that the chairman be instructed to move for leave to bring in a bill to prevent the further importation of African negroes into the British colonies." Although this question was supported with great ability and eloquence by Mr. Francis, Mr. W. Smith, the chancellor of the exchequer, and Mr. Fox, yet it was negatived by a majority of 75. One immediate consequence of this was the establishment of a company for the express purpose of cultivating West India and other tropical productions at Sierra Leone, on the coast of Africa, the bill for chartering whom was introduced on the 28th of March by Mr. Thornton.

In pursuance of a message from his majesty, a bill was brought into parliament for settling the constitution of Canada, a matter of great importance, and long in agitation. By this bill the province was divided into two governments, called Upper and Lower Canada; and it is hoped that this division will put an end to the debates between the old French inhabitants, and the British settlers, as each will have a majority in their own department. A council and a house of assembly are intended for each government; the members of the council to be such for life, and power reserved to the British sovereign of annexing to certain honours an hereditary right of sitting in the council. The taxes to be levied and disposed of by the legislature of each division; and the present laws and ordinances to remain, till altered by the new legislature.

On the 28th of March 1791, a message was delivered from his majesty, importing that the endeavours which he had used in conjunction with his allies, to effect a pacification between Russia and the Porte, not having proved successful, his majesty judged it requisite, in order to add weight to his representations, to make some further augmentation of his naval force. In consequence of a majority in support of this measure, a very large naval armament was prepared. Our fleet, collected to support the cause of the Turks against Russia, amounted in April to thirty-three ships of the line; and after maintaining this large equipment for four months, at an enormous expence, it was at last dismissed. The proposed Russian war was certainly most unpopular, and the reception which the proposition of it met with in the house of commons, ought perhaps to have induced the immediate dereliction of a measure, which, however meritorious its intentions might be, was not crowned by the public favour.

Soon after the rising of the parliament, the nation was disgraced by a series of outrages and violences, which, for the space of four days, spread terror and alarm through the large, opulent town of Birmingham, and the adjacent country.

Concerning the French revolution, much difference of sentiment prevailed in this country, and much heat and ill temper the discussion of that subject appeared unnecessarily to provoke. A considerable body of the whig party in Great Britain rejoiced in the emancipation of a neighbouring nation, and flattered themselves that they saw, in the establishment of the *first* French constitution, not only the annihilation of despotism in that country, but the commencement of a new system of politics in Europe, the basis of which was peace, happiness, and mutual concord.

In most of the larger towns in Great Britain, associations were formed for the celebration of that event, by anniversary dinners on the 14th of July; but the opposite party were not indifferent spectators of these proceedings. The populace were inflamed by injurious insinuations conveyed in newspapers and pamphlets: the friends of the French revolution were (certainly falsely as to the majority) stigmatized as determined republicans; and the act of joining in a convivial meeting, on the odious 14th of July, was represented as an attempt to overturn the British constitution in church and state. The meeting in London, however, consisted of not less than 1500 persons, many of them of respectable characters and abilities, who, as the populace appeared to collect in a tumultuous manner, round the Crown and Anchor tavern, where the meeting was held, dispersed at an early hour.

At Birmingham the causes of discord were more numerous than in London. A violent animosity had subsisted for years between the high church party and the dissenters of that place, and the religious controversies, which subsisted between Dr. Priestley and some of the clergy of Birmingham, greatly contributed to increase this animosity.

In such circumstances, it is not surprising that the ignorant part of the inhabitants should confound the cause of the French revolution, with that of the dissenters, especially since the majority of that persuasion have, since the revolution in 1688, been firmly attached to the whig system, and since Dr. Priestley, whom the populace considered as at the head of the dissenters there, had distinguished himself by opposing the then fashionable pamphlet of Mr. Burke.

A festive meeting, in commemoration of the French revolution, was projected at Birmingham, on Thursday the 14th of July; and on the preceding Monday six copies of a most inflammatory and seditious hand-bill, proposing the French revolution as a model to the English, and exciting them to rebellion, were left by some person unknown, in a public-house. As the contents of this hand-bill were pretty generally circulated, they caused some ferment in the town: the magistrates thought it proper to offer a reward of 100 guineas, for discovering the author, printer, or publisher of the obnoxious paper; and the friends of the meeting, intended for the 14th, thought it necessary at the same time to publish an advertisement, explicitly denying the sentiments and doctrines of the seditious hand-bill, and disavowing all connexion with its author or publishers.

The views and intentions of the meeting having, however, been much misrepresented, the majority of the gentlemen who projected it, thought it advisable to relinquish the scheme; accordingly, notice was given to that effect; but the intention was revived, and the company met at the appointed time, to the amount of between eighty and ninety. The ingenious Mr. Keir, well known for his great attainments in chemistry, and other branches of philosophy, and a member of the established church, was placed in the chair.

The gentlemen had scarcely met, before the house was surrounded by a tumultuous crowd, who testified their disapprobation by hisses and groans, and by the

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shout of "Church and King," which became the watch-word on this occasion. At five o'clock the company dispersed; and soon afterwards the windows in the front of the hotel were demolished, notwithstanding the appearance and interference of the magistrates.

Dr. Priestley did not attend the festival, but dined at home at Fairhill with a friend from London. In the evening they were alarmed with the intelligence that the mob were assembled at the new dissenting meeting-house (Dr. Priestley's), and were threatening both the doctor and his house. The rioters soon set the meeting-house on fire, and nothing remained that could be consumed. The old meeting-house shared almost a similar fate. After this they proceeded to Dr. Priestley's house, the doctor and his family having just had time to escape to a small distance, where they could distinctly hear every shout of the mob, and the blows of the instruments which were used to break down the doors. The whole of the doctor's library, his valuable philosophical apparatus, his manuscripts, and papers, were destroyed by the mob. The next day this infuriated multitude demolished the elegant mansion of Mr. Ryland, where, finding a profusion of liquor, a dreadful scene of intoxication ensued; and several of the wretched rioters perished in the cellars by suffocation, or by the falling in of the roof. The country residence of Mr. Taylor, the houses of Mr. Hutton (the ingenious historian of Birmingham), of Mr. Humphrey, of Mr. Russell, and several others, were destroyed by the resistless fury of the mob; who continued their depredations until Sunday night, when three troops of the 15th of light dragoons arrived. The town was then illuminated, and all was acclamation and joy. Of the unfortunate and infuriated wretches who were taken in the act of rioting, five were tried at Worcester, and one was found guilty, and executed. At Warwick twelve were tried, but only four received sentence of death, of whom one was reprieved. For the honour of our country, we indulge the earnest hope, that the disgraceful scenes which were acted at Birmingham, in 1791, will never be revived; but that while the continent of Europe is unhappily drenched in human blood, this island will remain as conspicuous for its harmony, order, and tranquillity, as for its constitutional freedom and national prosperity.

The marriage of the duke of York with the princess-royal of Prussia took place on the 29th of September, this year, at Berlin; and on the 25th of October they arrived in England, and were received with public joy and applause. The Prussian monarch gave to the princess a portion of 100,000 crowns. A formal renunciation is made, in favour of the male succession, of all right of inheritance arising from the house of Prussia and Brandenburg, as usually done on the marriages of the Prussian princesses. The sum of 4000l. sterling is annually alligned for pin-money, and other expences; and 8000l. annually of jointure, in case of the death of her husband. In consequence of this union, and to enable his royal highness to live in a style suitable to his exalted station, and to the high rank of the illustrious personage to whom he was allied, parliament have voted the sum of 18,000l. per annum to his royal highness. His majesty has also settled an additional 7000l. per annum upon him out of his Irish revenue, which, with 12,000l. per annum which he before enjoyed, make the sum of 37,000l. per annum. The revenues arising from the bishopric of Osnaburgh are said to amount to about 17,000l. per annum.

On the 2d of April, 1792, the house of commons, in a committee of the whole house on the African slave trade, came to a resolution, 230 against 85, for the gradual abolition. Mr. Wilberforce, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Pitt, contended for the immediate abolition. Mr. Dundas took a middle course between them and those who totally opposed new measures, and argued for the gradual relinquishment of a traffic which every good man must abhor, as degrading and debasing our fel-

low-creatures to a level with beasts. This bill, however, met with a different reception in the house of lords.

The royal proclamation, on the 21st of May, 1792, against seditious writings, which was followed by orders for the embodying the militia of the kingdom, engaged a considerable share of the public attention. It had the intended effects, and excited numerous addresses, testifying the loyalty of the people.

In the beginning of the year 1793, numerous associations were formed throughout the kingdom against republican principles and theories. To say that there was not a spirit of republicanism gone forth in this country, would be absurd; on the other hand, that the cause for alarm was as great as was asserted by some, we do not find reason to believe. The truth lies between the two extremes. The controversies revived in Messrs. Calonne and Burke's pamphlets, and particularly the writings of Mr. Paine, writings well adapted to vulgar comprehension and malignity, pregnant with pointed remarks on some existing abuses, but with nothing of sound policy or principle to recommend them, had undoubtedly contributed to render the example of the French revolution in some degree contagious. After all, the disaffected party was neither numerous nor respectable. The church, the aristocracy, and all the most opulent of the community, were averse to every change or innovation whatever. It was among the lower part of the middle class of society that democratical opinions were chiefly entertained, and among them more probably as a matter of conversation, than as a project to be reduced to practice.

We are far from wishing to insinuate that it was not laudable to check that spirit of innovation which professed to undermine the fundamental principles of a government which, though it partakes of human imperfection, yet affords its subjects a larger portion of liberty and happiness than ever was enjoyed by any other people: we would only be understood to say, that the associations in favour of the British constitution would neither have been entered into with so much unanimity nor fervour, had not the ill conduct of the French terrified the well disposed part of the nation, and disgusted them with every thing that bears the name of reform. From the period of the fatal 10th of August, the convicts from the French system were numerous, the proscription and persecution of the emigrants visibly increased the number, and the premeditated ill-treatment and unjust death of the king almost entirely annihilated the spirit of republicanism in this country. The public wanted only to be excited, to give the most forcible proofs of its attachment to a constitution which had so wisely provided against the intolerable persecutions of tyranny, and the no less deplorable mischiefs of faction.

The first disposition manifested by Great Britain to break with France, regarded the navigation of the Scheldt, which the French had determined to open for the benefit of Antwerp and the Netherlands. This impediment, however, might perhaps have been removed, from the little disposition which was evinced by Holland to assert its right to the exclusive navigation; and from the readiness of the French to refer the whole affair to a negotiation. The next exception which was taken by the English ministry, was to the decree of fraternity which was offered by the French convention, to the revolting subjects of any monarchical (or, as they said, tyrannical) government, and which was construed into a direct affront to this country, and a plot against her peace.

The alien bill, which the French complained was an infraction of the commercial treaty, was the next cause of dispute; and this offence was augmented by the prohibition to export corn to France, while it was freely allowed to the powers at war with that country. At length, towards the end of January, M. Chauvelin was officially informed by the English court, that his character and functions, so long suspended, had entirely terminated by the fatal death of the king of France; that he had no more any public character here, where his further

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ther residence was forbidden. Eight days were allowed for his departure; and this notification was published in the Gazette. M. Maret had been sent by the executive council of France with enlarged powers, and, it was said, with very advantageous proposals to Great Britain; but arriving in England exactly at the period of M. Chauvelin's dismissal, he thought it prudent immediately to return home.

Mr. secretary Dundas, on the 28th of January, presented to the house of commons a message from the king, in which his majesty expressed the necessity of making a further augmentation of his forces by sea and land, for maintaining the security and rights of his own dominions, for supporting his allies, and for opposing views of aggrandizement and ambition on the part of France. The question in relation to this subject was carried by a great majority in favour of ministers.

Soon after the declaration of war, a bill was introduced into the house, to prevent traitorous correspondence with France. This bill was read a third time April 9, and, having occasioned much altercation, it passed the lower house, by 154 against 53. After innumerable amendments in the house of lords, adopted from the hints of opposition, the bill was returned to the commons, and then passed into a law.

On the 25th of March, lord Grenville and S. Comte Woronzow signed a convention at London, on behalf of his Britannic majesty and the empress of Russia, in which their majesties agree to employ their respective forces in carrying on the "just and necessary" war in which they were engaged against France; and they reciprocally promise *not to lay down their arms* but by common consent. Notwithstanding this solemn treaty, Catharine has taken no active part whatever in the war. The next treaty is between his Britannic majesty and the king of Sardinia, signed at London the 25th of April; by which Great Britain subjects herself to the payment of 200,000*l.* per annum to the king of Sardinia, and three months in advance. A treaty has also been concluded between his highness the prince of Hesse Cassel and his Britannic majesty; the former is to furnish 8000 men for the war, during *three* years, in return for which the English nation are to pay 100,000*l.* levy-money, and 56,000*l.* sterling per annum, for six years.

In this treaty, Great Britain engages to pay to the Landgrave a sum of money for each Hessian that is slain; so that the more of his men are killed, he will get the more money. For the military operations of the war we must refer our readers to our account of France, under which article they will more naturally fall.

The prosecutions which have taken place in England and Scotland, for seditious words, and for libellous and dangerous publications, may possibly be considered by some readers as a trait in the picture of the times; for their gratification, therefore, we shall exhibit a short out-line of the principal of these trials.

At Edinburgh, Thomas Muir *esq.* was tried before the high court of judicary, for seditious practices. In the indictment, the prisoner was charged with wickedly and feloniously exciting, by means of seditious speeches and harangues, a spirit of disloyalty and disaffection to the king and the established government—of producing and reading aloud, in a public meeting, a seditious and inflammatory writing, called, "An Address from the Society of United Irishmen in Dublin, to the Delegates for promoting a Reform in Scotland;" tending to produce in the minds of the people an insurrection and opposition to the established government. The jury being named, Mr. Muir objected to most of them; he observed, that as the gentlemen, however respectable, were all subscribers to the Goldsmiths-hall association, and had offered a reward for discovering those who had circulated what they called seditious writings, they had already prejudged him, and were therefore improper persons to pass upon his affize; but this objection was repelled by the court.

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The most material witness against the accused was Anne Fisher, a servant to his father; she said that she carried from him to the printer a Declaration of Rights, marked with some corrections, to be printed; she added, that she had heard Mr. Muir talk to the countrymen coming to the shop of his father, very often, concerning Paine's Rights of Man, which she heard him say was a very good book; that he wished his hair-dresser to purchase them, and keep them in his shop to enlighten the people; that Mr. Muir said, when the reform took place, he would be member for Calder; that members would then be allowed thirty or forty shillings a day, and that none but honest men would be admitted, to keep the constitution clean; and that he had caused an organist in the streets of Glasgow to play *ga ira*, at Mr. Muir's desire.

After a trial of sixteen hours duration, the jury returned a verdict, finding the prisoner *guilty*; the court then proceeded to pronounce sentence, and ordained him to be transported beyond the seas, to such place as his majesty, with the advice of his privy council, shall judge proper, for the space of fourteen years.

On the 17th of September, the reverend Mr. Palmer, an Unitarian clergyman, residing at Dundee, was tried by the circuit court of judicary, before lords Esgrove and Abercrombie. The indictment charged him with being present at a meeting held at Dundee, denominating itself "A Society of the Friends of the People," that he did there put into the hands of George Mealmaker a writing of a seditious import, in the form of an address to their friends and fellow citizens, containing, among other seditious expressions, the following words: "You are plunged into a war by a wicked minister, and a compliant parliament, who seem careless and unconcerned for your interest; the end and design of which is almost too horrid to relate—the destruction of a whole people, merely because they will be free." When the court proceeded to the examination of witnesses, George Mealmaker, weaver in Dundee, acknowledged himself to be the author of the paper in question; it appeared, however, that Mr. Palmer had corrected it, ordered it to be printed, and circulated it. The verdict was returned the same day, finding the prisoner guilty, in consequence of which he was sentenced to transportation for fourteen years. This gentleman was sent to the hulks with Mr. Muir; since which they have both sailed for Botany Bay.

The next trial which we shall notice was that of Lambert, and the editors and proprietors of the Morning Chronicle. The parties were indicted for publishing in their paper, of the 25th of December last, an advertisement purporting to be the address, declaratory of the principles of a society for political information, held at the Talbot Inn in Derby, and signed S. Eyre, chairman.

The attorney-general contended, that the substance of that address was calculated to create discontent in the minds of the people with the present government of this country; and concluded that the publication of it was a criminal, and therefore a punishable act. The defendant's counsel, Mr. Erskine, in an able speech, refused the charge of criminality in his clients, and while he admitted the publication, forcibly contended that it was without any criminal intention. Lord Kenyon summed up the evidence, and at two o'clock the jury withdrew: about eight o'clock the same evening they agreed upon a special verdict, "Guilty of publishing, but with no malicious intent." Lord Kenyon informed them that he could not receive that verdict, because it was no verdict at all. The jury then consulted together in a room in his Lordship's house till nine o'clock: whence they returned to Westminster-hall, and at about five o'clock in the morning they agreed in their verdict of *not guilty*.

On the 21st of January, 1794, the two houses met. The speech from the throne enumerated, with some degree of minuteness, the advantages obtained by the allies, and exhorted to a spirited prosecution of the war, and to a reliance on the resources

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of the country, and to the strength of our allies for ultimate success. The address to his majesty, in which Parliament agreed to support him in the continuance of the war, was carried in favour of ministry by an immense majority.

The disparity of numbers did not, however, discourage the opposition in both houses from embracing every opportunity of enforcing the necessity of peace. Upon all these occasions nearly the same arguments were repeated on both sides. Among these attempts one of the most remarkable was that of earl Stanhope, who made a motion for an address to his majesty, to acknowledge the republic of France. It was urged by his lordship, in favour of this measure, that the people had been deluded by ministers, who had by their emissaries held out to them that the French would soon be starved, and necessitated to come to terms honourable and advantageous to this country, because they were represented to have neither corn, arms, ammunition, nor the means of procuring them. In proof of this delusion it was said, that a year had passed since this doctrine had raised the sanguine hopes of our countrymen; yet still the Gallic nation abounded with fire-arms, corn, and, above all, with men. Since, therefore, it was generally confessed that we had no right to interfere in the regulation of their internal government, it was contended that the most advantageous mode of conduct for Englishmen would be to make a speedy peace with an armed nation, driven to a state bordering on desperation, by the combination formed against that system of liberty, which they would in all probability defend to the last extremity.

The landing of the Hessian troops, without the previous consent of parliament, was represented by the opposition-party as an infringement upon the free principles of the constitution, and in support of this assertion reference was made to the act of settlement, which expressly says, "that no office of trust, civil or military, shall on any account whatever be held by any but natural subjects of his majesty, born within the realm;" and to preserve the principles of the constitution, an act of indemnity was proposed to ministers; but the proposal was rejected.

An invasion of the French having excited serious alarm in the public mind, the steps pursued by administration to repel it were, an augmentation of the militia, and the raising volunteer companies, as well as taking measures for having a number of yeomanry and others in various parts of the kingdom, to bear arms and to be ready to take the field in case of an emergency. To aid these measures, the secretary of state addressed circular letters to the lord-lieutenants of the several counties, ordering them to take the sense of the inhabitants, upon the best mode to be pursued in order to insure the internal defence of the kingdom, either in case of invasion by a foreign enemy, or in case of riots and disturbances at home. In consequence of these letters to the lord-lieutenants, meetings have been held in most of the cities and considerable towns in the kingdom, and large sums of money have been already subscribed for raising troops to be ready at the call of ministers.

The secession of the king of Prussia from the great cause of the allies agitated the political world for several weeks, when it was announced that the whole proceeded from his inability to supply his troops from the resources of his own country, and therefore that he must be subsidized, to enable him to employ his forces for the great purpose of restoring regular government to France. The Parliament, influenced by the arguments which were advanced by the minister, voted the sum of 2,500,000*l.* to be granted to his majesty, to enable him to fulfil the stipulations of the treaty lately concluded with Prussia, for the more vigorous prosecution of the war, and for such exigencies as might arise in the year 1794. Notwithstanding this fresh treaty, it is confidently asserted that the Prussian monarch has entirely relinquished the war, having found full occupation for himself and his troops in endeavouring to suppress the insurrections in Poland, which we shall particularly notice in our narrative of the events of that unfortunate country.

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On the 12th of May, 1794, a message from his Majesty was brought down to the house by Mr. Secretary Dundas, in which he informs them that "the seditious practices which have been for some time carried on by certain societies in London, in correspondence with societies in different parts of the country, have lately been pursued with increased activity and boldness, and have been avowedly directed to the object of assembling a pretended general convention of the people, in contempt and defiance of the authority of parliament; that the books and papers of the said societies in London have been seized, which appearing to contain matter of the greatest importance to the public interest, were now laid before the house." An address to his majesty in consequence of the message was then voted, *nem. con.* and the papers were referred to a committee of secrecy, consisting of twenty-one members.

In consequence of the first report of the committee of secrecy, with respect to the plans which had been formed by these societies for holding a general convention of the people, and intimating their suspicions that large stands of arms had been collected by these societies in order to distribute them among the lower orders of the people, the chancellor of the exchequer moved "for leave for a bill to empower his majesty to secure and detain such persons as his majesty suspects are conspiring against his person and government." By this Bill the temporary suspension of the *Habeas Corpus* act is effected, which was carried, on the minister's motion, by a majority of 162.

On the 1st of June 1794, the British fleet under the command of admiral earl Howe obtained a most signal victory over that of the French; in which two ships were sunk, one burnt, and six brought into Portsmouth harbour. To this conquest we may add the previous reduction of the principal settlements of the French in the East Indies, and the capture of their West India islands, by which the most valuable commercial advantages have been gained, the commerce of the enemy destroyed in those parts, and these blessings enhanced by the amazing rapidity and little bloodshed with which they were accomplished.

Very different has been the fortune of the allied powers in the Austrian Netherlands; most of the principal towns having surrendered to the French, viz. Ypres, Bruges, Ghent, Ostend, Charleroi, Oudenarde, Marchiennes, and Mons. Yet, whatever may be the success of French arms, or the ascendancy of French principles on the continent, this happy island will ever set both at defiance, while she beholds, with conscious security, from her sea-girt shores, that propitious element on which, without the grossest mismanagement, a combination of physical and moral advantages must always enable her to triumph over her foreign enemies. An invasion of England cannot be successful, unless the French either obtain a superiority at sea (because, without this superiority, the Gallic torrent, however impetuous, must soon be exhausted, for want of communication with its source), or unless they are abated in their hostility by the Britons themselves; a supposition as inconsistent with the feelings and principles, as it is incompatible with the manly good sense which has long distinguished this nation. A revolution in government is always a tremendous experiment; because the act of revolution itself, which often endures through many bloody years, is terrible, and its consequences at best doubtful. But a revolution effected by the assistance of an ancient and imperishable enemy, exasperated by the remembrance of past, and the smart of recent wounds, is a calamity to which no people in their senses can be inclined voluntarily to submit: and still of all, those who inherit, from the virtue of their ancestors, those substantial and inalienable benefits, whose shadows the French have hitherto pursued in vain through oceans of blood.

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## GENEALOGICAL LIST OF THE ROYAL FAMILY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

George William Frederic III. born June 4, 1738; proclaimed king of Great Britain, France and Ireland, and elector of Hanover, October 26, 1760, and married, September 8, 1761, to the princess Sophia Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, born May 16, 1744, crowned September 22, 1761, and now have issue:

1. George Augustus Frederic, prince of Wales, born August 12, 1762.
  2. Prince Frederic, born August 16, 1763, elected bishop of Osnaburgh, February 27, 1764, created duke of York and Albany, November 7, 1784, K. G. and K. B. married, September 29, 1791, Frederica Charlotta Ulrica Catherina, princess royal of Prussia.
  3. Prince William Henry, born August 21, 1765, created duke of Clarence, K. G. and K. T.
  4. Charlotte Augusta Matilda, princess royal of England, born September 29, 1766.
  5. Prince Edward, born November 2, 1767.
  6. Princess Augusta Sophia, born November 8, 1768.
  7. Princess Elizabeth, born May 22, 1770.
  8. Prince Ernest Augustus, born June 5, 1771.
  9. Prince Frederic Augustus, born January 27, 1773.
  10. Prince Adolphus Frederic, born February 24, 1774.
  11. Princess Mary, born April 25, 1776.
  12. Princess Sophia, born November 3, 1777.
  13. Princess Amelia, born August 7, 1783.
- Issue of the late prince of Wales by the princess Augusta of Saxe Gotha, now living:

1. Her royal highness Augusta, born August 11, 1737; married the hereditary prince of Brunswick Lunenburg, January 16, 1764.
2. His present majesty.
3. Prince William Henry, duke of Gloucester, born November 25, 1743, married, September 6, 1776, Maria countess dowager of Waldegrave, by whom he has Sophia Matilda, born 1773; and William Frederic, born 1776.

## W A L E S.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet as it has distinction in language and manners, I have, in conformity with the common custom, aligned it a separate article.

## EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.	
Length	130	} between	{ 51 and 54	North latitude.
Breadth	96		{ 2.41 and 4.56	West longitude.

Area in square miles 7011.

NAME AND LANGUAGE.] The Welch, according to the best antiquaries, are descendants of the Belgic Gauls, who made a settlement in England about four-

score years before the first descent of Julius Cæsar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Wallis (the G and W being promiscuously used by the ancient Britons), that is, *Strangers*. Their language has a strong affinity with the Celtic or Phœnician, and is highly commended for its pathetic and descriptive powers.

**BOUNDARIES.]** Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at present, being bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themselves masters of all the plain country, the Welch, or ancient Britons, were obliged gradually to retreat westward. It does not, however, appear, that the Saxons ever made any farther conquests in their country than Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, which formerly belonged to Wales, but now form part of England. This country is divided into four circuits, comprehending twelve counties. See ENGLAND.

**CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.]** The seasons are pretty much the same as in the northern parts of England, and the air is sharp, but wholesome. The soil of Wales, especially towards the North, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. Wales contains many quarries of free-stone and slate, several mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well supplied with wholesome springs; and its chief rivers are the Clywd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Allen, which furnish Flintshire with great quantities of fish.

**MOUNTAINS.]** It would be endless to particularize the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Caernarvonshire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery, and partly in Cardiganhire, are the most famous; and their mountainous situation greatly assisted the natives in making so noble and long a struggle against the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman powers.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.]** In these particulars Wales differs little from England. Their horses are smaller, but can endure vast fatigue, and their black cattle are small likewise, but excellent beef, and their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of goats feed on the mountains. Some very promising mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron, have been discovered in Wales. The Welch silver may be known by its being stamped with the ostrich feathers, the badge of the prince of Wales.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.]** The inhabitants of Wales are supposed to amount to about 300,000, and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all the necessaries, and many of the conveniences of life. The land-tax of Wales brought in, some years ago, about forty-three thousand seven hundred and fifty-two pounds a year. The Welch are, if possible, more jealous of their liberties than the English, and far more irascible, but their anger soon abates; and they are remarkable for their sincerity and fidelity. They are very fond of carrying back their pedigrees to the most remote antiquity, but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuscripts, some of which they pretend to be coeval with the incarnation. It is however certain, that great part of their history, especially the ecclesiastical, is more ancient, and better attested, than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for its bards and poets, particularly Thaliessin, who lived about the year 450, and whose works were certainly extant at the time of the Reformation, and clearly evince, that Geoffrey Monmouth was not the inventor of the history which makes the present Welch the descendants of the ancient Trojans. This poetical genius seems to have inspired the ancient Welch with an enthusiasm for independency, on which account Edward I. is said to have made a general massacre of the bards. The Welch may be called an unmixed people, and are remarkable for keeping up  
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the ancient hospitality, and their strict adherence to ancient customs and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the stream of fashion. We are not, however, to imagine that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England. All the better sort of the Welch speak the English language, though numbers of them understand the Welch.

[RELIGION.] I have already mentioned the massacre of the Welch clergy by Augustine the popish apostle of England, because they would not conform to the Romish ritual. Wales, after that, fell under the dominion of petty princes, who were often weak and credulous. The Romish clergy insinuated themselves into their favour, by their pretended power of absolving from crimes; and the Welch, when their ancient clergy were extinct, conformed themselves to the religion of Rome. The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welch and English. Their poverty was formerly a great discouragement to religion and learning, but the measures taken by the society for propagating Christian knowledge has in a great degree removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer sort of the Welch. In the year 1749, a hundred and forty-two schoolmasters were employed, to remove from place to place, for the instruction of the inhabitants; and their scholars amounted to 72,264. No people have distinguished themselves more, perhaps, in proportion to their abilities, than the Welch have done by acts of national munificence. They print, at a vast expence, Bibles, Common Prayers, and other religious books, and distribute them gratis to the poorer sort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free-school.

The established religion in Wales is that of the church of England; but the common people in many places are so tenacious of their ancient customs, that they retain several of the Romish superstitions, and some ancient families among them are still Roman Catholics. In the principality there are also great numbers of Protestant Dissenters.

For BISHOPRICS, (see England). In former times, Wales contained more bishoprics than it does now; and about the period of the Norman invasion, the religious foundations there far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Wales was a seat of learning at a very early period; but it suffered an eclipse by the repeated massacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffism took shelter in Wales when it was persecuted in England. The Welch and Scotch dispute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrensis, whose history was published by Camden, was certainly a Welchman; and Leland mentions several learned men of the same country, who flourished before the Reformation. The discovery of the famous king Arthur's and his wife's burying-place was owing to some lines of Thaliessin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England, by a Welch bard. Since the Reformation, Wales has produced several excellent antiquaries and divines. Among the latter were Hugh Broughton, and Hugh Holland, who was a Roman Catholic, and is mentioned by Fuller in his Worthies. Among the former were several gentlemen of the name of Lluyd, particularly the author of that invaluable work the Archaeologia. Rowland, the learned author of the Mona Antiqua, was likewise a Welchman; as was that great statesman and prelate, the lord keeper Williams, archbishop of York in the time of king Charles I. After all, it appears, that the great merit of the Welch learning, in former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiquity, language, and history of their own country. Wales, notwithstanding all that Dr. Hicks, and other antiquaries, have said to the contrary, furnished the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly de-

monstrated by Mr. Lhuyd, in his Welch preface to his *Archæologia*, and is confirmed by various monumental inscriptions of undoubted authority (See Rowland's *Mona Antiqua*). Another instance of Welch erudition we have in the excellent history of Henry VIII. written by lord Herbert of Cherbury.

With regard to the present state of literature among the Welch, it is sufficient to say, that some of them make a considerable figure in the republic of letters, and that many of their clergy are excellent scholars. The Welch Paternoster is as follows:

*Ein Tad, yr hron wyf yn y nefoedd, sansteiddier dy entw; deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y dddear, megis y mae yn y nefoed: dyro in i heddyw ein bara beunyddiol; a madden i ni ein dyledion, fel y maddewon ni i'n dyledwyr; ac nas arwain ni i brofedigaeth, eithr gwared ni rhag drwg: canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant, yn eos egsodd. Amen.*

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER } Wales contains no cities or towns  
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } that are remarkable either for popu-  
lousness or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of Anglesey \*, and has a good harbour. Brecknock trades in cloathing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in the neighbourhood of lead and silver mines. Caerwarthen has a large bridge, and is governed by a mayor, two sheriffs, and aldermen, who wear scarlet gowns, and other ensigns of state. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradesmen; and part of the country is so fertile and pleasant, that it is called Little England. The other towns of Wales have nothing particular. It is proper, however, to observe, that Wales, in ancient times, was a far more populous and wealthy country than it is at present; and though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old castles are so strongly built, and so well situated, that they might be turned into strong forts at a small expence: witness the vigorous defence which many of them made in the civil wars, between Charles I. and his parliament.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Wales abounds in remains of antiquity.  
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Several of its castles are stupendously large; and in some, the remains of Roman architecture are plainly discernible. The architecture of others is doubtful; and some appear to be partly British, and partly Roman. In Brecknockshire are some rude sculptures, upon a stone six feet high, called the Maiden-Stone; but the remains of the Druidical institutions, and places of worship, are chiefly discernible in the isle of Anglesey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who describes it as being the chief seminary of the Druidical rites and religion. Many Roman altars, utensils, and other antiquities, are discovered in Wales. King Offa's dyke is said to have been a boundary between the Saxons, and the Welch or Britons. Cherphilly-castle, in Glamorganshire, is said to have been the largest in Great Britain, excepting Windsor; and the remains of it shew it to have been a most beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other overhangs its basis more than nine feet, and is as great a curiosity as the leaning tower of Pisa in Italy.

Near the town of Flint are the remains of a large castle, in which Richard II. was confined, some time before his deposition; and a variety of Roman antiquities have been found in this town, which is supposed to have been a Roman station.

Some coins of Welch princes are said to be found in the cabinets of the curious;

\* The Isle of Anglesey, which is the most western county of North Wales, is surrounded on all sides by the Irish sea, except on the south-east, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow strait,

called Meneu, which in some places may be passed on foot at low water: the island is about 24 miles long, and 18 broad, and contains 74 parishes. It was the ancient seat of the British Druids.

but

but it does not seem that they have been serviceable in ascertaining the ancient history of the country.

Among the natural curiosities of this country, are the following. At a small village called Newton, in Glamorganthire, is a remarkable spring nigh the sea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the tide. Kader Idris, a mountain in Merionethshire, remarkable for its height, affords variety of Alpine plants. In Flintshire is a famous well, known by the name of St. Wenefred's well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. The spring boils with vast impetuosity out of a rock, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch supported by pillars, and the roof is exquisitely carved in stone. Over the spring is also a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous state. King James II. paid a visit to the well of St. Wenefred in 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a present of the shift in which his great-grandmother, Mary Stuart, lost her head. The spring is supposed to be one of the finest in the British dominions; and by two different trials and calculations lately made, is found to throw out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, and varies but little in its quantity of water, either in dry or rainy seasons; but in consequence of the latter, it assumes a wheyish tinge. The small town adjoining to the well is known by the name of Holywell. In Caernarvonshire is the high mountain of Penmannawr, across the edge of which the public road lies, and occasions no small terror to travellers; from one hand the impending rock seems ready every minute to crush them to pieces, and the great precipice below, which hangs over the sea, is so hideous, and, till very lately, when a wall was raised on the side of the road, so full of danger, that one false step was of dismal consequence. Snowdon hill is by triangulation measurement 1240 yards perpendicular height.

There are a great many pleasing prospects and picturesque views in Wales; and this country is highly worthy the attention of the curious traveller.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welch are on a footing, as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the western and northern counties of England. Their trade is mostly inland, or with England, into which they send numbers of black cattle. Milford-haven, which is reckoned the finest in Europe, lies in Pembrokehire; but the Welch have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late considerable sums have been granted by parliament for its fortification. The making it the principal harbour of the kingdom would meet with strong opposition from the numerous Cornish and West-country members, whose estates would be lessened in value by the disuse of Plymouth and Portsmouth, and other harbours. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ships, and its inhabitants carry on an extensive trade. In Brecknockthire the woollen manufacture flourishes; and Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England and Ireland.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united, and incorporated with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the English form; all laws, customs, and tenures, contrary to those of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the English liberties and privileges, particularly that of sending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every shire, and a burges for every three-town, except Merioneth. By the 34th and 35th of the same reign, there were ordained four several circuits for the administration of justice in the said shires, each of which was to include three shires; so that the chief justice of Chester has under his jurisdiction the three several shires of Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery. The shires of Caernarvon, Merioneth, and Anglesey, are under the justices of North Wales. Those of Caermarthen, Pembrokehire, and Cardigan, have also their justices; as have likewise those of Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorgan. By the 18th

of queen Elizabeth, one other justice-assistant was ordained to the former justices, so that now every one of the said four circuits has two justices, viz. one chief-justice, and a second justice assistant.

REVENUES.] The crown has a certain though small property, in the product of the silver and lead-mines; but it is said that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales from his principality does not exceed 7 or 8000*l.* a year.

ARMS.] The arms of the prince of Wales differ from those of England, only by the addition of a label of three points. His cap, or badge of ostrich feathers, originated in a trophy of that kind, which Edward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poitiers, and the motto is *Ich dien, I serve*. St. David, commonly called St. Tally, is the tutelar saint of the Welch, and his badge is a leek, which is worn on his day, the 1st of March.

HISTORY.] The ancient history of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were sovereign and independent, appears from the English history. It was formerly inhabited by the three different tribes of Britons; the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. These people were never entirely subdued by the Romans; though part of their country, as appears from the ruins of castles, was bridled by garrisons. It hath been already observed, that the Saxons conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, yet they never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three sons; and the names of these divisions were, Dimetia, or South Wales; Powesia, or Powis-land; and Venedotia, or North Wales. This division gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to serve as a barrier to England. The Welch made many brave attempts to maintain their liberties against the Norman kings of England. In 1237, the crown of England was first supplied with a pretext for the total subjugation of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewelin, in order to be safe from the persecutions of his undutiful son Griflyn, having put himself under the protection of King Henry III. to whom he did homage.

But no capitulation could satisfy the ambition of Edward I. who resolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewelin, prince of Wales, disclaiming the subjection to which old Llewelin had submitted, Edward raised an army at great expence, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking possession of the isle of Anglesey, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to submit to pay tribute. The Welch, however, made several efforts under young Llewelin; but, at last, in 1285, that brave prince was killed in battle. He was succeeded by his brother David, the last independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him most barbarously and unjustly hanged; and Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time probably that Edward perpetrated the inhuman massacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not sufficient to complete his conquest, he sent his queen in the year 1282, to be delivered in Caernarvon castle, that the Welch, having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognize his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales ever since descended to the eldest sons of the English kings. The history of Wales and England became from this period the same. It is proper, however, to observe, that the kings of England long thought fit to shew particular marks of attention to the Welch. Their eldest sons not only held the titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a president, was named by the crown, for the administration

of all the affairs of the principality. This was thought so necessary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no son, his daughter Mary was created princess of Wales.

## ISLE OF MAN.

**T**HE Mona mentioned by Tacitus was not this island but the isle of Anglesea. Some think that Man takes its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among), because, lying in St. George's Channel, it is almost at an equal distance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; but Mona seems to have been a general name with the ancients for any detached island. Its length from north to south is rather more than thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the island is fifty-four degrees sixteen minutes north. It is said, that on a clear day the three Britanic kingdoms may be seen from this island. The air here is wholesome, and the climate, only making allowance for the situation, pretty much the same as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other respects. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulse. The ridge of mountains, which, as it were, divides the island, of which Snaifell is the highest, rising 1640 feet above the level of the sea, both protects and fertilizes the valleys, where there is good pasturage. The better sort of inhabitants have good sizeable horses, and a small kind, which is swift and hardy. The island is exempt from noxious animals. The coasts abound with sea-fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit-holes, are almost a lump of fat, and esteemed very delicious. It is said, that this island abounds with iron, lead, and copper mines, though unwrought; as are the quarries of marble, slate, and stone.

The Isle of Man contains seventeen parishes, and four towns on the sea-coasts. Castle-town is the metropolis of the island, and the seat of its government; Peele, of late years, begins to flourish; Douglas is the largest and richest town and best market, in consequence of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the sea; Ramsey has likewise a considerable commerce, being situate on a spacious bay, in which ships may ride safe from all winds except the north-east. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may see how conveniently this island lies for being the storehouse of smugglers, which it was till within these few years, to the inexpressible prejudice of his majesty's revenue; and this necessarily leads us to touch upon the history of the island.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the seas, who have been before mentioned, this island was their rendezvous, and their chief force was here collected; from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great Britain, and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in history; and though we have no regular account of their successions, and know but a few of their names, yet they undoubtedly were for some ages masters of those seas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, a spirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the superiority of Man, and obliged Owen, or John, its king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. It seems to have continued tributary to the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I. and the kings of England, from that time, exercised the superiority over the island; though we find its immediate government still held by the posterity of its Danish princes in the reign of Edward III. who dispossessed the last queen of the island, and bestowed it on his favourite, Montague, earl

earl of Salisbury. The earl's family-honours and estate being forfeited, Henry IV. bestowed Man, and the patronage of the bishoprick, first upon the Northumberland family; and that being forfeited, upon sir John Stanley, whose posterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the sister of the last lord Derby. Reasons of state rendered it necessary for the crown of Great Britain to purchase the customs and the island from the Athol family; and the bargain was completed by 70,000*l.* being paid to the duke in 1765. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the island, though the form of its government is altered, and the king has now the same rights, powers, and prerogatives, as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants also retain many of their ancient constitutions and customs.

The established religion in Man is that of the church of England. The bishop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the spiritual rights and pre-eminences of other bishops, but does not sit in the British house of peers; his see never having been erected into an English barony. One of the most excellent prelates who ever adorned the episcopal character, was Dr. Thomas Wilson, bishop of Man, who presided over that diocese upwards of fifty-seven years, and died in the year 1755, aged ninety-three. He was eminently distinguished for piety, benevolence, and hospitality, and his unremitting attention to the happiness of the people entrusted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, established schools for the instruction of children, translated some of his devotional pieces into the Manks language, to render them more generally useful, and founded parochial libraries in every parish of his diocese. Cardinal Fleury had so much veneration for this good bishop, that, out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation should ravage the Isle of Man.

The ecclesiastical government is well maintained in this island, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is spoken by the common people, is radically Erse, or Irish, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Testament and Common Prayer Book have been translated into this dialect. The natives, who amount to above 20,000, are inoffensive, charitable, and hospitable. The better sort live in stone houses, covered with slate, and the poorer in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation consist of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign shipping for commodities they may have occasion for from other parts. Before the south promontory of Man, is a little island called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and separated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This island affords some curiosities, consisting chiefly of Runic sepulchral inscriptions and monuments, of ancient brass daggers, and other weapons of that metal, adorned with pure gold, which indicates the splendor of its ancient possessors.

## I S L E O F W I G H T.

**T**HIS island is opposite to the coast of Hampshire, from which it is separated by a channel, varying in breadth from two to seven miles: it is considered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the diocese of Winchester. Its greatest length, extending from east to west, measures nearly twenty-three miles; its breadth from north to south about thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly the southern parts; the soil is various, but so great is its

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its fertility, that more wheat grows here in one year, than can be consumed by the inhabitants in eight: and it is supposed that its present produce, under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increase of population. A range of hills, which affords fine pasture for sheep, extends from east to west, through the middle of the island. The interior parts of the island, as well as its extremities, afford a great number of beautiful and picturesque prospects, not only in the pastoral, but also in the great and romantic style. Of these beauties, the gentlemen of the island have availed themselves, as well in the situation of their houses, as in their other improvements. Domestic fowls and poultry are bred here in great numbers; the outward-bound ships and vessels at Spithead, the Mother-bank, and Cowes, commonly furnishing themselves from this island.

Such is the purity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the beauty and variety of the landscapes of this island, that it has been called the garden of England; it has some very fine gentlemen's seats; and it is often visited by parties of pleasure on account of its delightful scenes.

The island is divided into thirty parishes: and, according to a very accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to eighteen thousand and twenty-four, exclusive of the troops quartered there. Most of the farm-houses are built with stone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each its little garden.

The town of Newport stands nearly in the centre of the island, of which it may be considered as the capital. The river Medina empties itself into the channel at Cowes harbour, distant about five miles, and, being navigable up to the quay, is very commodious for trade. The three principal streets of Newport extend from east to west, and are crossed at right angles by three others, all which are spacious, clean, and well paved.

Carilbrooke castle, in the Isle of Wight, is remarkable for the confinement of king Charles I. who, taking refuge here, was detained a prisoner from November 1647, to September 1648. After the murder of the king, this castle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, died in it. There are several other forts in this island, which were all erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII. when many other forts and block-houses were built in different parts of the coasts of England.

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#### THE ISLANDS OF JERSEY, GUERNSEY, ALDERNEY, SARK, LUNDY, &c.

IN the English Channel four of these are situated, and are subject to England: these are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark; which, though much nearer to the coast of Normandy than to that of England, are within the diocese of Winchester. They lie in a cluster in Mount St. Michael's Bay, between Cape la Hague in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Britany. The computed distance between Jersey and Sark is four leagues: between that and Guernsey, seven leagues; and between the same and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans; and lies farthest within the bay, in forty-nine degrees seven minutes north latitude, and in the second degree twenty-six minutes west longitude, eighteen miles west of Normandy, and eighty-four miles south of Portland. The north side is inaccessible through

lofty cliffs, the south is almost level with the water; the higher land, in its mid-land part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cyder. The vallies are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and sheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cyder, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of stockings. The honey in Jersey is remarkably fine; and the island is well supplied with fish and wild-fowl of many kinds, some of them peculiar to the island, and very delicious.

The island is not above twelve miles in length; but the air is so salubrious, that, in Camden's time, it was said there was here no business for a physician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided into twelve parishes. The capital town is St. Helier, or Hilary, which contains above 400 houses, has a good harbour and castle, and makes a handsome appearance. The property of this island belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal interest, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the British dominions dared to countenance him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which most of them intermingle English words; yet French is most generally the language of the pulpit and the bar. Knit stockings and caps form their staple commodity; but they carry on a considerable trade in fish with Newfoundland, and dispose of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil administration rests with a bailiff, assisted by twelve jurats. As this island is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preserves the old feudal forms, and particularly the assembly of states, which forms a miniature of the British parliament, as settled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is thirteen miles and a half from south-west to north-east, and twelve and a half where broadest, east and west; has only ten parishes, to which there are but eight ministers: four being united parishes; and Alderney and Sark, though appendages of Guernsey, forming each a separate parish with its appropriate minister. Though this is naturally a finer island than that of Jersey, yet it is far less valuable, being poorly cultivated and thinly inhabited. It abounds in cyder; the inhabitants speak French: want of firing is the greatest inconveniency that both islands labour under. The only harbour here is at St. Peter la Port, which is guarded by two forts; one called the Old-Castle, and the other Caille Cornet. Guernsey is likewise part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compass, and is by much the nearest of all these islands to Normandy, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous passage in stormy weather, when the two currents meet; otherwise it is safe, and has depth of water for the largest ships. To the west lie a range of rocks for near three leagues together, called the Calkets; among which are several whirlpools or eddies, very dreadful to mariners. The sons of King Henry I. were cast away and drowned here, passing to Normandy; and it is fresh in memory how fatal this strait proved to the Victory man of war, commanded by admiral Blachen. This island is healthy, and the soil is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a small island depending upon Guernsey; the inhabitants are long-lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniences of life; their number is about 300. The inhabitants of the three last-mentioned islands together are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four islands is that of the church of England.

SCILLY ISLANDS and ROCKS, anciently called the SILURES, are a cluster of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about 30 miles from the Land's

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End in Cornwall, of which county they are reckoned a part, and to which they are supposed to have been formerly joined, but separated from it and from each other, by some violent eruption of the sea, which is here between 40 and 60 fathoms deep. *Scilly*, which gives name to all the rest, was once the chief; but *St. Mary's Island*, though only nine miles in circumference, is the largest, as well as the most fruitful, contains more inhabitants than all the rest together, and has a very good harbour, fortified with a castle, which was built by queen Elizabeth. In this, and in two or three others of the largest islands, there are various antiquities, particularly the remains of a temple of the Druids, and ancient sepulchres. But the greatest ornament of this island is the light-house, in height 51 feet. Its six lights are eleven feet three inches high, by three feet two inches broad; it stands on high land, and makes a very fine appearance. By their situation, between the English Channel and *St. George's Channel*, these rocks have been the destruction of many ships and lives, especially in the night time. This was the fate of the brave *sir Cloudesley Shovel's* Squadron, 22d October 1707, as it was returning home from *Toulon*. This, and similar disasters, have been ascribed to a mistake of reckoning, but are found by the most excellent geographer, *Mr. Rennel*, to be owing to a current which often prevails to the westward of *Scilly*, and to which seamen ought to be particularly attentive, after hard and continued gales from the western quarter. (See the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1793.)

**LUNDY ISLAND**, though fifty miles in the sea, off the north-west coast of Devonshire, has springs of fresh water. It is five miles long, and two broad, but so encompassed with inaccessible rocks, that it has but one entrance to it, so narrow that two men can scarcely go abreast: it had once a fort and chapel. On the north part is a high pyramidal rock, called the *Constable*. Here are horses, kine, hogs, and goats, with great store of sheep and rabbits; but their chief commodity is fowl, with which they abound. In the reign of *Henry VIII.* one *William Morisco*, who had conspired to murder him at *Woodstock*, fled to this island, which he fortified, turned pirate, and did much damage to this coast, till he was at length taken by surprise, with sixteen of his accomplices, and put to death.

**HOLY ISLAND** is situated ten miles south-east of *Berwick-upon-Tweed*; and called by the monks, who lived in it retired from the world, by the name of *Landisfern*, by reason of its situation over against the river *Landis*. It was anciently a bishop's see, and had twenty-two bishops successively. It has plenty of fish and fowl, but the air and soil are bad. It is three miles in compass, and has a town, a church, and castle, under which is a commodious harbour. It is encompassed with water at every flood, but sand at ebb. It lies not above a mile and a half from the land; from whence, at low water, people ride over to it.

## I R E L A N D.

## SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.

THE island of Ireland is situated on the west side of England, between 6 and 10 degrees west longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth climate, where the longest day is 16½ hours, and the 24th parallel, or the end of the 10th climate, where the longest day is 17½ hours.

The extent or superficial content of this kingdom, is, from the nearest computation and survey, found to be in length 285 miles, from Fairhead north to Mifsenhead south; and from the East part of Down to the West part of Mayo, its greatest breadth 160 miles; containing 11,067,712 Irish plantation acres, which makes 17,927,864 acres of English statute measure, and bearing proportion to England and Wales as 18 to 30. Mr. Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth 159 miles, gives it an area of 27,457 square miles, with 127 inhabitants to each. From the east part of Wexford to St. David's in Wales, it is reckoned 45 miles, but the passage between Donaghadee and Portpatrick in Scotland is little more than 20 miles, and the passage from Holyhead in North Wales about 52 miles.

NAMES AND DIVISIONS. } Many conjectures have been formed as to the Latin  
ANCIENT AND MODERN. } (Hibernia) the Irish (Eria) as well as the English name  
of this island. It probably takes its rise from a Phœnician or Gaelic term, signifying the farthest habitation westward.

It is pretty extraordinary, that even modern authors are not agreed as to the divisions of Ireland; some dividing it into five circuits, and some into four provinces, those of Leinster, Ulster, Connaught, and Munster. The last division is the most common, and likewise the most ancient. We shall therefore, in the first place, give this, and then subjoin the other distribution into Circuits.

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
Leinster, 12 counties.	Dublin	Dublin
	Louth	Drogheda
	Wicklow	Wicklow
	Wexford	Wexford
	Longford	Longford
	East Meath	Trim
	West Meath	Mullingar
	King's County	Phillipstown
	Queen's County	Maryborough
	Kilkenny	Kilkenny
	Kildare	Naas and Athy
	Carlow	Carlow
Ulster, 9 counties.	Down	Down Patrick
	Armagh	Armagh
	Monaghan	Monaghan
	Cavan	Cavan
	Antrim	Carrickfergus
	Londonderry	Derry
	Tyrone	Omagh
	Fermanagh	Enniskillen
	Donegall	Lifford
Connaught, 5 counties.	Leitrim	Carrick on Shannon
	Roscommon	Roscommon
	Mayo	Ballinrobe and Castlebar
	Sligo	Sligo
	Galway	Galway
Munster, 6 counties.	Clare	Ennis
	Cork	Cork
	Kerry	Tralee
	Limerick	Limerick
	Tipperary	Clonmel
Waterford	Waterford	

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But for the convenience of administering justice, the circuits are laid out in the *five* following allotments:

Leinster Circuit, 7 Counties	{ Kildare Wicklow Wexford Carlow Kilkenny King's County Queen's County Waterford Tipperary
Munster Circuit, 6 Counties	{ Cork Kerry Limerick Clare in the province of Connaught.
Ulster North-west Circuit, 7 Counties	{ West Meath } in the province of Leinster Longford } Cavan Fermanagh Tyrone Donegal Londonderry
Ulster North-East Circuit, 6 Counties	{ Meath, or East Meath } in the province of Leinster Louth } Down } Armagh Monaghan Antrim
Connaught Circuit, 5 counties	{ Roscommon Leitrim Sligo Mayo Galway.

Dublin county, and the county of the city of Dublin, are two separate jurisdictions, and the laws in both are administered under special commissions, or at quarter sessions; the former at Kilmainham, and the latter in the court of king's bench in the said city.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Ireland differs not much from that of England, except that it is more moist. From the reports of various registers it appears, that the number of days on which rain had fallen in Ireland, was much greater than in the same years in England. But without the evidence of registers, it is certain, that moisture (even without rain) is not only more characteristic of the climate of this island than of that of England, but is also one of its worst and most inconvenient qualities. This is accounted for by observing, that "the westerly winds, so favourable to other regions, and so benign even in this, by qualifying the rigour of the northern air, are yet hurtful in the extreme. Meeting with no lands on this side of America to break their force, and proving in the general too powerful for the counteraction of the shifting winds, from the eastern and African continents, they wait hither the vapours of an immense ocean. By this cause, the sky in Ireland is much obscured; and, from the nature of rest and condensation,

denfation, thefe vapours defcend in fuch conftant rains, as threaten deftruction to the fruits of the earth in fome feafons. This unavoidable evil from natural caufes is aggravated by the increafe of it from others, which are either moral or political. The hand of induftry hath been long feebly exerted in a country, where almoft every advantage muft be obtained from its labour, and where difcouragements to the labourer muft neceffarily produce a ftate of languor. Ever fince the neglect of agriculture in the ninth century, the rains of fo many ages, fubfiding on the lower grounds, have converted moft of the extenfive plains into mofly morafles, and near a tenth part of this beautiful ifle is become a repository for ftagnated waters, which, in the courfe of evaporation, impregnate the air with noxious exhalations.\* But, in other refpects, the climate of Ireland is more agreeable than that of England; the fummers being cooler, and the winters lefs fevere. The piercing frofts, the deep fnows, and the dreadful effects of thunder and lightning, which are fo frequently obferved in the latter kingdom, are never experienced here.

The dampnefs above alluded to, being peculiarly favourable to the growth of grafs, has been ufed as an argument why the inhabitants fhould confine their attention to the rearing of cattle, to the total defertion of tillage, and confequent injury to the growth of population; but the foil is fo infinitely various, as to be capable of almoft every fpecies of cultivation fuitable to fuch latitudes, with a fertility equal to its variety. This is fo confpicuous, that it has been obferved by an Englifh traveller, that "natural fertility, acre for acre, over the two kingdoms, " is certainly in favour of Ireland; of this I believe there can fcarcely be a doubt " entertained, when it is confidered that fome of the more beautiful, and even beft " cultivated counties in England owe almoft every thing to the capital art and induftry of its inhabitants."

We fhall conclude this article with the further sentiments of the fame author, (Mr. Young) whofe knowledge of the fubject, and candour in this refpect, are unimpeachable.

"The circumftance which ftrikes me as the greateft fingularity of Ireland, is the rockinefs of the foil, which fhould feem at firft fight againft that degree of fertility; but the contrary is the fact. Stone is fo general, that I have great reafon to believe the whole ifland is one vaft rock of different ftrata and kinds rifing out of the fea. I have rarely heard of any great depths being funk without meeting with it. In general it appears on the furface in every part of the kingdom; the flattest and moft fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath, have it at no great depth, almoft as much as the more barren ones. May we not recognise in this the hand of bounteous providence, which has given, perhaps, the moft ftony foil in Europe to the moifteft climate in it? If as much rain fell upon the clays in England, (a foil very rarely met with in Ireland, and never without much ftone) as falls upon the rocks of her fifter ifland, thofe lands could not be cultivated. But the rocks here are clothed with verdure; thofe of lime-ftone, with only a thin covering of mould, have the foftest and moft beautiful turf imaginable.

"The rockinefs of the foil in Ireland is fo univerfal, that it predominates in every fort. One cannot ufe with propriety the terms, clay, loam, fand, &c. it muft be a ftony clay, a ftony loam, a gravelly fand. Clay, efpecially the yellow, is much talked of in Ireland, but it is for want of proper difcrimination. I have once or twice feen almoft a pure clay upon the furface, but it is extremely rare. The true yellow clay is ufually found in a thin ftratum, under the furface mould, and over a rock; harfh, tenacious, ftony, ftrong loams, difficult to work, are not uncommon, but they are quite different from Englifh clays.

\* O'Connot's Difertations.

" Friable

" Friable sandy loams, dry, but fertile, are very common, and they form the best soils in the kingdom for tillage and sheep. Tipperary and Roscommon abound particularly in them. The most fertile of all are the bullock-pastures of Limerick, and the banks of the Shannon in Clare, called the Corcaffes. These are a mellow, putrid, friable loam.

" Sand, which is so common in England, and yet more common through France, Germany, and Poland, quite from Gibraltar to Peterburgh, is no where met with in Ireland, except in narrow slips of hillocks, upon the sea-coast. Nor did I ever meet with, or hear of, a chalky soil.

" Besides the great fertility of the soil, there are other circumstances, which come within my sphere to mention. Few countries can be better watered by large and beautiful rivers; and it is remarkable that by much the finest parts of the kingdom are on the banks of these rivers. Witness the Suir, the Blackwater, the Liffey, the Boyne, the Nore, the Barrow, and part of the Shannon. They wash a scenery that can hardly be exceeded. From the rockiness of the country, however, there are few of them that have not obstructions, which are great impediments to inland navigation.

" The mountains of Ireland give to travelling that interesting variety, which a flat country can never abound with. And, at the same time, they are not in such number as to confer the usual character of poverty which attends them. I was either upon or very near the most considerable in the kingdom. Mangerton and the Keeks, in Kerry; the Galties in Cork; those of Mourne in Down; Crow Patrick and Nephin, in Mayo; these are the principal in Ireland, and they are of a character in height and sublimity, which should render them the object of every traveller's attention."

Pasturage, tillage, and meadow ground abound in this kingdom; but of late tillage was too much discountenanced, though the ground is excellent for the culture of all grains; and in some of the northern parts of the kingdom abundance of hemp and flax are raised, a cultivation of infinite advantage to the linen manufacture. Ireland rears vast numbers of black cattle and sheep, and the wool is excellent. Prodigious supplies of butter and salt provisions (fish excepted) are shipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world.

The bogs of Ireland are very extensive: that of Allen extends 80 miles, and is computed to contain 300,000 acres. There are others of nearly equal magnitude, and smaller ones scattered over the whole kingdom, the pearls of which are very useful for fuel.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, } The numerous rivers, enchanting lakes, spacious  
AND LAKES. } bays, commodious havens, harbours, and creeks, with which Ireland abounds, greatly enrich and beautify this country. The Shannon issues from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, serves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and after a course of 150 miles, forming in its progress many beautiful lakes, it falls into the Atlantic Ocean, between Kerry-point and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of rocks spreading quite across it, south of Killaloe; but this might be remedied by a short canal, at the expence of 10 or 12,000*l.* and communications might also be made with other rivers, to the great benefit of the nation. The Ban falls into the ocean near Coleraine, the Boyne falls into St. George's Channel at Drogheda, as does the Liffey at the bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a spacious harbour. The Barrow, the Nore, and the Suir, water the south part of the kingdom, and, after uniting their streams below Ross, they fall into the channel at Waterford Haven.

But the bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coast, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country peculiarly well fitted for foreign

foreign commerce. The most considerable are those of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvan, Cork, Kinsale, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kenmare, Dingle, Shannon-mouth, Galway, Sligo, Donegall, Killebegs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Foyle.

Ireland contains a vast number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulster and Connaught. Many of them produce large quantities of fine fish; and the great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. Some of the Irish lakes afford the most beautiful and romantic prospects, particularly that of Killarney, which takes its name from a small town in the county of Kerry. This lake, which may be divided into three, is entirely surrounded with mountains, rocks, and precipices, the immense declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with evergreens, from near their tops to the lakes themselves; among which are a number of rivulets tumbling over the precipices, some from heights of little less than 300 feet. On the top of one of the surrounding mountains is a round lake of about a quarter of a mile in diameter, called the Devil's Punch Bowl. From the surface of the lake to the top of the cavity, or brim of the bowl, may be about 300 yards, and when viewed from the circular top, the broad expanse of water below exhibits a very romantic appearance. The depth of it is great, but not unfashionable as the natives pretend. The discharge of the superfluous waters of this bowl, through a chasm into the middle lake, forms a fine cascade, near 150 yards in height. The echoes amongst the hills surrounding the southern part of the lake, which is mostly inclosed, are equally delightful and astonishing. The proprietor, the earl of Kenmore, has placed some cannon in the most proper places, the discharge of which is at first tremendous, but which gradually dies away among the distant mountains. Here also musical instruments, especially the French horn and trumpet, afford the most delightful entertainment, and raise a concert superior to that of a hundred performers. Among the vast and craggy heights that surround the lake, is one stupendous and frightful rock, the front of which towards the water is a most horrid precipice, called the *Eagle's nest*, from the number of those birds which have their nests in that place. Though these loughs, in the main, have but few properties that are not in common with the like bodies of water in other countries, yet they have given rise to many traditionary fables among the natives, which disfigure and disgrace their true history; and even modern geographers have been more copious on that head than the nature of their subject required. The Irish are so fond of loughs, that, like the Scots, they often give that term to inlets of the sea.

[ISLAND NAVIGATION.] The inland navigation of Ireland is very improvable, as appears from the canals that have lately been cut through different parts of the kingdom; one in particular reaching an extent of 60 miles, between the Shannon and the Liffey at Dublin, which opens a communication from the Channel to the Atlantic Ocean. In surveying the grounds for this canal, it was found necessary to carry it through a bog 24 miles over, which, from the spongy nature of that soil, became a work of incredible labour and expence, in strengthening the sides, and other works, to prevent falling in.

[MOUNTAINS.] The Irish language has been more happy in distinguishing the size of mountains than perhaps any other. A *knock* signifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; *neve* marks a craggy high mountain, gradually ascending and continued in several ridges; a *bienn*, or *binn*, signifies a pinnacle, or mountain of the first magnitude, ending in a sharp or abrupt precipice. The two last are often seen and compounded together in one and the same range. Ireland however, when compared with some other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, in the county of Down, are reckoned among

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among some of the highest in the kingdom; of which Slieu-Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland, some of which contain in their bowels beds of minerals, coals, stone, slate and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

**FORESTS.**) The chief forests in Ireland lie in Leinster, the King's and Queen's counties, and those of Wexford and Carlow. In Ulster there are great forests, and in the county of Donegall, and in the north part of Tyrone; also in the county of Fermanagh, along Lough Erne, and in the north part of the county of Down, wherein is some good timber.

**METALS AND MINERALS.**) The mines of Ireland are late discoveries. Several contain silver and lead, and it is said that thirty pounds of their lead-ore produce a pound of silver; but the richest silver mine is at Wicklow. A copper and lead-mine have been discovered at Tipperary; as likewise iron-ore, and excellent free-stone for building. In one part of the kingdom is a stream of water, very much impregnated with copper, which yields great quantities of that metal. The method taken to obtain it, is by putting broad plates of iron into a place where the water falls from some height, so that they may receive the whole power of the falling water. The acid, which holds the copper in solution, lets it fall in order to dissolve the iron, to which it has a stronger affinity. On the iron the other metal appears in its proper form incrusting the plate, and gradually penetrating it; so that at last a plate of copper is left instead of iron. Hence it is said by the vulgar, that this water has a power of changing iron into copper; but this is a mistake, for the iron is all dissolved and carried down the stream by the acid, which formerly held the copper in solution, while the latter, deprived of its solvent, which then rendered it invisible, only makes its appearance when the water lets it fall. Some of the Irish marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red striped with white. Quarries of fine slate are found in most of the counties. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little smoke; and it contains a crystalline stream which has no sediment. Those peculiarities, with the serenity of the air in that place, have given rise to the well-known proverb, That Kilkenny contains fire without smoke, water without mud, and air without fog.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.** } There is little that falls under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being much the same with those of England and Scotland. Ireland affords excellent turf and moss, which are of vast service for firing, where wood and coals are scarce. A few wolves were formerly found in Ireland; but they have been long since exterminated by their wolf-dogs, which are much larger than mastiffs, shaped like greyhounds, yet as gentle and governable as spaniels. What I have already observed about the Irish exportation of salt provisions, sufficiently evinces the prodigious number of hogs and sheep, as well as black cattle, bred in that kingdom. Rabbits are said to be more plentiful there than in England. The fishes on the Irish coast are said to be more plentiful than on the English; some of them larger and more excellent in their kind.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.** ) At the commencement of the present century, the numbers in Ireland were thought to be about two millions; whereas, in 1072, there were, according to Sir William Petty, no more than 1,100,000. But from the accounts laid before the House of commons in 1786, (as returned by the hearth-money collectors) the number of houses in Ireland amounted to 474,234. Now, adding to that the increase of people, and also the numbers intentionally or unavoidably overlooked in such returns, we may reasonably conclude that the present actual amount is 500,000.

We are next to consider what average number of persons we should allow to each house. In the peasants' cottages in Ireland (perhaps the most populous in the world)

world) Mr. Young in some parts found the average 6 and  $6\frac{1}{2}$ ; others have found it in different places to be 7; and Dr. Hamilton, in his account of the island of Raghery, enumerates the houses, and discovered the average therein to be 8. In the cities and principal towns, the houses, particularly in the manufacturing parts, generally contain several families; and from different accounts, the numbers in such are from ten, up so high as seventy\*. The averages, however, of different writers on the population of cities, vary between 10 and 13.

From such data then, it will not perhaps be erroneous, if we fix the average for the whole island, at eight persons to each house; which, multiplied by the number of houses, makes the population of Ireland amount to four millions.

As to the manners of the ancient Irish, Dr. Leland observes, that if we make our inquiries on this subject from English writers, we find their representations odious and disgusting: if from writers of their own race, they frequently break out into the most animated encomiums of their great ancestors. The one can scarcely allow them any virtue: the other, in their enthusiastic ardour, can scarcely discover the least imperfection in their laws, government, or manners. The historian of England sometimes regards them as the most detestable and contemptible of the human race. The antiquary of Ireland raises them to an illustrious eminence, above all other European countries. Yet, when we examine their records, without regard to legendary tales or poetic fiction, we find them, even in their most brilliant periods, advanced only to an imperfect civilization; a state which exhibits the most striking instances both of the virtues and the vices of humanity.

With respect to the present descendants of the old Irish, or, as they are termed by the protestants, the *mere Irish*, they are generally represented as an ignorant, uncivilized, and blundering sort of people. Impatient of abuse and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections; but quick of apprehension, courteous to strangers, and patient of hardships. Though in these respects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neighbours, yet their barbarisms are more easy to be accounted for from accidental than natural causes. By far the greatest number of them are Papists, and it is the interest of their priests, who govern them with an absolute sway, to keep them in profound ignorance. They have also laboured under many discouragements, which in their own country have prevented the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the service of foreign princes, they have been distinguished for courage and fidelity. Many of their surnames have an *O*, or *Mac*, placed before them, which signify grandson and son: formerly the *O* was used by their chiefs only, or such as piqued themselves upon the antiquity of their families. Their music is the bag-pipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy strain; though some of the latest airs are lively, and, when sung by an Irishman, extremely diverting. The old Irish is generally spoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where some of the ancient uncouth customs still prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; which custom may be traced in many countries of the continent. Their practice of placing a dead corpse before their doors, laid out upon tables, having a plate upon the body to excite the charity of passengers, is practised even in the parts of Dublin, though one would wish to see it abolished. Their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more often quarrelling among themselves, is offensive to every stranger. But, as we have already observed, these usages are chiefly confined to the more unpolished provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught; the common people there having the least sense of law and government of any in Ireland, while their tyrannical landlords or lease-

\* Dr. Tisdal enumerated the inhabitants of two parishes in Dublin in 1731, and averaged the number in each house at  $12\frac{1}{2}$ . The numbers varied from 10 to 70.

holders squeeze the poor without mercy. The common Irish, in their manner of living, seem to resemble the ancient Britons, as described by Roman authors, or the present Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts or cabins built of clay and straw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the same materials, serve double purposes, one part accommodating the family, who live and sleep promiscuously, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or such pieces of furniture as are not in immediate use.

Their wealth consists of a cow, sometimes a horse, some poultry, and a spot for potatoes. Coarse bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and fish, constitute their food; for however plentifully the fields may be stocked with cattle, these poor natives seldom taste butcher's meat of any kind. Their children, plump, robust, and hardy, scarcely know the use of cloaths, and are not ashamed to appear naked on the roads, and gaze upon strangers.

In this idle and deplorable state many thousands have been lost to the community and themselves, who, if they had but an equal chance with their neighbours, of being instructed in the real principles of Christianity, and had been enured and encouraged to industry and labour, would have added considerable strength to the empire.

The Spaniards and French, particularly the latter, have not failed to avail themselves of the uncomfortable situation in which the Irish were at home, by alluring them to enter their service; but we have now the pleasing prospect of a happy reformation among these people, in consequence of the late laws passed by the parliament of Great Britain in favour of Ireland, as well as from the numerous English protestant working schools lately established over the kingdom; which institutions will undoubtedly strike deep at the root of popery, and of that laziness and ignorance by which it is attended.

The descendants of the English and Scots, since the conquest of Ireland by Henry II. though not the most numerous, form the wealthiest part of the nation. Of these are most of the nobility, gentry, and principal traders, who inhabit the eastern and northern coasts, where most of the trade of Ireland is carried on; especially Belfast, Londonderry, and other parts of the province of Ulster, which, though the poorest soil, is, next to Dublin and its neighbourhood, the best cultivated and most flourishing part of the kingdom. Here a colony of Scots, in the reign of James I. and other prebyterians, who fled from persecution in that country, in the succeeding reigns, planted themselves, and established that great staple of Irish wealth, the linen manufactory, which they have since carried on and brought to the utmost perfection. From this short review it appears, that the present inhabitants are composed of three distinct classes of people; the old Irish, poor, ignorant, and formerly depressed, who inhabit, or rather exist, upon the interior or western parts; the descendants of the English, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole coast facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, science, and more liberal and cultivated ideas of the true God and primitive Christianity; thirdly, emigrants from Scotland in the northern provinces, who, like the others, are so zealously attached to their own religion and manner of living, that it will require some ages before the inhabitants of Ireland are so thoroughly consolidated and blended as to become one people. The gentry, and better sort of the Irish nation, in general differ little in language, dress, manners, and customs, from those of the same rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate. Their hospitality is well known, but in this they are sometimes suspected of more ostentation than real kindness.

RELIGION.] The established religion and ecclesiastical discipline of Ireland is the same with that of England. Among the bulk of the people, in the most un-

cultivated parts, popery, of the most absurd and illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Irish Papists still retain their nominal bishops and dignitaries, who subsist on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind submission of the latter to their clergy does not prevent Protestantism from making a very rapid progress in the towns. How far it may be the interest of England, that some kind of balance between the two religions should be kept up, I shall not here inquire. Ireland contains at least as many sectaries as England, particularly Presbyterians, Baptists, Quakers, and Methodists, who are all of them connived at, or tolerated. Great efforts have been made, ever since the days of James I. in erecting free-schools, for civilising and converting the Irish Papists. The institution of the incorporated society, for promoting English Protestant working-schools, though of no older date than 1717, has been amazingly successful, as have many institutions of the same kind, in introducing industry and knowledge. Toward promoting these useful purposes, the parliament of Ireland has been uncommonly liberal; but many of its grants have been mismanaged or misapplied.

**ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.]** The archbishopricks are four; Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam.

The bishopricks are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Killala, Leighlin, Limerick, Meath, Ossory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

**LANGUAGE.]** The language of the Irish is fundamentally the same with the British and Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made use of by the Scotch Highlanders, opposite the Irish coasts. It is, however, in a great measure defaced by provincial alterations, but not so altered as to render the Irish, Welch, and Highlanders, unintelligible to each other. The usage of the Irish language occasions among the common people, who speak both that and the English, a disagreeable tone in speaking, which diffuses itself among the vulgar in general, and even among the better sort, who do not understand Irish. It is probable, however, that a few ages hence the latter will be accounted among the dead languages.

**LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.]** Learning seems to have been cultivated in Ireland at a very early period. Mr. O'Halloran says that the Irish "appear to have been, from the most remote antiquity, a polished people, and that with propriety they may be called, the Fathers of Letters." We are even told, that Egypt received arts and letters from Niulus the Phœnician, who is represented as the great ancestor of the Irish nation. But it has been observed that no literary monuments have yet been discovered in Ireland, earlier than the introduction of Christianity; and that the evidence of any transactions previous to this period, rests entirely on doubtful transcripts or fabulous tradition.

It is said, that when St. Patrick \* landed in Ireland, he found many holy and learned Christian preachers there, whose votaries were pious and obedient. Camden observes, that "the Irish scholars of St. Patrick profited so notably in Christianity, that, in the succeeding age, Ireland was termed *Santorum Patria*. Their monks so greatly excelled in learning and piety, that they sent whole flocks of most learned men into all parts of Europe, who were the first founders of Lieu-Dieu abbey, in Burgundy; of the abbey Bobie, in Italy; of Wirtzburg, in Franconia; St. Gall, in Switzerland; and of Malmbury, Lindisfarran, and many other monasteries in Britain." We have also the testimony of the Venerable Bede, that about the middle of the seventh century, many nobles, and other orders of the Anglo-Saxons, retired from their own country into Ireland, either for instruction,

\* It has been affirmed, that St. Patrick was a Scotchman; but Mr. O'Halloran denies this, and says that "it appears from the most authentic records, that Patrick was from Wales."

or for an opportunity of living in monasteries of stricter discipline: and that the Scots (as he styles the Irish) maintained them, taught them, and furnished them with books, without fee or reward: "a most honourable testimony," says lord Lyttleton, "not only to the learning, but likewise to the hospitality and bounty of that nation." Dr. Leland remarks, that a conflux of foreigners to a retired island, at a time when Europe was in ignorance and confusion, gave peculiar lustre to this seat of learning: nor is it improbable or surprising, that seven thousand students studied at Armagh, agreeably to the accounts of Irish writers, though the seminary of Armagh was but one of the many colleges erected in Ireland.

In modern times, the Irish have also distinguished themselves in the republic of letters. Archbishop Usher does honour to his country. Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has perhaps never been excelled in the walks of wit, humour, and satire. The sprightliness of Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama. And among the men of distinguished genius whom Ireland has lately produced, may also be particularly mentioned, sir Richard Steele, bishop Berkeley, Parnel, Sterne, and Goldsmith. Two of the ablest divines of this country were dissenters from the established church, Mr. Abernethy, and Dr. Leland. The sermons of the former upon the attributes are held to be one of the best systems of natural theology. He was deputed by the dissenters of Ulster to address the duke of Ormond, in a tour he made when lord Lieutenant, and his Grace was afterwards heard to say, that of all the young men who ever approached him on like occasions, he was most pleased with "the young man of Antrim." Dr. Leland's View of Ecclesiastical Writers, and other works, are equally known and admired.

UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one university, which is denominated Trinity-college. It consists of two squares, in the whole of which are thirty-three buildings, of eight rooms each. Three sides of one of the squares are of brick, and the fourth is a very superb library, but being built of bad stone, it is unfortunately mouldering away. The inside is beautiful and commodious, and embellished with the busts of several ancient and modern worthies. A great part of the books on one side were collected by archbishop Usher, who was one of the original members of this body. The new square, three sides of which have been lately built by parliamentary bounty, and from thence called Parliament Square, is of hewn stone; and the front of it, next the city of Dublin, is ornamented with pilasters, festoons, &c. The provost's house has an elegant little front, entirely of Portland stone. The chapel is a very mean structure, as is also the old hall, wherein college exercises are performed: but the new hall, in which the members of the college dine, is a fair and large room. In their museum, is a set of figures in wax, representing females in every state of pregnancy. They are done upon real skeletons, and are the labours of almost the whole life of a French artist.

This seminary was founded and endowed by queen Elizabeth; but the original foundation consisted only of a provost, three fellows, and three scholars; which has, from time to time, been augmented to twenty-two fellows, seventy scholars, and thirty sizarars. However, the whole number of students is at present about four hundred; who are of three classes, fellow-commoners, pensioners, and sizarars, or servitors. The necessary annual expence of a fellow commoner, cloathing and books included, is about 100l; of a pensioner about 70l. A sizar receives his commons and instruction gratis; the number of these last is commonly about thirty. Of the fellows, seven are called seniors, and the annual income of each of these is about seven hundred pounds. The provostship is supposed to be worth three thousand pounds a year. Trinity-college has a power of conferring degrees of bachelors, masters, and doctors, in all the arts and faculties. The visitors are the chancellor or vice-chancellor, and the archbishop of Dublin.

**ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } I have already mentioned the wolf-dogs  
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } in Ireland. The Irish gos-hawks and ger-  
falcons are celebrated for their shape and beauty. The moose-deer is thought to  
have been formerly a native of this island, their horns being sometimes dug up of  
so great a size, that one pair has been found near eleven feet from the tip of the  
right horn to the tip of the left; but the greatest natural curiosity in Ireland is the  
Giants' Causeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, which  
is thus described by Dr. Pococke, late bishop of Ossory, a celebrated traveller and  
antiquary. He says, "that he measured the most westerly point at high water, to  
the distance of 360 feet from the cliff; but was told, that at low water it extended  
60 feet farther upon a descent, till it was lost in the sea. Upon measuring  
the eastern point, he found it 540 feet from the cliff; and saw as much more of it  
as of the other, where it winds to the east, and is, like that, lost in the water.**

"The causeway is composed of pillars, all of angular shapes, from three sides to  
eight. The eastern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular  
cliff, formed by the upright sides of the pillars, some of which are thirty-three feet  
four inches high. Each pillar consists of several joints or stones, lying one upon  
another, from six inches to about one foot in thickness; and what is very surprising,  
some of these joints are so convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of  
spheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the great-  
est firmness, every stone being concave on the other side, fitting in the exactest  
manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from  
one to two feet in diameter, and generally consist of about forty joints, most of which  
separate very easily, and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as  
to the edge of the water.

"But this is not the most singular part of this extraordinary curiosity, the cliffs  
themselves being still more surprising. From the bottom, which is of black stone,  
to the height of about sixty feet, they are divided at equal distances by stripes of a  
reddish stone, that resembles a cement, about four inches in thickness; upon  
this there is another stratum of the same black stone, with a stratum five inches  
thick of the red. Over this is another stratum ten feet thick, divided in the same  
manner; then a stratum of the red stone twenty feet deep, and above that a  
stratum of upright pillars; above these pillars lies another stratum of black stone,  
twenty feet high; and, above this again, another stratum of upright pillars, rising  
in some places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not so high, and in others again  
above them, where they are called the chimneys. The face of these cliffs extends  
about three English miles."

The cavities, the romantic prospects, cataraëts, and other pleasing and uncom-  
mon natural objects to be met with in Ireland, are too numerous to be called  
rarities, and several pamphlets have been employed in describing them. As to the  
artificial curiosities in Ireland, the chief are the round Pharos, or stone towers, found  
upon the coasts, and supposed to be built by the Danes and Norwegians in their  
piratical excursions, who made use of them as spy-towers or barbicans, light-houses  
or beacons.

**CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER } Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is, in  
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } magnitude and populousness, the second  
city in the British dominions, containing near 200,000 inhabitants. It is situated  
270 miles north-west of London, and near sixty miles west from Holyhead in North  
Wales, the usual station of passage vessels between Great Britain and Ireland.  
Dublin stands about seven miles from the sea, at the bottom of a large and spacious  
bay, to which it gives name, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almost into two  
equal parts, and is banked in through the whole length of the city, on both  
sides, which forms spacious and noble quays, where vessels, below the first bridge,  
load**

load and unload before the merchants' doors and ware-houses. A stranger, upon entering the bay of Dublin, which is about seven miles broad, and in stormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeably surpris'd with the beautiful prospect on each side, and the distant view of Wicklow mountains; but Dublin, from its low situation, makes no great appearance. Dublin has greatly increased within twenty years last past, and it is generally supposed that 7000 houses have been added to the city and suburbs since the reign of queen Anne. The number of houses, in the year 1777, was 17,151, and there have been many new buildings erected since. In its appearance, this city bears a near resemblance to London. The houses are of brick; the old streets are narrow and mean, but the new streets are nearly as elegant as those of the metropolis of Great Britain. Sackville-street, which is sometimes called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houses are lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel walk runs through the whole at an equal distance from the sides.

The river Liffey, though navigable as far as the custom-house, or centre of the city, is but small, when compared with the Thames at London. Over it are two handsome stone-bridges, lately built in imitation of that at Westminster, and there are four others that have little to recommend them. Formerly the centre of Dublin, towards the custom-house, was crowded and inconvenient for commercial purposes; but of late a new street has been opened, leading from Essex-bridge to the castle, where the lord-lieutenant resides. A new exchange has likewise been erected, an elegant structure of white stone, richly embellished with semi-column of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments.

The barracks are pleasantly situated on an eminence near the river. They consist of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horse; from hence the castle and city guards are relieved daily. They are said to be the largest and completest building of the kind in Europe, being capable of containing 3000 foot and 1000 horse.

The linen hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of such linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for sale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the trustees, for the encouragement of the linen manufactory of Ireland, who are composed of the lord chancellor, the primate, the archbishop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry. This national institution is productive of great 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.

Stephen's Green is a most extensive square, round which is a gravel walk of near a mile. Here genteel company walk in the evenings, and on Sundays after two o'clock; and in fine weather make a very gay appearance. Many of the houses round the green are very stately, but a want of uniformity is observable throughout the whole. Ample amends will be made for this defect by another spacious square near Stephen's Green, called Merrion-square, now laid out and partly built. The front of Trinity-college, extending above 300 feet, is built of Portland stone in the finest taste.

The parliament house was begun in 1729, and finished in 1739, at the expence of 40,000*l*. This superb pile was, in general, of the Ionic order, and was justly accounted one of the most celebrated architectural beauties. The portico, in particular, was perhaps without parallel; the internal parts had also many beauties; and the manner in which the building was lighted, has been much admired. This superb building, on the 27th of February 1792, was observed to be in flames, about 5 o'clock in the afternoon, when the house of Lords, as well as the Commons, was sitting, and in full debate. When the alarm was given, one of the members made

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his way to the roof, and looking down into the house from one of the ventilators confirmed the apprehensions of those within, by saying the dome was surrounded by fire, and would tumble into the house in five minutes. The volume of fire, by which the dome was encompassed, soon made apertures on all sides, by melting the copper from the wood-work, and thus exhibiting the cavity of the dome filled with flames like a large furnace, which, at about half past six, tumbled into the house with one great crash. The valuable library, and all the papers of importance were saved.

But one of the greatest and most laudable undertakings that this age can boast of, is the building a stone wall about the breadth of a moderate street, and of a proportionate height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to shelter vessels in stormy weather.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord-mayor, &c. the same as in London. Every third year, the lord-mayor, and the twenty-four companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged to perambulate the city, and its liberties, which they call riding the franchises. Upon this occasion the citizens vie with each other in show and ostentation. In Dublin there are two large theatres, that are generally well filled, and which serve as a kind of nursery to those in London. In this city are 13 parish churches, 8 chapels, 3 churches for French, and 1 for Dutch protestants, 7 presbyterian meeting houses, 1 for methodists, 2 for quakers, and 16 Roman catholic chapels. A royal hospital, at some distance from the city, like that at Chelsea, for invalids; a lying-in hospital, with gardens, built and laid out in the finest taste; an hospital for lunatics, founded by the famous Dean Swift, who himself died a lunatic; and sundry other hospitals for patients of various kinds. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others are rebuilding with more taste. And, indeed, which ever way a stranger turns himself in this city, he will perceive marks of elegance; and if he extends his views over the whole kingdom, he will conclude that works of ornament and public utility are no where more encouraged than in Ireland, chiefly through the munificence of parliament.

It is, however, matter of surprize, that, with all this spirit of national improvement, few or no good inns are to be met with in Ireland. Even in the capital, there is not one inn which deserves that name. This may, in some measure, be accounted for by the long, and sometimes dangerous passage from Chester and Holyhead to Ireland, which prevents the gentry of England, with their families, from visiting that island; but as it is now proposed to make turnpike roads to Portpatrick in Scotland, from whence the passage is short and safe, the roads of Ireland may by this means become more frequented.

Cork is deservedly reckoned the second city in Ireland, in magnitude, riches, and commerce. It lies 129 miles south-west of Dublin, and contains above 8500 houses. Its haven is deep, and sheltered from all winds; but small vessels only can come up to the city, which stands about seven miles up the river Lee. This is the chief port of merchants in the kingdom; and there is, perhaps, more beef, tallow, and butter, shipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ireland together. Hence there is a great resort of ships to this port, particularly of those bound from Great Britain to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee islands, which put in here to victual and complete their lading. It appears, that in the reign of Edward IV. there were eleven churches in Cork, though there are now only seven, and yet it has ever since that time been esteemed a thriving city; but it must be observed, that beside the churches, there are at this time six mass-houses, two dissenting meeting-houses, another for quakers, and a chapel for French protestants. Kinsale is a populous and strong town, with an excellent harbour, and considerable commerce and shipping; and it is, moreover, an excellent station for the royal navy; for which end this port is furnished with proper naval officers and storekeepers.

Waterford comes next to Cork for riches and shipping, and contains 2561 houses. It is commanded by Duncannon fort, and on the west-side of the town is a citadel. Limerick is a handsome, populous, commercial, strong city, it lies on both sides the Shannon, and contains 5257 houses.

Belfast is a large sea-port and trading town at the mouth of the Lagen Water, where it falls into Carrickfergus bay. Downpatrick has a flourishing linen manufacture. Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus), by some deemed the capital town of the province, has a good harbour and castle, but little commerce. Derry (or Londonderry, as it is most usually called) stands on Lough-Foyl, is a strong, but small city, having linen manufactures, with some commerce and shipping. This northern part of Ireland is situated so near to Scotland, that they are in sight of each other's coasts. Donegal, the county-town of the same name (otherwise called the county of Tyrconnel), is a place of some trade; as is likewise Enniskilling. All which last mentioned places, and others less considerable, are most industriously employed in the manufacturing of linen, and linen thread, to the great benefit of the whole kingdom; by the vast annual exportations of which into England, it is enabled to pay for the imports from thence; and likewise to render the money constantly drawn from Ireland into England, by her absentees, less grievous to her.

Though Ireland contains no strong places, according to the modern improvements in fortification, yet it has several forts and garrisons, that serve as comfortable sinecures to military officers. The chief are Londonderry and Culmore Fort, Cork, Limerick, Kinsale, Duncannon, Ross-Castle, Dublin, Charlemont, Galway, Carrickfergus, Maryborough, and Athlone. Each of these forts is furnished with deputy-governors, under various denominations, who have pecuniary provisions from the government.

It cannot be pretended, that Ireland can as yet boast of any public edifices, to compare with those to be found in countries where sovereigns and their courts reside, but it has some which do honour to the taste and public spirit of the inhabitants. The castle, Essex bridge, and several edifices about Dublin, already mentioned, are magnificent; noble Gothic churches abound; and the Irish nobility, and gentry of fortune, now begin to vie with those of England in the magnificent structure of their houses, and the elegance of their ornaments. In speaking of the public buildings of this kingdom, I must not forget the barracks where the soldiers are lodged, equally to their own convenience and that of the inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The exports of Ireland are linen-cloth, yarn, lawns, and cambrics, horses, black cattle, beef, pork, green hides, tanned leather, calf skins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheese, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horse-hair, lead, copper-ore, herrings, dried-fish, rabbit-skins, and fur, otter-skins, goat-skins, and salmon; but it is probable that the exports of Ireland will be greatly increased by the late laws passed in favour of the trade of that kingdom. The Irish have carried their inland manufactures, even those of luxury, to a considerable height, and their lord-lieutenants have of late greatly encouraged them.

COMMERCIAL INSTITUTIONS.] The Dublin society, for the encouragement of manufactures, and commerce, was incorporated 1750. The linen-hall, erected at Dublin, is under as just and nice regulations as any commercial house in Europe.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Ireland was formerly entituled, the dominion or lordship of Ireland, and the king's style was no other than Dominus Hibernie, lord of Ireland, till the 33d year of king Henry VIII. when he assumed the title of king, which is recognised by act of parliament in the same reign. But as England and Scotland are now one and the same kingdom, and yet differ in their municipal laws; so England and Ireland are distinct kingdoms, and yet in general agree

agree in their laws. For after the conquest of Ireland by king Henry II. the laws of England were received and sworn to by the Irish nation, assembled at the council of Lismore; and as Ireland, thus conquered, planted, and governed, continued in a state of dependence, it was thought necessary, that it should conform to, and be obliged by, such laws as the superior state thought proper to prescribe.

But this state of dependence being almost forgotten, and ready to be disputed by the Irish nation, it was thought necessary, some years ago, to declare how that matter stood: and therefore, by statute 6th of George I. it is declared, "that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be subordinate to, and dependent upon, the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inseparably united thereto: and that the king's majesty, with the consent of the lords and commons of Great Britain, in parliament, hath power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland." This determination of the British parliament occasioned much dissatisfaction among the Irish, who at length, feeling their own strength by means of their volunteer associations, and encouraged and favoured by the several parties contending for the administration in England, obtained in the year 1782, a formal repeal of the above offensive statute, which was considered as a renunciation, on the part of the parliament of Great Britain, of every claim of legislation over Ireland.

The constitution of the Irish government, as it stands at present, with regard to distributive justice, is nearly the same with that of England. A chief governor, who generally goes by the name of lord-licutenant, is sent over from England by the king, whom he represents; but his power is in some measure restrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleasure, or the exigency of the times. On his entering upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council-chamber; and having taken the usual oaths before the lord-chancellor, the sword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is seated in the chair of state, attended by the lord chancellor, the members of the privy-council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a serjeant at mace, and other officers of state; and he never appears publickly without being attended by a body of horse-guards. Hence, with respect to his authority, his train, and splendor, there is no viceroy in Christendom that comes nearer to the grandeur and majesty of a king. He has a council composed of the great officers of the crown; namely, the chancellor, treasurer, and such of the archbishops, earls, bishops, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majesty is pleased to appoint. The parliament here, as well as in England, is the supreme court, which is convened by the king's writ, and generally sits once every year. It consists, as in England, of a house of lords, and commons. Of the former, many are English or British peers, or commons of Great Britain; a few are papists, who cannot sit without being properly qualified; and the number of commons amounts to about three hundred. Since the accession of his present majesty, Irish parliaments have been rendered octennial. The representation of the people, in the senate of Ireland, is, in many instances, like that of England, partial, and imperfect. The acts passed by the house of lords and commons are sent to England for the approbation of his majesty and council, which having obtained, they pass the great seal of England, and are returned.

For the regular distribution of justice, there are in Ireland four terms held annually for the decision of causes; and four courts of justice, the chancery, king's-bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. The high sheriffs of the several counties were formerly chosen by the people, but are now nominated by the lord-licutenant. From this general view it appears, that the civil and ecclesiastical institutions are almost the same in Ireland as in England.

REVENUES.] In Ireland the public revenue arises from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the trustee, for applying it to public purposes; but there is, besides this, a private revenue arising from the ancient demesne lands,  
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from forfeitures for treason and felony, privilege of wines, light-house duties, and a small part of the casual revenue, not granted by parliament; and in this the crown has the same unlimited property that a subject has in his own freehold.

The revenue of Ireland amounts nearly to 1,000,000*l.* and the public expenditure exceeds that sum. The Irish complain greatly, that, of this revenue, about 70,000*l.* is granted in pensions, and a great part to absentees. Very large sums are also granted by their own parliament for more valuable purposes, the improvement of their country, and civilizing the people; such as the inland navigation, bridges, high-ways, churches, premiums, and protestant schools. In 1787 the national debt was 2,302,146*l.* chiefly contracted for national improvements.

**COINS.]** The coins of Ireland are at present of the same denominations and the like fabric with those of England, only an English shilling passes in Ireland for thirteen pence. What the ancient coins of the Irish were, is at present a matter of mere curiosity and great uncertainty.

**MILITARY STRENGTH.]** Ireland now maintains and pays an army of 15,000 men; and the military force of Ireland has been greatly increased by the many volunteer associated companies, which have been lately formed in that kingdom. Those parts of Ireland that are most cultivated, contain numbers of inhabitants that have very little sense either of divine or human laws; and regular forces are absolutely necessary for keeping them in order; witness the late insurrections of the Whiteboys, and other banditti, instigated, it is said, by their priests. Yet it does not appear that the bulk of the Irish Catholics are fond of a revolution in government, as few or none of them joined Thurot in his descent upon Carrickfergus, or took any part with the Pretender in the last rebellion.

**ORDER OF ST. PATRICK.]** This order was instituted February 5, and the installation of the first knights was performed on the 17th of March 1783. It consists of the sovereign and fifteen knights companions. The lord-lieutenants of Ireland for the time being officiate as grand masters of the order, and the archbishop of Armagh is the prelate, the archbishop of Dublin the chancellor, and the dean of St. Patrick, the register of the order. The knights are installed in the cathedral of St. Patrick, Dublin. Their robes are splendid, and the badge is three crowns united together on a cross, with the motto round, *Quis separabit?* 1783, fastened by an Irish harp to the crown imperial. A star of eight points encircles it on the coat.

**HISTORY.]** The history of Ireland has been carried to a very remote antiquity, and may, with greater justice than that of almost any other country, be distinguished into the legendary and authentic. In the reign of Edward II. an Ulster prince boasted to the pope of an uninterrupted succession of one hundred and ninety-seven kings of Ireland, to the year 1170. Even the more moderate Irish antiquaries carry their history up to about 500 years before the Christian era, at which time they assert, that a colony of Scythians, immediately from Spain, settled in Ireland, and introduced the Phœnician language and letters into that country: and that, however it might have been peopled still earlier from Gaul or Britain, yet Heber, Hereimon, and Ith, the sons of Milesius, gave a race of kings to the Irish, distinguished by the names of Gadelians, and Scuits, or Scots. But as our limits will not permit us to enlarge on the dark and contested part of the Irish history, we shall only observe, that it was about the middle of the fifth century that the great apostle of Ireland, St. Patrick, was employed in the propagation of Christianity in that kingdom, though Christian missionaries had been there long before. After this period, Ireland was occasionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England: but in the years 795 and 798 the Danes and Normans, or as they were called, the Easterlings, invaded its coasts, and were the first who erected stone edifices there. The common habitations of the Irish, till that time, were of hurdles covered with straw and rushes, and but very few of solid timber. The natives defended them-

selves bravely against the Easterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford, and Cork; but they resided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Irish, was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The natives, about the year 962, seem to have called to their assistance the Anglo-Saxon king Edgar, who had then a considerable maritime power; and this might have given occasion for his clergy to call him king of Ireland. Dublin was about that time a flourishing city, and the native Irish gave the Easterlings several defeats, though supported by their countrymen from the continent, the Isle of Man, and the Hebrides.

In the twelfth century, Henry the Second of England formed a design of annexing Ireland to his dominions. He is said to have been induced to this by the provocations received from some of the Irish chieftains, who had afforded considerable assistance to his enemies. His design was patronised by the pope, and a fair pretext of attacking Ireland offered about the year 1168. Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinster, and an oppressive tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince, O'Roik. A confederacy being formed against him, under Roderic O'Connor (who, it seems, was the paramount king of Ireland) he was driven from his country, and took refuge at the court of Henry II. who promised to restore him, upon taking an oath of fealty to the crown of England, for himself, and all the petty kings depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Mac Dermot's cause to the English barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz Stephen, and Maurice Fitz Gerald. Those noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the same principles as the Norman and Breton lords did the conquest of England under William I. and Strongbow was to marry Mac Dermot's daughter Eva. In 1169, the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year Strongbow arriving with a reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.

The descendants of the Danes continued still possessed of Dublin, which, after some ineffectual opposition made by king O'Connor, was taken and plundered by the English soldiers; but Mac Turkil, the Danish king, escaped to his shipping. Upon the death of Dermot, Henry II. became jealous of earl Strongbow, seized upon his estate in England and Wales, and recalled his subjects from Ireland. The Irish, about the same time, to the amount of above 60,000, besieged Dublin, under king O'Connor; but though all Strongbow's Irish friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to great extremity, he forced the Irish to raise the siege with great loss; and going over to England, he appeased Henry by swearing fealty to him and his heirs, and resigning into his hand all the Irish cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's absence, Mac Turkil, returning with a great fleet, attempted to retake the city of Dublin, but was killed at the siege; and in him ended the race of the Easterling princes in Ireland.

In 1172, Henry II. attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran soldiers, and the flower of his nobility, landed near Waterford: and not only all the petty princes of Ireland, except the king of Ulster, but the great king Roderic O'Connor, submitted to Henry, who pretended that O'Connor's submission included that of Ulster, and that consequently he was the paramount sovereign of Ireland. Be that as it will, he affected to keep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the estates in Ireland, as William the Conqueror had done in England, to his English nobility. He then settled a civil administration at Dublin, as similar as possible to that of England, to which he returned in 1173, having first settled an English colony from Bristol in Dublin, with all the liberties, free customs, and charters, which the citizens of Bristol enjoyed. From that time Dublin began to flourish. Thus the conquest of Ireland was effected by the English, almost with as much ease as that of Mexico was by the Spaniards; and for

much the same reasons, the rude and unarmed state of the natives, and the differences that prevailed among their princes or leaders.

Henry gave the title of lord of Ireland to his son John, who, in 1185, went over in person to Ireland; but John and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill use of their power, and rendered themselves odious to the Irish. Richard I. was too much taken up with the crusades to pay much regard to the affairs of Ireland; but king John, after his accession, made amends for his former misconduct. He enlarged his father's plan of introducing into Ireland English laws and officers, and he formed that part of the provinces of Leinster and Munster, which was within the English pale, into twelve counties; but the descendants of the ancient princes in other places paid him no more than a nominal subjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exercised all acts of sovereignty within their own states; and indeed this was pretty much the case so late as the reign of James I. The unsettled reign of Henry III. his wars and captivity, gave the Irish a very mean opinion of the English government during his reign; but they seem to have continued quiet under his son Edward I. Gaveston, the famous favourite of Edward II. acquired great credit while he acted as lieutenant of Ireland; but the success of the Scotch king, Robert Bruce, had almost proved fatal to the English interest, and suggested to the Irish the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the English governors and armies; and being supported by his brother in person, he was actually crowned king at Dundalk, and narrowly missed being master of Dublin. The younger Bruce seems to have been violent in the exercise of his sovereignty, and he was at last defeated and killed by Bermingham, the English general. After this Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and passed several excellent acts with regard to that country.

But during the minority of Edward III. the commotions were again renewed in Ireland, and were not suppressed without great loss and disgrace on the side of the English. In 1333 a rebellion broke out, in which the English inhabitants had no inconsiderable share. A succession of vigorous, brave governors, at last quieted the insurgents; and about the year 1361, prince Lionel, son to Edward III. having married the heiress of Ulster, was sent over to govern Ireland, and, if possible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of England. In this he made a great progress, but did not entirely accomplish it. It appears, that at this time the Irish were in a very flourishing condition, and that one of the greatest grievances they complained of was, that the English sent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 1394, Richard II. finding that the execution of his despotic schemes in England must be abortive without farther support, passed over to Ireland with an army of 34,000 men, well armed and appointed. As he made no use of force, the Irish regarded his presence as a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and bestowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In short, he behaved so as entirely to win their affections. But in 1399, after having acted in a very despotic manner in England, he undertook a fresh expedition into Ireland, to revenge the death of his lord-lieutenant the earl of March, who had been killed by the wild Irish. His army again struck the natives with consternation, and they threw themselves upon his mercy. It was during this expedition, that the duke of Lancaster landed in England; and Richard, upon his return, finding himself deserted by his English subjects on account of his tyranny, and that he could not depend upon the Irish, surrendered his crown to his rival.

The Irish, after Richard's death, still retained a warm affection for the house of York;

York; and upon the revival of that family's claim to the crown, embraced its cause. Edward IV. made the earl of Desmond lord- lieutenant of Ireland for his services against the Ormond party, and other adherents of the house of Lancaster, and he was the *first Irish chieftain* that obtained this honour. Even the accession of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile the Irish to his title as duke of Lancaster; they therefore readily joined Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the eldest son of Edward IV. but for this they paid dear, being defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them somewhat cautious at first of joining Perkin Warbeck, who was, however, at last recognized as king by the Irish, of whose pretensions the event has been already related in the preceding pages under the history of England. Henry behaved with moderation towards his unfortunate partizans, and was contented with requiring the Irish nobility to take a fresh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the desired effect, during the administration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, and the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by supporting its chiefs against each other; but the emperor Charles V. endeavouring to gain them to his interest, Henry made his natural son, the duke of Richmond, his lord- lieutenant. This did not prevent the Irish from breaking out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz Gerald, who had been lord deputy, and was won over by the emperor, but was at last hanged at Tyburn. After this, the house of Austria found their account, in their quarrels with England, to form a strong party among the Irish.

About the year 1542, James V. king of Scotland, formed some pretensions to the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a strong party among the Irish themselves. It is hard to say, had he lived, what the consequence of his claim might have been. Henry understood that the Irish had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hitherto assumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He therefore took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the native Irish, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord; and, to speak the truth, it was somewhat surprising that this expedient was not thought of before. It produced a more perfect submission of the native Irish to Henry's government, than ever had been known; and even O'Neil, who pretended to be successor to the last paramount king of Ireland, swore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

The pope, however, and the princes of the house of Austria, by remitting money and sometimes sending over troops to the Irish, still kept up their interest in that kingdom, and drew from them vast numbers of men to their armies, where they proved as good soldiers as any in Europe. This created inexplicable difficulties to the English government, even in the reign of Edward VI. but it is remarkable, that the Reformation took place in the English part of Ireland with little or no opposition. The Irish seem to have been very quiet during the reign of queen Mary; but they proved thorns in the side of queen Elizabeth. The perpetual disputes she had with the Roman catholics both at home and abroad, gave her great uneasiness; and the pope and the house of Austria always found new resources against her in Ireland. The Spaniards possessed themselves of Kinsale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and outwitted her favourite general the earl of Essex, are related in the English history.

The lord-deputy Mountjoy, who succeeded Essex, was the first Englishman who gave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by defeating them and the Irish before Kinsale, and bringing Tyrone prisoner to England; where he was pardoned by queen Elizabeth in 1602. This lenity, shewn to such an offender, is a proof of the dreadful apprehensions Elizabeth had from the popish interest in Ireland. James I. confirmed the possessions of the Irish; but such was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attempted to seize the castle of Dublin; but their

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plot being discovered, their chiefs fled beyond seas. They were not idle abroad, for in 1628 they instigated Sir Calin O'Dogharty to a fresh rebellion, by promising him speedy supplies of men and money from Spain. Sir Calin was slain, and his adherents were taken and executed. The attainders of the Irish rebels, which passed in the reigns of James and Elizabeth, vested in the crown 511,464 acres, in the several counties of Donegall, Tyrone, Fermanagh, Coleraine, Cavan, and Armagh; and enabled the king to make that protestant plantation in the North of Ireland, which now, from the most rebellious province of the kingdom, is the most quiet and most industrious.

Those prodigious attainders, however just and necessary they might be, operated fatally for the English in the reign of Charles I. The Irish Roman Catholics, in general, were influenced by their priests to hope not only to recover the lands of their forefathers, but to restore the popish religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a deep and detestable conspiracy for massacring all the English protestants in that kingdom. In this they were encouraged by the unhappy dissensions that broke out between the king and his parliaments in England and Scotland. Their bloody plan being discovered by the English government at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into their hands. They, however, partly executed, in 1641, their horrid scheme of massacre; but authors have not agreed as to the numbers who were murdered; perhaps they have been exaggerated by warm protestant writers, some of whom make them "amount to an hundred and fifty, or two hundred thousand; but the most moderate, and probably the most reasonable account is, that they "were about forty thousand \*." What followed in consequence of this rebellion, and the reduction of Ireland by Cromwell, who retaliated the cruelties of the Irish papists, belongs to the history of England. It is certain they snarred so severely, that they were quiet during the reign of Charles II. His popish successor and brother James II. even after the Revolution took place, found an asylum in Ireland; and was encouraged to hope, that, by the assistance of the natives there, he might remount his throne; but he was deceived, and his own pusillanimity co-operated with his disappointment. He was driven out of Ireland by his son-in-law, after the battle of the Boyne, the only victory that king William ever gained in person; a victory, however, on which depended the safety of the protestant religion, and the liberties of the British empire. Had James been victorious, he probably would have been seated on the throne, and nothing else could be expected than that being irritated by opposition, victorious over his enemies, and free from every restraint, he would have trampled upon all rights, civil and religious, and pursued more arbitrary designs than before. The army of William consisted of 36,000 men, that of James of 33,000 advantageously posted. But James fought at the head of an undisciplined rabble; and his French auxiliaries were far from behaving like heroes.

The forfeitures that fell to the crown, on account of the Irish rebellions and the Revolution, are almost incredible; and had the acts of parliament which gave them away been strictly enforced, Ireland must have been peopled with British inhabitants. But many political reasons occurred for not driving the Irish to despair. The friends of the Revolution and the Protestant religion were sufficiently gratified out of the forfeited estates. Too many of the Roman Catholics might have been forced abroad; and it was proper that a due balance should be preserved between the Roman Catholic and the Protestant interest. It was therefore thought prudent to relax the reins of government, and not to put the forfeitures too rigorously into execution. The experience of half a century has confirmed the wisdom of the above considerations. The lenity of the measures pursued toward the Irish Roman Catholics, and the great pains taken for the instruction of their children, with the

\* See Hume's Hist. of England vol. vi. p. 377. 8vo. edit.

progress which knowledge and the arts made in that country, greatly diminished the popish interest. The spirit of industry enabled the Irish to know their own strength and importance; towards which effect some accidental circumstances concurred. All her ports were opened for the exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of Great Britain; and of late years, acts of parliament were made occasionally for permitting the importation of salt beef, pork, butter, cattle, and tallow, from Ireland to Great Britain.

But though some laws and regulations had occasionally taken place favourable to Ireland, it must be acknowledged, that the inhabitants of that country laboured under considerable grievances, in consequence of sundry injudicious restraints of the parliament of England respecting their trade. These restraints had injured Ireland without benefiting Great Britain. The Irish had been prohibited from manufacturing their own wool, in order to favour the woollen manufactory of England; the consequence of which was, that the Irish wool was smuggled over into France, and the people of that country were thereby enabled to rival us in our woollen manufacture, and to deprive us of a part of that trade. An embargo had also been laid on the exportation of provisions from Ireland, which had been extremely prejudicial to that kingdom. The distresses of the Irish manufacturers, as well as those of Great Britain, had likewise been much increased by the consequences of the American war. These circumstances occasioned great murmuring in Ireland, and some unsuccessful attempts were made for the relief of the inhabitants of that kingdom, in the British parliament. But a large body of the king's troops being withdrawn from Ireland, in order to be employed in the American war, a considerable number of Irish gentlemen, farmers, traders, and other persons, armed and formed themselves into volunteer associations, for the defence of Ireland against foreign invaders. By degrees, these volunteer associations became numerous and well-disciplined: and it was soon discovered, that they were inclined to maintain their rights at home, as well as to defend themselves against foreign enemies. When these armed associations became numerous and formidable, the Irish began to assume an higher tone than that to which they had before been accustomed; and it was soon manifest, that their remonstrances met with unusual attention, both from their own parliament and from that of Great Britain. The latter, on the 11th of May 1779, presented an address to the king, recommending to his majesty's most serious consideration the distressed and impoverished state of the loyal and well-servicing people of Ireland, and desiring him to direct that there should be prepared, and laid before parliament, such particulars relative to the trade and manufactures of Great Britain and Ireland, as should enable the national wisdom to pursue effectual measures for promoting the common strength, wealth, and commerce of his majesty's subjects in both kingdoms. To this address the king returned a favourable answer: and in October, the same year, both houses of the Irish parliament also presented addresses to his majesty, in which they declared, that nothing but granting Ireland a free trade could save it from ruin. Notwithstanding which, it being soon after suspected by many of the people of that kingdom, that the members of their parliament would not exert themselves with vigour in promoting the interests of the nation, a very daring and numerous mob assembled before the parliament-house in Dublin, crying out for a *free trade*, and a *short money-bill*. They assaulted the members, and endeavoured to compel them to swear, that they would support the interest of their country by voting for a short money-bill; and they demolished the house of the attorney general. The tumult at length subsided; and two Irish money-bills, for six months only, were sent over to England, where they passed the great seal, and were immediately returned, without any dissatisfaction being expressed by government at this limited grant.

In the mean time, the members of the opposition, in the British parliament,

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very strongly represented the necessity of an immediate attention to the complaints of the people of Ireland, and of a compliance with their wishes. The arguments on this side of the question were also enforced by the accounts which came from Ireland, that the volunteer associations in that kingdom amounted to forty thousand men, unpaid, self-appointed, and independent of government, well armed and accoutred, daily improving in discipline, and which afterwards increased to eighty thousand. The British ministry appeared for some time undetermined what part they should take in this important business: but the remembrance of the fatal effects of rigorous measures respecting America, and the very critical situation of Great Britain, at length induced the first lord of the treasury to bring in such bills as were calculated to afford effectual commercial relief to the people of Ireland. Laws were accordingly passed, by which all those acts were repealed, which had prohibited the exportation of woollen manufactures from Ireland, and other acts by which the trade of that kingdom to foreign countries had been restrained; and it was likewise enacted, that a trade between Ireland and the British colonies in America, and the West Indies, and the British settlements on the coast of Africa, should be allowed to be carried on in the same manner, and subject to similar regulations and restrictions, with that carried on between Great Britain and the said colonies and settlements.

These laws in favour of Ireland were received with much joy and exultation in that kingdom: and the Irish nation, being indulged in their requisitions respecting trade, now began also to aim at important constitutional reformations. In various counties and cities of Ireland, the right of the British parliament to make laws which should bind that kingdom was denied in public resolutions. By degrees, the spirit which had been manifested by the Irish parliament seemed a little to subside; and a remarkable instance of this was, their agreeing to a perpetual mutiny bill, for the regulation of the Irish army, though that of England had always been passed, with a true constitutional caution, only from year to year. This was much exclaimed against by some of the Irish patriots; and it is indeed not easy to clear their parliament from the charge of inconsistency: but this bill was afterwards repealed, and the commercial advantages offered them by late acts in their favour, have greatly contributed to promote the prosperity of Ireland. As before observed, by the act repealing the statute of the 6th of George I. they are now fully and completely emancipated from the jurisdiction of the British parliament. The supreme jurisdiction of the British house of peers in Irish causes was also given up, and the political connection which so long subsisted between the two nations is now reduced to this one circumstance, that both being governed by the same king, Ireland is necessarily subject to the imperial crown of Great Britain. But though the Irish have obtained so great an extension of their liberties, it is very questionable whether this will terminate to their country's real advantage: their parties and dissensions increase, and the controversy with England is far from being ended; much remaining to establish such a commercial and political connection between the two kingdoms, as will promote the interest and happiness of both, and make them one great, stable, and invulnerable body.

In the year 1783, the government, the nobility, and the people of Ireland, vied with each other in countenancing, and giving an asylum to many families of the Genevese, who were banished from their city, and to others who voluntarily exiled themselves for the cause of liberty, not willing to submit to an aristocracy of their own citizens, supported by the swords of France and Sardinia. A large tract of land in the county of Waterford was allotted for their reception, a town was marked out, named *New Geneva*, and a sum of money granted for erecting the necessary buildings. These preparations for their accommodation were, however, rendered ultimately useless, by some misunderstandings (not fully comprehended), which arose between the parties; and the scheme accordingly fell to the ground.

Upon the occasion of the unhappy malady with which the king was afflicted, in

the autumn of 1788, the lords and commons of Ireland came to a resolution to address the prince of Wales, requesting him to take upon him the government of that kingdom during his Majesty's indisposition, under the style and title of *Prince Regent of Ireland*, and to exercise and administer, according to the laws and constitution of the realm, all the royal authorities, jurisdictions, and prerogatives, to the crown and government thereof belonging. The Marquis of Buckingham, being then lord lieutenant, having declined presenting the address, as contrary to his oath and the laws, the two houses resolved on appointing delegates from each: the lords appointed the duke of Leinster, and the earl of Charlemont; and the commons, four of their members. The delegates proceeded to London, and presented the address to his royal highness, by whom they were most graciously received; but his majesty having, to the infinite joy of all his subjects, recovered from his severe indisposition, the prince returned them an answer fraught with the warmest sentiments of regard for the kingdom, and of gratitude to parliament, for the generous manner in which they proposed investing him with the regency, but, that the happy recovery of his royal father had now rendered his acceptance of it unnecessary.

The parliament of Ireland has extended liberal indulgences to the Roman Catholics of that kingdom, by establishing the legality of intermarriage between them and the Protestants, by admitting them to the profession of the law, and the benefit of education, and by removing all obstructions upon their industry in trade and manufacture. A reciprocal preference in the corn-trade with Britain has been established. Further progress has been made in checking the immoderate use of spirituous liquors; and some wise institutions have been ordained for the regulation of charitable foundations.

In the year 1793, in consequence of the concessions of government, a bill passed the legislature, by which the Roman Catholics, being freeholders, are entitled to vote for members to serve in parliament. The patriots of Ireland have been less successful, in their attempt to procure a reform of parliament itself, as notwithstanding the resolution in the beginning of the session to inquire into the state of the representation, nothing effectual has been done; the times discouraging useful innovations from the just dread of ruinous or hurtful ones.

Early in the session of this year, a secret committee of the house of lords was formed to inquire into the rise and progress of that seditious spirit, which appeared in different parts of the kingdom. After some time spent in the inquiry, the secret committee made a report of their discoveries, in which they declared that seditious clubs and meetings had been held in various parts of the kingdom, and that several of these advocates for liberty had assumed the national cockade, appeared in arms, and committed various insults upon the established modes of government. The lord lieutenant and council, therefore, issued a proclamation, grounded on the above report, directing the magistrates and peace officers of the town of Belfast, and the districts adjacent, to disperse all seditious and unlawful armed assemblies, and if they shall be resisted, to apprehend the offenders, that they may be dealt with according to law.

The embodying of the militia in this kingdom has created riots and disturbances in different places. At Castlereagh in particular, on the 28th of June 1793, several persons were killed, and the mob withstood a party of the military for several hours. Subsequent to that time there have been various meetings of rioters and armed men in the other parts of the kingdom, and in attempting to quell them, the military have been obliged to kill many, and have dispersed the insurgents, at the expence of several of their own men.

The government of Ireland, apprehensive of the consequences which might attend popular meetings, have passed into a law, an act "to prevent illegal assemblies

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blies of the people." Upon the second reading of this bill in the house of commons, July the 17th, Mr. Grattan opposed it with great freedom and boldness, asserting that the bill would disturb that tranquillity which it affected to preserve. He adduced some of the first law-authorities, Coke, Blackstone, and Hawkins—all of whom, he said, agree in declaring that no assembly can be unlawful, unless they meet to carry an illegal purpose into effect, or to effect a legal purpose in an illegal manner, or assemble in such circumstances as naturally induce terror and apprehension for the public peace, as when a number of men meet *armed* in order to redress grievances, &c. and those assemblies described by the bill were not of this class, since a meeting of peaceable men only, for the purpose of promoting a petition to parliament, was attended with none of those circumstances of terror.—In the house of lords a protest was entered against its committal, signed *Leinster, Arran, and Charlemont*, upon the ground that the law was already sufficient to prevent really riotous and illegal meetings, and that the present bill would restrain the subject in the exercise of some of his dearest rights.

The bill enacts that all persons assembling under the plea of being *elected to represent* the people of this realm, for the purpose of petitioning for an alteration of matters established by law in church and state, shall and may be apprehended by any sheriff or peace-officer. But the act provides that nothing therein contained shall tend to prevent the undoubted right of his majesty's subjects to petition his majesty, or either or both houses of parliament, for redress of any public or private grievances.

F R A N C E.

**H**AVING gone over the kingdom of Ireland, we shall now return to the continent, beginning with the extensive and mighty kingdom of France, being the nearest to England; though part of Germany and Poland lies to the northward of France.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	600	} between	{ 5 West and 8 East longitude.
Breadth	500		
Containing 160,374 square miles, with 155 inhabitants to each.			

**BOUNDARIES.]** It is bounded by the English channel and the Netherlands, on the North; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, East; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain. South; and by the Bay of Biscay, West.

**DIVISIONS.]** The ancient provinces of this kingdom have been divided by the national assembly into eighty-three departments \* as follow :

	Departments.	Chief Towns.	Inland Departments.	Chief Towns.
Ile of France.	PARIS . . . . .	PARIS } N. Lat. 48. 50. E. Lon. 2. 55.	MOSELLE . . . . .	Metz
	SEINE and OISE . . . . .	Verfailles	VOISONS . . . . .	Epinal
	SEINE and MARNE . . . . .	Melun	MEURTS . . . . .	Nanci
	OISE . . . . .	Beauvais	MEUSE . . . . .	Barleduc
	AISNE . . . . .	Laon	LOWER RHINE . . . . .	Strasbourg
	SOMME, Picardy . . . . .	Amiens	UPPER RHINE . . . . .	Colmar
	CAL. STRAIGHTS, Artois . . . . .	Arras	AUBE . . . . .	Truyes
	NORTH, Flanders . . . . .	Lille	MARNE . . . . .	Châlons
	LOWER SEINE . . . . .	Rouen	UPPER MARNE . . . . .	Chaumont
	CALVADOS . . . . .	Caen	ARDENNES . . . . .	Nezieres
ORNE . . . . .	Alençon	DOL . . . . .	Belfaçon	
KURE . . . . .	Evreux	JURA . . . . .	Dol	
CHANNEL . . . . .	Coutance	UPPER SAONE . . . . .	Yefoul	
ISLE and VILLAINIE . . . . .	Rennee	COTE D'OR . . . . .	Dijon	
LOWER LOIRE . . . . .	Nantes	SAONE and LOIRE . . . . .	Macon	
FINISTERRE . . . . .	Brest	YONNE . . . . .	Auxerre	
NORTH COAST . . . . .	St. Brieux	ISERE . . . . .	Grenoble	
MORRHAN . . . . .	Vannes	DROME . . . . .	Romans	
VIENNE . . . . .	Poitiers	UPPER ALPS . . . . .	Gsp	
VENDEE . . . . .	Fontenai-compte	ARDECHE . . . . .	Privas	
TWO SEVRES . . . . .	Niort	RHONE and LOIRE . . . . .	Lyons	
LOWER CHARENTE . . . . .	Santes	PUY de DOME . . . . .	Clermont.	
GIRONDE . . . . .	Bordeaux	CANTAL . . . . .	St. Flour	
UPPER VIENNE . . . . .	Limoges	UPPER LOIRE, Felay . . . . .	Le Puy	
LOT and GARONNE . . . . .	Agen	CORREZ, Limosin . . . . .	Tulle	
AVIERON . . . . .	Rodez	CREUSE, Marche . . . . .	Gueret	
DORDOGNE . . . . .	Perigueux	CHARENTE, Angoum. . . . .	Angouleme	
LOT . . . . .	Cahors	ALLIER, Bourbonnois . . . . .	Moulins	
GERES . . . . .	Auch	CHER . . . . .	Bourges	
UPPER PYRENEES . . . . .	Tarbe	AIN . . . . .	Bourg	
LOWER PYRENEES . . . . .	Pau	INDRE . . . . .	Chateauxroux	
LANDES . . . . .	Marfan	INDRE and LOIRE, Tour. . . . .	Tours	
EAST PYRENEES . . . . .	Perpignan	SARTE . . . . .	Le Mans	
UPPER GARONNE . . . . .	Toulouse	MAYENNE . . . . .	Laval	
GARD . . . . .	Nismes	MAINE and LOIRE . . . . .	Angers	
HERAULT . . . . .	Montpellier	LOIRET . . . . .	Orleans	
ARIEGE . . . . .	Foix	EURE and LOIRE . . . . .	Chartres	
TARNE . . . . .	Castres	LOIRE and CHER . . . . .	Blois	
AUDE . . . . .	Carcassonne	NIEVRE, Neversois . . . . .	Nevers	
LOZERE . . . . .	Mende	CORSICA island, recently united to the crown of Great Britain	Bastia.	
MOUTHS of RHONE . . . . .	Aix	Avignon and Venaissin were in this department.		
VAR . . . . .	Foulon			
LOWER ALPS . . . . .	Digne			

**NAME AND CLIMATE.]** France took its name from the Franks, or *Freemex*, a German nation, restless and enterprising, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants; and the Roman force not being able to repress them, they were permitted to settle in the country by treaty. By its situation, it is the most compact kingdom perhaps in the world, and well fitted for every purpose both of power and commerce; and since the beginning of the 15th century, the inhabitants have availed themselves of many of their natural advantages. The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the kingdom, is, in general, mild and wholesome;

\* France, nearly a square, was divided into 83 DEPARTMENTS, including Corsica. Every department is subdivided into DISTRICTS, in all 547; and each district into CANTONS. The above are the chief towns of each department, and also of the

districts. The new department of Savoy, which forms the 84th, is not added, it being at present uncertain whether it will continue its connection with France.

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but some late authors think it is not nearly so salubrious as is pretended; and it is well known that the French are singularly prone to exaggerate the benefits of their climate, as well as all their other advantages. It must indeed be owned, that their weather is more clear and settled than in England. In the northern provinces, however, the winters are more intensely cold, and the inhabitants not so well supplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood.

**SOIL AND WATER.]** France is happy in an excellent soil, which produces corn, wine, oil, and almost every luxury of life. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than those of England, but neither the pasturage nor tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts parch the ground, and destroy the verdure, and the soil barely produces as much rye and chefnuts as serve to subsist the poor inhabitants; but the chief misfortune attending the French soil is, that the inhabitants, having been uncertain of enjoying the full fruits of their labour, have not applied themselves sufficiently to agriculture\*. Notwithstanding great efforts made to produce this effect, much of the land remains uncultivated; and although some provinces, as Alsace and Languedoc, yield an exuberance of corn, yet this article is frequently imported. Indeed all Europe, one year with another, does not produce sufficient corn for its own consumption, and it is necessary to have supplies from America, whose inhabitants are almost entirely employed in agriculture.

The French lately endeavoured to supply the loss arising from their precarious title to their lands, by instituting academies of agriculture, and proposing premiums for its improvements, as in England; but those expedients, however successful they may be in particular instances, can never become of general utility in any but a free country, where the husbandman is sure of enjoying the fruit of his labour, which is far from being the case in the present distracted state of their public affairs. No nation is better supplied than France is, with wholesome springs and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent use, by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniences of life. Of their canals and mineral waters, distinct notice will be hereafter taken.

**MOUNTAINS.]** The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain; Vauze, which divides Lorraine from Burgundy and Alsace; Mount Jura, which divides Franche Compté from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mont D'Or, in the province of Auvergne.

**RIVERS AND LAKES.]** The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its course north and north-west, being, with all its windings, from its source to the sea, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone flows on the south-west to Lyons, and then runs on due south till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its course, first north-east, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, soon after its rise, runs to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English channel at Havre. To these we may add the Saone, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which rises near Havre de Grace, and discharges itself into the bay of Biscay at Rochefort; the Rhine, which rises in Switzerland, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the Sarre in its passage; the Somme, which runs north-west through Picardy, and falls into the English channel below Abbeville; the Var, which rises in the Alps, and runs south, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, west of Nice. The Adour runs from east to west, through Gascony, and falls into the bay of Biscay, below Bayonne.

\* It is computed that, of this extensive kingdom, only 36 millions of acres are cultivated.

The vast advantage, both in commerce and conveniency, which arises to France from these rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and completed in 1680: it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the speedier passage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on at an immense expence, for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not answered the end in view. By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of eighteen leagues, to the immense benefit of commerce and the revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation highly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Aigre, which the vulgar report to be bottomless. There is another at Issoire, in Auvergne; and one at La Besse, in which if you throw a stone, it causes a noise like thunder.

**MINERAL WATERS AND } REMARKABLE SPRINGS. }** The waters of Bareges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred for salubrity to all others in France. The best judges think, however, that the cures performed by them, are more owing to their accidental success with some great persons, and the driness of the air and soil, than to the virtue of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach in Alsace are said to cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the stone. At Bagneres, not far from Bareges, are several wholesome minerals and baths, to which people resort, as to the English baths, at spring and autumn. Forges, in Normandy, is celebrated for its mineral waters; and those of St. Amand cure the gravel and obstructions. It would be endless to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, as well as many remarkable springs; but there is one near Aigne in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noise like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taste, yet possesses a poisonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die instantly.

**METALS AND MINERALS. }** France has many unworked *mines*, which would be very productive, if duly attended to, but at present do not yield minerals sufficient for consumption; steel alone is imported, to the annual value of 125,000*l*. Languedoc is said to contain veins of gold and silver. Alsace has mines of silver and copper, but not rich enough to bear the expence of working them. Alabaster, black marble, jasper and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. Saltpetre is made in every part of the kingdom, and *sea-salt* is now procured free from oppressive duty, but not remarkable for its purity. At Laverdau, in Coninges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which aids the fusion of metals, and is used for dyeing, particularly the best drab cloths; and in the province of Anjou, are several quarries of fine white stone. Some excellent turquoises (the only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-stone open all over the kingdom.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO- } DUCIONS BY SEA AND LAND. }** France abounds in excellent roots, in all kinds of seasoning and fallads, and in excellent fruits of all kinds, particularly grapes, figs, prunes, chestnuts, cyder in the northern provinces, and capers in the southern. It produces annually, though not enough for consumption, above twelve million pounds of tobacco, besides hemp, flax, manna, saffron, and many drugs. Alsace, Burgundy, Lorraine, and especially the Pyrenean mountains, supply it plentifully with timber and other wood.

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wood. Silk is so plentifully produced, besides what is imported, as to afford a considerable trade. The cattle and horses are neither very numerous, nor very good, but it has many flocks of fine *sheep*; yet so great is the consumption, that both sheep and wool are imported. The province of Gatinois produces great quantities of saffron; 1,600,000 acres are laid out in vineyards. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Gascony, Bourdeaux, and other provinces of France, are so well known, that they need only be mentioned. It is sufficient to observe, that though they differ very sensibly in their taste and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly those of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Hermitage, and Frontinac; and there are few constitutions, be they ever so valetudinary, to which some one or other of them is not adapted.

Wine, the staple, is made to the value of 15,000,000*l.* annually, more than an eighth part of which, besides brandy and vinegar, was exported. Olive-oil is made in large quantities, particularly in the provinces next the Mediterranean; but the consumption is so great, that much of it is imported from Italy: the inferior sort supplies the soap manufactories, of which there are thirty-six at Marseilles.

Oak, elm, ash, and other timber, common in England, is found in France; but it is said, that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of salt is made at Rhee, and about Rochefort, on the coast of Saintonge. Languedoc produces the herb kali, which, when burnt, makes excellent barilla, or pot-ashes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at present far inferior to the English, both in the management and disposition of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, except wolves. Their horses, black cattle, and sheep, are far inferior to the English; nor is the wool of their sheep so fine. The hair and skins of the chamois or mountain goats are very valuable. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and those of England, but that the former is not so well served, even on the sea-coasts, with salt-water fish. There is a considerable herring-fishery, and one for anchovies, to the annual amount of 83,000*l.* besides more important fisheries upon the coast of America and Newfoundland.

FORESTS.] The chief forests of France are those of Orleans, which contain 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, ash, &c. and the forest of Fontainebleau near as large; and near Morehismoir is a forest of tall, straight timber, of 4000 trees. Besides these, large numbers of woods, some of them deserving the name of forests, lie in different provinces; but too remote from sea-carriage to be of much national utility.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } According to the latest and best  
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } calculations, France contains at present about 25,000,000 of inhabitants. It was lately supposed by some speculative men, that the population of France had for many years been upon the decline; but, upon an accurate investigation, the reverse appeared to be the fact; though this country certainly lost a great number of valuable inhabitants by the revocation of the edict of Nantes\*. The proportion of the people of England, to those of France, is asserted to be as 1 to 14.

The French, in their persons, are rather lower than their neighbours; but they are well proportioned and active. The ladies are celebrated more for their spright-

\* In the year 1598, Henry IV. who was a Protestant, and justly styled the Great, after fighting his way to the crown of France, passed the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to the Protestants the free exercise of their religion; but this edict was revoked by Lewis XIV. which, with the succeeding persecutions, drove that people to England, Holland, and other Protestant countries, where they established the silk manufacture, to the great prejudice of the country that persecuted them, and no less to the advantage of that which received them.

ly wit than personal beauty; the peasantry in general were remarkably ordinary, and were best described by being contrasted with those of the same rank in England. The nobility and gentry accomplished themselves in the academical exercises of dancing, fencing, and riding, in the practice of which they excelled. They were fond of hunting; and the gentry, before the Revolution, had left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-saddle, and monstrous curb-bridle in that exercise, and accommodated themselves to the English fashion.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the subject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant foible; and they are perhaps the only people who have derived great utility from this weakness. It confirms their sense of honour, supports them under misfortunes, and impels them to actions to which true courage inspires other nations. This character has been conspicuous both in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers; and in the common soldiers of France, who, it must be confessed, in the present war against the allied powers, have discovered prodigies of valour.

This lively people display freedom and wit in their conversation. Their diversions are much the same with those of the English, but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair degenerates into gross soppery in the men, and in the ladies it is sometimes kept up by the admission of indecent freedoms; but the seeming levities of both sexes are seldom attended with that criminality which, to people not used to their manners, they seem to indicate; nor are the husbands so indifferent, as strangers are apt to imagine, about the conduct of their wives. The French are excessively credulous and litigious; but of all people in the world, they bear depression of fortune with the best grace; though in prosperity many of them are apt to be insolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious.

The French are, or rather were, eminently distinguished for their politeness and good manners, which may be traced, though in different proportions, through every order of society. Indeed, the polished mildness of French manners, and the gay and sociable turn of the nation, have been much censured for insincerity; but this charge has been carried too far, and the imputation is generally owing to their excess of civility, which throws a suspicious light upon their candour. The French, in private life, have certainly many amiable qualities, and a great number of instances of generosity and disinterestedness may be found amongst them.

The French long possessed the lead in taste, fashion, and dress; but it seems now to be in the wane, and, before the present troubles, they thought very favourably of the English. People of fashion in France then studied the English language, and imitated them in their customs, amusements, dress, and buildings. They imitated and admired our writers; the names of Bacon, Locke, Newton, Milton, Pope, Addison, Hume, Robertson, Richardson, and many others of the last and present century, were sacred among the French of any education; and, to say the truth, the writings of such men have equally contributed, with our military reputation, to raise the name of Great Britain to that degree in which it is now held by foreign nations; and to render the knowledge of our language an ornamental and almost necessary accomplishment. But we cannot quit this article of the manners and customs of the French, without giving a more minute view of some striking peculiarities recently prevailing among this people, from the remarks of a late ingenious traveller, who was also distinguished by various other productions in polite literature.

“The natural levity of the French, says Smollett, is reinforced by the most profligate 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,

tongue, and to say his prayers in a language he does not understand. He learns to dance and to fence by the masters of those sciences. He becomes a complete coiffeur in dressing hair, and in adorning his own person, under the hand and intructions of his barber and valet-de-chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or the fiddle, he is altogether irresistible. But he piques himself upon being polished above the natives of any other country, by his conversation with the fair sex. In the course of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments, which are a set of phrases, ridiculous even to a proverb; and these he throws out indiscriminately to all women without distinction, in the exercise of that kind of address which is here distinguished by the name of gallantry. It is an exercise, by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in consequence of his mingling with the females from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their customs and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thousand little offices, which are overlooked by other men, whose time hath been spent in making more valuable acquisitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady's bed-chamber while she is in bed, reaches her whatever she wants, airs her shift, and helps to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the distribution of her patches, and advises where to lay on the paint. If he visits her when she is dressed, and perceives the least impropriety in her coiffure, he insists upon adjusting it with his own hands. If he sees a curl, or even a single hair amiss, he produces his comb, his scissors, and pomatum, and sets it to rights with the dexterity of a professed friseur. He squires her to every place he visits, either on pleasure or business; and, by dedicating his whole time to her, renders himself necessary to her occasions. In short, of all the coxcombs on the face of the earth, a French *petit-maitre* is the most impertinent; and they are all *petits-maitres*, from the marquis who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the *garçon barbier* (barber's boy) covered with meal, who struts with his hair in a long queue, and his hat under his arm.

"A Frenchman will sooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the soldiers in France wear a long queue; and this ridiculous foppery has descended to the lowest class of people. The boy who cleans shoes at the corner of a street has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar who drives an ass, wears his hair *en queue*, though, perhaps, he has neither shirt nor breeches.

"I shall only mention one custom more, which seems to carry human affectation to the very farthest verge of folly and extravagance: that is, the manner in which the faces of the ladies are primed and painted. It is generally supposed, that part of the fair sex, in some other countries, make use of *sard* and vermilion for very different purposes; namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I shall not inquire whether it is just and honest to impose in this manner on mankind; if it is not honest, it may be allowed to be artful and politic, and shews at least a desire of being agreeable. But to lay it on, as the fashion in France prescribes to all the ladies of condition, who indeed cannot appear without this badge of distinction, is to disguise themselves in such a manner, as to render them odious and detestable to every spectator who has the least relish left for nature and propriety. As for the *sard*, or *white*, with which their necks and shoulders are plaitered, it may be in some measure excusable, as their skins are naturally brown, or fallow; but the *rouge*, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to the eyes, without the least art or dexterity, not only destroys all distinction of features, but renders the aspect really frightful, or at least conveys nothing but the idea of disgust and aversion. Without this horrible mask, no married lady is admitted at court, or in any polite assembly;

assembly; and it is a mark of distinction, which none of the lower classes dare assume."

The above picture of French manners, before the revolution, is drawn with wit and spirit, and is in some respects highly characteristic; but it is certainly not a flattering portrait, and the faults and failings of this vivacious people are too much magnified. With all their defects, the French had many good qualities, paid great attention to strangers; and a general taste for literature prevailed among those in the better ranks of life.

**DRESS.]** The dress of both sexes is well known, but is, however, so variable, that it is next to impossible to describe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their frequently changing their fashions was of infinite service to their manufactures.

**RELIGION.]** By the laws of the new constitution, no man is to be molested for his opinions, nor interrupted in the exercise of his religion. The territorial possessions of the Gallican church have been claimed as national property, and disposed of, through the medium of a paper money called assignats, for the creditors of the state; and the clergy made dependent upon pensionary establishments paid out of the national treasury; out of which also is paid the expences of worship, the religious, and the poor. All monastic establishments are suppressed; but the present friars and nuns are allowed to observe their vows, and the nuns optionally to remain in their convents, or retire upon pensions.

The clergy are elective by the people, and take an oath to observe the laws of the new constitution\*. They notify to the bishop of Rome their union in doctrine, but do not pay him fees, nor acknowledge any subordination to his authority. They are supplied with lodgings upon their livings, wheron they are obliged to reside, and perform the duties of their office. They vote as active citizens, and are eligible to some lay-offices in the districts, but to no principal ones.

**ARCHBISHOPRICKS, BISHOPRICKS, &c.]** France, divided into nine metropolitan circles, has a **METROPOLITAN BISHOP** with a **synod** in each, besides one for Paris. The metropolitan bishop is confirmed by the eldest bishop in his circle. Appeals are made from the bishops to these synods.

A **BISHOP** is appointed to each of the eighty-three *departments*, which form so many dioceses. They are appointed by the electoral assembly of the department, and confirmed by the metropolitan bishop, but must have held an ecclesiastical office fifteen years. The salaries are from 500l. to 840l. per annum. Each diocese has also a *seminary*, with three vicars and a vicar general, to prepare students for holy orders; and these vicars form a council for the bishop.

**VICARS** of bishops are chosen by the bishop, from among the clergy of his diocese, who have done duty ten years. The salaries are from 84l. to 250l. per annum.

**MINISTERS** of parishes or cures in the districts are confirmed by the bishop, and they must have been vicars to ministers five years. They have salaries from 50l. to 116l. per annum, and, when infirm, receive pensions.

**VICARS** of ministers are chosen by the minister, from among the priests admitted in the diocese by the bishop, and receive salaries from 30l. to 100l. sterling per annum.

France contains more than two millions of non-catholics; and the *protestants*, who are greatly increasing, are, in proportion to the catholics, as 1 to 12. There are already many regular congregations, viz. German Lutherans, French and Swiss Calvinists, Bohemian anabaptists, and Walden or Flemish dissenters, besides many chapels for the ambassadors. It also contains many Jews.

\* Many of the clergy, called *refractory priests*, from a conscientious refusal of this oath, have been ejected from their benefices, and many of the popular curates made bishops.

LANGUAGE.] One of the wisest measures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every proposal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. His munificence, with other concurring causes, rendered it the most universal of all the living tongues. The French is chiefly composed of words radically Latin, with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks. It is now rather on the decay; its corner stones, fixed under Lewis XIV. are as it were loosened; and in the present mode of writing, and expressing themselves, the modern French too often abandon that grammatical standard, which alone can render a language classical and permanent.

As to the properties of the language, it wants the dignity and energy of the English, but is well adapted to subjects void of elevation or passion, and well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common conversation.

The Lord's prayer in French is as follows: *Notre père qui es aux cieux, ton nom soit sanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté soit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'hui notre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous nos offenses, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offensés. Et ne nous induis point en tentation, mais nous délivre du mal; car à toi est le regne, la puissance, et la gloire, aux siècles des siècles. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The French, like the other nations of Europe, were for many centuries immersed in barbarity. The first learning they began to acquire was not of that kind which improves the understanding, corrects the taste, or regulates the affections. It consisted in a subtle and quibbling logic, which was more adapted to pervert than to improve the faculties. But the study of the Greek and Roman writers, which first arose in Italy, diffused itself among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary pursuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in France, who greatly distinguished themselves by their writings; among whom were Budæus, Clement Marot, Peter du Chatel, Rabelais, and Peter Ramus. The names of Henry and Robert Stephens are mentioned by every real scholar with reverence. It was not, however, till the seventeenth century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The *Académie Française* was formed for promoting this purpose: and though their labours, considered as a body, were not so successful as might have been expected, some particular academicians did great service to letters. In fact, literary copartnerships are seldom very successful. Of this we have a remarkable instance in the present case. The academy published a dictionary for improving the French language: it was generally condemned. Furetières, a single academician, publishes another: it meets with universal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Augustus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the pensions he bestowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, little exceeded 12,000*l.* per annum, gained him more glory than all the military enterprises upon which he expended so many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign are too numerous to be particularised. The tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, have deservedly obtained a very high reputation: the first was distinguished for his skill in moving the passions; the second for majesty; and both, for the strength and justness of their painting, the elegance of their taste, and their strict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere would have exhausted the subjects of comedy, were they not every where inexhaustible, and particularly in France. In works of satire, and in criticism, Boileau, who was a closer imitator of the ancients, occupies the first place. But France has not yet produced an epic poem that can be compared with Milton's; nor a genius of the same extensive and universal kind with Shakespeare, equally fitted for the gay and the serious, the humorous and the sublime.

In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our superiors: Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Massillon, carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection unexampled and unrivalled. The French have not so many good didactic writers on moral, religious, or political subjects, as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced some great men, who do honour to humanity; whose career no obstacle could stop, whose freedom no government, however despotic, no religion, however superstitious, could curb or restrain. As an historian, De Thou is entitled to the highest praise: and who is ignorant of Pascal, or of the archbishop of Cambray? Few men have done more service to religion, either by their writings or their lives. As for Montesquieu, he has been, with some justice, extolled as the legislator of nations; his works are read in every country and language, and wherever they go, they enlighten and liberalise the mind. And, indeed, the distinguished literary productions of Lewis XV.'s reign universally breath sentiments incompatible with superstition or despotism; but too many of them incur the opposite reproach of irreligion and licence.

In the Belles Lettres, poetical and miscellaneous way, no nation ever produced a greater number of amusing authors; but unfortunately amusement is too often, not only their chief, but their sole end and aim, which many of them (particularly Voltaire and his imitators) have pursued at the expence of virtue and good morals.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Descartes was held the greatest philosopher in modern times. He was the first who applied algebra to the solution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical discoveries of Newton. Many eminent mathematicians have flourished in the present age, particularly Clairaut, Bezout, and D'Alembert; but none whose inventive genius entitles them to rank in the first class.

Since the beginning of the present century, the French have almost vied with the English in natural philosophy. Buffon would deserve to be reckoned among men of science, were he not more remarkable for his eloquence than his philosophy. He is to be regarded as a philosophical painter of nature; and, under this view, his Natural History is the first work of its kind.

Their painters, Poussin, Le Brun, and, above all, Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. And in our own times, Mr. Greufe, for portraits and conversation-pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in most other countries of Europe. Their engravings on copper plates have been universally and justly celebrated; but such a liberal patronage has been afforded to English artists, that they are now thought to excel their ingenious neighbours, and have rivalled them also in the manufacture of the paper proper for such impressions. Their treatises on ship-building and engineering stand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the English. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were our superiors in civil architecture; though we now surpass them in this art.

We shall conclude this head with observing, that, in consequence of many recent discoveries in chemistry, natural history, geography, &c. the French literati had made great progress in new-modelling and enlarging the Encyclopædia, or General Dictionary of Arts and Sciences, originally drawn up by the most able masters in each branch of literature, in 28 volumes in folio (six of which are copper-plates), under the direction of Messieurs D'Alembert and Diderot.

UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC COLLEGES.] These literary institutions sustained a considerable loss by the expulsion of the Jesuits, who made the languages, arts, and sciences, their particular study, and taught them all over France. The universities or public colleges, are in number twenty-eight, as follow; Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Befançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen,

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\* See M  
Review for

Cahors, Dol, Douay, La Fleche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Point Moufon, Richlieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg, Toulouse, Tournoise, and Valence. Among these the Sorbonne at Paris was the most celebrated.

ACADEMIES.] The following literary establishments were supported out of the national treasury: the French Academy, Academy of Belles Lettres, Academy of Sciences, Royal Society of Medicine, King's Library, Observatory, and the Free-school of design.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.} Few countries, if we except Italy, can  
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } boast of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and consequently, compared with them, those of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a most curious account of the sepulchres of their kings, which have been discovered so far back as Pharamond; and some of them, when broke open, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be seen triumphal arches: the most entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones, by Caius Marius and Lucatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and sacred; some of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itself. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Chalons, and likewise at Vienne. Nismes, however, exhibits the most valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raised in the Augustan age by the Roman colony of Nismes, to convey a stream of water between two mountains for the use of that city; and the building is fresh to this day; it consists of three bridges, or tiers of arches, one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Nismes; but the chief are the temple of Diana; the amphitheatre, which is thought to be the finest and most entire of the kind, of any in Europe; but above all, the house erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maison Carrée. The architecture and sculpture of this building are so exquisitely beautiful, that it enchants even the most ignorant; and it is still entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havoc of war. At Paris, in La Rue de la Harpe, may be seen the remains of a palace, or thermæ, supposed to have been built by the emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, about the year 356, after the same model as the baths of Dioclesian. The remains of this ancient edifice consist of many arches, and within them a large saloon. It is fabricated of a kind of mastic, the composition of which is now known, intermixed with small square pieces of free-stone and bricks. But the most extraordinary of all artificial curiosities are the subterraneous caverns at Paris: for the first building of that city, it was necessary to get the stone in the environs: as Paris was enlarged, the streets and suburbs extended to, and were built on the ancient quarries from which the stone had been taken; and hence proceed the caverns or frightful cavities, which are found under the houses in several quarters of the city. Eight persons lately perished in one of them, a gulf of 150 feet deep; which excited the police and government, to cause the buildings of several quarters to be privately propped up. All the suburbs of St. James's, Harp-street, and even the street of Tournon stand upon the ancient quarries, and pillars have been erected to support the weight of the houses.—But as the lofty buildings, towers and steeples, now tell the eye, that what is seen in the air, is wanting under the feet, so it would not require a very violent thock, to throw back the stones to the places from whence they have been raised\*.

\* See Memoirs of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester, vol. 2.—See also Monthly Review for 1786, vol. 75, p. 414.

At Arles in Provence is an obelisk of oriental granite, 52 feet high, and seven feet diameter at the base, and all but one stone. Roman temples and aqueducts are frequent in France. The most remarkable are in Burgundy and Guienne. The passage, cut through the middle of a rock near Briancon in Dauphiny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of massy silver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty-one pounds, containing the story of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coeval with that great general. Innumerable antiquities, found in France, have been collected in the cabinets of the curious.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] These are numerous; of which we shall mention only Paris, Lille, and their principal sea-ports, Brest and Toulon.

Lille, in French Flanders, is thought to be the most regular and strongest fortification in Europe, and was the master-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garrisoned with above 10,000 regulars; and for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of silk, cambric, and camblets, were very considerable; and its inhabitants amount to about 100,000. Every reader is acquainted with the history of Dunkirk, which the French were obliged by the treaty of Utrecht to demolish; but it is still a thorn in the side of the English, by being a harbour for their smugglers. The rest of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carried on very gainful manufactures.

Moving southward, we come to the Isle of France; the capital of which, and of the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been so often described, that it may appear superfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference, which it by no means deserves, to all the capitals in the world, in every respect, not excepting even population. Many of the English have been imposed upon in this point; particularly by calculating from the births and burials within the bills of mortality, which exclude the most populous parishes about London. Another mistake arises from this source, viz. the number of dissenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not register the births of their children; and from many of the poorer sort, who will not afford the small expence of such a registration. Another peculiarity existing in London is, that most of the citizens in affluent circumstances, when they find themselves consumptive, or otherwise indisposed, retire into the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris, therefore, where the registers are more exact, and accessible to the poor, and where the religion and the police were, before the troubles, more uniform and strict, is far more easily ascertained than that of London; and by the best accounts, it does not exceed 7 or 800,000, which is far short of the inhabitants of London and the contiguous parishes.

Paris is dividet into three parts; the city, the university, and that which was formerly called the town. The city is old Paris; the university and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of magnificence than utility. Its palaces were showy, and some of its streets, squares, hotels, hospitals, and churches, superbly decorated with a profusion of paintings, tapettry, images, and statues; but Paris, notwithstanding its boasted police, was always greatly inferior to London, in the conveniencies of life, and the solid enjoyments of society. Without entering into more minute disquisitions, Paris, it must be owned, was the paradise of splendor and dissipation. The tapettry of the Gobelines\* is unequalled for beauty and richness. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itself; it was

\* One *Gobelin*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the first who settled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the house has retained his name ever since; and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, established that valuable manufactory.

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adorned by many excellent institutions for the arts and sciences, particularly the three academies, and ennobled by the residence of the learned. The Tuilleries, the palace of Orleans, or, as it is called, Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings were shewn, the palace and library (which belonged to the late unfortunate king), the guild-hall, and the hospital for the invalids, were superb to the highest degree. The city of Paris is said to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels, formerly occupied by the French noblesse at Paris, take up a great deal of room with their court-yards and gardens; and so do their convents and churches. The streets are very narrow, and the houses very high; many of them seven stories. The houses are built of stone, and generally mean, even to wretchedness, owing partly to their containing a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half so large as the Thames at London: it is too far distant from the sea for the purposes of navigation, and furnished with boats only for the purpose of passing from one side of the river to the other, in places distant from the bridges, which are built of stone or wood, with little to recommend them. The streets of Paris were generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gave that capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur, though in reality there was more show than substance. The glittering carriages that dazzled the eyes of strangers, were mostly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who visit that city; and in truth, the greatest part of the trade of Paris arose from the constant succession of strangers arriving daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This ascendancy was undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their politeness and magnificence, their libraries, and collections of paintings, all open to the public; the cheapness of provisions, excellency of the French wines, and above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all these advantages, Paris, in general, will not bear a comparison with London, in the more essential circumstances of a thriving foreign and domestic trade, the cleanliness of their streets, elegance of their houses, especially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which generally disagrees with strangers, as do likewise their small wines. In the houses of Paris, most of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being sprinkled with water, and swept once a day. These brick floors, the stone stairs, the want of wainscoting in the rooms, and the thick party-walls of stone, are, however, good preservatives against fire, which seldom does any damage in this city. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are covered with tapestry or damask. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented with tester and curtains; but bugs are here a most intolerable nuisance, which frequently oblige strangers to sleep on the floor, during the heat of the summer. Their shops are but poorly stored with goods; and the shop-keepers and tradesmen, an indolent, loitering people, seldom make their appearance before dinner in any other than a morning dress, of velvet cap, silk night-gown, and morocco slippers; but when they intend a visit, or going abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to, and hardly the resemblance of a man remains. There is a remarkable contrast between this class of people, and those of the same rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do most of the drudgery business of the shop, while the husband loiters about, talks of the great, of fashions and diversions, and the invincible force of their armies. The splendour of the grand monarch used also to be with them a favourite topic of conversation, previous to the change in their political system. The Parisians, however, as well as the natives of France in general, are temperate in their living; and to be drunken is considered as infamous. Eread, and all manner of butchers' meat and poultry, were tolerably good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink, is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common

common people, in the summer season, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and small wine. The Parisians scarcely know the use of tea, but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris was so well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, seldom happened; and strangers, from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever so uncommon, met with the most polite treatment. The streets were patrolled at night by horse and foot, so judiciously stationed, that no offender could escape their vigilance. They likewise visited the publicans precisely at the hour of twelve at night, to see that the company were gone; for in Paris no liquor could be had after that time. The public roads in France were under the same excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, which was used till of late, prevented robberies in that kingdom; but for the same reason, when robberies did happen, they were always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller; and indeed this is the general practice in every country of Europe, Great Britain excepted.

The environs of Paris are very pleasant, and contain a number of fine seats, small towns and villages; some of them, being scattered on the edges of lofty mountains rising from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Versailles, which stands twelve miles from Paris, though magnificent and expensive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furnish, is properly a collection of buildings, each of exquisite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and sublime of that art. The gardens, and water-works (which are supplied by means of prodigious engines across the Seine at Marli, about three miles distance), are astonishing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a stranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Moudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taste and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amusement of that luxurious court which lately occupied them; but some of them were, even then, in a shameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanliness.

Brest is a small, but very strong town, upon the English Channel, with a most spacious and well fortified road and harbour, the best and safest in the kingdom; yet its entrance is difficult, occasioned by many rocks lying under water. Here there is an academy for sea-affairs; and also docks, and magazines for all kinds of naval stores, rope-yards, store-houses, &c. inasmuch that it may now be termed the capital receptacle for the navy of France, and it is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon (now called Port de la Montagne), from a pitiful village, a sea-port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour, for the reception and protection of the navy. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ships pass from one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the spacious outer harbour. Its arsenal, established also by that king, has a particular storehouse for each ship of war; its guns, cordage, &c. being separately laid up. Here are spacious workshops for blacksmiths, joiners, carpenters, locksmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-work, of stone, is 320 toises or fathoms in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular storehouses, and contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV. justly styled the Great, the famous Colbert, minister to Lewis XIV. may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illustrious a figure as a trading, as she did then as a warlike people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally possess that persevering industry which is necessary for commerce and colonization, though no people, in theory, understand them better. It is to be considered at the same time, that

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France, by her situation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happiness of her soil, must be always possessed of great inland and neighbouring trade.

The silk manufacture was introduced into France so late as the reign of Henry IV. and in the age of his grandson Lewis XIV, the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulsion of the Protestants, and the ruinous war maintained by France, they decreased to 4000; and their silk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French Protestants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. Next to Tours France contained 1,500 silk-mills, 21,000 looms for stuffs, 12,000 for ribbons and lace, 20,000 for silk stockings, all of which employed two millions of people. They also manufacture gloves and stockings from spider-silk. The French woollen cloths and stuffs, more especially at Abbeville, Amiens, and Paris, were said to be little inferior to those of England, and had greatly injured them, particularly in the Turkish market, assisted by the clandestine importation of English and Irish wool, and workmen from this country.

In *manufactures*, the French were long distinguished for their invention, and the English for their superior improvement. Abbeville was famous for cloth, linen, sail-cloth, and soap; Auvergne for fine thread, lace, stuffs, and paper; Nismes for fine serges; Cambrai for cambrics; St. Quentin for lawns; and Picardy for plate-glass. But the peaceful labours of France are now suspended, and all hands are employed either in bearing arms, or in providing for those who do.

The districts adjoining the British Channel contain many sheep of the English breed, which are said to degenerate by removal from their native soil.

Besides the infinite advantage arising from her inland commerce, from her rivers, navigable canals, and a connexion with two seas, her foreign trade, before the late troubles, might be said to extend itself all over the globe. It is a doubtful point, whether France was a loser by its cession of Canada and part of Louisiana at the peace in 1763. The most valuable part of Hispaniola in the West Indies, which she possessed by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a most improvable acquisition, and was the most considerable of all her foreign colonies; but part of it has lately surrendered to the British arms, as well as the important sugar islands of Martinico, Guadeloupe, St. Lucia, Tobago, St. Bartholomew, Descada, and Marigalante. Her possessions in North America are only a small tract upon the Mississippi.

The French possessions in the East Indies were never very considerable; but such as they are, they are now in the hands of the English.

Mr. Anderson gives the following description of her trade before the late revolution: Her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons—To Germany, through Metz and Strassburgh—To the Netherlands, through Lille—To Spain (a most profitable one), through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the western ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to the great advantage of France, more especially respecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marseilles), with Turkey and Africa, has long been very considerable. The negro trade from Guinea supplies her sugar colonies, besides the gold, ivory, and drugs got from thence.

The *exports* are wine, vinegar, brandy, oil, silks, satins, linens, cambrics, woollen cloth, tapestries, laces, gold and silver embroideries, toys, trinkets, perfumery, paper, prints, books, dyes, &c. The *imports* are hardware, earthenware, cottons, metals, hemp, flax, silk, wool, horses, East and West India goods, &c. France employs one million tons of shipping, with near 50,000 seamen; and before the revolution, the imports were valued at 9,583,333l. the exports at 12,500,000l. and it

had a *balance of trade* of more than two millions in its favour; but its trade and manufactures have since declined.

In the year 1739, France may be said to have been in the zenith of her commerce. Favoured by Spain, and dreaded by most of the other powers of Europe, her fleets covered the ocean; but she was too confident in her superiority; Cardinal de Fleury, who then directed her affairs, took little care to protect her trade by proper naval armaments; so that the greater it was, it became the more valuable prey to the English, and some other countries.

[**PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.**] It has no trading companies (having abolished all monopoly) but a bank or *caisse d'escompte*, and a bank of extraordinaries.

[**CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.**] France, by the revolution in 1789, founded a *new constitution*, upon the principles that all men are free and equal in their rights, and that sovereignty resides in the nation. It would be trifling with our readers to give them any detail of this constitution, as it has been virtually overthrown, by the abolition of the monarchical part of it, and by the subsequent condemnation and execution of the king; a deed of most singular atrocity, by which the national convention have stamped eternal infamy upon their characters.—A committee was appointed by the convention to draw up a new constitution, which has made its appearance; but how long it will continue, is a question extremely problematical, as to render it improper, in the present stage of it, to give it a place in this work.

After the reader has been told of the excellency of the climate, and the fertility of the soil in France; her numerous manufactures, and extensive commerce; her great cities, numerous towns, sea-ports, rivers, and canals; the cheapness of provisions, wines, and liquors; the formidable armies and fleets she has sent forth, to the annoyance of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their sprightliness and gaiety; he will undoubtedly conclude, that France is the most powerful nation, and her people the most opulent and happy in Europe. But this is not the case; for the French resources, by a wrong application, have often proved ruinous to the people. The most obvious causes of this have been the ambition and vanity of their kings and leading men, which led them into schemes of universal dominion, to promote the aggrandisement of their name, and the enslaving of Christendom. Their wars, which they sometimes carried on against one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the subject, under various pretences, in the name of loans, free-gifts, &c. When these failed, other methods, more despotic and unwarrantable, such as raising and reducing the value of money as it suited their own purposes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppressions, were adopted, which gave the finishing blow to public credit, and shook the foundations of trade, commerce, and industry, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

When we consider the motives of these wars, a desire to enslave and render miserable the nations around them; that man must be devoid of humanity, whose breast is not raised with indignation at the bare mention of the blood that has been spilt, the miseries and desolations that have happened, and the numerous places that have fallen sacrifices to their ambition. It appears too plain, that, while they thus grasped after foreign conquest, their own country exhibited a picture of misery and beggary. Their towns, a very few excepted, make a most dismal and solitary appearance; for the truth of which we may appeal to the observation of any one who has been in that kingdom. Were it possible to mention a people more indigent than these citizens, we might describe the farmers and peasantry. We have in another place mentioned the natural advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and most extensive plains produce excellent crops of corn, rye, and barley. Amidst this profusion of plenty, the farmer and his family barely exist-

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ed upon the gleanings; and his cattle, which were seldom numerous, picked a subsistence, in the summer months, from the skirts of his fields. Here the farmer, meagre, dispirited, and distressed, exhibited a spectacle of indigence hardly credible; and to see him ploughing the ground with a lean cow, ass, and a goat yoked together, excited in an English traveller that pity to which human nature is entitled — he forgot the country, while he felt for the man.

REVENUES.] Mr. Lafond presented to the assembly, Dec. 30, 1791, the following general estimate, from the particular estimate of the ministers for the year 1792:

	Livres.		Livres.
Appanage of princes	5,000,000	Bridges and roads	4,000,000
Foreign affairs	6,000,000	High national court and court of appeal	450,000
Marine and colonies	43,000,000	Schools and academies	1,000,000
General administration	5,000,000	Interests of debt	10,000,000
Public worship	81,000,000	Life annuities	100,000,000
Pensions to ecclesiastics	68,000,000	Perpetual annuities	300,000,000
National assembly	5,000,000	besides the expences of the army.	
Civil list	25,000,000		

The WAYS and MEANS.

By land-tax, a tax on personal property, patents, stamps, &c. valued at 530,000,000 livres; the remaining sum to be provided for from the fund of extraordinary.

The extraordinary expences of the army, colonies, and public worship, would soon cease, and bring the expenditure on a level with the revenue.

Some authors make the amount of the assessed taxes, for the year 1792, only 300,000,000 livres, equal to 12,500,000*l.* sterling, and with the incidental taxes, in all, 15,500,000*l.* sterling; near nine million less than before the revolution, when the noblesse and clergy were exempted.

All excises and excisemen, tythes, and game-laws, are now abolished, and the roads maintained at the public expence.

The REVENUE, in the year 1788, before the Revolution, was twenty millions and a half sterling; and its ordinary expenditure exceeded the revenue five millions and a half.

The public DEBT, in the year 1784, was 141,666,000*l.*

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] There is no nation in Europe where the art of war, particularly that part of it relating to gunnery and fortification, is better understood than in France. Besides other methods for cultivating it, there is a royal military academy established, for training up 500 young gentlemen, in the several branches of this great art.

ARMY.] The peace establishment of the army, for the year 1791, was,

Infantry	111,000
Cavalry	30,000
Artillery	11,000
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Total	152,000

These are called *troops of the line*, and, along with the volunteer national guards, form an army of 224,000 men.

The *municipal army* or national guards are a kind of embodied militia for the interior defence of the kingdom, and amount to between three and four millions.

The *gens-d'armes* are an auxiliary body of troops, for the protection of the laws and police.

NAVY.] The report of the minister, towards the close of the year 1791, states the ships in good condition to be 86 of the line, and; including those building, as follows:

Large first rates	8
100 Guns	5
80 Guns	10
74 Guns	67
64 Guns	1
	<hr/>
	Total 91
Frigates	78
Besides fireships, corvettes, galleys, and cutters.	

But this account will now (1794) admit of considerable deductions, from the number of ships which were destroyed by the British upon the evacuation of Toulon, and from those captured and sunk by earl Howe, in the naval victory he obtained over the French fleet, on the 1st of June this year.

There are 80,000 seamen, with officers registered, to man the fleet; but the French navy is at present without proper subordination.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, NOBILITY, } The NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, desirous  
AND ORDERS. } of establishing the French constitution on the principles it has declared, abolished, irrevocably, those institutions which are injurious to liberty and equality of rights.

There is no longer any nobility, nor peerage, nor hereditary distinctions, nor difference of orders, nor feudal government, nor patrimonial jurisdiction, nor any of the titles, denominations and prerogatives, which are derived from them; nor any of the orders of chivalry, corporations, or decorations, for which proofs of nobility were required; nor any kind of superiority, but that of public functionaries in the exercise of their functions.

Royalty, which was one branch of the first constitution, is now abolished; and the unfortunate monarch decapitated.

HISTORY.] The history of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly interesting to a British reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Transalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cisalpine Gaul, on the Italian side of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it soon became a desirable object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave resistance, was annexed to their empire by the invincible arms of Julius Cæsar, about forty-eight years before Christ. Gaul continued in the possession of the Romans till the downfall of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who subdued, but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks themselves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankland, were a collection of several people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of jurisprudence better than their neighbours. These Salii had a rule, which the rest of the Franks are said to have adopted, and which has been, by the modern Franks, applied to the succession of the throne, to exclude all females from the inheritance of sovereignty, and is well known by the name of the *Salic Law*.

The Franks and Burgundians, after establishing their power, and reducing the original natives to a state of slavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings found it necessary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they at length assumed independency, only acknowledging the king as their head.

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This gave rise to those numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the several parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes raised, without the concurrence of the grand council, consisting of the clergy and nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately after the dissolution of the Roman empire, the first government in France seems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings extremely limited by the feudal barons.

The first Christian monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the best French historians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 481; and being baptized, introduced Christianity in the year 496. The mind of Clovis had been affected by the pathetic tale of the Passion and the Death of Christ; and insensible of the beneficial consequences of the mysterious sacrifice, he exclaimed, with religious fervour, "Had I been present with my valiant Franks, I would have revenged his injuries." But though he publicly professed to acknowledge the truth of the gospel, the divine precepts which it inculcated were but little respected by the aspiring barbarian; he calmly assassinated all the princes of the Merovingian race; and, though the only monarch in the christian world free from the stain or imputation of heresy, was perpetually employed in the aggrandisement of his dominions by the violation of moral and religious duties. From this period, the history of the French exhibits them generally engaged in domestic broils or in foreign wars. The first race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, whom we have often mentioned as the glory of those dark ages, became master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope; he divided his empire by will among his sons, which proved fatal to his family. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France, and, about the year 900, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was persuaded to profess himself a Christian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France; which afterwards gave a king to England, in the person of William duke of Normandy, who subdued Harold, the last Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that country in almost perpetual wars with England, for whom it was not an equal match, notwithstanding its numbers, and the assistance it received from Scotland.

The rage of crusading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite service to the French crown in two respects: in the first place, it carried off thousands of its turbulent subjects, and their leaders, who were almost independent of the king: in the next, the king succeeded to the estates of many of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But passing over the dark ages of the crusades, and the ancient wars with England, which have already been described, we shall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe in the reign of Francis I. contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to excess in his own person, and had defeated the Swiss, who till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He had great abilities, and great defects. He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but lost the imperial crown; Charles V. of the house of Austria, and king of Spain, being chosen. In the year 1520, Francis having invited Henry VIII. of England to an interview, the two kings met in an open plain near Calais, where they and their attendants displayed such magnificence as procured it the name of the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. Feats of chivalry, parties of gallantry, together with such exercises and pastimes as were in that age reckoned manly or elegant, rather than serious business, occupied both

both courts during eighteen days that they continued together \*. Francis made some dazzling expeditions against Spain, but suffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuse his power; by which he disobliterated the constable of Bourbon, the greatest of his subjects, who joined in a confederacy against him, with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In his adventurous expedition into Italy, he was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, in the year 1524, and obliged to agree to dishonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of those conditions was afterwards the source of many wars between him and the emperor: he died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithstanding the variety of disagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flourishing condition. Francis I. was succeeded by his son, Henry II. who, upon the whole, was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany, to the great advantage of his own dominions; and was so well served by the duke of Guise, that though he lost the battle of St. Quintin, against the Spaniards and the English, he retook Calais from the latter, who never since had any footing in France. He married his son, the Dauphin, to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this scheme he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be seen in the history of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomeri.

He was succeeded by his son Francis II. a weak, sickly, inactive prince, and only thirteen years of age, whose power was entirely engrossed by a prince of the house of Guise, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engrossment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a strong opposition against the government. Anthony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catharine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guises, the confederacy, who had adopted the cause of Hugonotism, was broken in pieces, when the sudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under sentence of death for a conspiracy against the court; but the queen-mother saved him, to balance the interest of the Guises; so that the sole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her second son, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued series of dissimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guise, who was the scourge of the Protestants, was assassinated by one Poltrot, at the siege of Orleans; and the murderer was unjustly thought to have been instigated by the famous Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the Protestant party. Three civil wars succeeded. At last the court pretended to grant the Hugonots a very advantageous peace, and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre, a Protestant, and the French king's sister. The heads of the Protestants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all, if possible, in one night. This project

\* The French and English historians describe the pomp of this interview, and the various spectacles, with great minuteness. One circumstance mentioned by the marshal de Fleuranges, who was present, and which appears singular in the present age, is commonly omitted. "After the tournament," says he, "the French and English writers made their appearance, and wrestled in presence of the kings and the ladies; and as there were many stout wrestlers there, it afforded excellent pastime; but as the king of France had neglected to bring any  
wrestlers out of Bretagne, the English gained the

prize.—After this, the kings of France and England retired to a tent, where they drank together: and the king of England, seizing the king of France by the collar, said, *My brother, I must wrestle with you*, and endeavoured once or twice to trip up his heels; but the king of France, who was a dexterous wrestler, twisted him round, and threw him on the earth with prodigious violence. The king of England wanted to renew the combat, but was prevented." *Memoirs de Fleuranges*, 12mo. Paris, 1753. p. 329.

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proved but too successful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himself assisted in the massacre, in which the admiral Coligni fell. The sign, for the inhuman slaughter of so many thousands, was to be made by striking the great bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell, the work of death was begun, and humanity recoils from the horrors of the fatal night of St. Bartholomew; yet the reader may expect, amidst the general carnage, some few moments should be devoted to the fate of Coligni. He had long retired to rest, when he was aroused by the noise of the assassins who had surrounded his house. A German, named Besme, entered his chamber, and the admiral, apprehending his intentions, prepared to meet death with that fortitude which had ever distinguished him. Incapable of resistance, from the wounds he had received by two balls in a late attempt to assassinate him, with an undismayed countenance, he had scarce uttered the words, "Young man, respect these grey hairs, nor stain them with blood," when Besme plunged his sword into his bosom, and with his barbarous associates threw the body into the court. The young duke of Guise contemplated it in silence; but Henry, count d'Angouleme, natural brother to Charles, spurned it with his foot, exclaiming, "Courage, my friend! we have begun well: let us finish in the same manner." It is said that about 30,000 Protestants were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a fresh peace was concluded in 1573 with the Protestants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had some time before been chosen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he, with some difficulty, escaped to France, where he took quiet possession of that crown, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time supplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had lost. The heads of the Protestants could raise armies of Hugonots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were so equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the scale. A *holy league* was formed for the defence of the Catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guise. The Protestants, under the prince of Condé, and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called in the German princes to their assistance; and a sixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the League, in revenge of the duke of Alençon declaring himself lord of the Netherlands. This civil war was finished within the year, by another sham peace. The king, ever since his accession to the crown, had plunged himself into a course of infamous debauchery and religious-extravagance. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, but he possessed natural good sense. He began to suspect that the proscriptions of the Protestants, and the setting aside from the succession the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the Holy League, was with a view to place the duke of Guise, the idol of the Roman Catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had some distant pretensions. To secure himself on the throne; a seventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in the year 1585, both of them to the disadvantage of the Protestants, through the abilities of the duke of Guise. The king thought him now so dangerous, that after inviting him in a friendly manner to court, both he, and his brother the cardinal, were, by his majesty's orders, and in a manner under his eye, basely assassinated in 1588. The Leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited his crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himself into the arms of the Protestants; but while he was besieging Paris, where the Leaguers had their greatest force, he was in his turn assassinated by one Clement, a young enthusiastic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of history are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre \*, head of the house of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne: the Leaguers were headed by the duke of Maín, brother to the late duke of Guise; and they drew from his cell the decrepit popish cardinal of Bourbon, uncle to the king of Navarre, to proclaim him king of France. Their party being supported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, seemed only to make him more illustriously unfortunate; for he and his little court were sometimes without common necessaries. He was, however, personally beloved; and no objection lay against him but that of his religion. The Leaguers, on the other hand, split among themselves; and the French nation in general were jealous of the Spaniards. Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came secretly to a resolution of declaring himself a Roman Catholic. This was called a measure of prudence, if not of necessity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Isabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France, and would have married her to the young duke of Guise.

In 1593 Henry went publicly to mass, as a mark of his conversion. This complaisance wrought wonders in his favour; and having with great difficulty obtained absolution from the pope, all France submitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with, which he did for several years with various fortune. In 1598 he published the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to his old friends the Protestants the free exercise of their religion; and next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chastised the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himself with wonderful attention and success (assisted in all his undertakings by his minister, the great Sully) to promote the happiness of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of silk, the benefit of which France feels at this day. Having re-established the tranquillity, and, in a great measure, secured the happiness of his people, he formed connexions with the neighbouring powers, for reducing the ambition of the house of Austria; for which purpose, it is said, he had formed great schemes, and collected a formidable army; others say (for his intention does not clearly appear) that he designed to have formed Christendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, and to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal passion for a favourite princess, whose husband had carried her for protection into the Austrian dominions. Whatever may be in these conjectures, it is certain, that, while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was assassinated in his coach in the streets of Paris, by one Ravillac, a young enthusiast, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. son to Henry IV. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he discarded his mother and her favourites, and chose for his minister the famous cardinal Richieu, who put a period, by his resolute and bloody measures, to the remaining liberties of France, and to the religious establishment of the Protestants there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's sister, made some weak efforts by his fleet and arms to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars, on account of religion, in France. Historians say, that in these wars above a million of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were spent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, four hundred villages, two thousand churches, two thousand

\* A small kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of the greater part of which, Upper Navarre, Henry's predecessors had been unjustly

dispossessed, by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.

monasteries, and ten thousand houses, were burnt, or otherwise destroyed, during their continuance.

Richelieu, by a masterly train of politics, though himself bigoted to popery, supported the Protestants of Germany, and Gustavus Adolphus, against the house of Austria; and after quelling all the rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, he died some months before Lewis XIII. who, in 1643, left his son, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's non-age, the kingdom was torn in pieces, under the administration of his mother Anne of Austria, by the factions of the great, and the divisions between the court and parliament, for the most trifling causes, and upon the most despicable principles. The prince of Condé flamed like a blazing star; sometimes a patriot, sometimes a courtier, and sometimes a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a Protestant had turned Papist. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domestic wars; but the queen-mother having made choice of cardinal Mazarine for her first minister, he found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell against the Spaniards, and to divide the domestic enemies of the court so effectually among themselves, that when Lewis assumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himself the most absolute monarch that had ever sat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarine, to put the domestic administration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, who formed new systems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which he carried to a surprising height.

To write the history of this 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 of a king, and promoted the interests of his subjects only that they might the better answer the purposes of his greatness: by the latter he embroiled himself with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a dismal scene of devastation. By his impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes, in the year 1685, and his persecutions of the Protestants, he obliged them to take shelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they established the silk manufactures, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was so blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himself the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his conveniency, and at last raised against himself a confederacy of almost all the other princes of Europe; at the head of which was king William III. of England. Lewis was so well served, that he made head for some years against this alliance; but having provoked the English by his repeated infidelities, their arms under the duke of Marlborough, and their allies the Austrians under prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miserable as the beginning of it was splendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1711, was one continued series of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of seeing those places taken from him, which, in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expence of many thousand lives. Just as he was reduced, old as he was, to the desperate resolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was saved by the English tory ministry deserting the cause, withdrawing from their allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He survived his deliverance but two years; and in his last hours he displayed a greatness of mind worthy of his elevated situation. "Why do you weep?" said he to his domestics: "did you think me immortal?" He died on the first of September, 1715, and was succeeded by his great-grandson, Lewis XV.

The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been seized upon by the duke of Orleans, a man of sense and spirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood. We have already seen in what manner he discharged the national debt of France; but having

embroiled himself with Spain, the king was declared of age in 1721; and the regent, on the fifth of December, 1723, was carried off by an apoplexy.

Among the first acts of Lewis XV. was the nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his first minister. Though his system was entirely pacific, yet the situation of affairs in Europe, upon the death of the king of Poland in 1734, more than once embroiled him with the house of Austria. The intention of the French king was to replace his father-in-law, Stanislaus, on the throne of Poland. In this he failed through the interposition of the Russians and Austrians; but Stanislaus enjoyed the title of king, and the revenues of Lorraine, during the remainder of his life. The connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in the war with Great Britain, which terminated in the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748.

In the year 1757, Francis Damien, an unhappy wretch, whose sullen mind, naturally frantic and savage, was inflamed by the disputes between the king and his parliament relative to religion, embraced the desperate resolution of attempting the life of his sovereign. In the dusk of the evening, as the king prepared to enter his coach, he was suddenly wounded, though slightly, with a penknife, between the fourth and fifth ribs, in the presence of his son, and in the midst of his guards. The daring assassin had mingled with the crowd of courtiers, and was instantly betrayed by his distracted countenance. He declared it never was his intention to kill the king, but that he only meant to wound him, that God might touch his heart, and incline him to restore the tranquillity of his dominions by re-establishing the parliament, and banishing the archbishop of Paris, whom he regarded as the source of the present commotions. In these frantic and incoherent declarations he persisted amidst the most exquisite tortures; and after human ingenuity had been exhausted in devising new modes of torment, his judges, tired out with his obstinacy, consigned him to a death, the barbarity of which was increased by the evident madness that stimulated him to the abominable and desperate attempt. He was conducted to the common place of execution, amidst a vast concourse of the populace; stripped naked, and fastened to the scaffold by iron gyves. One of his hands was then burnt in liquid flaming sulphur. His thighs, legs, and arms, were torn with red hot pincers; boiling oil, melted lead, rosin and sulphur, were poured into the wounds; and to complete the horrid catastrophe, he was torn to pieces by horses.

The Jesuits, having rendered themselves odious by their real or supposed share in the conspiracy against the king of Portugal, fell in France under the lash of the civil power, for certain fraudulent mercantile transactions. They refused to discharge the debts of one of their body, who had become bankrupt for a large sum, and who was supposed to act for the benefit of the whole society. As a monk, indeed, he must necessarily do so. The parliaments eagerly seized an opportunity of humbling their political enemies. The Jesuits were every where cited before these high tribunals in 1761, and ordered to do justice to their creditors. They seemed to acquiesce in the decision, but delayed payment under various pretences. New suits were commenced against them, in 1762, on account of the pernicious tendency of their writings. In the course of these proceedings which the king endeavoured in vain to prevent, they were compelled to produce their *Institute*, or the rules of their order, hitherto studiously concealed. That mysterious volume, which was found to contain maxims subversive of civil government and morality, completed their ruin. All their colleges were seized, all their effects confiscated; and the king, ashamed or afraid to protect them, not only resigned them to their fate, but finally expelled them the kingdom, by a solemn edict, and utterly abolished the order of Jesus in France.

Elated

Elated with this victory over ecclesiastical tyranny, the French parliament attempted to set bounds to the absolute power of the crown, and seemed determined to confine it within the limits of law. Not satisfied with refusing, as usual, to register certain oppressive edicts, or with remonstrating against them, they ordered criminal prosecutions to be commenced against the governors of several provinces, acting in the king's name, who had enforced the registration of those edicts. The magnanimity of these assemblies awakened a new ardour in the bosoms of the French; and this flame, in the succeeding reign, burst forth with accumulated force.

As to the war with Great Britain, which was ended by the peace of Fontainebleau, in 1763, the chief events attending it, so humiliating to France, have been already mentioned in the history of England, and therefore need not be recapitulated here.

Corsica, a small island in the Mediterranean, had long resisted with manly firmness the oppressive councils of the Genoese, who claimed the sovereignty over it, by right of conquest. But, unable to support those pretensions, Genoa transferred them to France, on condition that Lewis should put her in full possession of the adjacent island of Capraia, which the Corsicans had lately invaded and reduced. To execute his engagements, powerful armaments were fitted out by Lewis, at Antibes and Toulon; twenty battalions of French were landed in Corsica; and the natives, whose free suffrages had summoned Paoli, one of their principal chiefs, to the supreme government of the island, determined to defend their liberties to the utmost. A sharp and bloody war, such as suited the inferior numbers of the inhabitants and the nature of the country, was carried on in all the fastnesses and mountainous parts of the island. And it was not till after the French had fatally experienced, in two successive campaigns, the enthusiastic courage which animates the champions of freedom, that they overwhelmed by their superior numbers this unfortunate people; nor had Lewis much reason to triumph in an acquisition, to attain which, he had sacrificed several thousands of his bravest troops, and only extended his dominion over a rugged and unproductive island.

The late unfortunate monarch, Lewis XVI. succeeded his grandfather, Lewis XV. on the 10th of May, 1774. Several regulations were made, after his accession, highly favourable to the general interests of the nation, particularly the suppression of the mousquetaires, and some other corps, which being adapted more to the parade of guarding the royal person, than any real military service, were supported at a great expence, without an adequate return of benefit to the state. But one of the most remarkable circumstances which attended this reign, was the placing of Mr. Neckar, a Protestant, and a native of Switzerland, at the head of the French finances, in 1776; a measure contrary to the constant policy of France, which had carefully excluded the aliens of her country and faith from the controul of the revenue. Under the direction of Neckar, a general reform took place in France throughout every department of the revenue. When hostilities commenced in 1777, between France and Great Britain, in consequence of the assistance afforded by the former to the revolted British colonies in America, the people of France were less burthened with new taxes for carrying on the war, than usual; and the public revenue was augmented by the economy, improvements, and reformation, that were introduced into the management of the finances. In consequence of this national economy, the navy of France was raised to so great a height as to become truly formidable to Great Britain.

With a most laudable zeal to extend the dominion of science, Lewis fitted out several vessels on astronomical discoveries. The chevalier de Borda was instructed to ascertain the exact position of the Canary islands and Cape de Verd; and the different degrees of the coast of Africa from Cape Spartal to the island of Goree: the

chevalier Grenier, who had traversed the Indian seas to improve the charts and correct the errors of former navigators, was liberally rewarded by a monarch who aspired to immortalize the æra of his power, by expeditions beneficial to mankind.

The visit of the emperor to the court of Paris was another occurrence that excited the attention of Europe. Averse to pomp, he chose to travel under the humble title of count Falkenstein; he was received by Lewis with that respect which was due to the imperial dignity, and he regarded that he was impatient to testify to the brother of his royal consort. During six weeks that the emperor remained at Paris, his hours were much employed in examining the arts and manufactures of that capital. With the same spirit of inquiry he made a tour through different provinces of the kingdom, and in his journey endeavoured to glean whatever might be advantageous to his own dominions.

Amidst the fury of war, Lewis displayed that regard for science, which had early formed a striking characteristic of his reign. Previous to the commencement of hostilities, the English had sent two vessels into the South Seas, commanded by captains Cook and Clerke, to explore the coasts and islands of Japan and California; the return of those vessels was hourly expected in Europe; and Lewis, with a considerate humanity which reflects the highest lustre on his character, by a circular letter to all his naval officers, commanded them to abstain from all hostilities against these ships, and to treat them as neutral vessels. The letters mentioned also in terms of the highest respect captain Cook, who had long distinguished himself in successive voyages of discovery. But death allowed not that celebrated navigator to enjoy this grateful testimony to his merit; having, in one of the newly-discovered islands, already fallen a victim to the blind fury of the savage inhabitants.

At the beginning of the year 1780, in consequence of the representations of Mr. Neckar, a variety of unnecessary offices in the household of the king and queen were abolished; and sundry other important regulations adopted, for the ease of the subject, and the general benefit of the kingdom. Could we implicitly credit his memorial, he changed the excess of disbursements, at least one million sterling, of the year 1776, into an excess of revenue in the year 1780, to the amount of 445,000*l.* But Neckar's œconomy was not calculated to please the court. He was therefore displaced, and is said to have been particularly obnoxious to the queen's party.

The freedom of America had been the grand object of France; and that having been acknowledged in the fullest and most express terms by Great Britain, the preliminary articles of peace were signed at Paris on the 20th of January 1783; but the immense expences incurred were found at last to be much more than the revenues of the kingdom could by any means support; and the miserable exigencies to which government was reduced, produced or hastened the present revolution.

In the various wars of France with England, particularly in the last and present centuries, the former often experienced the disadvantage of not having a good port in the channel. The government of France took up this important object with the greatest zeal and vigour; and having employed the ablest engineers in that kingdom, proceeded, by the most astonishing and stupendous works, to render the port of Cherbourg capable of receiving and protecting a royal navy. Since the last peace, they prosecuted this work at an annual expence of upwards of 200,000*l.*

In the year 1786, a treaty of navigation and commerce was concluded between the two courts of London and Versailles, of which notice has been previously taken in our account of England.

The ambition of the French government, which made it acquainted with liberty in assisting the insurgents in America and Holland, excited a spirit amongst the people, which could not well admit the continuance of arbitrary power at home. When the edict for registering the loan at the conclusion of 1785, amounting to the sum of three millions, three hundred and thirty thousand pounds, was presented

ed to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, and the remonstrances of that assembly, assumed a more legal and obstinate form. The king, however, signified to the select deputation commissioned to convey to him their remonstrances, that he expected to be obeyed without farther delay. The ceremony of registration took place on the next day, but was accompanied with a resolution, importing, that public œconomy was the only genuine source of abundant revenue, the only means of providing for the necessities of the state, and restoring that credit, which borrowing had reduced to the brink of ruin.

This proceeding was no sooner known, than the king required the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament; he erased from their records the resolution that had been adopted; and observed, though it was his pleasure that the parliament should communicate, by its respectful representations, whatever might interest the good of the public, yet he never would consent that they should so far abuse his confidence and mercy, as to erect themselves into the censors of his administration; he expected in future they should confine their expressions within the limits of wisdom and loyalty; he declared himself satisfied with the conduct of monsieur. Calonne, his comptroller-general; and, more strongly to mark his resentment against them, he directed the dismissal from farther service of one of their officers who had appeared most active in forwarding the late resolution.

However gratified by the support of his sovereign, monsieur de Calonne could not fail of finding himself deeply mortified by the opposition of the parliament. His address to conciliate that assembly had proved ineffectual, and he experienced their inflexible averfion at the critical juncture, when their acquiescence might have proved of the most essential service. An anxious inquiry into the state of the public finances had convinced him that the expenditure had far exceeded the revenues; in the present situation, to impose new taxes was impossible; to continue the method of borrowing was ruinous; and to have recourse only to œconomical reforms, would be found wholly inadequate; and he hesitated not to declare that it would be impossible to place the finances on a solid basis, but by the reformation of whatever was vicious in the constitution of the state.

To give weight to this reform, the minister was sensible that something more was necessary than royal authority; he perceived that the parliament was neither a fit instrument for introducing a new order into public affairs, nor would submit to be a passive machine for sanctioning the plans of a minister, even if those plans were the emanations of perfect wisdom. Though originally a body of lawyers, indebted for their appointments to the king, there was not an attribute of a genuine legislative assembly that they did not seem desirous to engross to themselves; and they had been supported in their pretensions by the plaudits of the people, who were sensible that there was no other body in the nation who could plead their cause against ministerial oppression.

Under these circumstances, the only alternative that seemed to remain, was to have recourse to some other assembly, more dignified and solemn in its character, and composed of members from the various orders of the state, and the different provinces of the kingdom. This promised to be a popular measure; it implied a deference for the people at large, and might be expected to prove greatly acceptable; but the true and legitimate assembly of the nation, the states-general, had not met since the year 1614. Another assembly had occasionally been substituted in the room of the states-general; this was distinguished by the title of the *Novab'ys*, or men of note, and consisted of a number of persons from all parts of the kingdom, chiefly selected from the higher orders of the state, and nominated by the king himself. This assembly had been convened by Henry the Fourth, and again by Lewis the Thirteenth; and was now once more summoned by the authority of the late monarch.

The

The writs for calling together the assembly of the notables were dated on the 20th of December, 1786; they were addressed to seven princes of the blood, nine dukes and peers of France, eight field marshals, twenty-two nobles, eight counsellors of state, four masters of requests, eleven archbishops and bishops, thirty-seven of the heads of the law, twelve deputies of the pays d'états, the lieutenant civil, and twenty-five magistrates of the different towns of the kingdom. The number of members was one hundred and four; and the 29th of January, 1787, was the period appointed for their opening.

It was at the moment when the members of the notables had arrived at Paris, and when the attention of all classes in the kingdom was fixed upon their meeting as an important era in the national history, that the minister found himself yet unprepared to submit his system to their inspection, and postponed the opening of the council to the 7th of February. This delay was injudicious in the highest degree; and to this the subsequent revolution is said immediately to have been owing. Politics had occupied the minds of men, particularly in the metropolis, to the exclusion of every other subject; and, during this interval, an opportunity was given to the members of conversing with each other, communicating their complaints, and forming schemes for redress. A second delay, to the 14th of the same month, was occasioned by the indisposition of monsieur de Calonne himself, and that of the count de Vergennes, president of the council of finance, and first secretary of state; and a third procrastination, owing to the death of the count, postponed the meeting to the 22d of February.

It was under these difficulties that monsieur Calonne first met the assembly of the notables, and opened his long-expected plan. He began by stating that the public expenditure had for centuries past exceeded the revenue, that a very considerable deficiency had of course existed, and that at his own accession to office it was three millions, three hundred and thirty thousand pounds.

To remedy this evil, the comptroller-general recommended a territorial impost, in the nature of the English land-tax, from which no rank or order of men was to be exempted; an inquiry into the possessions of the clergy, which hitherto had been exempted from bearing public burthens; the various branches of internal taxation were also to undergo a strict examination; and a considerable resource was presented in mortgaging the demefne lands of the crown.

Before monsieur Neckar retired from the management of the finances, he had published his *Compte rendu au Roi*, in which France was represented as possessing a clear surplus of four hundred and twenty-five thousand pounds sterling. This performance had been read with avidity, and had been considered as forming a new era in the history of France. The credit of this statement was ably vindicated by monsieur de Brienne, archbishop of Toulouse, and by the count de Mirabeau, a still more formidable enemy to Calonne. His eloquence, however, might have successfully vindicated his system and reputation against the calculations of Brienne, and the invectives of Mirabeau; but the genius of the comptroller-general sunk under the influence of the three great bodies of the nation. The grand and essential object of reform was to equalize the public burthens, and by rendering the taxes general, to diminish the load of the lower and most oppressed classes of the people. The ancient nobility and the clergy had ever been free from all public assessments; the crowds of new noblesse, who had purchased their patents, were by that shameful custom exempted, both themselves and their posterity, from contributing proportionally to the expences of the state; the magistracies likewise throughout the kingdom enjoyed their share of these exemptions; so that the whole weight of the taxes fell on those who were least able to bear them. Thus the nobility, the clergy, and the magistracy, were united against the minister, and the event was such as might be expected. The intrigues of those three bodies raised against him so loud a clamour, that

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finding it impossible to stem the torrent, monsieur de Calonne not only resigned his place on the 12th of April, but soon after retired to England from the storm of prosecution.

The notables proceeded in their inquiries, and it was now suggested that an assembly of the states should be called, as the notables were not competent to impose a new tax. As the deliberations of the notables were not carried on in secret, this proposal was instantly circulated through the capital, and supposed to be a new discovery. The notables were soon after dissolved.

The stamp-act, however, was established, and a bed of justice was held by the king on the fifth of August, 1787, at which the parliament of Paris was obliged to attend; and the edict was registered, notwithstanding their protest to the contrary; but the parliament, though defeated, were far from being subdued. On the day after the king had held his bed of justice, they entered a formal protest against the concession that had been extorted from them. They declared that the edict had been registered against their approbation and consent, by the king's express command; that it neither ought, nor should have any force; and the first person who should presume to attempt to carry it into execution, should be adjudged a traitor, and condemned to the gallies.

This declaration left to the crown no other alternative, than either proceeding to extremities in support of its authority, or giving up, for ever after, the power of raising money upon any occasion without the consent of parliament. Painful as every appearance of violence must have proved to the mild disposition of Lewis, he could not consent to surrender, without a struggle, that authority which had been so long exercised by his predecessors. Since the commencement of the present discontents, the capital had been gradually filled with considerable bodies of troops; and about a week after the parliament had entered the protest, an officer of the French guards, with a party of soldiers, went at break of day to the house of each individual member, to signify to him the king's command, that he should immediately get into his carriage, proceed to Troyes, a city of Champagne, about seventy miles from Paris, without writing or speaking to any person out of his own house before his departure. These orders were served at the same instant; and before the citizens of Paris were acquainted with the transaction, the parliament were already on the road to the place of their banishment.

But previous to their removal, they had presented a remonstrance on the late measures of government, and the alarming state of public affairs. In stating their opinions on taxes, they declared that neither the parliaments, nor any other authority, save that of the three states of the kingdom collectively assembled, could warrant the laying of any permanent tax upon the people; and they strongly enforced the renewal of those national assemblies, which had rendered the reign of Charlemagne so illustrious.

So great was the resentment of the whole nation against the banishment of the parliament, that after a month's exile it was recalled. This was scarcely done, when they were desired to register a loan; at which they hesitated. At last the king came to the house, and held what is called a royal session. The edicts were now registered; but the duke of Orleans protested, in the presence of the king, against the legality of the proceeding. The parliament protested against the legality of the session itself, but to no purpose. The duke of Orleans, and four others, were banished; the king called for the journals of the house, destroyed the protest, and forbade it to be inserted again. Great clamours were raised for the release of the duke of Orleans, and the other members of parliament; remonstrances were presented by the parliaments of Paris, Bourdeaux, and Rennes; but the exiles were not recalled till the spring of 1788.

The parliament of Paris had not confined their demands to the liberation of those gentlemen, but had called the remonstrances of the parliament of Grenoble,

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and had loudly inveighed against the execution of *lettres de cachet*. So free, and pointed were the speeches of two of the members, that Lewis was once more prevailed upon to recur to severity; and Messrs. d'Espromenil and Monfambert were committed to separate state-prisons.

The remonstrance of the parliament on this new exertion of despotism, exceeded in boldness all the former representations of that assembly: they declared they were now more strongly confirmed, by every proceeding, of the entire innovation, which was aimed at in the constitution. "But, Sire," added they, "the French nation will never adopt the despotic measures to which you are advised, and whose effects alarm the most faithful of your magistrates; we shall not repeat all the unfortunate circumstances which afflict us; we shall only represent to you with respectful firmness, that the fundamental laws of the kingdom *must not* be trampled upon; and that *your authority can only be esteemed, so long as it is tempered with justice.*"

Language so bold and decisive, and which asserted the controlling power of the laws above the regal authority, could not fail of seriously alarming the royal bosom. No alternative remained now to Lewis; but to plunge his country into all the calamities of civil war, or to comply with the wishes of his people, and re-establish the states-general. In the first case, he must have expected to encounter the majority of the people, animated by the exhortations and examples of their magistrates; the peers of the realm had expressed the strongest disapprobation of his measures, nor could he even depend any longer on the princes of the blood; but what afforded most serious matter of alarm, was the spirit lately displayed among the military, who, during the disturbances in the provinces, had reluctantly been brought to draw their swords against their countrymen; and many of whose officers, having imbibed principles of resistance in America, publicly proclaimed their abhorrence of despotism.

Yet it was not till after many a painful struggle, that Lewis could resolve to restore an assembly, whose influence must naturally overshadow that of the crown, and whose jurisdiction would confine, within narrow limits, the boundless power he had inherited from his predecessor. During the two preceding reigns, the states-general had been wholly discontinued; and though the queen-regent, amidst the troubles which attended the minority of Lewis the Fourteenth, frequently expressed her intention of calling them together, she was constantly dissuaded by the representations of the crafty Mazarine. It is probable that the present monarch still flattered himself with the hope of being able to allure the members of that assembly to the side of the court; and thought, that having employed them to establish some degree of regularity in the finances, he would again dismiss them to obscurity.

In the beginning of August, an arret was published, which fixed the meeting of the states-general to the first of May in the ensuing year, viz. 1789; at the same time every step was taken to secure the favourable opinion of the public. New arrangements took place in the administration; and monsieur Neckar, whom the confidence of the people had long followed, was again introduced into the management of the finances; the torture, which by a former edict had been restricted in part, was now entirely abolished; every person accused was allowed the assistance of counsel, and permitted to avail himself of any point of law; and it was decreed that, in future, sentence of death should not be passed on any person, unless the party accused should be pronounced guilty by a majority at least of three judges.

But the most important consideration that occupied the attention of the sovereign and his ministers, was the means of assembling the states-general. The last meeting, in the year 1614, had been convened by application to the bailiwicks; but this

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this mode was liable to several strong objections; the bailiwicks had been increased in number and jurisdiction; and since that period several provinces had been united to France; nor were the numbers and quality of the members less an object of serious deliberation; and it was not till the close of the year that the proposal of monsieur Neckar was adopted, and publicly registered, which fixed the number of deputies at one thousand and upwards; and ordained that the representatives of the third estate, or commons, should equal in number those of the nobility and clergy united.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the states-general, or national assembly, whose re-establishment, in the month of May, 1789, presented a new era in the government of France. But the moment of their meeting was far from auspicious to the court. The minds of the French had long been agitated by various humours; the unanimity, that had been expected from the different orders of the states, was extinguished by the jarring pretensions of each; and their mutual jealousies were attributed by the suspicions of the people to the intrigues of ministers. A dearth that pervaded the kingdom increased the general discontent; and the people, pressed by hunger, and inflamed by resentment, were ripe for revolt. The sovereign also, equally impatient of the obstacles he incessantly encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; the influence of the queen in the cabinet was again established, and was attended by the immediate removal of Neckar. This step, which evinced a total change of resolutions, was followed by others equally injudicious. The states-general were driven into the "Salle des Etats," where they held their meetings, by detachments of the guards, who surrounded them, and who waited only the orders of the court, to proceed to greater extremities against the obnoxious representatives of the nation.

Had these manifestations of vigour been sustained by instantly attacking and entering Paris, it is probable that the capital would have been without difficulty reduced to obedience. But the delay which succeeded, gave the inhabitants time to recover from their first emotions of surprise and apprehension. They saw the timidity and imbecillity of the government, which, having founded the charge, dared not advance to the attack. They profited by this want of exertion; and passing from one extreme rapidly to another, they almost unanimously took up arms against their rulers. Joined by the French guards, who, from a long residence in the capital, had been peculiarly exposed to seduction, and who at this decisive moment abandoned their sovereign, the Parisians broke through every obstacle by which they had hitherto been restrained. The supplies of arms and ammunition, which had been provided for their subjugation, were turned against the crown; and the "Hotel des Invalides," the great repository of military stores, after a faint resistance, surrendered.

The prince de Lambese, who alone, of all the officers commanding the royal troops in the vicinity of Paris, attempted to carry into execution the plan for disarming the capital, was repulsed in a premature and injudicious attack, which he made at the head of his dragoons, near the entrance of the garden of the Tuilleries. Already the "Prevot des Marchands," monsieur de Flessels, convicted of entertaining a correspondence with the court, and detected in sending private intelligence to monsieur de Launay, governor of the Bastille, had been seized by the people, and fallen the first victim to their resentment. His head, borne on a lance, exhibited an alarming spectacle of the danger with which adherence to the sovereign was likely to be attended.

The Bastille alone remained; and while it continued in the power of the crown, Paris could not be regarded as secure from the severest chastisement. It was instantly invested on the 14th of July, 1789, by a mixed multitude, composed of citizens, and soldiers who had joined the popular banner. De Launay, who com-

manded in the castle, by an act of perfidy, unjustifiable under any circumstances, and which rendered his fate less regretted, accelerated the capture of this important fortress. He displayed a flag of truce, and demanded a parley; but abusing the confidence which these signals inspired, he discharged a heavy fire from the cannon and musquetry of the place upon the besiegers, and made a considerable carnage. Far from intimidating, he only augmented, by his treacherous cruelty, the rage of an incensed populace. They renewed their exertions with irresistible energy. The Bastille, that awful engine of despotism, whose name alone diffused terror, and which for many ages had been sacred to silence and despair, was entered by the victorious assailants. De Launay, seized and dragged to the "Place de Greve," was instantly decapitated, and his head carried in triumph through the streets of Paris.

In this prison were found the most horrible engines for putting to the severest tortures those unhappy persons, whom the cruelty or jealousy of despotism had determined to destroy. An iron cage, about twelve tons in weight, was found with the skeleton of a man in it, who had probably lingered out a great part of his days in that horrible mansion. Among the prisoners released by its destruction, were major White, a Scotman, lord Massarene, an Irish nobleman, and the count de Lorges. The first appeared to have his intellectual faculties totally impaired, and had forgotten the use of speech. The second, on his arrival at the British shore, eagerly jumped out of the boat, fell down on his knees, and kissing the ground thrice, exclaimed, "God bless this land of liberty." The count de Lorges, at a very advanced period of life, was also liberated, and exhibited to the public curiosity in the "Palais Royal." His squalid appearance, his white beard which descended to his waist, and above all, his imbecility, resulting from an imprisonment of thirty-two years, were objects highly calculated to operate upon the senses and passions of every beholder. It is indeed impossible, not to participate in the exultation, which a capital and a country, so long oppressed, must have experienced, at the extinction of this detestable and justly dreaded prison of state.

With the Bastille expired, the despotism of the French princes, which long prescription, submission, and military strength, seemed to render equally sacred and unassailable; which neither the calamities of the close of Lewis the Fourteenth's reign, the profligacy and enormities of the succeeding regency, nor the state of degradation into which the monarchy sunk under Lewis the Fifteenth, had ever shaken: that power, which appeared to derive its support almost as much from the loyalty and veneration, as from the dread and terrors of the subject, fell prostrate in the dust, and never betrayed a symptom of returning life.

So many great events have arisen in consequence of this revolution, that the limits of our present work will not permit us to give any more than the most prominent features, and important consequences of it. The next morning after the capture of the Bastille, the monarch appeared in the national assembly, but without the pomp and parade of despotism. His address was affectionate and consolatory. "He lamented the disturbances at Paris; disavowed all consciousness of any meditated attack on the persons of the deputies; and added, that he had issued orders for the immediate removal of the troops from the vicinity of the metropolis." The tear of sympathy started into every eye. An expressive silence first pervaded the assembly, which presently was succeeded by a burst of applause and acclamation. On the 16th, the king having intimated to the national assembly his intention of visiting Paris the following day, he accordingly, on the morning of the 17th, left Versailles in a plain dress, and with no other equipage than two carriages, with eight horses each; in the first of which he rode himself; a part of the national assembly in their robes accompanied him on foot; and the militia of Versailles composed his only guard, till the procession arrived at the

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Seve, where they were relieved by the Paris militia, with the marquis de la Fayette at their head; and from this place, the suite of the monarch amounted to about 20,000 men. The progress was remarkably slow; and no shout was to be heard but *Vive la nation!* Mr. Bailly, on presenting the keys of the city, addressed his majesty in a short speech, the exordium of which was: "These, sir, are the keys which were presented to Henry IV. He came to reconquer his people; it is our happiness to have reconquered our king." On receiving the complimentary addresses of the mayor, &c. the king exclaimed with an air of pathetic emotion, which scarcely allowed him utterance—"My people may always rely upon my affection." He received from the hands of the mayor the national cockade; and when he shewed himself at the window with this badge of patriotism, the joy of the people could no longer be restrained; the shout of *Vive le Roi!* which had scarcely been heard in the former part of the day, filled the whole atmosphere, and resounded from one extremity of the city to the other. The return of the king to Versailles was a real triumph. The citizens, intoxicated with joy, surrounded his carriage; his countenance, which in the morning bore the aspect of melancholy, was now cheerful and smiling; and appeared sincerely to partake in the general satisfaction.

The events which followed, are by the candid of all parties allowed to be enveloped in an almost impenetrable veil of obscurity. An incident which occurred at Versailles contributed to excite a most unhappy commotion. On the 1st of October, an entertainment was given by the gardes-du-corps, or king's body guards, to the officers of a regiment of Flanders, who had just joined them in the service of guarding the monarch. Several of the officers of the national guard, with others of the military, were invited. At the second course four toasts were given: "the king, the queen, the dauphin, and the royal family." "The nation" was proposed, but, according to a number of witnesses, expressly rejected by the gardes-du-corps. After this, the queen, having been informed of the gaiety of the scene, persuaded his majesty, who was just returned from hunting, to accompany her with the heir apparent to the saloon. She appeared with the dauphin in her arms, affectionate as she was lovely, and carried the royal infant through the saloon, amidst the acclamations and murmurs of the spectators. Fired with enthusiasm, the soldiers drank the health of the king, the queen, and the dauphin, with their swords drawn; and the royal guests bowed respectfully, and retired.

The entertainment, which had hitherto been conducted with some degree of order, now became a scene of entire confusion. Nothing was omitted to inflame the passions of the military. The music played the favourite air—"O Richard, O my king, the world abandons thee!" the ladies of the court distributed *white cockades*, the anti-patriot ensign; and even some of the national guard, it is said, had the weakness to accept them.

During these transactions, the city of Paris was afflicted with all the evils of famine. At this juncture the news arrived of the fatal banquet at Versailles, with every circumstance greatly magnified. Early on the morning of the memorable 5th of October, a woman sallied out from the quarter of St. Eustache, and entering the corps-de-garde, and seizing a drum, paraded the adjacent streets beating an alarm, and exciting the people by clamours respecting the scarcity of bread. She was soon joined by a very numerous mob, chiefly of women, to the amount of 800, who proceeded to Versailles, where the king, upon hearing their complaints, signed an order for bringing corn from Senlis and Lagny, and for removing every obstacle which impeded the supply of Paris. This order was reported to the women, and they retired with gratitude and joy.

This band of Amazons were no sooner dispersed, than it was succeeded by another. The national assembly continued sitting, but their deliberations were tumultuous, and interrupted by the shouts and harangues of the Parisian sithwomen, who filled the galleries; and whose applause was mingled with affecting murmurs and complaints, the multitude crying out that they were actually starving, and that the majority of them had eaten nothing for upwards of twenty-four hours. The president therefore humanely ordered that provisions should be sought for in every part of the town, and the hall of the assembly was the scene of a scanty and scrambling meal. Indeed, such was the dreadful famine, that the horse of one of the gardes-du-corps being killed in a tumult, he was immediately roasted, and greedily devoured by the mob.

Darkness and a deluge of rain added to the horrors of the night. The wretched multitudes who had travelled from Paris, were exposed, almost famished, to the inclemencies of the weather, in the open streets: within the castle all was tepidation: nothing was to be heard from without but imprecations, and the voices of enraged multitudes, demanding the life of the queen and the gardes-du-corps. Towards midnight, however, all appeared tolerably still and peaceable, when the beating of the drums, and the light of innumerable torches, announced the approach of the Parisian army.

The day began to break at about half past five; and at this period, crowds of desperate persons, breathing vengeance, and thirsting for blood, advanced to the castle, which, in an hour of fatal security, was left unguarded in several places. An immense crowd found its way into every part. The queen had been awaked a quarter of an hour before, by the clamours of the women who assembled upon the terrace; but her waiting-woman had satisfied her by saying, "that they were only the women of Paris, who, she supposed, not being able to find a lodging, were walking about." But the tumult approaching, and becoming apparently more serious, she rose, dressed herself in haste, and ran to the king's apartment by a private passage. In her way she heard the noise of a pistol, and a musquet, which redoubled her terror. "My friends," said she to every person she met, "save me and my children." In the king's chamber she found the dauphin, who had been brought there by one of her women; but the king was gone. Awaked by the tumult, he had seen from a window the multitude pressing towards the great stair-case; and alarmed for the queen, he hastened to her apartment, and entered it at one door in the moment she had quitted it by the other. He returned without loss of time; and having with the queen brought the prince's royal into the chamber, they prepared to face the multitude.

In the mean time the noise and tumult increased, and appeared at the very door of the chamber. Nothing was to be heard but the most dreadful exclamations, with violent and repeated blows against the outer door, a pannel of which was broken, and instant death was expected by the royal company. Suddenly, however, the tumult seemed to cease—every thing was quiet; and a moment after, a gentle rap was heard at the door. The door was opened, and in an instant the apartments were filled with the Parisian guard. The officer who conducted them, ordered them to ground their arms. "We come," said he, "to save the king;" and turning to such of the gardes-du-corps as were in the apartments, "We will save you also, gentlemen; let us from this moment be united."

The royal family now ventured to shew themselves at a balcony, and received the most lively acclamations of respect from the soldiers and the people. A single voice, or a few voices, exclaimed—"The king to Paris!" and this was instantly followed by an universal acclamation enforcing the same demand. The king addressed them; "You wish me to go to Paris—I will go, on the condition that I am to be accompanied by my wife and children." He was answered by reiterated acclamations

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acclamations of *Vive le roi!* It was two in the afternoon before the procession set out. During the progress, all was gaiety and joy among the soldiers and spectators; and such was the respect in which the French nation still held the name and person of their king, that the multitude were superstitiously persuaded that the royal presence would actually put an end to the famine\*. On his arrival, the king was congratulated by the municipality, and declared his approbation of the loyalty which the city of Paris manifested.

The spirit of the nation was so entirely averse from the principles of the high aristocratic party, that the king's two brothers, and many persons of rank and fortune, took refuge in foreign countries, where they applied themselves indefatigably to the purpose of exciting war against their country.

Great preparations were made for the celebration of a grand confederation, in which the representatives of the nation, the king, the soldiery, and all who were in ostensible situations, should solemnly, and in the face of the whole nation, renew their oaths of fidelity to the new constitution; and this confederation was decreed to take place on the 14th of July 1790, in honour of the taking of the Bastille, and of the full re-establishment of Gallic liberty. The *Champ de Mars*, so famous for having been the rendezvous of the troops, which in the preceding year were intended to overawe the capital, was chosen for this solemnity. This piece of ground, which is about 400 toises, or 800 yards in diameter, is bounded on the right and left by lofty trees, and commands at the further extremity a view of the military academy. In the middle of this vast plain an altar was erected for the purpose of administering the civic oath; and round it an immense amphitheatre was thrown up, of a league in circumference, and capable of containing 400,000 spectators. The entrance was through triumphal arches. The king's throne was placed under an elegant pavilion in the middle, and on each side of it were seats for the members of the national assembly.

The important 14th of July at length arrived. The national guards of the departments, distinguished by their respective standards, the battalions of infantry, and the different troops of cavalry, the marine of France, and the foreigners who served under its banners, being arranged in military order, the king and the national assembly took a solemn oath to maintain the constitution; the armed citizens repeated it amongst the applauses of innumerable spectators. They swore to live free, or die; and this oath was taken on the same day through the whole extent of the kingdom.

The escape of the king and queen with their infant children, and monsieur and madame, which happened on the 20th of June 1791, menaced France with the convulsions of anarchy, and the horrors of civil war. The route of the royal fugitives, which had been expected to have been towards the Austrian Netherlands, the nearest frontier of the kingdom, was in fact directed toward Metz, from the presence of so gallant and accomplished a royalist as monsieur de Bouillé in that quarter, from its vicinity to the prince of Condé's army in Germany, and from the probable reluctance of Leopold to hazard the tranquillity of his Netherlands, by permitting any incursion from them into France. They reached St. Menesbould, a small town, about 150 miles from Paris. The king was there recognised by the postilion, who said to him, "*Mon roi, je vous connois, mais je ne vous trahirai pas.*" "I know you, my king, but I will not betray you." But the postmaster, monsieur Drouet, a man of very different principles, adopted a different conduct. He avoided, with great dexterity and presence of mind, betraying his

\* The popular exclamation was, as they proceeded along, "We are bringing the baker, the baker's wife, and the little journeyman."

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knowledge of the rank of the royal travellers, being much struck with the resemblance which his majesty's countenance bore to his effigy on an assignat of 50 livres. The carriages taking the road to Varennes, he went a cross-road to rejoin them; and arriving before them at Varennes, he alarmed the town, and assembled the national guards, who, notwithstanding the detachment of hussars to protect their route, dispersed them, and the King was then *made a prisoner*; and at six o'clock in the afternoon of the 25th of June, their majesties, with the dauphin and madame royale, arrived at the Tuilleries.

The new constitution was presented to the king on the 3d of September, 1791, who, on the 13th, signified his acceptance of it in writing; and the following day he appeared in the assembly, introduced by a deputation of sixty members, and solemnly consecrated the assent which he had already given; and concluded with an oath, "To be faithful to the nation and to the law, and to employ the powers vested in him, for the maintenance of the constitution, and the due execution of the law." On the 30th of this month, the constituent national assembly terminated an uninterrupted session of two years and four months, and spontaneously dissolved itself.

Before the constituent assembly dissolved itself, measures ought to have been taken for assembling the new legislature in some place where its deliberations would have been more free and independent than they could be in the factious metropolis; and they should have corrected the error into which their own vanity betrayed them, of admitting a numerous and insolent audience to seat themselves in the galleries, as judges of the debate, which they frequently disturbed, by their insolent testimonies of applause or disapprobation.

Another serious misfortune to France was the influence acquired by the popular societies. The Jacobin club originated from a small and secret association of about forty gentlemen, and men of letters, who united themselves, long previous to the meeting of the states-general, for the purpose of disseminating political knowledge among the mass of the people. It was afterwards melted into the Breton club, at Versailles, during the first sessions of the national assembly; and the society becoming numerous on the removal of the king and assembly to Paris, it obtained possession of the chapel of the Jacobins, on the dissolution of the monastic orders. The popularity which it acquired soon rendered it exceedingly numerous, and this circumstance pointed it out as a proper engine to work upon the passions of the multitude. From a very early period of its institution, one principal object was, to discuss such political questions as were likely to be agitated in the national assembly, in order that the members might act in concert, according to the decisions of the majority. This plan was reduced to a system, when the club became numerous; and a regular president and secretaries were chosen, and it became a national assembly in miniature. Besides the members, an immense multitude of auditors were admitted into the galleries, who applauded or condemned the speakers, as passion or caprice dictated. Here the most inflammatory declamations were heard with the most clamorous testimonies of approbation, and every proposition in the least inclining to moderation of sentiment, or wisdom in political conduct, was reprobated and condemned. In few words, it became ultimately the mere vehicle of faction, where, as always happens in such cases, the worst men, and the worst measures were usually triumphant. *Fraternal* societies (according to the barbarous jargon, which was adopted as the language of anarchy) were instituted in all the considerable towns in the kingdom; and the only object of emulation in these nests of political hornets seemed to be, which should act most unwisely, and least for the public benefit.

In imitation of the Jacobins, several other societies were instituted for the purpose of political discussion; and thus, independent of the perversion of sentiment,

an intolerable waste of time was occasioned to the lower classes of society. It should have been one of the great objects of the national assembly, to dissolve or restrain these factious assemblages, and to restore the nation, from that political delirium in which so great a revolution must necessarily involve them, to the sober paths of industry, œconomy, and proper subordination.

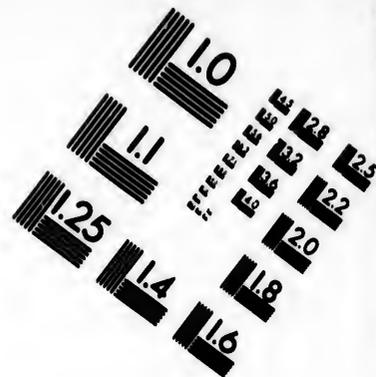
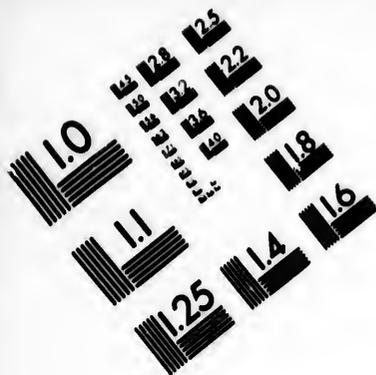
With the constituent assembly, the sun of French liberty set. With it, the wisdom, the moderation, the dignity of the nation was dissolved. That fatal decree, which deprived the country of all the assistance which might be derived from the exertion of the most brilliant talents matured by experience, placed in their seats men incapable, either from want of principle or of ability, to exercise the sacred and important function of legislators.

The doubtful conduct of the emperor, and the refuge and protection found on the German frontiers by the emigrant princes, excited France to vigorous resolutions, and a celebrated manifesto, addressed to all states and nations, made its appearance. The energetic measures pursued had the effect of intimidating the German princes; and the emigrants were constrained to an ignominious dispersion from the frontiers. But the protection of the emperor, and the Prussian king, afforded them asylums more remote and less obtrusive. Irresolution seemed to preside in the councils of the emperor; a monarch more eminent for the mild virtues of peace, than for the exertions of war. He had acknowledged the national flag, he had declared that he regarded the king of the French as absolutely free, while the league of Pilnitz, (which seemed intended not only to secure Germany from such a revolution as France had experienced, but even to extinguish the dreaded source) and the protection afforded to the emigrants, were deemed infallible proofs that the emperor could not be regarded as a friend. His sudden death, on the first of March, 1792, excited great consternation among the aristocrats, and afforded joy and exultation to the supporters of the new constitution. Another event, no less unexpected, happened in the assassination of the Swedish monarch, on the 29th of the same month; and the superstitious vulgar imagined that they beheld the peculiar protection of heaven, in the removal of the two chief foes of France in so short a time.

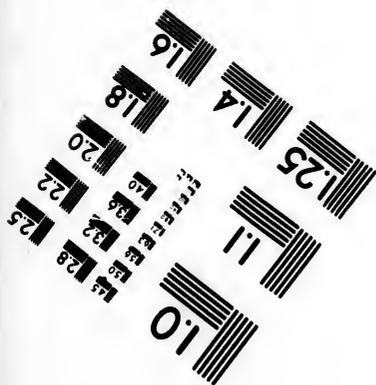
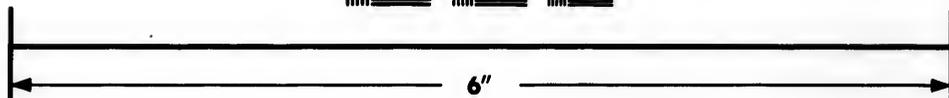
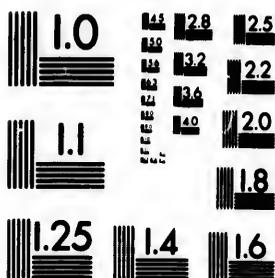
In the progress of the negotiations between the national assembly and the court of Vienna, the young Hungarian king, excited by the influence of Prussia, began to exhibit more enmity, and to use severer language. At length, on the 5th of April, M. de Noailles, in his dispatches to the French minister for foreign affairs, explained the propositions of the imperial court, that satisfaction should be given to the German princes, proprietors of Alsace; that Avignon, which had been appropriated by France, should be restored to the pope; and that the internal government of France should be invested with sufficient efficiency, that the other powers may have no apprehensions of being troubled by France. Those terms produced a declaration of war against Francis I. king of Hungary and Bohemia, decreed by the assembly and ratified by the French king, on the 24th of April.

The first movement of the French was stained with defeat, and with the unpropitious murder of Theobald Dillon, the leader, who fell a prey to the suspicious and savage ferocity of some of the soldiers, who fled from the enemy, but attacked their general. The court of Vienna had, in the beginning of July, published a declaration explaining the cause of their hostilities, and retorting on the French nation some of the heavy charges contained in its declaration of war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, now emperor of Germany. On the 26th day of the same month, the Prussian monarch issued a concise exposition of the reasons which determined him to take up arms against France. He pleads his alliance with the emperor, and that, as sovereign of a German state, he was bound to interfere, to prevent the violation of the rights of the German princes of Alsace and Lorraine,





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Lorraine, and the invasion of the territories of others: and he honestly concludes by avowing that it is his intention to repress the too great liberty of France, which might afford a dangerous example to neighbouring countries. At the same time the duke of Brunswick, general of the combined armies of Austria and Prussia, published at Coblenz a declaration to the inhabitants of France, conceived in the most haughty and presumptuous terms; he declared his intention of putting a stop to the anarchy which prevailed in France, and of restoring the king to his power; and yet he afterwards expresses his design not to interfere in the internal government! It is unnecessary to dwell on the other ill-advised parts of this memorial, in which France is already regarded as a conquered country, and directions are given to the magistrates, national guards, and inhabitants at large: but the threat that the city of Paris should be given up to military execution, in case the least outrage should be offered to the king, queen, or royal family, is worthy of a Hun.

The excesses of the night between the 9th and 10th of August, we relate with pain. At midnight, the alarm-bell sounded in every quarter of Paris, the *generale* was beat, and the citizens flew to arms. The palace of the Tuilleries was attacked by the multitude; and the king, queen, and royal family, were forced to take refuge in the national assembly. At first, the Swiss guards (who were obnoxious to the people, and had been ineffectually proscribed by repeated decrees of the assembly, the king not being allowed to have a foreign guard) repelled the populace; but these being reinforced by the Marseillois, and federates from Brest, bodies which the Jacobins seem to have brought to Paris to balance the Swiss, and by national guards, the gates of the palace were burst open. The artillery joined the assailants. The consequences were, that, after a slaughter of about four hundred on each side, the Swiss guards were exterminated, and the palace ransacked. M. de la Fayette, finding that the constitution was overthrown, and apprehensive that his life would be attempted by some assassin, or that he would certainly be delivered up into the hands of his adversaries, left the camp on the 19th of August, accompanied only by his staff and a few servants. They took the route of Rochefort, in the bishopric of Liege, which, being a neutral country, they hoped to pass unmolested; but an Austrian general of the name of Harancourt, being stationed there with an advanced party, arrested the fugitives, and sent them prisoners to Namur. It is said, that these unfortunate exiles have ever since been confined in a noisome dungeon, for no other crime, or rather under no other pretext, than that of having been members of the national assembly of France. The approvers of Fayette's political conduct regret his being abandoned by the people, for whom he had made so many sacrifices; and oppressed by a combination of kings, while his attachment to the cause of monarchy is the source of his calamity. Faithful to his oath, to his king, to his engagements, he was among the first, they observe, to oppose the seditious designs of the Jacobin club, and among the most distinguished of those who contended for the maintenance of order and civil obedience. To have received with cordiality the illustrious confessor of regulated liberty, would have been noble and magnanimous. To imprison and persecute virtue and valour in distress, was mean and dastardly; but from Tiberius to the present times, cowardice has been the uniform characteristic of tyranny.

The month of September seemed pregnant with the total ruin of French freedom, while the three following months reversed the scene, and exhibited a tide of success, on the part of France, perhaps unexampled in modern history. It is with infinite concern that we direct the attention of our readers to the prison scene, which occurred on the 2d and 3d of September. The horrid massacre of the defenceless prisoners, and other aristocrats, which took place at that period, is an eternal disgrace to the Parisian populace, who, in their fury, spared not even that gentle

gentle sex, which all civilised nations hold in the highest respect. The number of the slain has doubtless been exaggerated, as usual; yet supposing that, by the most moderate account, only two thousand perished, the enormity of the deed remains the same. Could any extenuation be admitted for the affair of the 10th of August, in which a people, who supposed themselves betrayed to slavery, and all its evils, so recently experienced and shaken off, assumed their revenge and their cause into their own hands; yet surely no defence can be offered for this latter unnecessary crime. Had the combined armies besieged Paris, it is difficult to conceive what aid they could have found from two or three thousand aristocrats, and many of these secured in chains.

A national convention had been called, to determine on the charges brought against the king. They met on the 21st of September; and on the first day of the meeting, the abolition of royalty in France was decreed by acclamation; and the following day it was ordered that all public acts should be dated the first year, &c. of the French republic. But hardly was this convention constituted, when a violent faction appeared, headed by Marat, Robespierre, and others, who have repeatedly degraded its transactions by their fanaticism; and being supported by the Jacobins and Parisian populace, have proved too powerful for the convention to punish, or to restrain as it wished. Repeated instances have proved that the convention is not free, but must vote as the mob of Paris dictates; the moderation of the members being often obliged to yield to the indecent applauses and hisses of the galleries.

So rapid was the progress of the French arms, and so great were the distresses in the combined armies, arising from a scarcity of provisions, from a long rainy season, and from a considerable mortality among the Prussians, by the French accounts, estimated at one half, that the Prussians retreated from the dominions of France, whose example the Austrians soon followed.

Even at the very time that Paris was in the greatest danger, the invasion of Savoy was ordered. On the 21st of September, general Montesquiou entered the Savoyard territories, seized on the frontier posts and castles; and two days after, took Montmelian. Chamberry and all Savoy soon followed; but the conquest not being resisted, was productive of no military glory. The imprudence of the national convention, in permitting Savoy to incorporate itself with France, has excited wonder. After frequent declarations, that the French would enter into no war with any view to conquest, their conduct in this respect was absurd and impolitic. It subjected them to the merited reproach, that, under the pretence of liberty, they maintained the destructive maxims of their ancient government; and that their wishes to increase their territory, perhaps to subjugate Europe, remained the same. Admiral Truguet, commanding a squadron in the Mediterranean, captured Nice, Villa-Franca, and the fortresses of Montalban, belonging to the Sardinian king.

The subjection of Savoy was regarded as a trifle; but when Custine began his acquisitions in Germany, every eye was turned to the rapidity and importance of his progress, till diverted by the wonders of Dumourier. Spire yielded to the French arms on the 30th of September, and Worms soon after followed; ample supplies of provisions and ammunition were found in these cities. Custine pursuing his course along the left shore of the Rhine, captured Mentz, and afterwards Frankfort. He was eager to proceed to Coblenz, that noted seat of the counter-revolutionists; but the Prussians and Austrians at length indicated a renewal of hostilities by garrisoning that town, and encamping in the adjacent country.

The conquest of the Austrian Netherlands forms the next grand object. Dumourier had promised to pass his Christmas at Brussels; and what was regarded as an idle vaunt, proved very modest; for that city was in his hands by the

14th of November. That able general, having entered the Netherlands on the first or the second of that month, with an army of forty thousand men, since much increased, and with a most formidable train of artillery, repeated engagements with the Austrian army, commanded by the duke of Saxe-Teschen, governor of the Austrian Netherlands, and by general Beaulieu, which however exceeded not twenty thousand, occupied the five first days. At length, on the 6th of November, a great battle was fought at Gemappe, which decided the fate of the Netherlands. The contest was very general; all the points of the enemy's flanks and lines were attacked at once; all the bodies of the French were in action, and almost every individual fought personally. The cannonade began at seven in the morning; Dumourier ordered the village of Carignon to be attacked, because he could not attempt the heights of Gemappe, till he had taken that village; at noon the French infantry formed in columns, and rapidly advanced to decide the affair by the bayonet. After an obstinate defence, the Austrians at two o'clock retired in the utmost disorder.

Dumourier immediately advanced, and took possession of the neighbouring town of Mons, where the French were received as brethren. The tidings arriving at Brussels, the court was struck with an indescribable panic; and instantly fled to Ruremond, whence it was again to be driven by the arms of Miranda. Tournay surrendered to a detachment on the 8th of November. Dumourier, having refreshed his troops at Mons, advanced to Brussels, where, after an indecisive engagement between his van and the Austrian rear, he was received with acclamations on the 14th of that month. Ghent, Charleroi, Antwerp, Malines, or Mechlin, Louvain, Oitend, Namur; in short all the Austrian Netherlands, except Luxembourg, successively followed the example of the capital; and the boasted conquests of Louis XIV. were not more rapid.

Many of the priests, who were banished, came to England, and were treated with compassion and bounty; this was followed by the decree of the national convention against the emigrants, by which they are declared dead in law, their effects confiscated, and themselves adjudged to immediate death, should they appear in France.

Another decree of the 19th of November attracted the attention of every nation in Europe. It is in the following terms: "The national convention declare, in the name of the French nation, that they will grant fraternity and assistance to all those people who wish to procure liberty; and they charge the executive power to send orders to the generals, to give assistance to such people, and to defend citizens who have suffered, or are now suffering, in the cause of liberty." This decree, and others of a similar tendency, seem to institute a political crusade against all the powers of Europe.

No sooner had Antwerp yielded to the French arms, than, in order to conciliate the Belgians, the opening of the navigation of the Scheldt, shut up by the treaty of Munster, 1648, was projected and ordered; notwithstanding this treaty, so far as respects the shutting up of the navigation of this river, has been confirmed to the Dutch in succeeding treaties, guaranteed both by the courts of Versailles and London. The Dutch regard this measure as injurious to their trade, for Antwerp might prove a dangerous rival to Amsterdam. The infraction of this treaty is one of the reasons which has induced the parliament of Great Britain to oppose the unwarrantable pretensions of the French.

The memorable trial of the king commenced on the 11th of December. The question which most embarrassed his accusers was, whether the king was not invested by the constitution, with perfect and legal inviolability, and whether, consistently with justice, he, whom the law had solemnly pronounced to be above the reach of any legal process, could be brought to trial. This objection was

strangely

strangely and most iniquitously overruled by the convention, who in this instance established the precedent, always so fatal to liberty, of an *ex-post-facto* law, and evinced to the eyes of Europe their inattention to those "rights of man" which the nation had solemnly proclaimed. The issue is too well known; impartial history will record it to the eternal infamy of the French nation. The firmness of this unfortunate monarch during his trial, and at the place of execution", on the 21st of

\* The following account of the last moments of this unfortunate monarch is truly interesting. It is extracted from the letters of an English lady at that time at Paris.

"The French king received the intelligence of his approaching fate without dismay. He displayed far more firmness upon the scaffold than he had done upon the throne; and atoned for the weakness and inconsistency of his conduct in life, by the calmness and fortitude of his behaviour in death. The evening before his execution, his family, from whom he had been separated since the commencement of his trial, were conducted to the tower of the Temple, and allowed the sad indulgence of a last interview, unmolested by the presence of his guards. Alas! when imagination pictured the anguish of such an interview, it was not necessary to look back upon the former elevation of the sufferer, in order to pity the gloomy transition in his fate! It was not necessary to recollect, that he, who was the following morning to suffer death upon the scaffold, was once the first monarch of Europe, and would be led to execution through the streets of his own capital! It was enough to consider this unfortunate person as a man, a husband, a father! Ah! surely amidst the agonies of final separation from those to whom we are bound by the strongest ties of nature and affection—surely, when we cling to those we love, in the unutterable pang of a last embrace—in such moments, the monarch must forget his crown; and the regrets of disappointed ambition must be unfeigned amidst the anguish which overwhelms the broken heart. That anguish was not confined to the bosom of the king, the queen, and his sister. The princess, his daughter, had attained that age when perhaps the soul is most susceptible of strong impressions, and its sensibility most exquisite. Even the young prince, only in his ninth year, caught the infectious sorrow; and, while his eyes were bathed in tears, cried, sobbing, to Santerre, "Ah, laissez-moi courir les rues!—j'irai aux districts—j'irai à toutes les sections, demander grace pour mon papa!"

"The king had sufficient firmness to avoid seeing his family on the morning of his execution. He desired the queen might be told that he was unable to bear the sight of her and his children in these last moments. He took a ring off his finger, which contained some of his own hair, of the queen's, and of his two children, and desired that it might be given to the queen. He called the municipal officers round him, and told them, it was his dying request, that Clery, his valet-de-

chambre, might remain with his son. He then said to Santerre, "Marchons!" and after crossing, with a hurried pace, the inner court of the Temple, he got into the mayor's carriage, which was in waiting, and was attended by his confessor.—

"The calmness which Louis the Sixteenth displayed in this great trial of human fortitude, is attributed not only to the support his mind received from religious faith, but also to the hope which it is said he cherished, even till his last moment, that the people, whom he meant to address from the scaffold, would demand that his life might be spared. His confessor, from motives of compassion, had encouraged him in this hope. After ascending the scaffold with a firm step, twice the unhappy monarch attempted to speak, and twice Santerre prevented him from being heard, by ordering the drums to beat immediately.

"Two persons, who were on the scaffold, assert, that the unhappy monarch, finding the hope he had cherished, of awakening the compassion of the people, frustrated by the impossibility of his being heard, as a last resource, declared that he had secrets to reveal, of importance to the safety of the state, and desired he might be led to the national convention. Some of the guards, who heard this declaration, cried, "Yes, let him go to the convention!"—others said "No."—Had the king been conducted to the convention, it is easy to imagine the effect which would have been produced on the minds of the people, by the sight of their former monarch led through the streets of Paris, with his hands bound, his neck bare, his hair already cut off at the foot of the scaffold in preparation for the fatal stroke—with no other covering than his shirt. At that sight, the enraged populace would have melted into tenderness; and the Parisian women, among whom were numbers who passed the day in tears of unavailing regret, would have rushed between the monarch and his guards, and have attempted his rescue, even with the risque of life. Santerre, who foresaw these consequences, who perceived the danger of this rising dispute among the guards, called to the executioner to do his office. Then it was, that despair seized on the mind of the unfortunate monarch—his countenance assumed a look of horror—twice with agony he repeated, "Je suis perdu! je suis perdu!" His confessor meantime called to him from the foot of the scaffold, "Louis, fils de St. Louis, montez au ciel!" and in one moment he was delivered from the evils of mortality.

\* "Oh! let me run through the streets—I will go the districts—I will go to all the sections, and beg pardon for my papa."

† "Let us go."

‡ "I am undone! I am undone!"

§ "Louis, son of St. Louis, ascend to heaven!"

January, 1793, increased the commiseration of every indifferent spectator; and callous indeed must be the person, who does not partake of the sympathy which was felt through all Europe upon this transaction.

"The condemnation and execution of the king," said a great statesman in the British house of commons, "is an act as disgraceful as any that history records; and I never can view, but with the greatest detestation, the injustice and inhumanity that has been committed towards that unhappy monarch. Not only were the rules of criminal justice, rules that more than any other ought to be strictly observed, overturned; not only was he tried and condemned without any existing law to which he was personally answerable, and even contrary to laws that did actually exist; but the degrading circumstances of his imprisonment, the unnecessary and insulting asperity with which he had been treated, the total want of republican magnanimity in the whole transaction, added every aggravation to the inhumanity and injustice."

It would be a tedious, and therefore an unwelcome undertaking, to trace minutely and gradually the progress of the dispute between France and England. Without affixing any degree of credit to the reports which have been circulated, that the court of Great Britain had early but secretly acceded to the concert of princes, and the treaty of Pilnitz, it is natural to believe that the British ministry had long viewed with a jealous eye the progress of the French revolution towards a turbulent democracy. On the contrary, we must do the French nation the justice to confess, that the unanimous voice of that people was clamorous from the first for peace and alliance with England. A series of events changed this inclination. A bill, for forcibly transporting aliens out of the kingdom, was introduced into parliament. The ports of Great Britain were shut against the exportation of corn to France, while it was permitted to her enemies. In the end, the ambassador of the republic, M. Chauvelin, was ordered, under the authority of the alien-bill, at a short notice, out of the kingdom; immediately after which dissolution, the convention declared, that the French republic is at war with the king of England, and the stadtholder of the United Provinces.

In consequence of these measures, general Dumourier proceeded with a large body of troops, to invade Holland, exhorting the Batavians in a violent manifesto, to reject the tyrannic aristocracy of the stadtholder and his party, and to become a free republic. The Dutch every where made the most vigorous preparations for defending themselves; and the English cabinet seconded their efforts, by an immediate embarkation of troops, to the command of which the duke of York was appointed.

The subjugation of Holland was the first project of general Dumourier; and when the ease with which he effected the conquest of the Netherlands, and the courage and ability displayed by him and his army at the famous battle of Gemappe, were considered, there was reason to apprehend that he would soon make an impression upon these provinces; and the easy surrender of Breda and Gertruydenberg encouraged him to boast that he would terminate the contest by a speedy approach to Amsterdam. A train of circumstances, however, soon interrupted the victorious career of Dumourier, and evinced to mankind the uncertainty of military successes.

General Miranda, who had besieged the city of Maestricht, and summoned the governor to surrender, was attacked by prince Frederic of Brunswick, and defeated with considerable loss. The Austrians, after this, divided themselves into three columns, two of which marched towards Maestricht, and the siege of that place was immediately raised. The third pursued the advanced guard of the republic; and the absence of several commanding officers was supposed to have greatly facilitated the success of the Prussians in these rencounters, which may be justly

considered as the commencement of a new series of misfortunes to France. Such was the consternation which the successes of the enemy occasioned, that general Valence himself informed the commissioners, that if Dumourier did not arrive immediately, he could not answer for the consequences; but notwithstanding all the past successes of that general, and all his acknowledged military skill, the allies soon beheld his hasty retreat from the Netherlands, and final defection from the cause of his employers. Soon after that general quitted Holland, and assumed in person the command of the disconcerted armies of Valence and Miranda, the forces of the prince of Cobourg and general Clairfuit attacked him with a force which astonished him, who had but a few months before driven the same troops out of France, and through the Netherlands into Germany. He saw with mortification and dismay the laurels of Gemappe wither on the plains of Tirlemont.

On the 14th of March, 1793, the imperialists advanced from Tongres towards Tirlemont, by St. Tron, and were attacked by general Dumourier successively on the 15th and following days. The first attempts were attended with success. The Austrian advanced posts were obliged to retire to St. Tron, through Tirlemont, which they had already passed. On the 18th a general engagement took place, the French army being covered on the left by Dormael, and on the right by Landen. The action continued with great obstinacy on both sides, from seven o'clock in the morning till five in the evening, when the French were obliged to fall back, and the Austrian cavalry coming up, put them entirely to flight. The loss in each army was great. The French displayed considerable courage and address, but were overpowered by the superior numbers, and, perhaps by the more regular discipline of their enemies. Dumourier himself, in a letter to general Duval, says of this battle, that he attacked the enemy in the famous plain of Newinghen, and fought the whole day with his right wing and centre. The left wing not only fought ill, but abandoned him, and fled beyond Tirlemont. He fortunately withdrew the right wing and the centre, skirmishing from the 19th to the 20th; and in the night he took a position on the heights of Cumpitch.

Dumourier addressed a letter to Bournonville the minister at war, dated the 25th of March, in which he gave an account of the retreat of a part of the army under generals Neuilly and Ferrand, who, by the defection of a great number of volunteers, were obliged to evacuate the city of Mons during the night. He added that colonels St. Clair and Theuvenot were attacked without means of defence; that if order and discipline were not restored,—that if fifty authorities, each more absurd than the other, continued to direct all political and military operations, France would be lost. “I have always affirmed,” says he “and I repeat it, that a republic can only be founded on virtue, and that freedom can be maintained only by order and wisdom.” Such is the outline of the proceedings which preceded the final defection of that celebrated general from the republicans of France, whose conduct he seems rather to have disapproved than their principles. His ambitious mind was affected even to desperation, when he had lost the alluring epithet of *deliverer of nations*, by the raimess of the convention and the irregularity of mobs; and it will perhaps long remain a doubt with speculative men, whether Dumourier would not have continued faithful and victorious, if France had seconded his efforts with liberality and wisdom, immediately after the retreat of the duke of Brunwick, which happened in the preceding October.

The latter end of June and the beginning of July were chiefly distinguished in the north, by some petty skirmishes between the two grand armies. The latter part of July was marked by some successes of more importance to the Austrians. The garrison of Condé, after sustaining a blockade of three months, surrendered on the 10th by capitulation to the prince of Cobourg; and Valenciennes, on the 20th

of the same month, to the duke of York, not without suspicions of treachery in both cases.

Encouraged by these successes, a large detachment from the combined army, under the command of the duke of York, proceeded without loss of time to a vigorous attack upon the port and town of Dunkirk. On the 22d of August the duke of York marched from Furnes to attack the French camp at Ghivelde, which was abandoned at his approach, and he was almost immediately enabled to take the ground which it was his intention to occupy during the siege. On the 24th he attacked the outposts of the French, who with some loss were driven into the town. In this action the famous Austrian general Dalton and some other officers of note were killed. The succeeding day the siege might be said regularly to commence. A considerable naval armament from Great Britain was to have co-operated in the siege; but by some neglect, admiral Macbride was not able to sail so early as was expected. In the mean time the hostile army was extremely harassed by the gun-boats of the French; a successful sortie was effected by the garrison on the 6th of September; and the French collecting in superior force, the duke of York, on the 7th, after several severe actions in which the allied forces suffered very considerably, was compelled to raise the siege, and leave behind him his numerous train of artillery. General Houchard was afterwards impeached by the convention for not having improved his success to the best advantage, as it is asserted that he had it in his power to capture almost the whole of the duke of York's army.

The disaffection of the southern provinces of France was productive of serious dangers to the new republic. It is well known that the deputies and people of these provinces were among the foremost in the iniquitous business of dethroning their king, on the execrable 10th of August, 1792. It is therefore somewhat extraordinary that the same men should be among the first to rebel against the authority of the convention. The formidable union which took place under the name of *federate republicanism*, between the cities of Marseilles, Lyons, and Toulon, in the course of the months of June and July, seemed to threaten almost the dissolution of the existing authorities. A considerable army was, however, dispatched against Lyons, and that city closely besieged. The Marseillois in the mean time opened their gates on the approach of the republican army, and submitted; but the people of Toulon entered into a negotiation with the English admiral, lord Hood, who was then cruising in the Mediterranean, and he took possession both of the town and of the shipping in the name of Louis XVII. and under the express and positive stipulation that he is to assist in restoring the constitution of 1789.

We have been led a little to transgress the chronological order of our narrative, to exhibit a connected detail of the external wars, and the internal disturbances of this unhappy country. We should otherwise have remarked, that the incendiary Marat did not long survive to enjoy his triumph in the convention. On the 13th of July, 1793, he was assassinated in his own house, by the hand of an enthusiastic female, of the name of Charlotte Cordé, a native of Caen, and who appeared to have some connexion with the deputies of the Gironde party.

The remains of this notorious anarchist were interred with great funeral pomp, attended by a part of the national convention, and a vast multitude of citizens. There are, however, but few who will probably lament his death, except those who instigated, or at least profited by his crimes.

The death of this execrable incendiary did not restore the convention and the mob of Paris to humanity. On the night of the 1st of August, the unfortunate queen was forcibly separated from her family, conveyed from the Temple to the

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Conciergerie, one of the prisons destined for common malefactors; where her treatment was such as would disgrace a civilised people. She was confined in a narrow room, or rather vault, of eight feet square; and the couch, on which degraded royalty was destined to repose, was a hard bed of straw. The Graces had all deserted her countenance, and the marks of premature old age seemed to proclaim that repeated sorrows would soon have terminated a life, which was unnecessarily devoted to the hand of the executioner.

If any act of phrensy could exceed the ill treatment of the queen (who, though her sufferings may have expiated her crimes, certainly cannot be considered as the friend of France) it is the shocking ingratitude and cruelty, which the ruling party immediately afterwards exercised to one of the most meritorious generals that ever the French republic could boast. The unfortunate Custine, after being committed a prisoner to the Abbey, was accused before the revolutionary tribunal, of having maintained an improper correspondence with the Prussians while he commanded on the Rhine, and of having neglected various opportunities of throwing reinforcements into Valenciennes. The French have no distinct notions of the administration of justice; they have no idea of the nature of evidence. To be suspected is to be condemned. The unfortunate general, in the crisis of his adversity, lamented that he appeared forsaken by every friend; and the remorseless populace of Paris, accustomed to sights of horror, beheld the murder of their former defender, with calm indifference, or with blind exultation.

The trial and condemnation of the queen immediately followed that of general Custine. The act of accusation consisted of several charges, many of which were singular, frivolous, and incredible; and we must observe that, although on the trial a number of witnesses were examined, few of the charges appeared to be substantiated. The unfortunate victim was prejudged; and had the evidence been even more frivolous, it is probable she could not have escaped; after an hour's consultation, therefore, the jury brought in their verdict—"guilty of all the charges."

The queen heard the sanguinary sentence with dignity and resignation; perhaps indeed it might be considered by her, less as a punishment than as a release. On the 16th of October, at about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, she was conducted in a coach from the prison of the Conciergerie, to a scaffold prepared in the Place de la Revolution, where her unfortunate husband had previously suffered. The people who crowded the streets as she passed, exhibited no marks of pity or compassion; and her behaviour, as her last sufferings approached, was decent and composed. She met her fate in the thirty-eighth year of her age.

Soon after the convention had brought the queen to the scaffold, they entered upon the trial of Brissot and his supposed accomplices; Brissot was charged with having said and written, at the commencement of the revolution, that Fayette's retiring from the public service was a national misfortune; that he distinguished himself three times in the Jacobin club, by speeches, of which one provoked the ruin of the colonies, another the massacre of the patriots in the Champ de Mars, and the third the war against Austria.

Upon these and other vague accusations, Brissot and twenty-one more of the convention were brought to trial before the Revolutionary tribunal, on the 24th of October; a few days afterwards, the jury declared all the accused members to be accomplices in a conspiracy which had existed against the unity and indivisibility of the French republic; and the tribunal immediately condemned them all to the punishment of death. Valazé, after he had heard his sentence, stabbed himself; and the remaining twenty-one were executed on the 30th of October.

The wretched and profligate Egalité (ci-devant duc d'Orleans) who had voted for the death of the king, was soon after brought to the block, with the highest

highest marks of insult from the surrounding multitude, and with the most unequivocal signs of contempt from the nations of Europe.

The catalogue would be disgusting and even tedious, were we to specify all the judicial murders that have since succeeded. Surely those who contend for freedom and the rights of man, ought to include among them the most sacred of duties, humanity, and ought ever to hold sacred the golden maxim, "that it is better ten guilty persons should escape, than one innocent man perish." But, alas! the French convention and the revolutionary tribunal are not CHRISTIANS.

In the south of France, neither the exertions of the allies, nor the surrender of the Toulonese, have produced the expected consequences in establishing a monarchial government. On the 30th of November, the garrison of Toulon made a vigorous sortie in order to destroy some batteries which the French were erecting upon certain heights, within cannon shot of the city. The detachments sent for this purpose accomplished it with silence and success; and the French troops were surprised, and fled. Elated unfortunately with the facility of the conquest, the allied troops rushed forward in pursuit of their flying foes, when they unexpectedly encountered a considerable force, which was proceeding to cover the retreat of the fugitives. At this moment general O'Hara, the commander in chief at Toulon, arrived upon the spot; and while he was exerting himself to bring off his troops with regularity, he received a wound in his arm, and was made prisoner by the republicans. It is said that near a thousand of the British and allied forces were killed, wounded, or taken prisoners on this occasion.

Soon after the capture of the British general O'Hara, the city of Toulon was evacuated by the allies. On the morning of the 19th of December, the attack began before all the republican forces had time to come up. It was chiefly directed against an English redoubt (Fort Mulgrave) defended by more than three thousand men, twenty pieces of cannon and several mortars. This formidable post was not able to resist the ardour of the republican army. It was attacked about five o'clock in the morning, and at six the republican flag was flying upon it. This success cost the French about 200 men killed, and more than 500 wounded. The allies lost the whole garrison, of which 500 were made prisoners, including eight officers and a Neapolitan prince. The representatives of the people rushed among the several columns, and rallied those who were panic-struck for an instant.

The town was bombarded from noon till 10 o'clock the same evening, when the allies and part of the inhabitants, having first set fire to the town and shipping, precipitated their flight; two chaloups, filled with the fugitives, were sunk to the bottom by the batteries. The precipitation with which the evacuation was effected, caused a great part of the ships and property to fall into the hands of the French, and was attended with the most melancholy consequences to the wretched inhabitants. As soon as they observed the preparation for flight, they crowded to the shores; they demanded the protection which had been promised them on the faith of the British crown. A scene of confusion, riot and plunder ensued; and though great efforts were made to transport thousands of the people to the ships, thousands of the people were left to all the horrors of falling into the hands of their enraged countrymen. Many of them plunged into the sea, and made a vain effort to swim on board the ships; others were seen on the beach to shoot themselves, that they might not endure the greater tortures they might expect from the republicans. During all this, the flames were spreading in every direction; and the ships that had been set on fire, were threatening every instant to explode, and blow all around them into the air. This is but a faint description of the scene on shore, and it was scarcely less dreadful on board the ships. Loaded with the heterogeneous mixture of nations, with aged men and infants, as well as women; with the sick from all the hospitals, and with the mangled soldiers from the posts just deserted,

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deserted, their wounds still undrest; nothing could equal the horrors of the fight, except the still more appalling cries of distraction and agony that filled the ear, for husbands, fathers, children, left on shore.

In the latter end of March, 1794, the party called the Hebertists, consisting of Hebert, Momoro, Vincent, and some others, was arrested, and brought to trial before the revolutionary tribunal. It was asserted, in a long act of accusation exhibited against them, "that they had conspired to restore despotism, and to murder the representatives of the people, &c." The prisoners denied what the witnesses alleged against them; but a verdict of guilty was pronounced, with little ceremony; and on the 25th of March 1794, twenty of the supposed conspirators suffered under the axe of the guillotine. A few days after violence and jealousy had sent these reputed traitors to the block, a still more extraordinary scene was exhibited. The celebrated Danton, Fabre d'Eglantine, Bazire, Chabot, Philippeaux, Lacroix, and others, were arrested as conspirators against the public. In a very summary way they were sentenced to death; and on the 5th of April they were brought to the usual place of execution, when most of them, and particularly Danton, manifested the utmost contempt of death.

The successes of the republican arms in Austrian Flanders have been very great, and the campaign of 1794 has witnessed their victories through all that country. The towns of Bruges, Courtray, Ypres, Charleroi, Brussels, Nieuport, and Antwerp, surrendered to the forces of the French: and what will be the future fate of Holland, upon the very frontiers of which the armies of the republic are now (July 1794) placed, time only can unfold.

- The issue of Louis XVI. and Maria Antonietta, are,  
 1. Madam Maria-Theresa-Charlotta, born December 19th, 1778.  
 2. Lewis-Charles, born March 27th, 1785.

N E T H E R L A N D S.

**T**HE seventeen provinces, which are known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of Netherlands, Pais-Bas, or Low-Countries, from their situation in respect to Germany.

EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	360	} between { 49 and 54 North lat. { 2 and 7 East lon.
Breadth	260	

They are bounded by the German sea on the North; by Germany, East; by Lorraine and France, South; and by the British Channel, West.  
 I shall, for the sake of perspicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of the seventeen provinces under two great divisions: first, the *Northern*, which contains the Seven United Provinces, usually known by the name of **HOLLAND**; secondly, the *Southern*, containing the Austrian and French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly speaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overijssel, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Gelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming

ing only one sovereignty, they generally go by the name of the Seven United Provinces.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Miles. Degrees.  
 Length <sup>153</sup> } between { 51 and 54 North lat.  
 Breadth nearly } the same. { 3 and 7 East lon.

Containing 10,000 SQUARE MILES, with 275 Inhabitants to each.

The following, from Templeman's survey of the globe, is the most satisfactory account we meet with of their geographical division, including the Texel, and other islands.

Countries' Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
United Provinces.				
Overijssel	1,900	66	50	Deventer
Holland	1,800	84	52	AMSTERDAM
Gelderland	986	50	40	Nimeguen
Friesland	810	44	34	Leuwarden
Zutphen	644	37	33	Zutphen
Groningen	540	45	37	Groningen
Utrecht	450	41	28	Utrecht
Zealand	303	29	24	Middleburg
Texel and other islands	113			
Total	7,546			

The subdivisions of the United Provinces, with their chief towns, have also been given in the following manner:

Prov.	Subdiv.	Chief Towns.	Prov.	Subdiv.	Chief Towns.
1. Holland.	South Holland.	Amsterdam	1. Holland.	North Holland.	Saardam
		Rotterdam			Edam
		Delft			Hoorn
		Hague			Euchusen
		Haerlem			Alkemaer
		Leyden			Monckdam
		Dort			Puermerent
	Williamstadt Naerden Goreum Heufden	Islands of Holland.	Voorn	Briel	
			Islemond	Helvoetsluys	
			Goree	Goree	
			Overflake	Somerdyke	
			Texel	Burg	
			Vlie	Two Villages	
			Schelling	Five Villages	

2. Islands

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N E T H E R L A N D S.

Prov.	Subdiv.	Chief Towns.	Prov.	Subdiv.	Chief Towns.
1. Islands of Zealand.	Walcherch	{ Middleburg Flushing Terveer Rammekins	5. Overijssel, E. of the Zuider Sea.	Island	{ Davenport Zwoil Covarden
	Schowen	{ Zuricksee Brewerhaven		The Drente	{ Otmarfen
	N. Beveland	Tolen		Velew	{ Anheim Loo palace Hardewicke
	S. Beveland	Cats			{ Nimeguen Skenken- schans
2. Friesland	Duyveland	Tergoes	6. Gelderland and Zutphen, S. E. of Holland.	Batavia	{ Bommel Zutphen Doethurg
	Ostergoe	{ Lewarden Dockum		Zutphen	{ Groll
	Westergoe	{ Franker Harlingen		Gelder quarter	{ Gelder Venlo
3. Groningen	Sevenwolden	St. ot	The town of Gelder is subject to Prussia, and hath been since 1713.		
	The Omlands	{ Groningen Winfchoten Dam			

7. UTRECHT in the Middle.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
On the old channel of the Rhine	Utrecht
North of the Old Rhine	Amerfort
South of the Old Rhine	Duelfardwyck

**AIR, SEASONS, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.** These provinces lie opposite to England, at the distance of 90 miles, upon the east side of the English Channel, and are only a narrow slip of low swampy land, near the mouths of several great rivers, and gained from the sea by means of dykes, raised and still supported with incredible labour. The air of the United Provinces is therefore foggy and gross, until purified by the frost in winter, when the east wind usually lets in for about four months, freezing up their harbours. The moisture of the air causes metals to rust, and wood to mould, more than in any other country; which is the reason of their perpetually rubbing and scouring, and of the brightness and cleanliness observable in their houses. The soil is unfavourable to vegetation; but, by the industry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for pasture, and in many places for tillage. Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a desirable country to live in. Here are no mountains nor rising grounds, no plantations, purling streams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or steeple, has the appearance of a continued marsh or bog, drained at certain distances by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals, which in that country serve as high-roads, are in the summer months highly offensive to the smell.

**RIVERS AND HARBOURS.** The rivers are an important consideration to the United Provinces; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largest and finest rivers in Europe; the Maese, the Scheld, and the Vecht. There are many small rivers that join these, and a prodigious number of canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the best are those of Rotterdam, Helvoetsluis, and Flushing; that of Amsterdam, though one of the largest and safest in Europe,

has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large vessels cannot pass without being lightened.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.** } The quantity of grain produced here is not sufficient for home consumption; but by draining their bogs and marshes they have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Danish cattle to a vast size; and they make prodigious quantities of butter and cheese. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, some fruit, and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber used there, and indeed many of the comforts, and even the necessaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of sheep, whose wool is highly valued; and their horses and horned cattle are of a large size. It is said, there are some wild boars and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimnies; but, being birds of passage, they leave the country about the middle of August, with their young, and return the February following. Their river-fish is much the same as ours, but their sea-fish is generally larger, owing perhaps to their fishing in deeper water. No herrings visit their coasts; but they have many excellent oysterbeds about the islands of the Texel, producing very large and well-tasted oysters; and the industry of the Hollanders furnishes as great a plenty of the necessaries and commodities of life, and upon as easy terms (except to travellers and strangers), as most neighbouring countries.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.** } The Seven United Provinces are perhaps the best peopled of any spot of the same extent in the world. They contain, according to the best accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and 2,758,632 inhabitants, according to a public account given in 1785; besides the twenty-five towns, and the people in what is called the Lands of the Generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands. The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for so the inhabitants of the United Provinces are called in general) seem to be formed by their situation, and to arise from their natural wants. Their country, which is preserved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; since the artificial drains, with which it is every where intersected, must be kept in perpetual repair. Their principal food they earn out of the sea by their herring-fisheries; for they dispose of most of their valuable fishes to the English, and other nations, for the sake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate give to them phlegmatic, slow dispositions, both of body and mind; and yet they are irascible, especially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldness, with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own interests; for in all other respects they are quiet neighbours and peaceable subjects. Their attention to the constitution and independency of their country is owing to the same principle; for they were never known to risk innovations in government, except when absolutely necessary.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active when they find their interest at stake; witness their sea wars with England and France. Their boors, though slow of understanding, are manageable by fair means. Their seamen are a plain, blunt, but rough, surly, and ill-mannered people. Their tradesmen in general are reckoned honest in their dealings, and very sparing of their words. Smoking tobacco is practised by old and young of both sexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are so unsociable. A Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every species of brutality. The Dutch have also been known to exercise the most dreadful inhumanities for interest abroad, where they thought themselves free from discovery; but their own country exhibits but few instances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tipping and drinking charged upon both sexes, it is owing in a great

measure to the nature of their soil and climate. In general, all appetites and passions seem to run lower and cooler here than in most other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unusual strains of pleasant humour, nor warm enough for love, which is little better than a mechanical affection, arising from interest, conveniency, or habit; talked of sometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of rather than felt, and as a discourse that becomes them rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the most expert of any people; to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, uniting the no less necessary science of preserving it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to spend less than his income, be that what it will; and when this does not happen, they think at least they have lived that year to no purpose; and the report of it used to discredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not so universal among the Dutch as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewise practised by many of their fashionable ladies, some of whom discover more propensity to gallantry than was formerly known. No country can vie with Holland in the number of those inhabitants, whose lot, if not riches, is at least a comfortable sufficiency; and among whom fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midst of a world of taxes and contributions such as no other country experiences, they flourish and grow rich. From this systematic spirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the most obstinate perseverance, they succeeded in the stupendous works of draining their country of those immense deluges of water that had overflowed so large a part of it during many ages, while at the same time they brought under their subjection and command the rivers and seas that surround them, by dykes of incredible thickness and strength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and safety of their territories against the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable sluices, by means of which, at the shortest notice, the most rapid inundations are let in, and they become in a few hours inaccessible. From that frugality and perseverance by which they have been so much characterised, they were enabled, though labouring under the greatest difficulties, not only to throw off the Spanish yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the most tender parts, by seizing her rich galleons, and forming new establishments in Africa, and the East and West Indies, at the expense of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a despicable province, a most powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the growth of their military and marine establishments, maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II. of England, not less than 150,000 men, and upwards of 80 ships of the line. But a spirit of frugality being now less universal among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to imitate the luxuries of the English and French; and their nobility and high magistrates, who have retired from trade, affect splendour in their tables, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diversions of the Dutch differ not much from those of the English, who seemed to have borrowed from them the neatness of their drinking-booths, skittle and other grounds, and small pieces of water, which form the amusements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand-organs, and other musical inventions. They are the best skaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to see the crowds in a hard frost upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women, darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

Dress.] Their dress formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men; and the jenkins, plain mobs, short petticoats, and other oddities of the women; all which,

which, added to the natural thickness and clumsiness of their persons, gave them a very grotesque appearance. These dresses now prevail only among the lower ranks, and more particularly amongst the sea-faring people.

**RELIGION.]** The established religion here is the Presbyterian and Calvinism: none but Presbyterians are admitted into any office or post in the government, except the army; yet all religious sects are tolerated, and have their respective meetings or assemblies for public worship; among which the Papists and Jews are very numerous. And, indeed, this country may be considered as a striking instance of the benefits arising to a nation from universal toleration. As every man is allowed to worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience, persons of the most opposite opinions live together in harmony and peace. No man in this republic has any reason to complain of being oppressed on account of his religious principles, nor any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party, or to disturb the government; and therefore in Holland men live together as citizens of the world, associated by the common ties of humanity and bonds of peace; with equal encouragement to arts and industry, and equal freedom of speculation and enquiry.

**LANGUAGE.]** The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of fashion speak English and French. Their Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onse Vader, die in de hemelin zyn wven naam worde geheylight: wy'koningryk kome: wze wille geschiede gelyck in den kemel zoo ook op den arden, ons dageliks broot geef ons heeden, ende vergeest onse schulden gelyk ook wy vergeeven onse schuldenaaren: ende laats ons neit in wsoer kingemaer vertoef on van der hoosen. Amen.*

**LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.]** Erasmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, stand almost at the head of modern learning. Haerlem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans; and the magistrates keep two copies of a book intitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by Koster in 1440. The most elegant editions of the classics came from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controversial divinity, which insinuated itself so much into the state, that, before principles of universal toleration prevailed, it had almost proved fatal to the government; witness the violent disputes about Arminianism, free-will, predestination, and the like. Besides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius, Gronovius, father and son, and Burmann are ranked among their numerous commentators upon the classics. Nothing is more common than their Latin poems and epigrams; and later times have produced a Van Haaren, who is possessed of some poetical abilities, and about the year 1747 published poems in favour of liberty, which were admired as rarities, chiefly because their author was a Dutchman. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and arise chiefly from their employments in universities, church, or state.

**UNIVERSITIES.]** These are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Francker

The university of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largest and most ancient in all the United Netherlands. Its library, besides a number of printed books, contains two thousand oriental manuscripts, many of which are in Arabic; and a large sphere adapted to the Copernican system, moving by clock-work. Here is also a phytic-garden, and an anatomical theatre.

The university of Utrecht, in the province of the same name, was changed from a school into a university, in 1636; but it has not all the privileges of the other universities, being entirely subject to the magistrates of the city. The Phytic garden here is very curious; and for the recreation of the students, on the east side of

the city, just without the gate, is a beautiful mall, consisting of seven straight walks; two thousand paces in length, regularly planted with limes: but that in the middle is properly the mall.

The number of students, one year with another, is seven or eight hundred in each of the universities of Leyden and Utrecht: in the other three, they are not so numerous. These seminaries of learning have each three or four divinity professors, as many of physic, and two or three of law; besides others of history, languages, and eloquence, or the *belles lettres*, and others of philosophy, mathematics, the Greek and Roman antiquities, and the Hebrew and Oriental languages. The professors in the universities of Holland are often men of literary eminence; as there is an emulation among the states of the different provinces, which shall have the greatest men to adorn their universities, and attract numbers of students from all parts of Europe to enrich their towns: and therefore they are ready to afford very liberal encouragement to able professors, who are often invited from the universities of Germany.

The buildings of these universities are old, and rather mean; the schools of Leyden are better, and more contiguous than the rest. The professors wear gowns when they read lectures, or preside in public disputations. The students wear no distinct habits, but are almost always in their morning gowns, in which they attend the colleges; and it is common for them, at Leyden, to walk in this dress in the streets and mall without the city. There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry, from most countries in Europe, at these seminaries of literature: and as every one may live as he pleases, without being obliged to be profuse in his expences, or so much as quitting his night gown for weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be seen here. The force of example is strikingly exhibited at these universities: for frugality in expence, order, a composed behaviour, attention to study, and assiduity in all things, being the characteristics of the natives, strangers, who continue among them, soon adopt their manners and forms of living. And though the students live as they please, and study as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are in general remarkable for their sobriety and good manners, and the assiduity and success with which they apply themselves to their studies. No oaths are imposed, nor religious tests; so that Roman Catholic parents, and even Jews, send their children here, with as little scruple as Protestants.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The prodigious dykes, some of which are  
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } said to be 17 ells in thickness; mounds, and  
canals, constructed by the Dutch, to preserve their country from inundations, are  
works as stupendous as singular. A stone quarry near Maestricht, under a hill, is  
worked into a kind of subterranean palace supported by pillars twenty feet high.  
The stadthouse of Amsterdam is one of the best buildings of that kind: it stands  
upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inside is equally convenient  
and magnificent. Several museums, containing antiquities and curiosities,  
artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly  
in the university of Leyden; such as the effigies of a peasant of Rullia, who  
swallowed a knife ten inches in length, and is said to have lived eight years after  
it was cut out of his stomach. A shirt made of the entrails of a man. Two  
Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the  
muscles and tendons of the human body, curiously set up by professor Stalpert Van-  
der-Weil.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDI- } Amsterdam, which is built upon piles of  
FICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } wood, is thought to contain 241,000 people,  
and to be, next to London, the most commercial city in the world. Its conveniences  
for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, astonish every beholder. In  
this,

this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under trees planted on their borders, are admirable; but above all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness that is every where observed within doors. This city, however, labours under two great disadvantages; bad air, and the want of fresh wholesome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preserve the rain water in reservoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amsterdam for commerce and wealth: its inhabitants are computed at 56,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the seat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the resort of foreign ambassadors and strangers of all distinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapness of its provisions, and the politeness of its inhabitants, who are computed at 40,000. Leyden and Utrecht are fine cities, as well as famous for their universities. Saardam, a village in North Holland, contains about 900 wind-mills, partly corn-mills, partly saw and paper-mills, and mills for the making of white lead, &c. It is a wealthy trading place, and was the workshop where Peter the Great of Muscovy served his apprenticeship to ship-building, and laboured as a common artisan. The upper part of Gelderland is subject to Prussia, and the capital city Gelder.

**INLAND NAVIGATION, CANALS, AND } MANNER OF TRAVELLING.** } The usual way of passing from town to town is by covered boats, called trecksuits, which are dragged along the canal by horses, on a slow uniform trot, so that passengers reach the different towns where they are to stop, precisely at the appointed instant of time. This method of travelling, though to strangers rather dull, is convenient and cheap. By means of these canals, an extensive land commerce is carried on through the whole country; and as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of the whole earth are conveyed at a small expence into various parts of Germany, and the Austrian and French Netherlands. A trecksuit is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruin; the first for gentlemen, and the other for common people. Near Amsterdam and other large cities, a traveller is delighted with beholding the effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce. Here the canals are lined, for miles together, with elegant, neat country houses, seated in the midst of gardens and pleasure grounds, intermixed with figures, busts, statues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge. Having no objects for amusement beyond the limits of their own gardens, the families in fine weather spend much of their time there, smoking, reading, or viewing the passengers, to whom they appear complaisant and polite.

**COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.]** An account of the Dutch commerce would comprehend that of the world. There is scarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, or a state to which they do not trade. In this, they are assisted by the populousness of their country, their industry and frugality, and, above all, by the water-carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond other nations. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe; and goods may be purchased here sometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. Their East India company has had the monopoly of the fine spices for more than a hundred years, and, till the late war with England, was extremely opulent and powerful. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which excels in magnificence, opulence, and commerce. Here the viceroys appear in greater splendor than the stadtholder; and some of the Dutch subjects in Batavia scarcely acknowledge any dependence on the mother-country. Among the monopolies of the East-India company, the spice-trade, comprehending the articles of cloves, mace, nutmeg, cinnamon, &c. is the most valuable, and forms a very great branch of the Asiatic as well as European commerce of Holland: 150,000lbs. of cloves are annually sold in India, and 360,000 carried to Europe. The company pays on the spot only eight stivers per pound; but the freight and other charges raise this price to 43 stivers, and the company sells it at no less than 75 stivers. Of nutmeg, the produce

produce of the island of Banda, 250,000lbs. are sold in Europe, and 100,000 in India: the prime cost is somewhat more than one stiver per pound; including charges, the pound costs the company about 25 stivers, and is sold by them at upwards of 50 stivers, west of the Cape of Good Hope; and at about 40 stivers, east of it. In India, 200,000lbs. of cinnamon are sold, and 400,000 in Europe. The Java coffee is the best we know of, after that of Mecca in Arabia. Other great branches of this trade are rice, cotton, pepper, &c. articles of great importance, but not in the exclusive possession of the Dutch. They have other settlements in India, but none more pleasant, healthful, or useful, than that on the Cape of Good Hope, the grand rendezvous for the ships of all nations, outward or homeward bound. When Lewis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made some dispositions to ship themselves off to their settlements in India; so great was their aversion to the French government. Not to mention their herring and whale fisheries, which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they are distinguished for their pottery, tobacco-pipes, delft-ware, finely refined salt; their oil-mills, and starch-manufactures; their improvements of the raw linen-thread of Germany; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; and fine linen, and table damasks; their saw-mills for timber, either for shipping or houses, in immense quantities; their great sugar-baking; their vast woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather dressing; the great quantity of their coin and specie, assisted by their banks, especially by that of Amsterdam; their East-India trade; and their general industry and frugality.

This country affords a striking proof, that unwearied and persevering industry is capable of conquering every disadvantage of climate and situation. The possession of the very soil is disputed by the ocean, which rising considerably above the level of the land, can only be prevented by strong and expensive dykes, from overflowing a spot which seems to be stolen from its natural domains. Notwithstanding these difficulties, which might seem unsurmountable to a less laborious people, the strenuous exertions of the patient Dutchmen have rendered this small and seemingly insignificant territory, in fact, one of the richest spots in Europe, both with respect to population and property. In other countries, which are possessed of a variety of natural productions, we are not surprised to find manufactures employed in multiplying the riches which the bounty of the soil bestows. But to see, in a country like Holland, large woollen manufactures, where there are but scanty flocks; numberless artists employed in metals, where there is no mine; thousands of saw-mills, where there is scarce any forest; an immense quantity of corn exported from a country where there is not agriculture enough to support one-half of its inhabitants, is what must strike every attentive observer with admiration.

The natural and political situation of the Dutch nation may be compared with the colonies of Canadian beavers, who, by unwearied labour and mutual assistance, are enabled to build secure habitations on the banks of rapid rivers, and to form societies rendered durable and invincible by the tie of firm union: yet their wonderful fabric would, by dissension and separation, soon sink into insignificance or annihilation. When we consider what Holland was before the union of Utrecht, and when we afterwards see the inhabitants of that swampy spot become respectable in Europe and predominant in India, it is not without regret we witness the decay of their power, that most admirable monument of human industry. An impartial observer, however, who cannot wish to see the benefits of activity confined to one spot, and extorted from the weakness and ignorance of other nations, will be comforted by the consideration, that Holland's exclusive advantages are lessened by the general increase of industry and happiness throughout all the states of Europe, and not by any of those great calamities or revolutions, which have put a period to the power of other commercial states.

**PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.]** Of these, the capital is the East India, incorporated in 1602, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immense wealth, having divided forty per cent, and sometimes sixty, about the year 1660; at present the dividends are much reduced; but in a hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors, on an average, one year with another, divided somewhat above twenty-four per cent. So late as the year 1760, they divided fifteen per cent. but the Dutch West India company, the same year, divided no more than two and a half per cent. This company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amsterdam is thought to be inexhaustibly rich, and is under an excellent direction: it is said, by sir William Temple, to contain the greatest treasure, either real or imaginary, known in the world. What may seem a paradox, is, that this bank is so far from paying any interest, that the money in it is worth something more than current cash is, in common payments. Mr. Anderson supposes that the cash, bullion, and pawned jewels, forming the treasure of the bank, which are kept in the vaults of the stadthouse, amounts to thirty-six millions sterling; but more probable conjectures reduce it to about one tenth of that sum.

**CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.]** This is a very intricate article; for though the United Provinces subsist in a common confederacy, yet each province has an internal government or constitution of its own: this government is called the *States* of that province; and the delegates from them form the *States General*, in whom the sovereignty of the whole confederacy is vested; but though a province should send two, or more delegates, yet such province has no more than one voice in every resolution; and before that resolution can have the force of a law, it must be approved of by every province, and by every city and republic in that province. This formality, in times of great danger and emergency, has been set aside. Every resolution of the states of a particular province must be carried unanimously.

The *council of state* consists likewise of deputies from the several provinces: but its constitution is different from that of the states-general: it is composed of twelve persons, whereof Guelderland sends two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Friesland, one; Overysse, one; and Groningen, one. These deputies, however, do not vote provincially, but personally. Their business is to prepare estimates, and ways and means for raising the revenue, as well as other matters that are to be laid before the states-general. The states of the provinces are styled "Noble and Mighty Lords," but those of Holland, "Noble and Most Mighty Lords," and the states-general, "High and Mighty Lords," or, "the Lords the States-General of the United Netherlands," or, "their High Mightinesses." Subordinate to these two bodies, is the chamber of accounts, which is likewise composed of provincial deputies, who audit all public accounts. The admiralty forms a separate board; and the executive part of it is committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland. In Holland, the people have nothing to do in chusing their magistrates. In Amsterdam, which takes the lead in all public deliberations, the magistracy is lodged in thirty-six senators, who are chosen for life; and every vacancy among them is filled up by the survivors. The same senate also elects the deputies to represent the cities in the province of Holland.

I have mentioned the above particulars, because, without a knowledge of them, it is impossible to understand the history of the United Provinces, from the death of king William to the year 1747, when the stadholderhip was made hereditary in the male and female representatives of the family of Orange. This office in a manner superseded the constitution already described. The stadholder is president of the state of every province; and such is his power and influence, that he can change the deputies, magistrates, and officers, in every province and city. By this he has the moulding of the assembly of the states-general, though he has no voice

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in it; in short, though he has not the title, he has more real power and authority than some kings; for, besides the influence and revenue he derives from the stadtholdership, he has several principalities and large estates of his own. At different periods, the United Provinces have been without a stadtholder: but these periods were usually very turbulent; and whenever a war broke out, the republic felt the necessity of re-establishing this magistrate. Notwithstanding the complaints of the party styling themselves patriots, it would seem that the office of stadtholder is essential to the constitution of the United Provinces. The present stadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Nassau, son of the late stadtholder, William Charles, who married Anne, princess royal of Great Britain, and died in 1751.

With respect to the administration of justice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal causes, appeal lies from the petty and county courts; and it is said that justice is no where distributed with more impartiality.

[REVENUES.] The government of the United Provinces proportion their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. These taxes consist of an almost general excise, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; so that the public revenue amounts annually to about four millions and a half sterling. The province of Holland pays nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate at which each of the Seven United Provinces is said to contribute toward the public expence:

Of every million of ducats the Province of Holland contributes	420,000
Zealand	130,000
Friesland	170,000
Utrecht	85,000
Groningen	75,000
Guelderland	70,000
Overyssel	50,000

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the province of Holland, the city of Amsterdam furnishes upwards of 320,000. The taxes in these provinces are so heavy, and so many, that it is not without reason a certain author asserts, that the only thing which has escaped taxation there, is the air they breathe. But, for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandize are exceedingly low. The immense sums in the British funds have made some people imagine that Holland labours under heavy debts; but the chief reason is, the states only pay two and a half per cent. interest for money.

[MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces in time of peace commonly amount to about 40,000; 25,000 of whom serve in garrisons; and in time of war, they hire Germans. The chief command of the army is vested in the stadtholder, under whom is the field-marshal general. The marine force of the United Provinces used to be very great, and they formerly fitted out very considerable fleets: but their navy has of late been much neglected. Their late war with Great Britain obliged them to increase it; and they have great resources for that purpose. According to the last accounts, their navy consists of one ship of 76 guns, three of 70, four of 68, five of 60, eight of 56, four of 50, five of 44, nine of 40, and ten of 36, besides vessels of inferior force. But they have many ships upon the stocks; and their fleet will probably be much augmented, and in future be kept in better order.

[ORDER OF TEUTONIC KNIGHTS.] This was one of the most powerful as well as ancient orders in Europe, now divided into two branches; the first for Papists, and the second branch for Protestants. This branch has a house at Utrecht, where

they transact their business. The nobles of Holland, if they propose a son to be a knight, enter his name in the register, and pay a large sum of money to the use of the poor maintained by the order; and the candidate succeeds in rotation, if he brings with him proof of his nobility for four generations on the father's and mother's side. The ensign is a cross patee, enamelled white, surmounted with another, black; above the cross, is a ball twisted, white and black. It is worn pendent to a broad black watered ribband, which is worn about the neck. The same cross is embroidered on the left breast of the upper garment of each knight.

**ARMS.]** The ensigns armorial of the Seven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, are, *Or*, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlass, and with the other a bundle of seven arrows close bound together, in allusion to the seven confederate provinces, with the following motto, *Concordia res parva crescunt*.

**HISTORY.]** See the Austrian Netherlands.

William V. prince of Orange and Nassau, Hereditary Stadtholder, Captain-General and Admiral of the Seven United Provinces, was born in 1748, married in 1767 the princess Frederica of Prussia, born 1751; by whom he has issue,

1. Frederica-Louisa-Wilhelmina, born November 28, 1770; married to the hereditary Prince of Brunswick.

2. William-Frederic, hereditary Prince, born August 2, 1772; married October 1, 1791, to Princess Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina of Prussia.

3. William-George-Frederic, born February 15, 1774.

The Stadtholder hath one sister, Wilhelmina-Carolina, born 1743, and married to the Prince of Nassau Weilburgh.

## AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	200	} between	{ 49 and 52 North latitude.
Breadth	200		{ 2 and 7 East longitude.

**BOUNDARIES.]** **B**OUNDED by the United Provinces, on the North; by Germany, East; by Lorraine, Champagne, and Picardy, in France, South; and by another part of Picardy, and the English sea, West.

As this country belongs to three different powers, the Austrians, French, and Dutch, we shall be more particular in distinguishing the provinces and towns belonging to each state.

### 1. Province of BRABANT.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.										
1. Dutch Brabant	<table> <tr> <td rowspan="5">}</td> <td>Boisleduc</td> <td rowspan="3">} N.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Breda</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Bergen-op-Zoom</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Grave, N. E.</td> <td rowspan="2">} N. W.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Lillo</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>Steenbergen</td> </tr> </table>	}	Boisleduc	} N.	Breda	Bergen-op-Zoom	Grave, N. E.	} N. W.	Lillo		Steenbergen	1374
}	Boisleduc		} N.									
	Breda											
	Bergen-op-Zoom											
	Grave, N. E.		} N. W.									
	Lillo											
	Steenbergen											

### 2. Austrian

N E T H E R L A N D S.

477

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
2. Austrian Brabant	} { Brussels, E. lon. 4 deg. 6 min. N. lat. } } { 50-50. } } { Louvain } } { Vilvorden } in the middle. } { Landen }	} 1892

2. ANTWERP; and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though surrounded by it, and subject to the house of Austria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S. E.

Chief Towns	- - - } { Limburg, E. lon. 6-5. N. lat. 50-37 } } { subject to Austria. }	} 312

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Austrian Luxembourg	- - - } { Luxembourg, E. lon. 6-8. N. lat. 49-45. }	2408
French Luxembourg	- - - } { Thionville } S. E. } { Montmedy }	292

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, subject to Austria.

Chief Towns	- - - } { Namur, on the Sambre and Maese, E. lon. 4-50. N. lat. 50-30. }	425
	- - - } { Charleroy on the Sambre }	

7 Province of HAINAULT.

Austrian Hainault	- - - } { Mons, E. lon. 3-33. N. lat. 50-30. }	} in the middle } 640
	- - - } { Aeth } } { Enguien }	
French Hainault	- - - } { Valenciennes } } { Bouchain } S. W. } { Conde } } { Landreecy }	800

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France	- - - } { Cambray, E. of Arras, E. lon. 3-15. } } { N. lat. 50-15. }	150
	- - - } { Crevecoeur, S. of Cambray. }	

9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France	- - - } { Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe, E. lon. 2-5. N. lat. 50-20. }	} 990
	- - - } { St. Omer, E. of Boulogne }	
	- - - } { Aire, S. of St. Omer }	
	- - - } { St. Venant, E. of Aire }	
	- - - } { Bethune, S. E. of Aire }	
	- - - } { Terouen, S. of St. Omer }	

10. Province

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2. Austrian

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
10. Province of FLANDERS.		
Dutch Flanders	Sluys, N. Axel, N. Hulst, N. Saa van Ghent, N. Ghent, on the Scheld, E. lon. 3-36. N. lat. 51. Bruges } N. W. near the sea Ostend } Newport }	280
Austrian Flanders	Oudenard on the Scheld Courtray } on the Lis Dixmude } Ypres, N. of Lisse Tournay on the Scheld Menin on the Lis Lisse, W. of Tournay	1905
French Flanders	Dunkirk, on the coast E. of Calais Douay, W. of Arras Mardike, W. of Dunkirk St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes Graveline, E. of Calais	760

**AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.]** The air of Brabant, and upon the coast of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the seasons more settled, both in winter and summer, than they are in England. The soil and its produce are rich, especially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of pasture; and Flanders itself has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and sometimes of England. The most barren parts for corn rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Austrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and industry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the pleasantness of its roads and villages, or the fertility of its land. If it has declined in later times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is still a most desirable and agreeable country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands. Flanders is a flat country, scarcely a single hill in it. Brabant, and the rest of the provinces, consist of little hills and valleys, woods, inclosed grounds, and champaign fields.

**RIVERS AND CANALS.]** The chief rivers are the Maese, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheld, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent, and Ostend.

**METALS AND MINERALS.]** Mines of iron, copper, lead, and brimstone, are found in Luxemburgh, and Limburgh, as are some marble quarries; and in the province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a species of bituminous fat earth proper for fuel, with great plenty of fossile nitre.

**INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.]** The Flemings (for so the inhabitants of the provinces are generally called) are thought to be a heavy, blunt, honest people; but their manners are somewhat indelicate. Formerly they were known to fight desperately

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separately in defence of their country; at present they make no great figure. The Austrian Netherlands are extremely populous; but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them, at a medium, at a million and a half. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diversions are the same with those of the peasants of the neighbouring countries.

**DRESS AND LANGUAGE.]** The inhabitants of French Flanders imitate the French in both these particulars. The Flemings on the frontiers of Holland dress like the Dutch boors, and their language is the same; but the better sort of people speak French, and dress in the French style.

**RELIGION.]** The established religion here is the Roman Catholic; but Protestants, and other sects, are not molested.

**ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.]** The archbishoprics are Cambrai, Malines or Mecklin; the bishoprics, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremond.

**LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS.]** The society of Jesuits formerly produced the most learned men in the Austrian Low Countries, in which they had many comfortable settlements. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and formed an illustrious school. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. Flamingo, or the Fleming's models for heads, particularly those of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed tapestry-weaving to themselves.

**UNIVERSITIES.]** Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St. Omer. The first was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. this university has the privilege of presenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, which right they enjoy, except in Holland.

**ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.]** Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are to be found in these provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are also found here; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, seen through all their cities, give evidence of their former grandeur. In 1607, some labourers found 1600 gold coins, and ancient medals of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

**CITIES.]** This article has employed several large volumes, published by different authors, but in times when the Austrian Netherlands were far more flourishing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles; but the town is now thinly inhabited. Bruges, formerly so noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now dwindled to an inconsiderable place. Ostend is a tolerably convenient harbour for traders; and, soon after the rupture between Great Britain and Holland, became more opulent and populous. In 1781, it was visited by the emperor, who granted to it many privileges and franchises, and the free exercise of the protestant religion. As to Ypres, it is only a strong garrison town. The same may be said of Charleroy and Namur, which lie in the Austrian Hainault.

Louvain, the capital of the Austrian Brabant, instead of its flourishing manufactories and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Brussels retains somewhat of its ancient lace manufacture; and being the residence of the governor or viceroy of the Austrian Netherlands, it is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapestry and thread-lace thop, with the houses of some bankers, jewelers, and painters, adjoining. One of the first exploits of the Dutch, soon after they

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they threw off the Spanish yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by sinking vessels, loaded with stones, in the mouth of the Scheld; thus shutting up the entrance of that river to ships of large burden. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow-sufferers in the cause of liberty: but they foresaw that the prosperity of their own commerce was at stake.

It may be observed here, that every gentleman's house is a castle or *chateau*; and that there are more strong towns in the Netherlands than in all the rest of Europe; but since the decline of the Flemish trade, by the rise of the English and Dutch, these towns are considerably diminished in size; and whole streets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance uninhabited. In the Netherlands, provisions are extremely good and cheap. Travelling is safe, reasonable, and delightful in this luxurious country. The roads are generally a broad causeway, and run for some miles in a straight line, till they terminate with the view of some noble buildings. From Cassel, in the French Netherlands, may be seen thirty-two towns, itself being on a hill.

**COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.]** The chief manufactures of the French and Austrian Netherlands are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithstanding the boasted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled; particularly in that species called cambrics, from Cambrai, the chief place of its manufacture. These manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

**CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.]** The Austrian Netherlands are still considered as a circle of the empire\*, of which the archducal house, as being sovereign of the whole, is the sole director and summoning prince. This circle contributes its share to the imposts of the empire, and sends an envoy to the diet, but is not subject to the judicatories of the empire. It is under a governor-general, or regent, appointed by the court of Vienna. The face of an assembly, or parliament, for each province, is still kept up, and consists of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Brussels. Each province claims particular privileges, but they are of very little effect: and the governor, till of late, seldom found any resistance to the will of his court. Every province has a particular governor, subject to the regent: and causes are here decided according to the civil and canon law.

**REVENUES.]** These rise from the demesne lands and customs; but so much is the trade of the Austrian Flanders now reduced, that they are said not to defray the expence of their government; but by the late reduction of the garrisons, this is now altered. The French Netherlands bring in a considerable revenue to the crown.

**MILITARY STRENGTH.]** The troops maintained here by the emperor are chiefly employed in the frontier garrisons. Though, by the barrier treaty, the Austrians were obliged to maintain three-fifths of those garrisons, and the Dutch two; yet both of them were miserably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at least 30,000 men, and, in the time of war, above 10,000 more. But the emperor Joseph demolished the fortifications, most of which were mouldering to decay.

**ARMS.]** The arms of Flanders are, or, a lion sable, and langued gules.

**HISTORY.]** The seventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies west of the Rhine, was called Gallia Belgica, by the Romans. About a century before

\* Although a great part of the Austrian Netherlands have, at this present writing (August 1794), surrendered to the arms of the French; yet as the events of war are so uncertain, and as the

troops of the new republic were compelled to evacuate this country in the beginning of 1793, it is impossible to say how long they may retain the possession of their new conquests.

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the Christian era, the Batavæ removed from Hesse to the marshy district bounded by the Rhine and the Maese. They gave the name of Batavia to their new country. Generous and brave, the Batavians were treated by the Romans with great respect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged only to perform military services. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, the Goths, and other Northern people, possessed themselves of these provinces first, as they passed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the empire. Batavia and Holland became independent on Germany, to which they had been united under one of the grandsons of Charlemagne, in the beginning of the 10th century, when the supreme authority was lodged in the three united powers of a Count, the Nobles, and the Towns. At last they were swallowed up by the house of Burgundy, anno 1433.

The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family, transferred them, in the year 1477, to the house of Austria, and ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his son Philip II. who succeeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occasioned a general insurrection. The counts Hoon and Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it, and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the same time in the Netherlands, his disciples were forced by persecution to join the mal-contented. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquisition, which, from the inhumanity of its proceedings, was called the *Council of Blood*, in order to suppress them; and many thousands were put to death by that court, besides those that perished by the sword. Count Hoon and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be their stadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though these revolted at first were thought so despicable as to be termed *Beggars* by their tyrants, their perseverance and courage were such, under the prince of Orange, and the assistance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain to declare them a free people in the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent state, under the title of **THE UNITED PROVINCES**. By their sea wars with England, under the commonwealth, Cromwell, and Charles II. they justly acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power. When the house of Austria, which for some ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable; and when the public jealousy was directed against that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had dispossessed the prince of Orange of the stadtholdership; the spirit of the people was such, that they revived it in the person of the prince, who was afterwards William III. king of Great Britain; and during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy against Lewis XIV. king of France.

Their conduct towards England in the wars of 1742, and 1756, hath been discussed in the history of that country, as also the occurrences which led to a rupture between them and the English in the year 1780. As it was urged, that they refused to fulfil the treaties which subsisted between them and Great Britain, so all the treaties which bound Great Britain to them were declared null and void, as if none had ever existed. By the war, their trade suffered considerably, but Negapatnam, in the East Indies, is the only place not restored to them at the late peace.

Probably, to their separation from Great Britain, may be attributed the recent differences between the States General and the emperor of Germany, who, from the exhausted state of several of the European powers, seemed to have a favour-

able opportunity of accomplishing his ambitious designs. In the year 1781, he had been allowed to demolish the Dutch barrier in his dominions, for which they had contended so desperately in the time of queen Anne, and now he seemed willing to encroach upon their territories. A conference concerning the boundaries of their respective nations was proposed to the states; but before this could take place, he began to commit some acts of hostility, and extend his dominions a little way by way of preliminary. Two small forts, St. Donat, and St. Paul, were seized upon, as well as some part of the marshes in the neighbourhood of Sluys. As a prelude to the negotiations, he also demanded that the Dutch guardship should be removed from before fort Lillo, in acknowledgment that one of the prerogatives of his Imperial majesty was the free navigation of the Scheldt. This being complied with, the negotiations were opened at Brussels on the 24th of April 1784, when several other demands of small portions of territory and little sums of money were made; the most material requisition being the town of Maeftricht, and its territory. For some time the conferences were carried on in that dry and tedious manner which generally marks the proceedings of the Dutch; but the emperor urged on his demands with great vigour, and matters seemed fast tending towards an open rupture. On the 23d of August, he delivered in his *ultimatum* to the commissioners at Brussels, in which he offered to give up his demand on Maeftricht, in consideration of having the free and unlimited navigation of the Scheldt in both its branches to the sea; and in token of his confidence in the good intentions of the states, he determined to consider the river as open from the date of that paper. Any insult on his flag in the execution of these purposes, he would conclude to be a direct act of hostility, and a formal declaration of war on the part of the republic. To prevent the injuries which the States General had in view to commit, contrary to the incontestable rights of his Imperial majesty, and to leave no doubt of his unalterable resolution to adhere to the propositions contained in the ultimatum, his majesty could not forbear determining to send to sea, from Antwerp, a ship under his flag, after having declared long enough before in what manner he should consider all violent opposition that might be made to the free passage of the said ship.

The ship was stopped in its passage, as was another ordered to sail from Ostend up the Scheldt to Antwerp. But the Dutch offered to dismiss the vessels if the captains would engage to return to their respective places, and not continue their voyage on the river, which they refused to do. This the emperor called insulting his flag, and declared to all foreign courts, that he could not look on this fact but as "an effective declaration of war on the part of the republic." In answer to their conduct in stopping the Imperial ships, by which the emperor declares them to have begun hostilities, the Dutch ministers at Brussels, in a paper delivered to that court, protest, "That as their sole aim was to support their uncontrovertible right, they cannot be suspected of any hostile aggression, which is the less to be laid to their charge, as they positively declared not to stand any ways answerable for the consequences that may ensue from the particular construction which his Imperial majesty may be pleased to put upon the affair. The provinces, far from deserving to be considered in the light of a power having acted offensively, still persist in their peaceable dispositions; but if, unfortunately, such dispositions can have no influence on the mind of his Imperial majesty, though the States still preserve some hopes to the contrary, the republic will find itself in the disagreeable necessity of having recourse to such means as the rights of nature and nations entitle them to; hoping that Divine Providence, and the applauding voice of the neutral powers, will assist in maintaining the republic in the just defence of its dearest rights."

Great preparations were made for immediate hostilities against the Dutch, and several hundred of the Imperialists, with some field pieces, advancing towards the counterscarpe of Lillo, the commanding officer of that place ordered sluices to be opened November 7, 1784, which effected an inundation that laid under water many miles of flat country round the forts on the Scheldt, to preserve them from an attack. Both parties exerted themselves, in case they should be called forth to open a campaign in the next spring; but France and Prussia interposed as negotiators and mediators; and succeeded in bringing about a reconciliation. However, from the conduct of the emperor in the partition of Poland, and in demolishing the fortifications of the barrier places in the Netherlands, and demanding a free navigation of the Scheldt, and to the East-Indies, advancing from one pretension to another, it is apparent, that the most solemn treaties will be no longer observed by some courts and statesmen, than till they have an opportunity with ability to break them.

During the progress of their contentions with the emperor, this country was greatly distressed by the most unhappy intestine animosities, which it may be proper in this place briefly to state. The continued series of losses which they had sustained in the late war with Great Britain, was particularly disgraceful to the states. All their settlements in the West-Indies fell into the hands of the British without resistance; their ships were captured, and their trade ruined; while the disasters of the war excited the animosity of the two factions against each other to the highest degree. The patriots, or aristocratic party attributed these defects to the stadtholder, who openly expressed his predilection for the English at the beginning of the American quarrel. To this conduct the patriots now very artfully reverted. They accused him of having advised the aggression of the English, and of contributing to their success by treachery. The evident inequality of the struggle, the notorious deficiency of all warlike articles in the dock-yards, and arsenals of the republic, the frequent and public reclamations made by the prince and by the council of state on the subject of that deficiency were forgotten; and the wilful misconduct of the stadtholder was boldly alledged by the patriots as the sole cause of that miserable succession of defeat and disgrace, which immediately followed the commencement of hostilities. Whilst these were the recriminations of the patriots, the monarchical, or Orange party accused their antagonists of having involved the country in a dangerous war, at a time when it was entirely unprepared for it.

The alterations in the Dutch constitution projected by the patriots, were as follows: "That the *forms* of the present government should continue to subsist, but that the states should become in every respect completely independent of the stadtholder; and that for this purpose he should no longer enjoy a seat in any of the colleges in the republic. That the stadtholder's right of recommending candidates for the vacant magistracies in the towns of Holland should cease. That the charges of stadtholder and captain-general should, if possible, be separated, and conferred on different persons; or that, at least, the titles only should be reserved to the prince of Orange, and the offices be executed, as in the time of the De Witts, by deputies chosen for the purpose. In general, that the stadtholder should possess such powers only as might enable him to execute the orders of the states. That the hereditary stadtholderate should continue in the prince of Orange on his acceptance of these terms; but that in case of his refusal, the different states should be at liberty to elect another stadtholder."

In the assembly of the states, it was found that the states themselves were proper sovereigns of the country, that the stadtholder was no more than their servant, and that whatever powers they might communicate to him were revokeable at pleasure; but with regard to the garrison of the Hague in particular, they affirmed

ed that the provincial states had never given it into his hands. In pursuance of this idea, it was next directed, that on the commencement of the year 1786, the arms of the house of Orange should be taken out of the ensigns of the troops of Holland, and those of the province substituted in their room; that the president of the provincial states should on all occasions receive the military honours, and salute the garrison of the Hague, as the president of the states already did; and that no other officer of the province should be entitled to that distinction. The next steps were to dismiss the body-guards of the prince, though this was afterwards qualified by allowing them to extinguish themselves, and to enlist no more in the room of them who died.

These proceedings were by no means agreeable to the inhabitants of the Hague, who had all along shewn the greatest attachment to the stadtholder, and they soon prepared a petition to the states of Holland, requesting them to interpose their good offices with the prince of Orange to induce him to return from Breda, to which he had retired on the 14th of September, 1785, to the place of his usual residence. The states, however, suppressed this petition as soon as they knew that it existed; and the affairs of the stadtholder appeared to be in the most desperate situation.

The new king of Prussia offered his mediation, but that being refused, he applied to the court of France, to know whether they would co-operate with him in his pacific intention. On receiving a favourable answer to this, both monarchs united their efforts to reconcile the contending parties, but all in vain.

This unfortunate event produced various accusations and vindications between the two parties, with a long train of negociations, resolutions, and animosities, until at last, in the month of May, 1786, the stadtholder gave orders to seize on Vreeswick, a post of importance to the city of Utrecht, on account of its situation on the canal between that city and the territories of South Holland; containing also the sluices by which both the provinces might be overflowed. This brought on a skirmish between the troops of the stadtholder and the burghers of Utrecht, in which the latter proved victorious. Some other important hostilities took place; but while the military operations were carried on in such a languid manner, a violent tumult took place at Amsterdam, in which several persons were killed. This was followed by a revolt of most of the regular troops of Holland, who went over to the stadtholder; but notwithstanding this apparent advantage, and some others which afterwards took place, the dispute still continued with extreme violence, insomuch that the prince of Orange herself was seized, and detained for one night a prisoner by the patriots.

These most turbulent commotions were, however, at last happily settled by the king of Prussia, who, for this purpose, marched an army into the territories of the United States, and took possession of the city of Rotterdam, and some other places, without resistance. This overawed both parties to such a degree, that they quickly came to an accommodation, and a treaty was concluded between that monarch and the states of Holland. By this the two contending parties were formally reconciled, and the courts of London and Berlin guaranteed the stadtholdership, as well as the hereditary government of each province, in the house of Orange, with all the rights and prerogatives settled in the years 1747 and 1748; by which all attempts to disturb the domestic tranquillity of the republic, by means of any foreign interference, appear to be effectually guarded by the close union that subsists between these two important powers.

The French republic, finding that the stadtholder of the United Provinces had entered into a league with the crown of Great Britain, against the republican principles adopted by the Gallic nation, declared war against Holland. In consequence of this declaration, general Dumourier proceeded, with a large body of troops,

troops, to the invasion of that country, exhorting the Batavians, in a violent manifesto, to reject the tyrannic aristocracy of the stadtholder and his party, and to become a free republic. The states-general of Holland issued a counter-declaration, in which they combated that of the French commander, and pointed out the fallacy of his assertions, and the danger of his designs. The Dutch every where made the most vigorous preparations for defending themselves, and lord Auckland, the British ambassador at the Hague, was directed to assure their high mightinesses, that as the theatre of war was brought so near to the confines of their republic, his majesty, the king of Great Britain, was both ready and determined to execute, with the utmost good faith, the treaty of 1788.

Dumourier, having failed in all his efforts to negotiate with lord Auckland for peace, entered Holland, in the beginning of 1793, with his victorious troops, and soon reduced Breda to a capitulation: Klundert, Williamstadt, and Maestricht were besieged: and Bergen-op-Zoom, Tholen and Steenberg were blockaded at the same time. Two thousand British guards were sent over to Holland under the command of the duke of York: and a body of twelve thousand Hanoverians were ordered to march immediately towards Holland, to be under his royal highness's command. These, having been powerfully supported by the arms of Austria and Prussia, checked the progress of the French troops. The allied forces raised the siege of Maestricht, and obliged the French to abandon the bombardment of Venlo, to evacuate Ruremond and its entrenchments, Aix-la-Chapelle and Liege. Thus, in the course of March, 1793, Dumourier was forced to abandon his conquests in Holland, in order to rally his forces in Brabant. It was the last effort which he had to make, to retain the possession of the Netherlands. Three very bloody and obstinate engagements took place between Dumourier and the prince of Saxe-Cobourg. The French were forced to retreat to Brussels, and on the 24th they evacuated that city, and the rest of the Austrian territories. About the same time also they retired from Breda and Gertrudenberg, and wholly evacuated the republic of Holland.

Here we shall conclude the history of the Seven United Provinces, whose inhabitants so gloriously exerted themselves against the tyranny and ferocious bigotry of Philip II. and their brave, vigorous, and successful struggles in this noble contest will be always remembered with pleasure, whilst men preserve a just sense of true liberty, which will be, it is hoped, so long as human nature exists. They are now called to a struggle against a tyranny and bigotry of a different kind indeed, but equally oppressive, and in which it is hoped they will be equally successful.

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After the independency of the Seven United Provinces was acknowledged, the Spaniards remained possessed of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the Low Countries, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, in the year 1706. After which, Brussels, the capital, and great part of these provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, for their sovereign; and his daughter, the late empress-queen, remained possessed of them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxemburgh; and would have still possessed them, but for the exertions of the Dutch, and chiefly of the English in favour of the house of Austria. The places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in the year 1748, may be seen in the preceding general table of divisions.

It was not long after the settlement of the disturbances in Holland, between the party of the stadtholder, and that of the patriots, that the provinces of the Netherlands,

Netherlands, belonging to the emperor, determined to assert their liberty. As no great friendship had subsisted between the states and his Imperial majesty, it was natural to suppose that the discontented subjects of the latter would find a ready asylum in the territories of the Dutch. The quarrel originated, like those in other countries, about the prerogatives assumed by the emperor, and which were more extensive than his subjects wished to allow. A letter concerning this had been published as early as the 13th of December, 1787, by count Trautmansdorff, the Imperial minister to the council of Brabant; in which province the disputes had originally commenced. In this performance, the count took notice of the little confidence they put in his majesty, and commanded them in the most express terms, "to hold no connection, relation, correspondence, or keep up any understanding whatever on public affairs, either in a body or by commissioners, with the states or their deputies, without the previous knowledge, or express command of his majesty, or his representative." This not proving effectual, and the emperor making use of force to assert his usual prerogatives, the territories of the United States became a refuge for the discontented Brabanters. They first began to assemble in Dutch Brabant, in the close of the summer of 1789, and being well received, took up their head-quarters at Tilbourg. To this place they invited their discontented countrymen to join them, and promised them the pay of 14 sols per day for their support. From whatever source these patriots derived their finances, it soon became evident that they were well supplied; for this sum was punctually paid, and they had great plenty of provisions; so that, being protected by the states-general, they soon became very strong, and in a very short time manifested a design to assert their liberty by force of arms. Their first exploits were the taking of two forts belonging to the emperor, situated between Antwerp and Bergen-op-Zoom. They seized also M. Crumpepin, chancellor of Brabant, threatening to hang him up by way of retaliation, for the first person of their party to whom the emperor should offer any violence.

On the part of his Imperial majesty, the insurgents were not treated with lenity. A proclamation was issued by count Trautmansdorff, governor of Brussels, intimating that no quarter should be given them, and that the villages, in which they concealed themselves, should be set on fire. General Dalton marched with 7000 men to retake the forts, proclaiming that he meant to become master of them by assault, and would put every one he found in them to the sword. A resolution was taken by the government of Brussels, to disarm the inhabitants of the Low Countries, excepting such as were in the actual service of the emperor. A proclamation accordingly issued forth, commanding all persons to deliver up their arms within twenty-four hours, under pain of being accounted favourers of sedition. All who should be taken with arms in their hands, in any case of riot or insurrection, to be immediately put to death on the spot. All the nobility and abbots who had left the country (which they had done in great numbers) were commanded to return under pain of perpetual banishment, and confiscation of estate.

In opposition to this sanguinary proclamation, the patriots issued a manifesto, in which they declared the emperor to have forfeited his authority by reason of his various oppressions and cruelties, his annulling his oath, and infringing the constitution. Banishment was threatened to such as took part with him; and all were exhorted to take up arms in defence of their country, though strict orders were given that no crowds or mobs should be allowed to pillage; and whoever was found doing so, should be treated as an enemy to his country.

This was dated at Hoogstraten, in Brabant, October the 24th, 1789. The king of Prussia was at that time assembling an army, with which it was thought he designed to take some active part in the present affair; but he published a manifesto, declaring

declaring that he did not mean to interfere in the troubles of the Low Countries; but as a director of the circle of the empire, to take notice of those which had happened in the bishopric of Liege, and Wutzlar. Thus the emperor and the patriots were left to decide their quarrel by themselves; and in this contest the latter displayed a resolution, as well as power to accomplish their purposes, which was by no means generally expected. Almost every town in Austrian Flanders shewed its determination to oppose the emperor, and the most enthusiastic attachment to military affairs displayed itself in all ranks of men. Even the ecclesiastics manifested their valour on the occasion; which perhaps was naturally to be expected, as the emperor had been very active in depriving them of their revenues. A formidable army was soon raised, which, after some successful skirmishes, made themselves masters of Ghent, Bruges, Tournay, Malines, and Ostend; so that general Dalton was obliged to retire to Brussels. A battle was fought before the city of Ghent, in which the patriots were victorious, though with the loss of one thousand men, besides women and children: for the merciless savages not only destroyed the men, but killed women and sucking infants. Some of them plunged their bayonets into the bodies of children in the cradle, or pinned them against the walls of the houses. By these monstrous cruelties, which reflected indelible disgrace on their authors, the emperor ensured success to his adversaries; for the whole countries of Brabant, Flanders, and Maes, almost instantly declared against him. They published a memorial for their justification, in which they gave, as reasons for their conduct, the many oppressive edicts with which they had been harassed since the death of the empress-queen; the unwarrantable extension of the emperor's prerogative, contrary to his coronation-oath, and the violence committed on his subjects, by forcibly entering their houses at midnight, and sending them prisoners to Vienna, to perish in a dungeon, or on the banks of the Danube. Not content with this, he had openly massacred his subjects; he had consigned towns and villages to the flames, and entered into a design of exterminating people who contended only for their rights. These things, they owned, might be terrible at the time, and easily impose upon weak minds, but "the natural courage of a nation roused by repeated injuries, and animated by despair, would rise superior to those last efforts of vindictive tyranny, and render them as impotent and abortive, as they were wicked and unexampled." For all which reasons they declared themselves *INDEPENDENT, and for ever released from the house of AUSTRIA.*

The emperor now, perceiving the bad effects of his cruelty, published proclamations of indemnity, &c. but they were treated with the utmost contempt. The patriots made the most rapid conquests, inasmuch, that before the end of the year, they were masters of every place in the Netherlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg. The emperor next declared himself willing to treat with those whom he seemed not to be able to subdue; but the states published a paper by way of preliminary, which seemed to give very little hope of success to the negotiation. In this they insisted, 1. That the plenipotentiary, attended by two deputies from the states, should repair to those places in the town of Ghent, "where that sanguinary executioner Dalton ordered, saw, and executed robbery, rape, profanation, murder, massacre, and conflagration." 2. The corpses of those "immolated to the fury of the ferocious servants of the Nero their master, to be digged up and exposed to his excellency's view; that he might make a terrific report to the court of Vienna; and not only the banks of the Danube, but the whole world might be struck with horror." Lastly, When his mind was supposed to be sufficiently impressed with this dreadful spectacle, it was to be notified to him in the assembly of the states, to which he was to be conducted, that "it was impossible to treat or make any conventions with a sovereign perjured and perfidious, who had repeatedly violated

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violated the most sacred of all human ties, though secured by the most solemn treaties with foreign powers."

A new act of union was established between the Belgic provinces, to which all those formerly subject to Austria unanimously acceded. It originated between those of Flanders and Brabant, and was to the following purpose: That neither party ever enter into any compromise with their former sovereign, but by common agreement. They agree to change this union into one common sovereignty between the two states; so that the whole power should be centered in a congress composed of deputies named by both parties. The power of this sovereign assembly to be confined to the sole object of common defence, to the power of making peace and war, the support of a national militia, the fortifications necessary for the defence of the country, the contracting alliance with foreign powers, &c. On the fourth of January 1790, the states of Brabant were opened with great ceremony at Ghent; they were declared independent, and the emperor to have forfeited all right to the sovereignty of that country. On the 11th, a solemn and general treaty of union was signed by the deputies from Brabant, Guelders, Flanders, West Flanders, Hainault, Namur, Tournay, with the territory depending on it, called Tournesis, and Malines.

But this hasty and complete revolution was hastily and completely subverted. The emperor Joseph was succeeded in 1790 by the mild and pacific Leopold, whose conciliatory measures with his revolted subjects were enforced by the mediation of Great Britain, Prussia, and Holland; and a convention was signed at Reichenbach on the 27th of July 1790, by the abovementioned high contracting powers, for the re-establishment of peace and good order in the Belgic provinces of his Imperial Majesty, by a general amnesty, and total forgiveness of whatever had passed during the troubles.

Their majesties of Great Britain and Prussia, and the states general of Holland, became, in the most solemn manner, guarantees to the emperor and his successors for the sovereignty of the Belgic Provinces, now re-united under his dominion. The ratification of this convention was exchanged between the contracting parties within two months from the date of signing, which was executed at the Hague on the 10th of December, 1790.

In our history of the late transactions of the new republic of France, we have narrated the incursions which their forces made into these provinces, which will render any repetition of these circumstances unnecessary in this place.

## G E R M A N Y.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	600	} between	{	5 and 19 East lon.	} 181,631.
Breadth	520			45 and 55 North lat.	

GERMANY and BOHEMIA contain 191,573 SQUARE MILES, with 135 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] **T**HE empire of Germany, properly so called, is bounded by the German ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the East; by Switzerland and the Alps,

Alps, which divide it from Italy, on the South; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on the West, from which it is separated by the Rhine, Moselle, and the Maese.

**GRAND DIVISIONS.]** The divisions of Germany are variously laid down even by modern writers. I shall therefore adhere to those most generally received. Germany was formerly divided into the Upper, or Southern, and the Lower, or Northern. The emperor Maximilian, predecessor and grandfather to the emperor Charles V. divided it into ten great circles; and the division was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, or the seventeen provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we are to confine ourselves to nine of those divisions, as they now subsist;

Whereof three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the south.

The northern circles	.	.	.	{ Upper Saxony Lower Saxony Westphalia
The circles in the middle	.	.	.	{ Upper Rhine Lower Rhine Franconia
The southern circles	.	.	.	{ Austria Bavaria Swabia

**I. UPPER SAXONY CIRCLE.**

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Pomerania, in the North.	Prussian Pomerania, N. E.	Stettin, E. lon. 14-50 N. lat. 53-30	} 4820
	Swedish Pomerania, N. W.	Stralsund	
Brandenburg in the middle, sub. to its own elector the K. of Prussia.	Altmark, west	Stendel	} 10910
	Middlemark	Berlin, Potsdam	
	Newmark, east	Francfort, Custrin.	
Saxony Proper, in the south, sub. to its own elector.	Duchy of Saxony, N.	Wittenberg	} 7500
	Lusatia, marq. east	Bautzen, Gorlitz	
	Misnia, marq. south.	Dresden, E. lon. 13-36. N. Lat. 51.	
Thuringia, langr. west		Meissen	3620
The duchies of	Saxe Meinungen	Meinungen	} 240
	Saxe Zeitz	Zeitz	
	Saxe Altenburg, S. E.	Altenburg	
	Saxe Weimar, west	Weimar	
	Saxe Gotha, west	Gotha	
	Saxe Eifnach, S. W.	Eifnach	
The counties of	Saxe Saalfeldt	Saalfeldt	} 96
	Schwartzburg, W.	Schwartzburg	
	Belchingen, N.	Belchingen	
	Mansfeldt	Mansfeldt	

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Divisions	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns	Sq. M.
The Duchies of	{ Hall, middle subject to Prussia Saxe Naumburg, subject to its own duke	{ Hall Naumburg	210
The counties of	{ Stolberg, north-west Hohenstein, west	{ Stolberg Northhausen	
Principality of	- Anhalt, north	{ Dessau, Zerbst Bernberg, Kothen	966
Bishoprick of	- Saxe Hall, west Voigtland, south, subject to the elector of Saxony	{ Plawen	696
Duchy of	- { Merzburch, middle, subject to the elector of Saxony	{ Merzburch	336

## 2. LOWER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Holstein D. north of the Elbe.	{ Holstein Proper N. Ditmarsh, west Stormaria, south Hamburg, a fo- vereigh state Wagerland, east	{ Partly sub. to Den- mark, and partly to the duke of Holstein Gottorp.	{ Kiel, sub. to Holstein Gottorp Meldorp } subject to Glucifat } Denmark. Hamburg, E. L. 10-35. N. L. 54. an imperial city. Lubeck, an imperial city.	1850
Lauenburg Duchy, north of the Elbe, subject to Hanover			{ Lauenburg.	450
Subject to the duke of Brunswic Wol- senbuttle.	{ D. Brunswic Pro- per. D. Wolfenbuttle C. Rheinlein, south C. Blanckenburg	{ middle	{ Brunswic, E. L. 10- 30. N. Lat. 52-30 Wolfenbuttle Rheinlein Blanckenburg	860
Subject to the elec- tor of Hanover, K. of Great Britain.	{ D. Calenberg D. Grubenhagen Gottingen		{ Hanover Grubenhagen Gottingen	
Luneburg D. sub. to Hanover.	{ D. of Luneburg Proper D. Zell		{ Luneburg Zell, E. lon. 10 N. lat. 52-52.	8024
Bremen D. and Verden D. sub. to Hanover, north			{ Bremen, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 53-30. an imperial city. Verden.	2040 693
Mecklenburg D.	{ D. Schwerin, north, subject to its duke D. Gultrow, north, subject to its duke		{ Schwerin, E. lon. 11- 30. N. lat. 54. Gultrow.	4400
Hilderheim bithoprick, in the middle, subject to its bithop			{ Hilderheim, an im- perial city.	1302
Magdeburg duchy, south-east, subject to the king of Prussia			{ Magdeburg	1535
Halberstadt duchy, subject to Prussia, south-east			{ Halberstadt	450

## 3. WEST-

Divisions. Subdivisions. Chief Towns. Sq. M.

3. WESTPHALIA CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
North Division.	Embsen, C. or East Friesland, subject to the king of Prussia	Embsen, an imperial city	720
	Oldenburg, C. } sub. to the K. of Den.	Oldenburg	
	Delmenhurst } subject to Han-	Delmenhurst	624
	Hoye } lepholt over	Hoye	
	Munster B. sub. to its bishop	Diepholt	220
Western Division.	Munster B. sub. to its bishop	Munster, E. lon. 7. 10. N. lat. 52.	3600
	Paderborn B. sub. to its bishop	Paderborn	
	Osnaburg B. sub. to its bishop	Osnaburg	870
	Lippe C. sub. to its count	Lippe, Pyrmont	400
	Minden D. } sub. to Pruf.	Minden	495
	Ravensberg C. } sub. to the elector of Cologne	Ravensberg	525
	Westphalia D. sub. to the elector of Cologne	Arensburg	1444
	Tecklenburg C. } sub. to their respective counts	Tecklenburg	840
	Ritberg C. }	Ritberg	120
	Schawenburg C. }	Schawenburg	
Middle Division	Cleves D. sub. to the king of Prussia	Cleves E. lon. 5-36. N. lat. 51-40	630
	Berg D. } sub. to the elector Juliers D } Palatine	Dusseldorf	
	Mark C. subject to Prussia	Juliers, Aix	1300
	Liege B. sub. to its own bishop	Ham	980
		Liege, E. lon. 5-36. N. lat. 50-40	1942
		Huy	
		Bentheim	418
	Steinfurt C. sub. to its count	Steinfurt	114

4. UPPER RHINE CIRCLE.

Hesse	Hesse Cassel, landg. N.	Cassel, E. lon. 9-20. N. lat. 51-20.	3500
	Hesse Marpurgh, landg. N.	Marpurgh	
	Hesse Darmstadt, landg.	Darmstadt	396
These subdivisions are subject, each, to their respective landgraves.			
Counties in the Wetteraw, south.	Hesse Homberg	Homberg	180
	Hesse Rhinefeldt	Rhinefeldt	
	Wonfeld	Wonfeld	
	Nassau Dillenburg	Dillenburg	1200
	Nassau Diets	Diets	
	Nassau Hadamar	Hadamar	
	Nassau Kerberg	Kerberg	
	Nassau Siegen	Siegen	
	Nassau Idstein	Idstein	
	Nassau Weilburg	Weilburg	
Nassau Wiltbaden	Wiltbaden		
Nassau Bielfeid	Bielfeid		
Nassau Otweiler	Otweiler		
Nassau Ufingen	Ufingen		

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M
Territory of Frankfort, a sovereign state		{ Frankfort on the Maine, E. lon. 8-30. N. lat. 50-10. an imperial city }	120
County of Erpach, subject to its own count		Erpach east.	230
Bishoprick of Spire, a sovereign state		{ Spire on the Rhine, an imperial city }	245
Duchy of Zwebruggen, or Deuxponts, subject to the duke of Deuxponts		Deuxponts in the Palat.	700
County of Catzenelbogen, subject to Hesse Cassel		Catzenelbogen on the Lhon	
Counties of	{ Waldec, sub. to its own count	{ Waldec	368
	{ Solms, sub. to its own count	{ Solms	
	{ Hanau, sub. to Hesse Cassel	{ Hanau	432
	{ Ifsenburg, sub. to its own count	{ Ifsenburg	
	{ Sayn	{ Sayn	
{ Wied	{ Wied	621	
{ Witgenstein	{ Witgenstein		
{ Hatzfeld	{ Hatzfeld		
{ Welterburg	{ Welterburg		
Abbey of Fulda, subject to its abbot	-	Fulda	
Hirschfeld, subject to Hesse Cassel	-	Hirschfeld	

## 5. LOWER RHINE CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Chief Towns.	
Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that river, subject to the elector Palatine.	{ Heidelberg on the Neckar, E. lon. 8-40. N. lat. 49-20 Philipburg, Manheim, and Frank- endal on the Rhine. }	2618

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	
Archbishopricks and Electorates of	{ Cologne	{ Cologne, on the Rhine, E. lon. 6-40. N. lat. 50-50.	1964
	{ Mentz	{ Bonn, on the Rhine. Mentz, on the Rhine, Afchaffen- burgh on the Maine. }	
	{ Triers	{ Triers, on the Moselle.	1765
Bishoprick of Worms, a sovereign state	-	{ Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial city. }	154
Duchy of Simmeren, sub. to its own duke.	Simmeren		
Counties of	{ Rhinegravelstein	{ Rhinegravelstein	1405
	{ Meurs, subject to Prussia	{ Meurs	
	{ Veldentz, subject to the Elec- tor Palatine	{ Veldentz	1765
	{ Spanheim	{ Creutznach	
{ Leyningen	{ Leyningen.		

## 6. FRANCONIA CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Chief Towns.	
Bishopricks of	{ Wurtzburg, W. } { Subject to } { Wurtzburg } 1645	
	{ Bamberg, N. } { their resp. } { Bamberg } 1700	
	{ Aichtat, S. } { bishops. } { Aichtat } 513	
		Marquifates

**G E R M A N Y.**

493

	Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Marquises of	{ Cullenback, north-east } { Anspach, S. }	} } Sub. to the } } } respective } } } margraves }	{ Cullenback } { Anspach } 900 1000
			120 230 245 700 368 432
	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	
	Principality of Heneberg, N.	Heneberg	
	Duchy of Cobourg, N. subject to its duke	Cobourg	406
	Duchy of Hilburghausen, subject to its duke	Hilburghausen	
	Burgavate of Nuremberg, S. E. an independent state	} Nuremberg, an imperial city. }	} 640
	Territory of the great-master of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim, S. W.		
Counties of	{ Reineck, W. } { Bareith, E. sub. to its own mar. } { Papenheim, S. f. to its own C. } { Wertheim, W. } { Cuffel, middle } { Schwartzburg, subject to its own count } { Holach, S. W. }	} Reineck } } Bareith } } Papenheim } } Wertheim } } Cuffel } } Schwartzburgh } } middle } } Holach }	188 120 96 220
			621

**7. AUSTRIA CIRCLE.**

The whole circle belongs to the emperor, as head of the house of Austria.

	Divisions.	Chief Towns.	
Archduchy of Austria Proper	{ Styria and Cilley, C. } { Carinthia } { Carniola }	} Vienna, E. lon. 16-20. N. lat. } } 48-20. Lints, Ens, west }	7160 5000 3000
			1964 1405 1765 154
Duchies of	{ Goritia }	} Gratz, Cilley, S. E. } } Clagenfurt, Lavemund, S. E. } } Laubach, Zerknitz, Tricfle, } } St. Veits, S. E. }	4576
			County of Tyrol
Bishopricks of	{ Brixen } { Trent }	} Gorits, S. E. } } Inspruck } S. W. on the con- } } Brixen } fines of Italy and } } Trent } Switzerland. }	3900 1300 210

**8. BAVARIA CIRCLE.**

	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	
Duchy of Bavaria Proper on the Danube.	{ Subject to the } { elector Palatine } { as successor to } { the late elector } { of Bavaria. }	} Munich, E. lon. 11-32. N. } } lat. 48-5. Landshout, Ingol- } } stadt, N. W. Donawert [Ra- } } tilbon, N. an imp. city. ] } } Amberg [Sultzbach], N. of } } the Danube. }	8500
			1645 1700 513
	Freiilingen, subject to its bishop	Freiilingen	240
	Bishoprick of Passau, subject to its own bishop, Passau, E. of the Danube.		240
	Duchy of Neuberg, subject to the Elector Palatine	Neuberg, W. of the Danube.	450
	Archbishoprick of Saltzburg, subject to its own archbishop	Saltzburg, S. E. Hallen.	2540

**9. SWABIA**

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arquifates



The soil of Germany is not in the highest state of cultivation, and therefore in many places it is bare and sterile, though in others it is surprisngly fruitful. Agriculture, however, is daily improving. The seasons vary as much as the soil. In the south and western parts, they are more regular than in those that lie near the sea, or are in the neighbourhood of lakes and rivers. The northern and eastern winds are unfavourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the seasons of Germany and those of Great Britain.

**MOUNTAINS.]** The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and those which separate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. But many other large tracts of mountains are found in different parts of the empire.

**FORESTS.]** The vast passion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar has preserved more woods and chaces in Germany than in most other countries. The Hercynian forest, which in Caesar'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. The trees 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 chace or park adorned with pleasure-houses, and well stocked with game, particularly deer, of which there are seven or eight sorts, as roebucks, stags, &c. of all sizes and colours, and many of a vast growth; plenty of hares, conies, foxes, and boars. They abound so much also with wild fowl, that in many places the peasants have them as well as venison, for their ordinary food.

**RIVERS AND LAKES.]** No country can boast a greater variety of noble rivers than Germany. At their head stands the Danube or Donaw, so called from the swiftness of the current. Some pretend that this is naturally the finest river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade in Hungary, it is so broad, that, in the wars between the Turks and Christians, ships of war sometimes engaged on it. The Danube contains a vast number of cataracts and whirlpools; its stream is rapid, and its course, without reckoning turnings and windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weser, and Moselle.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are those of Constance and Bregentz. Besides these, are the Chiemsee, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Ziemitzer-see in the duchy of Carniola, whose waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Besides these lakes and rivers, in some of which are found pearls, Germany contains large masses of standing water, which are next to pestilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable disorders.

**MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS.]** All Europe has heard of the Spa waters, and those of Seltzer and Pymont. Those of Aix la Chapelle are not less noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath and the Little Bath; and the springs of both are so hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they use them. Each of these, and many other waters, have their partisans in the medical faculty; and if we are to believe all they say, they cure diseases internal and cutaneous, either by drinking or bathing. The baths and medical waters of Embs, Withaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, are likewise reported to perform their wonders in almost all diseases. The mineral springs at the last mentioned place are said to intoxicate as soon as wine, and therefore they are inclosed. Carlsbad and Baden baths have been described and recommended by many great physicians, and used with great success by many royal personages.

After all, many are of opinion, that great part of the salutary virtues ascribed to these waters is owing to the exercises and amusements of the patients. It is the

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interest of the proprietors to provide for both ; and though at first such establishments are attended with expence, yet they more than pay themselves in a few years, by the company which crowd to them from all parts of the world.

**METALS AND MINERALS.]** Germany abounds in both. Many places in the circle of Austria, and other parts of Germany, contain mines of silver, quick-silver, copper, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, salt-mines and pits are found in Austria, Bavaria, Silesia, and the lower Saxony ; as are carbuncles, amethysts, jasper, sapphire, agate, alabaster, several sorts of pearls, turquois stones, and the finest of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greatest princes and virtuosi. In Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege, are quarries of curious marble, slate, chalk, ochre, red lead, alum, and bitumen ; besides other fossils. In several places are dug up stones, which represent different animals. Many of the German circles furnish coal-pits ; and the *terra sigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, is thought to be an antidote against poison.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.]** These differ in Germany very little, if at all, from the countries already described : but naturalists are of opinion, that, had the Germans, even before the middle of this century, been acquainted with agriculture, their country would have been the most fruitful of any in Europe. Even in its present, what we may call rude state, provisions are more cheap and plentiful in Germany than in most other countries ; witness the prodigious armies which the most uncultivated part of it maintained during a late war, while many of the richest and most fertile provinces remained untouched.

The Rhenish and the Moselle wines are distinguished by their peculiar lightness and detestive qualities, more sovereign in some diseases than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs, and is four times as large. Their flesh and the hams made of it are preferred by many, even to those of Westmoreland, for flavour and grain. The *glutton* of Germany is said to be the most voracious of all animals. Its prey is almost every thing that has life, which it can master, especially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns ; whom it surprises artfully, and devours greedily. On these the glutton feeds so ravenously, that it falls into a kind of torpid state, and not being able to move, he is killed by the huntsmen ; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horses ; but neither these, nor their oxen, or sheep, are comparable to those of England. Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine larks, and great variety of singing birds, which are sent to all parts of Europe.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } As the empire of Germany is a  
CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } collection of separate states, each  
having a different government and police, it hath been difficult to speak with  
precision as to the number of its inhabitants ; but lately the following estimate hath  
been formed of them.**

Moravia	—	—	1,100,000
Austrian Silesia	—	—	200,000
High and Low Lusatia	—	—	380,000
Circle of Austria	—	—	4,150,000
Bavaria	—	—	1,148,438
Archbishoprick of Saltzburg	—	—	250,000
Wurtemburgh	—	—	565,890
Baden	—	—	200,000
Auglburgh	—	—	40,000
			Bamberg

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Bamberg and Wurtzburg	}	-	-	-	400,000
Nuremberg		-	-	-	70,000
Juliers and Berg		-	-	-	260,000
Munster		-	-	-	130,000
Ofnaburg		-	-	-	116,664
The Prussian Estates in the Circle of Westphalia		-	-	-	550,000
Nassau, Dillenberg, Siegen, Dietz, and Hadaman		-	-	-	74,699
Oldenbourg		-	-	-	79,071
Mayence		-	-	-	314,000
Palatinate of the Rhine		-	-	-	289,614
Hesse Cassel and Darmstadt		-	-	-	700,000
Fulda		-	-	-	7,000
Frankford on the Maine		-	-	-	42,600
High Saxony, and Circle of Franconia		-	-	-	1,326,041
Swedish Pomerania		-	-	-	100,549
Prussian Pomerania		-	-	-	462,970
Brandenburgh		-	-	-	1,007,232
Gotha		-	-	-	77,898
Schwartzburg, Magdeburg, and Mansfield		-	-	-	271,461
Halberstadt and Hohenstein		-	-	-	130,761
Hanover		-	-	-	750,000
Brunswick		-	-	-	166,340
Holstein		-	-	-	300,000
Mecklenburg		-	-	-	220,000
Mulhausen		-	-	-	13,000
Hamburgh		-	-	-	100,000

Total 17,166,868

This calculation extends only to the principal parts of Germany; the kingdom of Bohemia will be noticed in the proper place, to which when the inferior parts are added, the number in all is now computed at twenty-one millions; and should the landholders become better acquainted with agriculture and cultivation, population must naturally increase among them.

The Germans, in their persons, are tall, fair, and strong built. The ladies here generally fine complexions; and some of them, especially in Saxony, have great delicacy of shape and features.

Both men and women affect rich dresses, which, in fashion, are nearly the same as in France and England; but the better sort of men are excessively fond of gold and silver lace, especially if they are in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dress from the French and English, only they are not so excessively fond of paint as the former. At some courts they appear in rich furs; and the wealthy are loaded with jewels. The female part of the burghers' families, in many of the German towns, dress in a very different manner, and some of them inconceivably fantastic, as may be seen in many prints published in books of travels: but in this respect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dress from what they did thirty or forty years ago. As to the peasantry, and labourers, they dress, as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and circumstances. The fives made use of in Germany are the same with those already mentioned in the northern nations, and are sometimes made portable, so that the ladies carry them to church. In Westphalia, and many other parts of Germany, they sleep between two feather-

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Bamberg

beds, with sheets stitched to them, which by use becomes a very comfortable practice. The most unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes, who squeeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but, in general, the circumstances of the common people are more comfortable than those of their neighbours.

This people are naturally frank, honest, hospitable, and free from artifice and disguise. The higher orders are ridiculously proud of titles, ancestry, and shew. The Germans, in general, are thought to want animation, as their persons promise more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, especially the Italians, such as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things both against the Turks and the French. The imperial arms have seldom made any remarkable figure against either of those two nations, or against the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This possibly might be owing to the arbitrary obstinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two last wars, the Austrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Industry, application, and perseverance, are the great characteristics of the German nation, especially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible, were they not visible, especially in watch and clock-making, jewelry, turnery, sculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, some of which I shall have occasion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjustly. But such excesses are now less common. At the greatest tables, though the guests drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repast is speedily finished by coffee. But no people have more feasting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of so much honour, that a sharper in other countries, especially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than any other nation. All the sons of noblemen inherit their father's titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogists of that country. The German husbands are not quite so complaisant as those of some other countries to their ladies, who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at table; nor indeed do they seem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are said to be somewhat too fond of gaming. Many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary estate than a high-sounding title, easily enter into their armies, and those of other sovereigns; while gentlemen of property think the cultivation of their lands, though it might treble their revenue, below their attention; and deeming themselves of a rank so superior to labourers, disdain being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

The domestic diversions of the Germans are the same as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In summer, people of fashion repair to places of public resort, and drink the waters. As to their field-diversions, besides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear-baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriously, a great part of their time being spent in feasting and carousing; and in winter, when the several branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the ladies take their recreation in sledges of different shapes, such as griffins, tigers, swans, scollop-shells, &c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the sledge is drawn by one horse, stag, or other creature, set off with plumes of feathers, ribbands, and bells. As this diversion is taken chiefly in the night time, servants ride before the sledge with torches, and a gentleman standing on the sledge behind guides the horse.

## RELIGION.

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**RELIGION.]** This is a copious article: but I shall confine myself to what is most necessary to be known. Before the Reformation introduced by Luther, the German bishops were possessed (as indeed many of them are at this day) of prodigious power and enormous revenues. Their ignorance was only equalled by their superstition. The Bohemians were the first who had an idea of reformation, and made so glorious a stand for many years against the errors of Rome, that they were indulged in the liberty of taking the sacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the Romish church. This was in a great measure owing to the celebrated Englishman John Wickliff, who went farther in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himself, though he lived about a century and a half before him. Wickliff was seconded by John Hus, and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithstanding the emperor's safe-conduct, were insupportably burnt at the council of Constance.

The reformation introduced afterwards by Luther \*, of which we have spoken in the Introduction, though it struck at the chief abuses of the church of Rome, was thought in some points (particularly that of consubstantiation, by which the real body of Christ, as well as the elements of bread and wine, is supposed to be taken in the sacrament) to be imperfect. Calvinism †, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as now practised in the church of Scotland), was introduced into Germany, and is the religion professed in the territories of the king of Prussia, the landgrave of Hesse, and some other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some go so far as to say, that the numbers of protestants and papists in the empire are now almost equal. Germany, particularly Moravia and the Palatinate, as also Bohemia, is over-run with sectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empire. At present, the modes of worship and forms of church government are, by the Protestant German princes, considered in a civil rather than a religious light. The Protestant clergy are learned and exemplary in their department; but the popish too often ignorant and libertine.

**ARCHBISHOP AND BISHOP-SEES.]** These are differently represented by authors, some of whom represent Vienna, as being a suffragan to the archiepiscopal see of Saltzburg, and others as being an archbishoprick: but depending immediately upon the pope. The others are the archbishop of Mentz, who has under him twelve suffragans; but one of them, the bishop of Bamberg, is said to be exempted from his jurisdiction;—Triers has three suffragans;—Cologne has four;—Magdeburg has five;—Saltzburg has nine, besides Vienna; and Bremen three.

At different periods since the Reformation, it has been found expedient, to satisfy the claims of temporal princes, to secularise the following bishop-sees: Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Minden, Lubec and Osnaburg, which last goes alternately to the houses of Bavaria and Hanover, and is at present held by his Britannic majesty's second son. Such of those sees as were archbishopricks are now considered as duchies, and the bishopricks as principalities.

**LANGUAGE.]** The Teutonic part of the German tongue is an original language, and has no relation to the Celtic. It is called High Dutch, and is the mother tongue of all Germany; but varies much in its dialect in different provinces. Latin and French are the most useful languages in Germany when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.

\* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483, began to dispute the doctrines of the Romish church 1517, and died 1546, in the 63d year of his age.

† John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that kingdom, he settled at Geneva, 1539, where he established a new form

of church discipline, which was soon after embraced by several nations and states, who are now denominated Prebyterians, and from their doctrinal articles, Calvinists. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.

The German Pater-Noster is as follows: *Unser Vater, der du bist im himmel, geheiligt werd dein name. Zukomme dein reich. Dein wille geschehe, wie im himmel also auch auf erden. Unser täglich brodt gib uns heute, Und vergib uns unser schuld, als wir vergeben unsern schuldigern. Und führe uns nicht in versuchung. Sondern erlöse uns von dem bösen. Den dein is das reich, und die kraft, und die herrlichkeit, en ewigkeit. Amen.*

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, } No country has produced a greater variety of  
AND UNIVERSITIES. } authors than Germany; and there is no where a  
more general taste for reading, especially in the protestant countries. Printing is  
encouraged to a fault; almost every man of letters is an author; thousands of theses  
and disputations are annually published; for no man can be a graduate in their  
universities, who has not published one disputation at least. In this country there  
are 36 universities, of which 17 are protestant, 17 Roman catholic, and two  
mixed; besides a vast number of colleges, gymnasia, pedagogies, and Latin  
schools. There are also many academies and societies for promoting the study of  
natural philosophy, the belles lettres, antiquities, painting, sculpture, architecture,  
&c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the *natura curiosi*; the academy of  
sciences at Vienna, at Berlin, at Gottingen, at Erfurth, at Leipzig, and Duisburgh, at  
Gießen, and at Hamburg. At Dresden and Nuremberg are academies for painting;  
at Berlin a royal military academy; and at Augsburg is the Imperial Franciscan  
academy of fine arts; to which we may add the Latin society at Jena. Of the public  
libraries, the most celebrated are those of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbuttle,  
Hanover, Gottingen, Weymar, and Leipzig.

Many of the Germans have greatly distinguished themselves in various branches  
of learning and science. They have written largely upon the Roman and canon  
laws. Stahl, Van Swieten, Storck, Hoffman, and Haller, have contributed  
greatly to the improvement of physic; Ruvinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heister,  
of anatomy and surgery; and Newman, Zimmerman, Pott, and Margraaf, of  
chemistry. In astronomy, Kepler deservedly obtained a great reputation; and  
Puffendorf is one of the first writers on the law of nature and nations, and has also  
merit as an historian. But at the end of the last century, and the beginning of the  
present, Germany, by her divines, and by her religious sects, was so much involved  
in disputes about systematical theology, that few comparatively paid any attention  
to polite literature. The language also, and the style of writing in German books,  
which at the time of the Reformation was pure and original, became ridiculous,  
by a continual intermixture of Latin and French words; and though they were  
not understood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of superiority  
to the writers. For an opinion prevailed among the learned in Germany, and  
many have not yet divested themselves of it, that compiling huge volumes, and  
larding them with numberless quotations from all sorts of authors, and from all  
languages, was the true test of great erudition. Their productions, therefore,  
became heavy and pedantical, and were in consequence disregarded by other  
nations.

It was about the year 1730, that the prospects of literature in Germany began to  
brighten. Leibnitz and Wolfius opened the way to a better philosophy than had  
hitherto prevailed there. Gottsched, an author and professor at Leipzig, who was  
greatly honoured by the late king of Prussia, introduced a better taste of writing,  
by publishing a German grammar, and by instituting a literary society, for polish-  
ing and restoring to its purity the German language, and by promoting the study  
of the *belles lettres*. We may consider this as the era from which the Germans  
began to write with elegance in their own language, upon learned subjects, and  
to free themselves, in a considerable degree, from that verbose pedantry by which  
they had been characterised. About this time several young men in the university

of Leipzig, and other parts of Lower Germany, united in publishing some periodical works, calculated for the general entertainment of persons of a literary taste. Some of these gentlemen afterwards became eminent authors; and their works are held in Germany in high estimation.

The style of preaching among the German divines also underwent a considerable change. They began to translate the best English and French sermons, particularly those of Tillotson, Sherlock, Saurin, Bourdaloue, and others. They improved by these models; and Mosheim, Spalding, Zollikofer, and others, have published sermons which would do credit to any country; though they still retain too much of that prolixity, for which German divines and commentators have been so much censured. Nor can it be denied, that great numbers of the German preachers, even in large and opulent towns, are still too much distinguished by vulgar language, absurd opinions, and an inattention to the dictates of reason and good sense.

Some of the English periodical writings, such as the *Spectator*, *Tatler*, and *Guardian*, being translated into the German language, excited great emulation among the writers of that country, and a number of periodical papers appeared, of various merit. One of the first and best was published at Hamburg, under the title of "The Patriot;" in which Dr. Thomas, the late bishop of Salisbury, was concerned; he being at that time chaplain to the British factory at Hamburg, and a considerable master of the German language. The late professor Gellert is deemed one of the most elegant of the German authors. His way of writing is particularly adapted to touch the heart, and to inspire sentiments of morality and piety. His fables and narrations, written in German verse, his letters, and his moral romances, are so much read in Germany, that even many of the ladies have them almost by heart. His comedies are also very popular; though they are rather too sentimental, and better adapted for the closet than for the stage.

Haller, the famous physician, Hagedorn, Uz, Cronenb., Lessing, Gleim, Gessner, Kleist, Klopstock, Ramler, Zacariae, Wieland, and others, have excelled in poetry. Schlegel, Cronenb., Lessing, Wieland, and Wiese, have acquired fame by their dramatic writings. Rabener has, by his satirical works, immortalized his name among the Germans: though some of his pieces are of too local a nature, and too much confined to German customs, manners, and characters, to be read with any high degree of pleasure by persons of other nations. Gessner's *Idylls* and death of Abel have been translated into the English language, and favourably received.

In chemistry, and in medicine, the merit of the Germans is conspicuous; and Reimarus, Zimmerman, Abt, Kaestner, Segner, Lambert, Mayer, Kruger, and Sulger, have acquired fame by their philosophical writings. Busching is an excellent geographical writer; and Masco, Bunau, Putter, Gatterer, and Gebaur, have excelled in historical works. But it cannot be denied that the Germans, in their romances, are a century behind us. Most of their publications of this kind are imitations of ours, or else very dry and uninteresting; which perhaps is owing to education, to false delicacy, or to a certain taste of knight-errantry, which is still predominant among some of their novel writers.

In works relating to antiquity, and the arts known among the ancients, the names of Winckelman, Klog, and Lessing, are familiar with those who are skilled in this branch. In ecclesiastical, philosophical, and literary history, the names of Albertus Fabricius, Mosheim, Semler, and Brucker, are well known among us. Raphaelius, Michaelis, and Walch, are famous in sacred literature. Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiske, Ernesti, Reimarus, Havercamp, and Hicynne, have published some of the best editions of the Greek and Latin Classics.

It is an unfavourable circumstance for German literature, that the French language should be so fashionable in the German courts. The late king of Prussia ordered the Philosophical Transactions of his royal society at Berlin, from the beginning of its institution, to be published in the French tongue; by which, some of the Germans think, his majesty has cast a very unenvied reproach upon his native language.

With respect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themselves tolerably well. Germany has produced some good painters, architects, sculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the first inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Printing, if first invented in Holland, was soon after greatly improved in Germany. The Germans are generally allowed to be the first inventors of great guns; as also of gunpowder in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has likewise produced some excellent musicians; particularly Handel, Bach, and Hesse; of whom Handel stands at the head.

CITIES, TOWNS, PORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, } This is a copious head  
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE; WITH OCCASIONAL } in all countries, but more  
ESTIMATES OF REVENUES AND POPULATION. } particularly so in Germa-  
ny, on account of the numerous independent states it contains.

Though Berlin is accounted the capital of all his Prussian majesty's dominions, and exhibits perhaps the most illustrious example of sudden improvement that this age can boast of; yet, during the late war, it was found a place of no strength, and fell twice, almost without resistance, into the hands of the Austrians, who, had it not been for the politeness of their generals, and the love of the fine arts, which always preserves mankind from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled it to the ground.

Berlin lies on the river Spree, and, besides a royal palace, has many other superb edifices; it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Calvinist churches, besides a popish one. Its streets and squares are spacious, and regular; but the houses, though neat without, are ill-finished within; and the town is but thinly inhabited. The king's palace here, and that of prince Henry, are very magnificent buildings. The opera-house is also a beautiful structure: and the arsenal, which is handsomely built in the form of a square, contains arms for 200,000 men. There are sundry manufactures in Berlin, and several schools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Busching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garrison. In the same year, and according to the same author, there were no fewer than 443 silk looms, 149 of half silks, 2858 for woollen stuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace work, 39 frames for silk-sockings, and 310 for worsted ones. They have here manufactures of tapestry, gold and silver lace, and mirrors.

The electorate of Saxony is, by nature, the richest country in Germany, if not in Europe: it contains 210 walled towns, 61 market-towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the latest accounts of the Germans themselves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief;) and the revenue, estimating each six-dollar at four shillings and six pence, amounts to 1,350,000*l.* This sum is so moderate, when compared to the richness of the soil (which, if we are to believe Dr. Busching, produces even diamonds, and almost all the precious stones to be found in the East Indies and elsewhere), and the variety of splendid manufactures, that I am apt to believe the Saxon princes to have been the most moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

Dresden, the elector of Saxony's capital, is remarkable for its palaces, public buildings, churches, and charitable foundations: it is beautifully situated on both sides the Elbe; and is the school of Germany for statuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and foundries for bells and cannon, and

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its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dresden, by the latest accounts, amount to 110,000.

The city of Leipzig in Upper Saxony, 46 miles distant from Dresden, is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain on the Pleisse, and the inhabitants are said to amount to about 40,000. There are also large and well-built suburbs, with handsome gardens. Between these suburbs and the town, is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompasses the city. Mulberry-trees are also planted in the town-ditches; and the fortifications seem rather calculated for the use of the inhabitants to walk on, than for defence. The streets are clean, commodious, and agreeable, and are lighted in the night with seven hundred lamps. They reckon 436 merchants' houses, and 192 manufactures of different articles, as brocades, paper, cards, &c. Leipzig has long been distinguished for the liberty of conscience in religious matters. Here is an university, which is still very considerable, with six churches for the Lutherans, theirs being the established religion, one for the Calvinists, and a chapel in the castle for those of the Romish church. The university library consists of about 26,000 volumes, 6000 of which are folios. Here is also a library for the magistrates, which consists of about 36,000 volumes, and near 2000 manuscripts, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals, with many curiosities of art and nature. The exchange is an elegant building.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, stands on the river Leine, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city. Its present name was given from a ferry over the Leine; the name Hanover, being the same with Have-over in English. It is divided, by the river on which it stands, into two parts, called the Old and New Towns; the former but indifferently built, but the new adorned with handsome structures and continually improving. The streets are spacious, regular, and well lighted with lanthorns in the night time. It contains about twelve hundred houses, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on some manufactures; and in its neighbourhood lie the palace and elegant gardens of Herrenhausen. The dominions of the elector of Hanover contain about seven hundred and fifty thousand people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and sixty market-towns, besides villages. The city and suburbs of Bremen, belonging by purchase to the said elector, contain about fifty thousand inhabitants, and have a considerable trade by the Weser. The other towns belonging to this electorate cultivate trade and manufactures. The electoral forces are said to be 24,000, and the revenue to be 70,000*l.* a considerable part of which arises from the silver mines. It may be proper to mention, on account of its relation to our royal family, the secularised bishoprick of Osnaburg, lying between the rivers Weser and Ems. The chief city, Osnaburg, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the duchy, and for the manufacture of the best Westphalia hams. The whole revenue of the bishoprick amounts of about 30,000*l.*

Breslaw, the capital of Silesia, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all sects of Christians and Jews are tolerated, but the magistracy is Lutheran. Since Silesia fell under the Prussian dominion, its trade is greatly improved. The manufactures of Silesia, which principally centre at Breslaw, are numerous. The revenue is now computed at a million sterling; though it never paid the house of Austria above 500,000*l.* yearly.

Frankfort on the Maine, so called to distinguish it from another of the same name on the Oder, is situated in a healthful, fertile, and delightful country, on the river just mentioned, by which it is divided into two parts, distinguished by the names of Frankfort and Sachsenhausen. The former of these, being the largest, is divided into twelve wards, and the latter into two; and both were computed to contain about three thousand houses. The fortifications, which are both regular and solid, form a decagon, or figure consisting of ten bastions, faced with hewn stone; the

ditches are deep, and filled with fresh water; and all the out-works are placed before the gates. The government here, as in Breslaw, is in the hands of the Lutherans; but there are also many Papists and Calvinists. The Papists have the great church of St. Bartholomew, with three convents for men, and one for women; but are not allowed to make any processions through the town. The Calvinists are generally merchants, and very rich; whence it is a common saying, that, at Frankfort, the Roman Catholics possess the churches; the Lutherans the dignities; and the Calvinists, the riches. The last, however, are not allowed a church in town, but are obliged to go about three miles off for their worship, to a village called *Bokenheim*. The Jews are allowed a synagogue, but, in other respects, are miserably ill treated. They are confined to a particular district of the town; obliged to wear a piece of yellow cloth as a badge of dishonourable distinction; and they subsist by selling things to strangers. Frankfort is the usual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, and is also a free and imperial city. It is of a circular form, without any suburbs; but the streets are generally narrow, and the houses are mostly built of timber and plaster, and covered with slate; though there are some handsome private structures, of a kind of red marble, that deserve the name of palaces; as the buildings called the *Compestel* and *Fronhof*, the *Trierhof*, the *Cullenhof*, the German-house, an august edifice, situated near the bridge over the *Muine*, the *Hesse-Darmstadt*hof, the palace of the prince de la *Tours*, and the houses of the counts of *Solms*, *Schauenburg*, and *Schonborn*; and there are three principal squares.

Frankfort on the *Oder* is a city on that river, in the circle of Upper Saxony. It is divided into two parts by the river, which are joined together by a wooden bridge. The houses are tolerably well built, the streets spacious, and the inhabitants have a pretty good trade in woollen and linen goods, with two fairs a year, which invite a vast number of merchants, particularly Jews, from Poland. They have a communication with the Baltic sea by the river *Oder*, as well as with the *Spree* and *Havel* by canals. Here is an university erected in 1506, by *Joachim I.* marquis of *Brandenburg*. There is likewise a handsome market-place.

*Vienna* is the capital of the circle of *Austria*, and being the residence of the emperor, is considered as the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a strong city, and the princes of the house of *Austria* have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. *Vienna*, which takes its name from the little river *Wien*, which runs on the east of the city, and falls into the *Danube* a little below it, contains an excellent university, a bank, which is in the management of her own magistrates, and a court of commerce immediately subject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a sixth part of the town; but the suburbs are larger than the city. It would be endless to enumerate the many palaces of this capital, two of which are imperial; its squares, academies, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince *Eugene*, with his and the imperial cabinets of curiosities. An academy was erected in 1706, for painting, sculpture and architecture.

In no place of the world do people live more luxuriously than at *Vienna*; and in this they are plentifully supplied by the vast produce of the neighbouring country.

Among the rich convents of this city, is one for the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman *St. Colman*, the patron of *Austria*; and one of the six gates of this city is called the *Scots' gate*, in remembrance of some notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants of *Vienna*, including the suburbs, are computed at about three hundred thousand; and the encouragement given them by their sovereigns has rendered this city the rendezvous of foreigners.

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The streets, except those in the suburbs, are narrow and dirty. The houses of this city are generally of stone, five or six stories high, and flat roofed. They have three or four cellars under one another, with an open space in the middle of each arched roof, for the communication of air, and from the lowermost of all, there is a tube to the top, to let in air from the street. The winds often blow so hard, that it is troublesome to walk the streets. A remarkable prerogative of the sovereign here is, that the second floor of every house belongs to him, and is assigned to whomsoever he thinks proper; and hence there is no part of Germany, where lodging is so dear as at Vienna. An odd custom prevails here of putting iron bars to all their windows up to the very tops of their houses, which makes them all look like so many prisons. The houses and furniture of the citizens are greatly disproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, squares, and other public buildings; but above all, the excessive imposts laid by the house of Austria upon every commodity in its dominions, must always keep the manufacturing part of their subjects poor.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } In describing the mineral and other  
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } springs, a great part of this article, which  
is of itself very copious, has been already anticipated. Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of curiosities, artificial and natural, ancient and modern. The tun at Heidelberg holds 800 hogheads, and is generally full of the best Rhenish wine, from which strangers are seldom suffered to retire sober. Vienna itself is a curiosity; for here you see the greatest variety of inhabitants that is to be met with any where, as Greeks, Transylvanians, Sclavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The imperial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its ancient manuscripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuscripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Armenian, Coptic, and Chinese; but the antiquity of some of them is questionable, particularly a New Testament in Greek, said to have been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple. Here are likewise many thousand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vast collection of other curiosities in art and nature. The vast Gothic palaces, cathedrals, castles, and, above all, townhouses, in Germany, are very curious; they strike the beholder with an idea of rude magnificence; and sometimes have an effect that is preferable even to Greek architecture. Many castles remain nearly in the same condition, as in the 14th century; their fortifications generally consisting of a brick wall, trenches filled with water, and bastions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curiosities of Germany. Mention is made of a cave near Blackenburg, in Hartz-forest, of which none have yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for 20 miles; but the most remarkable curiosity of that kind is near Hammelen, about 30 miles from Hanover, where at the mouth of a cave stands a monument which commemorates the loss of 130 children, who were there swallowed up in 1284. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly representing two monks in their proper habits; and of many stones which seem to be petrifications of fishes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Germany has vast advantages in point of commerce, from its situation in the heart of Europe, and being intersected with great rivers. Its native materials for commerce, besides mines and minerals, are hemp, hops, flax, anise, cummin, tobacco, saffron, madder, truffles, variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, and fine fruits, equal to those of France and Italy. Germany exports to other countries corn, tobacco, horses, lean cattle, butter, cheese, honey, wax, wines, linen, and woollen yarn, and cotton stuffs, toys,

turnery wares in wood, metals and ivory, goat-skins, wool, timber, both for ship-building and houses, cannon and bullets, bombs, and bomb-shells, iron plates and stoves, tinned plates, steel work, copper, brass-wire, porcelain the finest upon earth, earthen-ware, glasses, mirrors, hogs-bristles, mumi, beer, tartar, smalts, zaffer, Prussian blue, printer's ink, and many other articles.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes, by Lewis XIV. which obliged French Protestants to settle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite service to the German manufactures. They now make velvets, silks, fluffs of all kinds, fine and coarse; linen and thread, and every thing necessary for wear, to great perfection. The porcelain of Meissen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, have been long famous.

[**TRADING COMPANIES.**] The Asiatic company of Embden, established by his late Prussian majesty, was, exclusive of the Hanseatic league, the only commercial company in Germany; but no ships had been sent out since the year 1760. The heavy taxes that his majesty laid on the company, was the cause of its total annihilation. In the great cities of Germany very large and extensive partnerships in trade subsist.

[**CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.**] Almost every prince in Germany (and there are about 300 of them) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own estates; but the whole of them form a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor, whose power in the collective body, or the diet, is not directorial, but executive: but even that gives him vast influence. The supreme power in Germany is the diet, which is composed of the emperor, or, in his absence, of his commissary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The first of these is the electoral college; the second is the college of princes; and the third, the college of Imperial towns. The empire was hereditary under the race of Charlemagne, but after this, became elective; and, in the beginning, all the princes, nobility, and deputies of cities enjoyed the privilege of voting. In the reign of Henry V. the chief officers of the empire altered the mode of election in their own favour. In the year 1239 the number of electors was reduced to seven. One elector was added in 1649, and another in 1692.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for some centuries belonged to the house of Austria, as being the most powerful of the German princes; but, by French management, upon the death of Charles VI. grandfather by the mother's side, to the emperor Joseph II. the elector of Bavaria was chosen to that dignity, and died, as is supposed, heart-broken, after a short uncomfortable reign.

The election of the emperor proceeds after the following manner: The elector of Mentz, before the lapse of a month after the vacancy, summons, as great chancellor of the empire, the rest of the electors, to attend on some fixed day within the space of three months from the date of the summons. The electors generally send their ambassadors to the place of election, which is held at Frankfort on the Maine; but saving the right of the city of Frankfort, it may be held elsewhere.

When the diet of electors is assembled, they proceed to compose the capitulation, to which the emperor, when elected, is to swear. The capitulation, being adjusted, the elector of Mentz appoints a day for the election.

When this day arrives, the gates of the city are shut, and the keys delivered to the elector of Mentz. The electors or their ambassadors, protestants excepted, repair in great pomp to mass, and after its celebration they take a solemn oath to choose, unbiassed and uninfluenced, the person that appears most proper for the imperial dignity. After this, they repair to the faculty, where the elector of Mentz, first, asks if there be any impediment known against their proceeding at present to an election? And next, he obtains a promise that the person elected by the major-

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ity shall be received as emperor. The declarations of the electoral ambassadors, in respect to these two points, are recorded by two notaries of the empire. Then all witnesses withdraw; and the elector of Mentz collecting the suffrages, which are *à viva voce*, and giving his own last, the witnesses are recalled, and he declares the person whom the electors have chosen. But the election is not complete, nor is the new emperor proclaimed, until the capitulation be sworn to, either by himself, or by his ambassadors, if he be absent.

From this time he is styled king of the Romans, until the coronation takes place, which ceremony confers the title of emperor. According to the golden bull\* (so called from the great golden seal of the emperor affixed to it) it should be celebrated at Aix-la-Chapelle out of respect to Charlemagne, who resided there. The coronation is performed by the archbishop of Mentz, or elector of Cologne.

For the benefit of the empire, during the reign of an emperor, his presumptive successor may be elected king of the Romans. But this election confers at first a mere title; for, by an express article in his capitulation, the king of the Romans swears not to interfere with the government during the life of the emperor; but, on his decease, the coronation confirms him emperor without a second election.

Should there not be a king of the Romans, and the throne become vacant, the government is administered by vicars of the empire, who are the electors of Saxony and of Bavaria, who have jurisdiction, the former over the northern, and the latter over the southern circles. By the golden bull it is established, that all acts of the vicars are valid; but they are all fully confirmed by the emperor; which confirmation, by an article of his capitulation, he is bound to give.

The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation signed at his election. He can confer titles and enfranchisements upon cities and towns; but as emperor he can levy no taxes, nor make war nor peace without the consent of the diet. When that consent is obtained, every prince must contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though, perhaps, as an elector or prince, he may espouse a different side from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German constitution; for George II. of England was obliged to furnish his quota against the house of Austria, and also against the king of Prussia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedence for his ambassadors in all Christian courts.

The nine electors of the empire have each a particular office in the imperial court, and they have the sole election of the emperor. They are in order,

First, The archbishop of Mentz, who is high chancellor of the empire when in Germany.

Second, The archbishop of Treves, who is high chancellor of France and Arlat, a dignity which, since the separation of France from the empire, is merely nominal.

Third, the archbishop of Cologne, who is the same in Italy, a mere title also.

The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer.

The elector of Bavaria, who is grand sewer, or officer who serves out the feasts.

The elector of Saxony, who is great marshal of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburg (now king of Prussia), who is great chamberlain.

The elector Palatine, who is great Steward; and,

The elector of Hanover (king of Great Britain), who claims the post of arch-treasurer.

\* This golden bull was published at the diet of Nuremberg, in the year 1356, and in the reign of Charles IV. It feales every thing relating to the election and coronation of the emperor, and the rights of the electors; the Latin original is preserved at Frankfort on the Maine.

It is necessary for the emperor, before he calls a diet, to have the advice of those members.

The ecclesiastical princes are as absolute as the temporal ones in their several dominions. The chief of these, besides the three ecclesiastical electors already mentioned, are the archbishop of Saltzburgh, the bishops of Liege, Munster, Spire, Worms, Wirtzburg, Straßburg, Osnaburg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Besides these, there are many other ecclesiastical princes. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbeßes, whose jurisdictions are likewise absolute, and some of them very considerable, and all of them are chosen by their several chapters. The chief of the secular princes are the Landgrave of Hesse, the dukes of Brunswic, Wirtemberg, Mecklenburgh, Saxe-Gotha, the marquises of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Nassau, Anhalt, Furstenburg, and many others, who have all high titles, and are sovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewise sovereign states; those which are Imperial, or compose a part of the diet, bear the Imperial eagle in their arms; those which are Hanse-towns, of which we have spoken in the Introduction, have still great privileges and immunities, but they subsist no longer as a political body.

Having spoken of the rights and privileges of the electors, princes, &c. of the empire, it may be necessary here to give some account of the ban, or proscription to which the electors and states of the empire are subject. The ban is of two sorts; the one is privatory; the other provisionary. The first consists in depriving a prince or state of the empire of all their rights, privileges, dignities, &c. &c. The second consists in taking away the actual government of the states, and committing them to the care of some other, until it be otherwise ordered.

Every state which acts directly or indirectly against the fundamental laws of the empire, or the religious peace, is subject to the punishment of the ban. But this sentence of proscription is difficult to obtain, because it is difficult to unite all the orders of the empire in the same measure. The execution of it belongs to the captain of the circle where the prince resides, and every feudal state of the empire is subject to it.

The Imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the Aulic council, are the two supreme courts for determining the great causes of the empire, arising between its respective members. The Imperial council consists of fifty judges or assessors. The president and four of them are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chooses one, and the other princes and states the rest. This court is at present held at Wetzlar, but formerly it resided at Spire; and causes may be brought before it by appeal. The Aulic council was originally no better than a revenue court of the dominions of the house of Austria. As that family's power increased, the jurisdiction of the Aulic council was extended; and, at last, to the great disgust of the princes of the empire, it usurped upon the powers of the Imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It consists of a president, a vice-chancellor, a vice-president, and a certain number of Aulic-councillors, of whom six are protestants, besides other officers; but the emperor in fact is master of the court. These courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Passau, and the civil law.

Besides these courts of justice, each of the nine circles has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. These directors are commonly as follow: For Westphalia, the bishop of Munster, or duke of Newburg. For Lower Saxony, the elector of Hanover or Brandenburg. For Upper Saxony, the elector of Saxony. For the Lower Rhine, the archbishop of Mentz. For the Upper Rhine, the elector Palatine, or bishop of Worms. For Franconia, the bishop of Bamberg, or marquis of Culmbach. For Swabia, the duke of Wirtemberg, or bishop of Constance. For Bavaria, the elector of Bavaria, or archbishop of Saltzburg; and for Austria,

Austria, the archduke of Austria, his Imperial majesty. In case of public offences, after the votes of the diet are collected, and sentence pronounced, the emperor commits the execution of it to a particular prince, whose troops live at free quarter upon the estate of the delinquent.

The constitution of the Germanic body is a study of no small difficulty. However plausibly invented the several checks upon the imperial power may be, it is certain that the house of Austria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire. Lately, indeed, that house has met with a powerful opposition from the house of Brandenburg, in consequence of the activity and abilities of the late king of Prussia. Before I close this head, it may be necessary to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which has of late frequently appeared in the German history, I mean that of the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This is no other than a provision made by the emperor Charles VI. for preserving the indivisibility of the Austrian dominions in the person of the next descendant of the last possessor, whether male or female. This provision has been often disputed by other branches of the house of Austria, who have been occasionally supported by France from political views, though the pragmatic sanction is strongly guaranteed by almost all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland attempted to overthrow it, as being descended from the daughters of the emperor Joseph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewise been repeatedly opposed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are so large as to be assigned to viceroys, to be oppressed and fleeced at pleasure; nor are they entirely without redress when they suffer any grievance: they may appeal to the general diet or great council of the empire for relief. The subjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the most unhappy; for these princes, affecting the grandeur and splendor of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domestics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curiosities, guards, bands of music, tables, dresses, and furniture, are obliged to support all this vain pomp and parade at the expence of their vassals and dependents. With respect to the burghers and peasants of Germany, the former in many places enjoy great privileges; the latter also, in Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain services to their superiors, and pay the taxes; whereas in the marquisate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Lusatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Austria, &c. their condition is various indeed, but universally very servile.

**REVENUES.**] The only revenue falling under this head is that of the emperor, who, as such, hath an annual income of about 5 or 6000 pounds sterling, arising from some inconsiderable fiefs in the Black Forest. The Austrian revenues are immense, and are thought to amount to 7,000,000l. sterling, in Germany and Italy; a sum that goes far in those countries. The father of the late king of Prussia, whose revenues were not near so extensive as those of his son, though he maintained a large army, was so good an economist that he left 7,000,000l. sterling, in his coffers; and Silesia alone yields above half a million sterling yearly. To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a stranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes; which is owing to the scarcity of money in that country, and consequently the low price of necessaries and accommodations.

**MILITARY STRENGTH.**] During the two last wars, very little regard was paid in carrying them on, to the ancient German constitutions. The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matriculation-book or register, which contains the assessments of men and money, which every prince and state, who are members of the empire, is to advance when the army of the empire takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly assessments paid to the emperors when they visited Rome. These assessments, however, are subject to

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great mutability. It is sufficient here to say that, upon a moderate computation, the secular princes of the empire can bring to the field 379,000 men, and the ecclesiastical 74,500; in all 453,500; of those the emperor, as the head of the house of Austria, is supposed to furnish 90,000.

The elector of Mentz may maintain	-	-	-	-	6000
The elector of Triers	-	-	-	-	6000
The elector of Cologne	-	-	-	-	6000
The bishop of Munster	-	-	-	-	8000
The bishop of Liege	-	-	-	-	8000
The archbishop of Saltzburg	-	-	-	-	8000
The bishop of Wurtzburg	-	-	-	-	2000
The bishop of Bamberg	-	-	-	-	5000
The bishop of Paderborn	-	-	-	-	3000
The bishop of Osnaburg	-	-	-	-	2500
The abbot of Fulda	-	-	-	-	6000
The other bishopricks of the empire	-	-	-	-	6000
The abbies and provostships of the empire	-	-	-	-	8000
<b>Total of the ecclesiastical princes</b>	-	-	-	-	<b>74500</b>
The emperor, for Hungary	-	-	-	-	30000
for Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia	-	-	-	-	30000
for Austria, and other dominions	-	-	-	-	30000
The king of Prussia	-	-	-	-	40000
The elector of Saxony	-	-	-	-	25000
The elector Palatine	-	-	-	-	15000
The duke of Wirtemberg	-	-	-	-	15000
The landgrave of Hesse Cassel	-	-	-	-	15000
The prince of Baden	-	-	-	-	10000
The elector of Hanover	-	-	-	-	30000
The duke of Holstein	-	-	-	-	12000
The duke of Mecklenburg	-	-	-	-	15000
The prince of Anhalt	-	-	-	-	6000
The prince of Lawnberg	-	-	-	-	6000
The elector of Bavaria	-	-	-	-	30000
The dukes of Saxony	-	-	-	-	10000
The prince of Nassau	-	-	-	-	10000
The other princes and Imperial towns	-	-	-	-	50000
<b>The secular princes</b>	-	-	-	-	<b>379000</b>
<b>The ecclesiastical princes</b>	-	-	-	-	<b>74500</b>
					<b>453500</b>

By this computation, which is far from being exaggerated, it appears that the emperor and empire form the most powerful government in Europe; and if the whole force was united, and properly directed, Germany would have nothing to fear from any of its ambitious neighbours. But the different interests pursued by the several princes of Germany, render the power of the emperor of little consequence, except with regard to his own states. The imperial army was computed, in 1775, to amount to two hundred thousand.



The time of the institution of the "*Order of the Red Eagle*" is uncertain. The margrave of Bareith is sovereign thereof, and it is generally bestowed on military officers. The badge is a golden square medal enamelled white, on which is an eagle displayed, red. It is worn pendent to a broad red watered ribband, edged with yellow, and worn scarfwise. In the year 1690, John George, elector of Saxony, and Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, on terminating their disputes, established the "*Order of Sincerity*." The knights of this order wear a bracelet of gold: on one side are the names of the two princes with this device, "*Amitié sincere*;" on the other side are two armed hands, joined together, and placed on two swords, with two palm branches crossed, with this motto, "*Unis pour jamais*."

John George, duke of Saxe Weissenfels, instituted the "*Order of the Noble Passion*," in the year 1704, of which the duke is the sovereign. The badge is a gold medal enamelled white, on which is a star of eight points, gold, charged with a cross, red, surmounted with an oval, blue, on which are the letters J. G. in a cypher, the whole encircled with these words, "*J' aime l'honneur qui vient par la vertu*." Each knight of the order is to contribute to the maintenance of the maimed or decayed soldiers in the service of the sovereign. In the year 1709, Louise Elizabeth, widow of Philip duke of Saxe Merburg, revived the "*Order of the Death's Head*," first instituted in 1652, by her father the duke of Wirtemberg. A princeess of that house alone can be sovereign of it, and none but women of virtue and merit (birth and fortune not regarded) can be received into it. They are to avoid gaming, theatrical amusements, and luxuries of all kinds. The badge of the order is a death's head enamelled white, surmounted with a cross pattée, black; above the cross pattée, another cross composed of five jewels, by which it hangs to a black ribband edged with white, and on the ribband these words, "*Memento mori*," worn at the breast.

The great order of Wirtemberg, is that "*of the Chace*" instituted in the year 1702, by the then duke, and improved in the year 1719. The badge of the order is a golden cross of eight points enamelled, red, in the spaces between the branches of the cross is an eagle displayed, red, and between the points of each traverse a bugle horn, and in the centre the letter W. and over it a ducal coronet enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a broad scarlet watered ribband, passing scarfwise from the left shoulder to the right side. On the left side of the coat is a silver star embroidered, of the same figure as the badge, in the middle a green circle with the motto "*Amicitia, virtutisque sedes*." The festival of this order is on St. Hubert's day, he being the patron of sportsmen.

In the year 1709, the elector Palatine revived the "*Order of St. Hubert*," first instituted by a duke of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory gained by him on St. Hubert's day, in 1447. The number of counts and barons of the order, who enjoyed the memorial lands annexed to it, is limited to twelve, but the number of princes and private gentlemen is not fixed. All are to prove the nobility of their descent for four generations, and on the day of reception are to pay 100 ducats to the poor. The elector Palatine is grand-master of the order. The badge is a cross of eight points, from the angles issue rays, and in the middle of a circle is enamelled the figure of St. Hubert kneeling before a crucifix, placed between the horns of a stag standing in a wood, having in the centre this device in the Runic language, "*Coylans in fidelitate*," on a red ground. All the knights have either military employments or pensions.

The archbishop of Saltburgh in 1701, instituted the "*Order of St. Rupert*," in honour of the founder and patron of the see he held, and as the apostle of his country. It is composed of twelve knights, distinguished by a chain of gold round the neck to which is pendent the badge, which is a cross of eight points enamelled blue,

and on the centre the image of St. Rupert. As the archbishop is the richest and most powerful prince of Bavaria next to the elector, his order is in good esteem. In the year 1729, Albert elector of Bavaria instituted the order of "*St. George the Defender of the Immaculate Conception*;" the knights of which are obliged to prove their nobility by father and mother for five generations: the badge they wear is a star of eight points, and on the centre is enamelled the image of St. George on horseback slaying a dragon. The cross is enamelled blue edged with white. On days of ceremony they wear the badge pendent to a collar composed of oblong plates with crowns at each end, and columns surrounded with globes, each column supported by two lions holding in their exterior paws two scymitars, the whole joined together with lozenge chains, enamelled blue with white—on the oblong plates is this motto, "*In fide, justitia, et fortitudine.*"

The "*Order of the Golden Lion*" was instituted by the present landgrave of Hesse Cassel; is equally a military and civil order, but mostly conferred on general officers. The badge is an octagonal medal enamelled red, in the centre a lion rampant, gold, ducally crowned; it is pendent to a broad watered crimson ribband, worn scarfwise. The present landgrave hath also instituted the military "*Order of Merit*," the badge of which is a gold cross of eight points enamelled white; and in the centre is this motto, "*Pro virtute et fidelitate*;" it is worn at the coat button-hole, pendent to a blue ribband edged with silver.

[HISTORY.] The manners of the ancient Germans are well described by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman historian. They were a brave and independent race of men, and peculiarly distinguished by their love of liberty and arms. They opposed the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin or its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and still continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independent of each other, though occasionally connected by a military union for defending themselves against such enemies as threatened the liberty of them all. At length, the Roman power, directed by policy, prevailed over a great part of Germany, which was reduced to the condition of a province. When the Roman empire was invaded by the northern barbarians, Germany was over-run by the Franks, about the year 480, and a considerable part of it long remained in subjection to earls and marquises of that nation. In this situation Germany continued, notwithstanding the efforts of particular chieftains, or princes, to reduce the rest into subjection, until the beginning of the ninth century: then it was that Charlemagne, one of those enlightened and superior geniuses who sometimes start up in a barbarous age, first extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. The posterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany until the death of Lewis III. in the year 911, at which time the different princes, assuming their original independence, rejected the Carolingian line, and placed Conrade, duke of Franconia, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been considered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their interest and arms, have mounted the throne. Of these, the most considerable, until the Austrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houses of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of these emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the contests between them and the popes. From hence, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, arose the factions of the Guelphs and Gibbelines, of which the former was attached to the pope, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their violence and inveteracy, tended to disquiet the empire for several ages. The emperors too were often at war with the Turks; and the German princes often contended among themselves for the imperial dignity. But what more deserves the attention of a judicious reader than all these noisy but uninteresting quarrels, is the progress of government in Germany, which was in some

measure opposite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire, raised by Charlemagne, fell asunder, all the different independent princes assumed the right of election; and those, now distinguished by the name of electors, had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a successor to the imperial throne: they were only the officers of the king's household, his secretary, his steward, chaplain, marshal, or master of his horse, &c. By degrees, as they lived near the king's person, and had, like all the other princes, independent territories belonging to them, they increased their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. of the house of Saxony, in the year 984, acquired the sole right of electing the emperor. Thus while, in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial or independent barons, was diminished by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raised upon the ruins of the emperor's supremacy, and of the people's rights. Otho I. having, in the year 962, united Italy to the empire of Germany, procured a decree from the clergy that he and his successors should have the power of nominating the pope and of granting investitures to bishops. Henry V. a weak and wicked prince, in the year 1122, surrendered up the right of investiture and other powers, to the disgrace of the imperial dignity: but pope Benedict XII. refusing absolution to Lewis V. of Bavaria, in 1338, it was declared in the diet of the empire, that the majority of suffrages of the electoral college should confer the empire without the consent of the pope; that he had no superiority over the emperor, nor any right to reject or to approve of elections. In 1438, Albert II. archduke of Austria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. One of his successors, Maximilian, married the heiress of Charles duke of Burgundy; whereby Burgundy, and the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the house of Austria. Charles V. grandson of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, in right of his mother, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards, and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in several parts of Germany, which, however, was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Westphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually disturbed by his wars with the German princes, and the French king, Francis I. Though successful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune, towards the conclusion of it, began to forsake him; which, with other reasons, occasioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I. who, in 1558, succeeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the address to get his son Maximilian declared king of the Romans in his own life-time, and died in 1564. By his last will he ordered, that if either his own male issue, or that of his brother Charles, should fail, his Austrian estates should revert to his second daughter Anne, wife of the elector of Bavaria, and her issue. This destination is noticed, as it gave rise to the late opposition made by the house of Bavaria to the pragmatic sanction, in favour of the empress-queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was disturbed with internal commotions, and an invasion from the Turks; but he died in peace in 1576. He was succeeded by his son Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Austria in his life-time. To him succeeded in the empire Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went

\* Wiquefort saith, that nothing was settled as to the number of electors, or the electoral dignity, till Charles IV. who was chosen emperor in 1347,

and made that famous constitution for the election of emperors, called the *Golden Bull*.

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under the names of Lutherans and Calvinists, were so much divided among themselves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. Their common fears of Matthias, at last, reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial commissaries out of a window at Prague. This gave rise to a ruinous war, which lasted thirty years. Matthias thought to have exterminated both parties; but they formed a confederacy, called the *Evangelic League*, which was counterbalanced by a *Catholic League*.

Matthias dying in 1618, was succeeded by his cousin Ferdinand II. but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic the elector Palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, and son-in-law to his Britannic majesty, James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he lost it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle of Prague; and he was also deprived of his own electorate, the best part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The protestant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with great firmness and intrepidity; among them were the margrave of Baden Dourlach; Christian, duke of Brunswick, and count Mansfield; the last was one of the best generals of the age. Christian IV. king of Denmark, declared for them; and Richelieu, the French minister, was not fond of seeing the house of Austria aggrandised. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Christian having put himself at the head of the evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialist, of great reputation in war. Ferdinand so grossly abused the advantages obtained over the protestants, that they formed a fresh confederacy at Leiptic, of which the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. His amazing victories and progress have already been described, till he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. But the protestant cause did not die with him. He had brought up a set of heroes, such as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Torstenson, Banier, and others, who shook the Austrian power, till, under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded at Munster, in the year 1648; which forms the basis of the present political system of Europe.

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 severe, unamiable, and unfortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with; France on the one side, and the Turks on the other; and was a loser in his war with both. France took from him Alsace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the siege been raised by John Sobieski, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms about the year 1697; and being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the first checks they received in Hungary; and by the peace of Carlowitz, in 1699, Transylvania was ceded to the emperor. The empire, however, could not have withstood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy against the French power, the consequences of which have been already described. The Hungarians, secretly encouraged by the French, and exasperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were still in arms, under the protection of the Porte, when that prince died in 1705.

He was succeeded by his son Joseph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill served by prince Lewis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough, though he obtained very splendid victories, had not all the success he expected or deserved. Joseph himself was suspected of a design to subvert the Germanic liberties; and it was plain by his

conduct, that he expected England should take the principal part in the war, which was chiefly carried on for his benefit. The English were disgusted at his slowness and selfishness; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male issue, he was succeeded in the empire by his brother Charles VI. whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in opposition to Philip duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place in 1713, Charles at first made a shew as if he would continue the war; but found himself unable, now that he was forsaken by the English. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France, at Baden, in 1714, that he might attend the progress of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another of equal importance from the same general in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the Imperialists: and next year the peace of Passarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles employed every minute of his leisure in making arrangements for increasing and preserving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the house of Hanover; an event which gave him a very decisive weight in Europe, by the connections of George I. and II. with the empire. Charles was sensible of this, and carried matters with so high a hand, that, about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach ensued between him and George I. and so uneasy was the system of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones contradictory to their interest. Without entering into particulars, it is sufficient to observe, that the safety of Hanover, and its aggrandisement, was the main object of the British court; as that of the emperor was the establishment of the pragmatic sanction, in favour of his daughter, the late empress-queen, he having no male issue. Mutual concessions upon those great points restored a good understanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony, allured by the prospect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquished the great claims he had upon the Austrian succession.

The emperor, after this, had very bad success in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himself for the great sacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the house of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he had no general to supply his place. The system of France under cardinal Fleury happened at that time to be pacific, and she obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reason to expect. Charles, to keep the German and other European powers easy, had, before his death, given his eldest daughter, the late empress-queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorraine, a prince who could bring no accession of power to the Austrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no sooner in the grave, than all he had so long laboured for must have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmness of George II. The pragmatic sanction was attacked on all hands. The young king of Prussia, with a powerful army, entered and conquered Silesia. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria set up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic sanction, and in this they were joined by France; though all those powers had solemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne, after a considerable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Prussia, was forced to cede to that prince the most valuable part of the duchy of Silesia by a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and sufferings, and the noble fortitude with which she bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, into whose arms she threw herself

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and her little son; and though they had been always remarkable for their disaffection to the house of Austria, they declared unanimously in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II. at the head of an English and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time miserable on the imperial throne, and driven out of his electoral dominions (as had been his ancestor in queen Anne's reign, for siding with France), and would have given the queen of Hungary almost her own terms; but she haughtily and impolitely rejected all accommodation, though advised to it by his Britannic majesty, her best, and indeed only friend. This obstinacy gave a colour for the king of Prussia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of supporting the imperial dignity: but though he took Prague, and subdued the greater part of the kingdom, he was not supported by the French; upon which he abandoned Bohemia, and retired to Silesia. This event confirmed the obstinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that the might recover Silesia. Soon after, his imperial majesty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorraine, then grand duke of Tuscany, consort to her Hungarian majesty, after surmounting some difficulties, was chosen emperor, by the title of Francis I.

The bad success of the allies against the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loss of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empress-queen against Frederick, king of Prussia. The latter beat the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorraine, who had before driven the Prussians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empress-queen was such, that his Britannic majesty thought proper to guarantee to him the possession of Silesia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, Frederick pretended that he had discovered a secret convention between the empress-queen, the empress of Russia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, for stripping him of his dominions. Upon this he suddenly attacked the king of Poland in Saxony, defeated his troops, and took possession of Dresden; which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majesty, by which the king of Prussia acknowledged the duke of Lorraine, now become grand- duke of Tuscany, for emperor. The war continued in the Low Countries, not only to the disadvantage, but to the discredit of the Austrians and Dutch, till it was finished by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April 1748. By that treaty, Silesia was once more guaranteed to the king of Prussia. It was not long before that monarch's jealousies were renewed and verified; and the empress of Russia's views falling in with those of the empress-queen and the king of Poland, who were unannaturally supported by France in their new schemes, a fresh war was kindled in the empire, in the year 1750. Frederick declared against the admission of the Russians into Germany, and George against that of the French. Upon these principles, all former differences between those monarchs were forgotten; and the British parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 670,000*l.* to his Prussian majesty, during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now re-kindled with more fury than ever.

Frederick once more broke into Saxony, defeated the Imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowolitz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almost impregnablely fortified at Pirna, and the elector of Saxony again fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, his Prussian majesty was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Russians did theirs by another, into the empire. The conduct of Frederick on this occasion is scarcely to be paralleled in history. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of 100,000 Austrians, under general Browa, who was killed, as the brave mathal Schwerin was on the side of the Prussians. He then besieged Prague, and plied it with a most tremendous artillery; but just as he

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was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Colin, by the Austrian general Daun, obliged to raise the siege, and to fall back upon Eitenaach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The Imperialists, under count Daun, were formed into excellent troops; but they were beaten at the battle of Lissa, and the Prussians took Breslau, and obtained many other great advantages. The Russians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the war; and the cautious, yet enterprising genius of count Daun, laid his Prussian majesty under infinite difficulties, notwithstanding his amazing victories. At first he defeated the Russians at Zorndorff; but an attack made upon his army, in the night-time, by count Daun, at Hockkirchen, had almost proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with exquisite dexterity. He was obliged, however, to sacrifice Saxony, for the safety of Silesia; and it has been observed, that few periods of history afford such room for reflection as this campaign did; six sieges were raised almost at the same time; that of Colberg, by the Russians; that of Leipzig, by the duke of Deux-Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dresden, by Daun; and those of Neiss, Cosel, and Torgau, by the Austrians.

Many capital scenes which passed at the same time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the English, or their allies, must be passed over, on account of the brevity necessary to be observed in this compendium. The operations on both sides were of little importance to history, because nothing was done that was decisive, though extremely burdensome and bloody to Great Britain. Great was the ingratitude of the empress-queen to his Britannic majesty, and his allies, who were now daily threatened with the ban of the empire. The Russians had taken possession of all the kingdom of Prussia, and laid siege to Colberg, the only port of his Prussian majesty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Russians; but he soon found them by far the most formidable enemies he had, advancing under count Solतिकoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Silesia. In this distress he acted with a courage and resolution that bordered upon despair; but was, at last, totally defeated by the Russians, with the loss of 20,000 of his best men, in a battle near Frankfort. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats seemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were shut up. He had lost, since the first of October 1756, the great marshal Keith, and forty brave generals, besides those who were wounded and made prisoners. At Landshut the imperial general Laudohn defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Austrians a ready gate into Silesia. None but his Prussian majesty would have thought of continuing the war under such repeated losses; but every defeat he received seemed to give him fresh spirits. It is difficult to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, except by the jealousy which the Imperial generals entertained of their Russian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contribution; but towards the end of the campaign, Frederick defeated the Imperialists in the battle of Fergau, in which count Daun was wounded. But this victory cost him 10,000 of his best troops. New reinforcements which arrived every day from Russia, the taking of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, seemed almost to have completed his ruin, when his most formidable enemy, the empress of Russia, died, January 5, 1762; George II. had died on the 25th of October, 1760.

The deaths of those illustrious personages were followed by great consequences. The British ministry of George III. were solicitous to put an end to the war, and the new emperor of Russia recalled his armies. His Prussian majesty was, notwithstanding, so very much reduced by his losses, that the empress-queen, prob-

ably, would have completed his destruction, had it not been for the backwardness of the other German princes to annihilate the house of Brandenburg. At first the empress-queen rejected all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The visible unwillingness of her generals to execute her orders, and the successes obtained by his Prussian majesty, at last prevailed upon her to agree to an armistice, which was soon followed by the treaty of Hubertsburg, February 15, 1763, which again secured to his Prussian majesty the possession of Silesia.

Upon the death of the emperor, her husband, in 1765, her son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded him in the empire. Soon after his accession, he discovered great ambition and activity. He joined, in the dismemberment of Poland, with Russia and Prussia. He paid a visit incognito, and with moderate attendants, to Rome and the principal courts of Italy; and had a personal interview with his Prussian majesty, though this did not prevent hostilities from commencing between Austria and Prussia, on account of the succession to the electorate of Bavaria. The Austrian claims on this occasion were ill founded, and the efforts to support them unsuccessful. The Emperor next made a fruitless demand on the Dutch for the free navigation of the Scheldt, contrary to the faith of treaties. He endeavoured, however, to promote the happiness of his subjects, granted a most liberal religious toleration, suppressed most of the religious orders of both sexes, as utterly useless and even pernicious to society; and in 1783, by an edict, he abolished the remains of servitude and villanage. He also abolished the use of torture in his hereditary dominions, and removed many of the grievances under which the peasants and common people laboured. He was a prince that mixed with his subjects with an ease and affability that are very uncommon in persons of his rank. He loved the conversation of ingenious men, and appeared solicitous to cultivate knowledge.

Notwithstanding this, he was far from fortunate. He pronounced his own satire in the epitaph which he wrote for himself— "Here lies Joseph II. unhappy in all his undertakings." Unhappy, because unsuccessful, and unsuccessful because his imagination out-ran his judgment. To render religion independent, science free, laws and legislation more perfect and vigorous, were great and laudable objects—but he failed in all. And the moment before his death, which happened at Vienna, on February, 20, 1790 in the 49th year of his age, in the 26th of his reign, as emperor of the Romans, and the tenth as king of Hungary and Bohemia, he endured every aggravation of misfortune: Brabant torn from him; Hungary bearing off in noisy triumph its crown from his palace, while he lay suffering the pangs of death; his family connection with Russia cut asunder, and the views of ambition closed by the death of the princess Elizabeth; his own death, too, pronounced inevitable to him before he could view the success of his arms at Belgrade, and the single success of his life; again, that success thrown into suspense, and rendered doubtful before his expiring eyes, by the terrible news of the danger and expected defeat of Coburg. Thus did he drink the cup of bitterness to the very dregs.

Peter-Leopold, grand duke of Tuscany, succeeded his brother Joseph II. and engaged the public praise by repeated instances of moderation, and solid principles. His former management of his Italian sovereignty, which was prudent and beneficent, shewed that he aspired to truer reputation than can be acquired by the mere splendours of royalty.—One of the bishops of Hungary having refused his licence to a catholic subject to marry a protestant woman, the emperor dismissed him from his see; but pardoned him afterwards upon concession, and desired the bishop to exhort his brethren to comply with the imperial ordinances, else no favour should be shewn.

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The conference at Pillnitz, between the emperor, the king of Prussia, and the elector of Saxony, is the most memorable event since the peace with Turkey. A proportional diminution of the forces of Austria and Prussia, the exchange of the Netherlands for Bavaria, the secularization of many German bishopricks, are some of the articles mentioned. A more probable object was to establish an alliance between the above powers for mutual defence, and for the preservation of the peace of Germany. After much irresolution, Leopold seemed at length resolved on war, when he died of a pleuritic fever on the first of March 1792, after an illness of four days.

His son Francis was raised to the imperial throne in the middle of July following. The politics of the court of Vienna continued unchanged, and Francis seems even a more violent enemy to the French revolution than his father. The imperial cities, however, whose trade will much suffer, and the elector of Saxony, a friend of peace, wished to decline the contest. The extraordinary terms upon which the emperor is obliged to borrow money, announces the difficulties he labours under in endeavouring to accomplish his plan. Whoever brings silver or gold to the mint, receives an obligation on paper for the re-payment of it in specie, at the end of six years, with an interest of four and a half, and a premium of four per cent. per annum. Twenty thousand marks of silver, and some hundred marks of gold, have been already obtained in consequence of this offer.

The new partition of Poland has induced the emperor, in an official note, to express his surprize that the courts of Peterburgh and Berlin had appropriated to themselves a much greater portion of Poland than was agreed upon at the convention at Pillnitz; the emperor, however, professes, that he does not wish that this opening should give the least umbrage to those powers; but hopes that they will literally conform to the convention which took place between them on the subject of this partition.

The consumption of men and money, which the war with France has already caused, compels the Germanic body to make the greatest efforts to procure fresh supplies for the continuance of this contest, which is as novel in its kind, as its issue will be important. In February, 1794, the Austrian envoy at the diet of Ratisbon delivered a note on the part of the emperor, to demand the sense of the Germanic states, respecting the necessity of arming all the inhabitants of the frontiers of Germany, and the furnishing of a triple contingent on the part of the said states. In this note the emperor observes, that all Europe knows the manifold and just grounds which have compelled the Germanic empire, united under its supreme chief, to declare a general war, for the maintenance of the strictest covenants, and the most sacred treaties; for the preservation of all social order, from a wild, destructive, and most anarchic tyranny, falsely called freedom; for the defence of an acknowledged religion from pestilential atheism, &c. &c. The emperor farther observes, that the general requisition of the fighting men in France has effected such a superiority, and produced such a change in the mode of making war, that it seems in some manner to call for a similar measure, viz. the rising in a mass of the inhabitants of the frontiers of the Netherlands, and other places, in order to procure safety to the loyal subjects of the empire, against the ravages of the common enemy. But the affairs of this country being entirely interwoven with those of France, they have been detailed in the transactions of that people, under which they will appear with more connection.

FRANCIS-JOSEPH-CHARLES, emperor of Germany, and grand duke of Tuscany, was born February 3, 1768; and married, January 6, 1788, Elizabeth princess of Wirtemberg, who died 1795. He married, 2dly, September 17, 1790, Maria-Theresa of Naples, his cousin. On the death of his father, Peter-Leopold,

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late emperor, March 1, 1792, he succeeded to the crown of Hungary and Bohemia, and, July 14, 1792, was elected emperor of Germany.

He had no issue by his first marriage. By the latter he has a daughter,

Maria Theresia, born December 12, 1791.

The late emperor, Peter-Leopold, had fifteen children, the eldest of whom is the present emperor; the others are,

Ferdinand-Joseph, born May 5, 1769; married, September 17, 1790, Maria Amelia of Naples.

Charles-Lewis, born September 3, 1771.

Alexander-Leopold-Joseph, born August 1, 1772.

Maximilian, born December 23, 1774, died May 9, 1778.

Joseph-Anthony, born May 9, 1776.

Anthony-Victor, born August 31, 1779.

A son, born January 20, 1782.

Regnier-Jerom, born September 30, 1783.

Theresa-Josepha-Charlotta-Jane, born January 14, 1767.

Maria, born January 14, 1767; married, October 18, 1787, Anthony, brother to the elector of Saxony.

Mary-Ann-Ferdinanda-Josepha, born April 21, 1770.

Mary-Clementina-Josepha, born April 24, 1777; married, September, 1790, Francis-Januaris, prince royal of Naples.

Maria-Josepha-Theresa, born October 15, 1780.

A princess, born October 22, 1784.

Maria Antonietta, born and died in 1786.

The late emperor has living two sisters, and one brother *unmarried*. Those *married* are,

Maria-Christiana-Josepha, born May 13, 1742; married, April 8, 1766, to prince Albert of Saxony.

Mary-Amelia-Josepha, born February 26, 1746; married to the reigning duke of Parma, June 27, 1769.

Mary-Caroline-Louisa, born August 13, 1752; married, April 7, 1768, to the king of the two Sicilies.

Ferdinand-Ch.-Antoine, born June 1, 1754; married to the princess Maria-Beatrice, of Modena, and has issue.

Maria-Antonietta, born November 2, 1755; married to Lewis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French.

**ELECTORS.**] Three ecclesiastical electors, called Electoral Highnesses; and five secular ones, Most Serene Electoral Highnesses.

**ECCLESIASTICAL ELECTORS.]**

1. Frederick-Charles-Joseph, baron of Erthal, archbishop and elector of Mentz, born July 18, 1774.

2. Prince Clement of Saxony, (son of Augustus III. king of Poland,) born September 28, 1739. Archbishop and elector of Treves, February 10, 1768; also bishop of Freisingen and Augsburgh, by dispensation from the pope.

3. Maximilian-Francis, brother to the late emperor, grand master of the Teutonic order, archbishop and elector of Cologne, and bishop of Munster, born December 8, 1756.

**SECULAR ELECTORS.]**

1. Francis-Joseph-Charles, emperor of Germany, king of Hungary, Bohemia, &c. born February 3, 1768.

2. Frederick-Augustus IV. elector and duke of Saxony, born December 23, 1750; married, January 17, 1769, to the princess Amelia-Augusta, of Deux Ponts.

3. Charles-Frederick, elector and marquis of Brandenburg.

4. The prince of Deux Ponts, elector palatine, &c.
  5. George III. king of Great Britain, elector of Hanover, &c.
- SAXE-GOTHA.] Ernest-Lewis, duke of, nephew to the late princess dowager of Wales, born January 30, 1745; married, May 21, 1769, to Maria-Charlotte of Saxe-Meningen, by whom he has,
1. Ernest, born February 27, 1770.
  2. Emilius-Leopold, born November 24, 1772.
- His brother,
- Augustus, born August 14, 1747.

MECKLENBURGH.] The house of Mecklenburgh is divided into two branches, viz.

I. Mecklenburgh Schwerin. Frederick, reigning duke, born November 9, 1717; married, in 1746, Louisa-Frederica, daughter of Frederick-Lewis, hereditary prince of Wortemburg Stutgard, born February 3, 1722; they have no issue. Issue of the late prince Lewis, by the princess Charlotte-Sophia, of Saxe-Coburgh-Saal-field.

Frederick-Francis, born December 10, 1756, sister to the reigning duke.

Princess Ulrica-Sophia, born July 1, 1723, governess of the convent of Rhune.

II. Mecklenburgh Strelitz.—Adolphus-Frederick, reigning duke, (knight of the garter,) born May 5, 1738. His brothers and sisters are,

1. Charles-Lewis-Frederick, a lieutenant-general in the Hanoverian service, born October 10, 1741; married, September 18, 1768, to Frederica-Charlotta-Louisa, of Hesse-Darmstadt, by whom he had issue,
  1. Carolina-Georgina-Louisa-Frederica, born November 17, 1769.
  2. Theresia-Matilda-Amelia, born April 5, 1778.
2. Ernest-Gotlob-Albert, major-general in the Hanoverian service, and governor of Zell, born August 7, 1742.
3. Christiana-Sophia-Albertina, born December 6, 1735.
4. Charlotte, queen consort of Great Britain, born May 19, 1744; married September 8, 1761; crowned September 22, 1761.

## THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY DUCAL PRUSSIA.

LAT. 52°-40—to 55°-50 N.  
LONG. 16°-00—to 23°-23 E.

Containing 22,244 SQUARE MILES, with 67 INHABITANTS in each—The whole DOMINIONS 60,000 SQUARE MILES, with 104 INHABITANTS to each.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, } THIS country is bounded to the North by part  
AND EXTENT. } of Samogitia; to the south, by Poland  
Proper and Masovia; to the east, by part of Lithuania; and to the West, by  
Polish Prussia and the Baltic. Its greatest length is about 160 miles, and breadth  
about 112.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, } The name of Prussia is probably derived from  
AND RIVERS. } the Borutli, its ancient inhabitants. The air is  
wholesome, and the soil fruitful in corn, and abounding with pit-coal and fuel.  
Its animal productions are horses, sheep, deer and game, wild boars and foxes.

Its rivers and lakes are well stored with fishes; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil conglutated with vitriol, is found on its coast towards the Baltic. The woods furnish the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, besides quantities of pot-ashes. The rivers here sometimes do damage by inundations; the principal are the Vistula, the Pregel, the Memel or Mammel, the Passarge, and the Elbe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } As Prussia, since the beginning  
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } of the present century, has become  
a most respectable power upon the continent of Europe, it may be proper to  
deviate from the usual plan, and to bring before the eye the whole of his Prussian  
majesty's territories, which lie scattered in other divisions of Germany, Poland,  
Switzerland, and the northern kingdoms, with their names; all which will be  
found in the following table.

Protestants.	Countries' Names.	Square Miles.	Pop.	Pop.	Chief Cities.
Poland.	Ducal Prussia	9,950	260	112	Königsberg
	Royal Prussia	6,400	118	104	Kilbing
	Brandenburg	10,910	215	100	Berlin
Up. Saxony.	Pomerania	4,820	150	5	Stettin
	Swedish Pomerania	2,991	90	58	Stettin
Lo. Saxony.	Magdeburg	1,535	63	50	Magdeburg
	Halberstadt	450	42	17	Halberstadt
Bohemia	Glatz	550	38	23	Glatz
	Silesia	10,000	196	92	
	Minden	695	22	26	Minden.
Westphalia.	Ravensburg	525	38	34	Ravensburg
	Lingen	120	15	11	Lingen
	Cleves	630	43	20	Cleves
	Meurs	35	10	6	Meurs
	Mark	980	52	43	Mark
	East Friesland	690	46	32	Emden
Netherlands.	Lippe	25	8	4	Lippstadt
	Gülch	528	44	24	Gülch
Switzerland.	Tecklenburg	36	12	6	Tecklenburg
	Gelders	360	34	23	Gelders
	Neufchatel	320	32	20	Neufchatel
Total—		61,281			

Besides a great part of Silesia, which the late king of Prussia, under various pretences, hath wrested from Austria; availing himself also of the internal troubles in Poland, he, by virtue of no other right than that which a powerful army confers on every tyrant, seized upon Thorn, with the countries on the Vistula, the Neiter, and other territories contiguous to his own dominions, close to the walls of Dantzic. These acquisitions may be traced in the map.

I shall here confine myself to Prussia as a kingdom, because his Prussian majesty's other dominions fall under the description of the countries where they lie.

The inhabitants of this kingdom alone were, by Dr. Busching, computed to amount to 635,998 persons capable of bearing arms. Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 colonists have removed thither from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number 17,000 were Saltzburghers. These emigrants have built 400 small villages, 11 towns, 86 seats, and 50 new churches;

and have founded 1000 village schools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from those of the rest of Germany. The same may be said of their customs and diversions.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS, } The religion of Prussia is very tolerant. The estab-  
AND ACADEMIES. } lished religions are those of the Lutherans and Cal-  
vinists, but chiefly the former; but papists, antipædobaptists, and almost all other  
sects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns, abounds in schools.  
An university was founded at Königsberg in 1544.

CITIES.] The kingdom of Prussia is divided into the German and Lithuanian departments; the former of which contain 280 parishes, and the latter 105.

Königsberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, seated on the river Pregel, over which it has seven bridges, is about 84 miles from Dantzic. According to Dr. Busching, this city is seven miles in circumference, and contains 3,800 houses, and about 60,000 inhabitants. This computation is perhaps a little exaggerated, because it supposes, at an average, near sixteen persons in every house. Königsberg has ever made a considerable figure in commerce and shipping, its river being navigable for ships; of which 493 foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, besides 298 coasters; and 373 floats of timber were, in the compass of that year, brought down the Pregel. This city, besides its college or university, which contains 38 professors, boasts of magnificent palaces, a town-house, and exchange; not to mention gardens and other embellishments. It has a good harbour, and citadel, which is called Fredericburg, and is a regular square.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } See Germany.  
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. }

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Prussian manufactures are not inconsiderable: they consist of glass, iron-work, paper, gunpowder, copper, and brass mills; manufactures of cloth, camblet, linen, silk, stockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of naval stores, amber, linseed and hempsed, oatmeal, fish, mead, tallow, and caviar; and it is said that 500 ships are loaded every year with those commodities, chiefly from Königsberg.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Prussian majesty is absolute through all his dominions, and he avails himself to the full of his power. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of state, viz. 1. The great master; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marshal. There are also some other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The states consist, 1. Of counsellors of state; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Besides these institutions, his late majesty erected a board for commerce and navigation.

REVENUES.] His Prussian majesty, by means of the happy situation of his country, its inland navigation, and the skilful regulations of his predecessor, derives an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the seat of boors and barbarism. It is said, that amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues arise from his demesnes, his duties of customs and tolls, and the subsidies yearly granted by the several states; but the exact sum is not known: though we may conclude that it is very considerable, from the immense charges of the late war. The revenue, which the king draws from Silesia, amounts annually to 5,854,632 rix-dollars, and after deducting the expences of the military establishment, and all others, there is a net revenue of 1,554,632 rix-dollars. The revenues were much encreased by the conquest of Polish Prussia: exclusive of its fertility, commerce, and population, its local situation is of vast importance, as it lies between his German dominions and his kingdom of Prussia.

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By this acquisition, his dominions are compact, and his troops may march from Berlin to Koningsberg without interruption.

**MILITARY STRENGTH.]** The Prussian army, even in time of peace, consists of about 180,000 of the best disciplined troops in the world; and during the last war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men. But this great military force, however it may aggrandize the power and importance of the king, is utterly inconsistent with the interests of the people. The army is chiefly composed of provincial regiments; the whole Prussian dominions being divided into circles or cantons; in each of which, one or more regiments, in proportion to the size and populousness of the division, have been originally raised, and from it the recruits continue to be taken; and each particular regiment is always quartered, in the time of peace, near the canton from which its recruits are drawn. Whatever number of sons a peasant may have, they are all liable to be taken into the service except one, who is left to assist in the management of the farm. The rest wear badges from their childhood, to mark that they are obliged to enter into the service whenever they are called upon. But the maintaining so large an army occasioned such a drain from population, and such a withdrawing of strength from the labours of the earth, that the late king endeavoured to save his own peasantry, by raising as many recruits as he could from other countries. These foreign recruits remain continually with the regiments in which they are placed; while the native Prussians have every year some months of furlough, during which they return to labour in their native villages.

**ARMS, AND ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.]** The royal arms of Prussia are argent, an eagle displayed, sable, crowned, or, for Prussia. Azure, the imperial sceptre, or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle displayed, gules, with semicircular wreaths, for the marquise of Brandenburg. To these are added the respective arms of the several provinces subject to the Prussian crown.

There are four orders of knighthood; the order of "*Concord*," instituted by Christian-Ernest, margrave of Brandenburg, in the year 1660, to distinguish his exertions for restoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. The badge is a gold cross of eight points, enamelled white; in the centre a medal bearing two olive branches passing saltier-wise through two crowns, and circumscribed with the word "*Concordans*." The cross is surmounted with an electoral crown, and is worn pendent to an orange ribband. Frederick III. elector of Brandenburg, and afterwards king of Prussia, instituted, in 1685, the order of "*Generosity*." The knights wear a cross of eight points enamelled blue, having in the centre this motto, "*La Generosité*," pendent to a blue ribband.

The same prince instituted the order of the "*Black Eagle*" on the day of his coronation at Koningsberg, in the year 1700; the sovereign is always grand-master, and the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, is limited to thirty, who must be admitted into the order of "*Generosity*," previous to their receiving this, unless they be sovereign princes. The ensign of the order is a gold cross, of eight points, enamelled blue, having at each angle a spread eagle, enamelled black, being the arms of Prussia, and charged in the centre with a cypher of the letters *F. R.* Each knight commonly wears this pendent to a broad orange ribband (out of respect to the Orange family) worn sash-wise over the left shoulder, and a silver star embroidered on the left side of the coat, whereon is an escutcheon, containing a spread eagle, holding in one claw a chaplet of laurel, and in the other a thunder-bolt, with this motto in gold letters round, "*Suum cuique*." On days of ceremony, the knights wear the badge pendent to a collar, composed of round pieces of gold, each enamelled with four cyphers of the letters *F. R.* in the centre of the piece is set

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set a diamond, and over each cypher a regal crown, internixed alternately with eagles displayed, enamelled black, and holding in their claws thunderbolts of gold. The knights' caps are of black velvet with white plumes.

The order of "*Merit*" was instituted by the late king in the year 1740, to reward the merit of persons either in arms or arts, without distinction of birth, religion, or country; the king is sovereign, and the number of knights unlimited. The ensign is a cross of eight points, enamelled blue, and edged with gold, having in the centre a cypher of the letters *F. R.* and in each angle an eagle displayed, black, on the two upper points the regal crown of Prussia; on the reverse, the motto, "*Pour le Merite.*" The badge is worn round the neck, pendent to a black ribbon, edged with silver.

**HISTORY.]** The ancient history of Prussia, like that of other kingdoms, is lost in the clouds of romance. The early inhabitants, a brave and warlike people descended from the Sclavonians, refused to submit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to Christianity, wanted to subject them to slavery. They made a noble stand against the kings of Poland; one of whom, Boleslaus IV. was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent, and pagans, till the time of the crusades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1227, undertook their conversion by the edge of the sword, on condition of having, as a reward, the property of the country when conquered. A long series of wars followed, in which the ancient inhabitants of Prussia were almost extirpated by the religious knights, who, in the thirteenth century, after committing the most incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. After a vast waste of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order, and Casimir IV. king of Poland, who had undertaken the cause of the oppressed people; by which it was agreed, that the part now called Polish Prussia should continue a free province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand-master should possess the other part, acknowledging themselves vassals of Poland. This gave rise to fresh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unsuccessfully, to throw off their vassalage. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the last grand-master of the Teutonic order, laid aside the habit of his order, embraced Lutheranism, and concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the east part of Prussia (formerly called, for that reason, Ducal Prussia), but to be held as a fief of Poland, and to descend to his male heirs; and upon failure of his male issue, to his brothers and their male heirs. Thus ended the sovereignty of the Teutonic order, after it had subsisted near 300 years. In 1657, the elector Frederick-William of Brandenburg, deservedly called the Great, had Ducal Prussia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Wela and Bromberg, it was freed, by John Casimir, king of Poland, from vassalage.

As the protestant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that persuasion, the protestant interest favoured them so much, that Frederick, the son of Frederick-William the Great, was raised to the dignity of king of Prussia, in a solemn assembly of the states, proclaimed, January 18, 1701, and soon after acknowledged as such by all the powers of Christendom. His grandson, the late king of Prussia, in the memoirs of his family, is silent concerning this first king's talents for government, but expatiates on those of his own father, Frederick-William, who succeeded in 1713. The latter certainly was a prince of strong natural parts, and greatly increased the revenues of his country, but too often at the expence of humanity. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is said to have left seven

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millions sterling in his treasury, which enabled his son Frederick III. by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful dexterity by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the present age. Frederick improved the arts of peace, as well as of war, and distinguished himself as a poet, philosopher, and legislator. The principal transactions of his reign have already been related in our account of the history of Germany. In the year 1783 he published a rescript, signifying his pleasure that no kneeling in future should be practised in honour of his person, assigning for his reason, that this act of humiliation was not due but to the Divinity: and vast sums were expended by him in draining marshes, establishing factories, settling colonies, relieving distress, and in other purposes of philanthropy and policy.

The celebrated Germanic union, for the preservation of the constitution, concluded in the last year of the life of Frederick III. is said to be in part the work of that great man. He conceived the first idea of it in the year 1784, and it was publicly concluded in July 1785. This patriotic union had no other end but to secure and preserve the ancient and venerable constitution of the empire.

It is self-evident that the happy state of the Prussian monarchy will depend always on the genius and activity of its sovereigns: a Frederick III. as styled by foreign writers\*, was absolutely necessary in order to give to his new kingdom a degree of power, which puts it on a level with the first monarchies of Europe; to assure it a existence, which will be so long permanent as the maxims of good government are observed; and to make it perform the brilliant, although dangerous and difficult part, which it is obliged to sustain on account of the local position of the monarchy, for its own proper preservation, and that of the balance of Germany and of Europe. Frederick III. king of Prussia, and elector of Brandenburg, after a reign of 46 years, died August 17, 1786, aged 75, and was succeeded by his nephew the present king, who has made many wise and salutary regulations for his subjects, and hath established a court of honour to prevent the diabolical practice of duelling in his dominions.

The exertions of Prussia against France have been already related in our account of that nation. If we credit the French accounts, the alliance between Prussia and Austria is condemned by all the great Prussian statesmen; has produced a political schism in the court of Berlin; and a general discontent prevails in Prussia. The war exhausts the treasures laid up by the great Frederick; and the recruiting of the army has become so difficult, that the ministers cannot, without endangering the interior tranquillity, send the king an army of 30,000 men, which he ordered. In consequence of this, together with the affairs of Poland requiring immediate attention, the Prussian monarch has been obliged to withdraw from the great cause of the allies. Jealousies certainly prevail between the courts of Berlin and Vienna.

The conduct of Prussia with regard to Poland we can hardly explain; and it would apparently have been more for the interest of the former to have erected the latter as a formidable independent barrier against Russia and Austria, than to have exposed itself to the enormous and increased power of Russia. Prussia is no longer guided by the councils of the great Frederick; and should that kingdom continue to pursue an impolitic system of conduct, the inferiority of its extent and resources will cause it to vanish as suddenly as it arose.

Frederick IV. king of Prussia, and elector of Brandenburg, born September 25, 1744; married, July 14, 1765, to the princess Elizabeth-Christiana Ulrica, of Brun-

\* His late majesty was the third elector of Brandenburg, but only the second king of Prussia of the name of Frederick, or, as he wrote it, Federick;

the first name signifying rich by war, the second rich in peace. In his own memoirs, he styles himself Federick II.

wic Wolfenbuttle. dly on July 14, 1769 to Frederica-Louisa, of Hesse Darmstadt; succeeded his uncle Frederick III. August 17, 1786.

Issue by the first marriage.

Frederica- Charlotta-Ulrica-Catharine, born May 7, 1767; married, September 29, 1791, to the duke of York, the second son of his Britannic majesty.

Issue by the latter marriage.

1. Frederick-William, born August 3, 1770.
2. Frederick-Lewis-Charles, born August 3, 1773.
3. Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born November 18, 1774; married, October 1, 1791, to the hereditary prince of Orange.
4. Frederick-Christian-Augustus, born May 1, 1780.
5. Another prince, born December 20, 1781.
6. Another prince, born July, 1783.

Queen dowager, Elizabeth-Christiana of Brunswic Wolfenbuttle, born November 8, 1715.

Brother and Sister to the king.

1. Frederick-Charles-Henry, born December 30, 1747.
2. Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born in 1751; and married in 1767, to the present prince of Orange.

## The KINGDOM of BOHEMIA.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 478 }	between { 48 and 52 North latitude.
Breadth 322 }	{ 12 and 19 East longitude.

**BOUNDARIES.]** BOUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg, on the north; by Poland and Hungary, on the east; by Austria and Bavaria, on the South; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, on the west; formerly comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Silesia; and, 3. Moravia.

Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Miles.	Sq. M.
1. Bohemia Proper, W. mostly subject to the House of Austria.	Prague, E. lon. 14-20. N. lat. 50. Koningsgratz, E. Glatz, E. subject to the king of Prussia. Egra, W.	Length 162 Breadth 142	} 12,060
2. Silesia, East, mostly subject to the king of Prussia	Breslaw, E. lon. 17. N. lat. 51-16. Glogaw, N. Crossen, N. Jagendorf, S. Tropaw, S. subject to the house of Austria. Teschen, S. subject to the house of Austria.	Length 196 Breadth 92	} 10,250
			3. Moravia

Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Miles.	Sq. M.						
3. Moravia, S. entirely subject to the house of Austria	<table border="0"> <tr> <td style="font-size: 3em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td> <td style="vertical-align: middle;">Olmutz, E. lon. 16-45, N. lat. 49-40.</td> <td rowspan="2" style="font-size: 3em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td> <td rowspan="2" style="vertical-align: middle;">5424</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="vertical-align: middle;">}</td> <td style="vertical-align: middle;">Brin, middle of Igla, S. W.</td> </tr> </table>	}	Olmutz, E. lon. 16-45, N. lat. 49-40.	}	5424	}	Brin, middle of Igla, S. W.	Length 120 Breadth 88	
}	Olmutz, E. lon. 16-45, N. lat. 49-40.	}	5424						
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**SOIL AND AIR.]** The air of Bohemia Proper is not thought so wholesome as that of the rest of Germany, though its soil and produce are pretty much the same.

**MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS.]** Bohemia, though almost surrounded with mountains, contains none of note or distinction; its woods are many, and the chief rivers are the Elbe, Muldaw, and Eger.

**METALS AND MINERALS.]** This kingdom contains rich mines of silver, quick-silver, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, and saltpetre. Its chief manufactures are linen, copper, iron, and glass.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.]** About 150 years ago, Bohemia was computed to contain near 3,000,000 of inhabitants; but they are thought at present not to exceed 2,100,000. The Bohemians, in their persons, habits, and manners, resemble the Germans. There is, among them, no middle state of people; for every lord is a sovereign, and every tenant a slave. But the emperor Joseph II. generously discharged the Bohemian peasants, from the state of villanage in which they had been so long and so unjustly retained; and it will be happy if his example should be followed by the Bohemian nobility. Although the Bohemians, at present, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly distinguished themselves as intrepid assertors of civil and religious liberty; witness the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country, when it was scarcely known in any other; the many glorious defeats they gave to the Austrian power, and their generous struggles for independency. Their virtues may be considered as the causes of their decay; as no means were left unemployed by their despotic masters for breaking their spirit; a measure facilitated by their own intestine dissensions.

**RELIGION.]** Popery is the established religion of Bohemia: but the protestants, who are numerous, are now tolerated in the free exercise of their religion; and the Moravians have propagated their visionary tenets in several parts of the globe; some of whom a few years ago made profelytes in Great Britain; they have still a meeting-house in London, and obtained an act of parliament for a settlement in the plantations.

**ARCHBISHOPRICK AND BISHOPRICKS.]** Prague is the only Bohemian archbishoprick. The bishopricks are Koninggratz, Breslaw, and Olmutz.

**LANGUAGE.]** The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Slavonian, but they generally speak German.

**UNIVERSITY.]** The only university in Bohemia is that of Prague.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.]** Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the finest cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is so large, that the grand Prussian army, in its last siege, could never completely invest it. The inhabitants scarcely exceed 70,000 Christians, and about 13,000 Jews. It contains ninety-two churches and chapels, and forty cloisters. It is a place of little industry, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, some of which are fortified, but they are neither remarkable for strength nor manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia: it is well fortified, and has manufactures

tures of woollen, iron, glass, paper, and gunpowder. Bresslaw, the capital of Silesia, hath been already described among the cities of Germany.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Germany.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian constitution still subsist; but the government, under the house of Austria, is absolute. Their states are composed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and representatives of towns. Their sovereigns, of late, have not been fond of provoking them by ill usage, as they have a general aversion to the Austrians. This kingdom is frequently described as part of Germany, but with little reason; for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it subject to any of its laws. What gives some colour to this mistake is, that the king of Bohemia is the first secular elector of the empire, and their kings have been elected emperors of Germany for many years.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Bohemia are whatever the sovereign is pleased to exact from the states of the kingdom, when they are annually assembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000*l.* a-year.

ARMS.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and passed in saltier, crowned, langued, and armed, or.

HISTORY.] The Bohemian nobility used to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany sometimes imposed a king upon them, and at length usurped that throne themselves. In the year 1438, Albert II. of Austria received three crowns, Hungary, the Empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414, John Hufs and Jerome of Prague, two of the first reformers, and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Constance, though the emperor of Germany had promised them his protection. This occasioned an insurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council-chamber; and the famous Zisca, assembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in several engagements, and drove the Imperialists out of the kingdom. The divisions of the Hussites among themselves enabled the emperors to keep possession of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the Imperial yoke, by electing, in the year 1618, a protestant king in the person of the prince Palatine, son-in-law to James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and, being stripped of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for subsistence. Since the war of thirty years, which desolated the whole empire, the Bohemians have remained subject to the house of Austria.

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H U N G A R Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	300	between { 16-35 and 26 East lon. } { 44-50 and 49-35 North lat. }	} 36,060.
Breadth	200		
Containing 87,575 SQUARE MILES, with 57 Inhabitants to each.			

**BOUNDARIES.]** THAT part of Hungary which belongs to the house of Austria (for it formerly included Transylvania, Slavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries), is bounded by Poland, on the North; by Transylvania and Walachia, East; by Slavonia, South; and by Austria and Moravia, West.

The kingdom of Hungary is usually divided into the Upper and Lower Hungary.

UPPER HUNGARY, NORTH OF THE DANUBE. Chief Towns.	LOWER HUNGARY, SOUTH OF THE DANUBE. Chief Towns.
Prefburg, situate on the Danube, E. lon. 17-30. N. lat. 48-20. Newhaufel, N. W. Leopoldstadt, N. W. Chremnits, N. W. Schemnits, in the middle. Esperies, N. Cafchaw, N. Tokay, N. E. Zotmar, N. E. Unguar, N. E. Mongats, N. E. Waradin, Great, E. Segedin, S. E. Agria, in the middle. Pelt, on the Danube, opposite to Buda.	Buda, on the Danube, E. long. 19-20. N. lat. 47-40. Gran, on the Danube, above Buda.  Comorra, on the Danube, in the island of Schut. Raab, on the Danube, opposite to the island of Schut. Attenburg, W. opposite to the island of Schut. Weiffenburg, or Alba Regalis, situated E. of the lake called the Platten Sea. Kanifba, S. W. of the Platten Sea. Five-Churches, N. of the river Drave.

To which may be added Temeswar, which has been considered as distinct from Hungary, because it was formerly governed by an independent king; and was several times in possession of the Turks; but it was incorporated with the kingdom of Hungary in 1778. The province of Temeswar is 94 miles long, and 67 broad: it has been divided into four districts, Cfadat, Temeswar, Werschez, and Lugos. Temeswar, the principal town, is situated E. lon. 22-15. N. lat. 45-54.

**AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.]** The air, and consequently the climate, of the southern parts of Hungary is found to be unhealthy, owing to its numerous lakes and marshes; but the northern parts being mountainous, the air is sweet and wholesome. No country in the world can boast a richer soil than that plain, which extends 300 miles from Prelburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, grass, excellent plants, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, hops, pulse, millet, buckwheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, chestnuts,

nuts, and wood: corn is in such plenty, that it sells for one-sixth part of its price in England.

**RIVERS.]** These are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyssie, Merish, and the Temes.

**WATER.]** Hungary contains several lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains of considerable extent, and abounding with fish. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are esteemed the most sovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raised by the Turks when in possession of the country, particularly those of Buda, are suffered to go to decay.

**MOUNTAINS.]** The Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the chief in Hungary, though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their sides grow the richest grapes in the world.

**METALS AND MINERALS.]** Hungary is remarkably well stocked with both. It abounds not only with gold and silver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quicksilver, chrysolite, and terra sigillata. Before Hungary became the seat of destructive wars between the Turks and Christians, or fell under the power of the house of Austria, those mines were furnished with proper works and workmen, and produced vast revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and silver employed mint-houses, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and other parts of Europe; but all those mines are now greatly diminished in their value.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.]** Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horses, generally mouse-coloured, and highly esteemed by military officers, so that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Presburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the same with those of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, particularly Tokay, are deemed the most precious in Europe.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.]** It was late before the northern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary, and some of the descendants of their legionary forces are still to be distinguished in the inland parts. Before the Turks got possession of Constantinople, Hungary was one of the most flourishing kingdoms in Europe; and if the house of Austria should give proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become so again. Both Hungaries at present, exclusive of Transylvania and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themselves. They pique themselves on being descended from those heroes, who formed the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. In their persons they are well made. Their fur caps, their close-bodied coats, girded by a sash, and their cloak or mantle, which is so contrived as to buckle under the arm, so that the right hand may be always at liberty, give them an air of military dignity. The men have their beards, but preserve their whiskers on their upper lips. Their usual arms are a broad sword, and a kind of pole-ax, besides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handsomer than those of Austria, and their fable drefs with sleeves strait to their arms, and their stays fastened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are well known to the French and English ladies. Both men and women, in what they call the mine-towns, wear fur and even sheep-skin dresses. The inns upon the roads are miserable hovels, and even those seldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peasants, and their poultry, live in the same apartment with their owners. The gout and the fever, owing to the unwholesomeness of the air, are the predominant diseases in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks, and

and other strangers settled in their country, the flatness of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diversions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their ancestors, even since the beginning of the present century, were so jealous of their liberties, that, rather than be tyrannised over by the house of Austria, they often put themselves under the protection of the Ottoman court; but their fidelity to the late empress-queen, notwithstanding the provocation they received from her house, will be always remembered to their honour.

The inhabitants of Temeswar are computed at about 450,000. There are in this country many faraons, or gypsies, supposed to be real descendants of the ancient Egyptians, whom they are said to resemble in their features, in their propensity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and customs; and it is asserted, that the lascivious dance of Isis, the worship of onions, many famous Egyptian superstitions and specifics, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are still in use among the female gypsies in Temeswar.

**RELIGION.]** The established religion of the Hungarians is the Roman catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are Protestants, or Greeks; and they now enjoy the full exercise of their religious liberties.

**ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.]** The archbishoprics are Presburg, Gran, and Colozza. The bishoprics are, Great Waradin, Agria, Vefprin, Raab, and Five-Churches.

**LANGUAGE.]** As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Slavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is said to approach near the Hebrew. The better and the middlemost rank speak German, and almost all, even of the common people, speak Latin, either pure or barbarous, so that the Latin may be said to be here still a living language.

**UNIVERSITIES.]** In the universities of Firman, Buda, Raab, and Caschaw, are professors of the several arts and sciences, who used generally to be Jesuits; so that the Lutherans and Calvinists, who are more numerous than the Roman Catholics in Hungary, frequently send their youth to study in the Protestant universities of Germany.

**ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.]** The artificial curiosities of this country **NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.** consist of its bridges, baths, and mines. The bridge of Esseck built over the Danube and Drave is, properly speaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain distances. It was an important pass during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Pest; and about twenty Hungarian miles distant from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge, erected by the Romans, judged to be the most magnificent of any in the world.

One of the most remarkable natural curiosities of Hungary is a cavern in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the south, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad; its subterraneous passages consist entirely of solid rock, stretching away farther south than has been yet discovered; as far as it is possible to go, the height is found to be fifty fathoms, and the breadth twenty-six. Many wonderful particulars are related of this cavern. Astonishing rocks are common in Hungary, and some of its churches are of admirable architecture.

**CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER.]** These are greatly decayed from their **EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.** ancient magnificence; but many of the fortifications are still very strong, and kept in good order. Presburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia were kept, till lately removed to Vienna. The crown was sent, in the year 1000, by pope Silverster II. to Stephen king of Hungary, and was

was made after that of the Greek emperors; it is of solid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with 53 sapphires, 50 rubies, one large emerald, and 338 pearls. Besides these stones, are the images of the apostles and the patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a silver patriarchal cross, which was afterwards inserted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation, a bishop carries it before the king. From the cross is derived the title of apostolic king; the use of which was renewed under the reign of the empress-queen Maria-Theresa. The sceptre and the globe of the kingdom are Arabian gold; the mantle, which is of fine linen, is said to be the work of Gisele, spouse of St. Stephen, one of their early kings; the embroidered in gold the image of Jesus Christ crucified, and many other images of the patriarchs and apostles, with a number of inscriptions. The sword is two-edged, and rounded at the point. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence but its strength and fortifications; and the same may be said of Pest, which lies on the opposite side of the Danube. Raab is likewise a strong city, as are Gran and Comorra. Tokay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

**COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.]** After having mentioned the natural produce of the country, it is sufficient to say, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives consist of metals, drugs, and salt.

**CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.]** The Hungarians dislike the term of queen, and even called their late sovereign king Theresa. Their government preserves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament; and a Hungary-office, which resembles our chancery, and which resides at Vienna; as the stadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the British privy-council, but has a municipal jurisdiction, does at Presburg. Every royal town has its senate; and the Gespan chafis resemble our justices of the peace. Besides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other subordinate courts.

**MILITARY STRENGTH.]** The emperor can bring to the field, at any time, 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but seldom draws out of it above 10,000; these are generally light-horse, and well known to modern times by the name of Hussars. They are not near so large as the German horse; and therefore the Hussars stand upon their short stirrups when they strike. Their expedition and alertness have been found so serviceable in war, that the greatest powers in Europe have troops that go by the same name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the number of enemies they pretend to have killed: both horse and foot form an excellent militia, very good at a pursuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle.

**COINS.]** Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage, and there are still extant, in the cabinets of the curious, a complete series of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been discovered in this country than perhaps in any other.

**ARMS.]** The emperor, as king of Hungary, for armorial ensigns, bears quarterly, barwise argent, and rules of eight pieces.

**HISTORY.]** The Huns, after subduing this country in the middle of the third century, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. They were succeeded by the furious Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards, they by the Avari, who were followed by the Sclavi, in the beginning of the ninth century. At the close of it, the Anigours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took possession of the country. Hungary was formerly an assemblage of different states, and the first who assumed the title of king, was Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced Christianity. In his reign, the form of government

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vernment was established, and the crown rendered elective. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert ascended the throne, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but several of those conquests were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the fifteenth century, Huniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladislaus, bravely repulsed the Turks, when they invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladislaus, the Hungarians, in 1438, raised Matthias Corvinus, son of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting against Solymian, emperor of the Turks. This battle had almost proved fatal to Hungary; but the archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the sister of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he succeeded, with some difficulty, and that kingdom has ever since belonged to the house of Austria, though by its constitution its crown ought to be elective. For the rest of the Hungarian history, see GERMANY.

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### TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

THESE countries appear under one division, for several reasons, and particularly because no account sufficiently exact, of their extent and boundaries, has yet been published. The most authentic is as follows: TRANSYLVANIA belongs to the house of Austria, and is bounded on the North by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the East by Moldavia and Walachia; on the South by Walachia; and on the West by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between 22 and 26 degrees of east longitude, and 45 and 48 of north latitude. Its length is extended about 180, and its breadth 120 miles; and contains nearly 14,400 square miles, surrounded on all sides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables and animals, are almost the same with those of Hungary. The air is wholesome and temperate; but the wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanstadt, and its interior government still partakes greatly of the ancient feudal system, being composed of many independent states and princes, who owe little more than a nominal subjection to the Austrians. Papists, Lutherans, Calvinists, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other sectaries, here enjoy their several religions. Transylvania is thought to add but little to the Austrian revenue, though it exports some metals and salt to Hungary. The other large places are Sageswar, Millenback, and Newmark. All sorts of provisions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanstadt is a large, strong, and well built city, as are Claufenburg and Weisseburgh. The seat of government is at Hermanstadt, and the governor is assisted by a council made up of Roman catholics, Calvinists, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by summons, and receives the commands of the sovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonstrances and representations in case of grievances.

Transylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long baffled the Roman arms. It was over-run by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. Their descendants retain the same military character. The population of the country is not ascertained; but if the Transylvanians can bring to the field, as has been asserted, 30,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants must be considerable. At present its military force is reduced to six regi-

ments

ments of 1500 men each; but it is well known, that, during the last two wars in which the house of Austria was engaged, the Transylvanians did great services. Hermantadt is its only bishoprick; and the Transylvanians at present seem to trouble themselves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman catholic is the established church. Stephen I. king of Hungary, introduced Christianity there about the year 1000, and the country was afterwards governed by a Hungarian vauvod, or viceroy. The various revolutions in their government prove the impatience of the Transylvanians under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania, as also of Sclavonia, to the house of Austria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal aristocracy, which their sovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October 1784, on account of the real or feigned oppressions of the nobility, near 16,000 assembled and committed great depredations on those obnoxious to them. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to escape with their lives. The revolters were disappointed in their attempt on Claufenburg; and afterwards offered to separate and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vassalage. The insurrection thus terminated, with the punishment of the ring-leaders.

SCLAVONIA lies between the 17th and 21st degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 46th of north latitude. It is thought to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and contains about 10,000 square miles. It is bounded by the Drave on the North, by the Danube on the East, by the Save on the South, and by Stiria in Austria on the West. The reason why Hungary, Transylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, subject to the house of Austria in those parts, contain a surprising variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is because liberty here made its last stand against the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered into those quarters. The thicknes of the woods, the rapidity of the rivers, and the strength of the country, favoured their resistance; and their descendants, notwithstanding the power of the Turks, the Austrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, still retain the same spirit of independency. Without minding the arrangements made by the sovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them most at liberty. That they are generous as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the house of Austria, which, till the last two wars, never was sensible of their value and valour; insomuch that it is well known, that they preserved the pragmatic sanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians formerly gave so much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought the word *slave* took its original from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Transylvania, yet the ravages of war are still visible in the face of the country, which lies in a great measure unimproved. The Sclavonians, from their ignorance, are zealous Roman catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated among them. Here we meet with two bishopricks; that of Pofega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no universities. Esbeck is a large and strong town, remarkable, as before noticed, for its great wooden bridge over the Drave, built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin are places noted in the wars between the Austrians and Turks. The inhabitants are composed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vast number of other nations, whose names are scarcely known even to the Austrians themselves, but from the military muster-rolls. In 1746, Sclavonia was united to Hungary, and the States now send representatives to the diet of Hungary.

CROATIA lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is 80 miles in length, and 70 in breadth, and

contains about 2,600 square miles. The manners, government, religion, language and customs of the Croats, are similar to those of the Slavonians and Transylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and as such are famed in modern history, under the name of Pandours, and various other designations. The truth is, the house of Austria finds its interest in suffering them, and the neighbouring nations, to live in their own manner. Their towns are blended with each other, there scarcely being any distinction of boundaries. Carlsbadt is a place of some note, but Zagrab (already mentioned) is the capital of Croatia. All the sovereignty exercised over them by the Austrians seems to consist in the military arrangements for bringing them occasionally into the field. A viceroy presides over Croatia, jointly with Slavonia, and

Hungarian DALMATIA. This lies in the upper part of the Adriatic sea, and consists of five districts, in which the most remarkable places are the two following: Segna, which is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and art, and is situated near the sea, in a mountainous and barren soil. The bishop of this place is a suffragan to the archbishop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches, and two convents. The governor resides in the old palace, called the Royal Castle. 2. Ottofchatz, a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortress where the governor, and the greatest part of the garrison reside, is surrounded with a wall, and some towers; but the rest of the buildings, which are mean, are erected on piles in the water; so that one neighbour cannot visit another without a boat.

Near Segna dwell the Uscocs, a people, who, being galled by oppression, escaped out of Dalmatia, from whence they obtained the name of Uscocs, from the word Senco, which signifies a *deserter*. They are also called springers, or leapers, from the agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along this rugged and mountainous country. Some of them live in scattered houses, and others in large villages. They are a rough, savage people, large-bodied, courageous, and given to rapine; but their visible employment is grazing. They use the Walachian language, and in their religious sentiments and mode of worship approach nearest to the Greek church; but some of them are Roman catholics.

A part of Walachia belongs also to the emperor, as well as to the Turks, which lies to the east of Transylvania, and its principal towns are Tregonitz, Bucharett, and Severin.

## POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 700 }	between 16 and 34 east longitude. 46 and 57 north latitude.
Breadth 680 }	

Containing 160,800 SQUARE MILES, with 55 INHABITANTS to each.

BOUNDARIES.] BEFORE the extraordinary partition of this country in the year 1772, and the second dismemberment of it in 1793, the Kingdom of Poland, with the great duchy of Lithuania annexed (part of ancient Sarmatia), was bounded on the North by Livonia, Muscovy, and the Baltic sea; on the East, by Muscovy; on the South, by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary; on the West, by Germany: and, had the form of its government been as

perfect as its situation was compact, it might have been one of the most powerful kingdoms in Europe. Its grand divisions were,

Poland.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Protestants.	Courland, sub- ject to Russia.	4,414	174	80	Mittaw
	Lithuania	64,800	333	310	Wilna { Great part of this district is now possessed by Russia.
Papists.	Podolia,	29,000	360	120	Kaminleck
	Volhynia,	25,000	305	150	Lucko
	Great Poland,	19,200	208	180	Gnesna
	Red Russia,	25,200	232	185	Lemberg { Now chiefly subject to Austria.
	Little Poland,	18,300	230	130	Cracow
	Polesia,	14,000	186	97	Breslci
	Masovia,	8,400	152	90	WARSAW { E. lon. 21-5. N. lat. 52-15.
	Samogitia, Prussia Royal, } or Polish Prussia, }	6,400	118	104	Elbing, now subject to Prussia.
Polachia,	4,000	133	42	Bielh	
Total—		226,414			

Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, in Prussia Royal, are styled free cities, and were under the protection of Poland; the two last have been seized by the king of Prussia, and most of the privileges of the first.

**NAME.]** It is generally thought that Poland takes its name from Polu, or Pole, a Slavonian word, signifying a country fit for hunting, for which none was formerly more proper, on account of its plains, woods, and game of every kind.

**CLIMATE.]** The air of Poland is such as may be expected from so extensive but level a climate. In the northern parts it is cold, but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which separate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlasting snow, which has been known to fall in the midst of summer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, but the air is rather insalubrious by reason of the numerous woods and morasses.

**SOIL, PRODUCE, AND WATERS.]** Poland is in general a level country, and the soil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vast quantities that are sent from thence down the Vistula, to Dantzic, and which are bought up by the Dutch, and other nations. The pastures of Poland, especially in Podolia, are extremely rich. Here are mines of silver, copper, iron, salt, and coals; Lithuania abounds in iron ochre, black agate, several species of copper and iron pyrites, and red and grey granite, false precious stones, and marine petrifications. The interior parts of Poland contain forests which furnish timber in such great quantities, that it is employed in house-building, instead of bricks, stone, and tiles. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and some grapes, are produced in Poland, and are excellent when they meet with culture; but their wine seldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clay fit for pipes and earthen ware. The water of many springs is boiled into salt. The virtues of a spring, in the Palatinate of Cracow, which increases and decreases with the moon, are said to be wonderful for the preservation of life; and it is reported, that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100, and some of them to 150 years of age. This spring is inflammable, and by applying a torch to it, it flames like the subtilest spirit of wine. The flame, however, dances on the surface, without heating the water; and if left unattended,

guished, it communicates itself, by subterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees, in a neighbouring wood, which it consumes; and about 41 years ago, the flames are said to have lasted for three years, before they could be entirely extinguished.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of Poland are, the Vistula or Weyssel, the Neisser, Neiper, or Boristhenes, the Bog, and Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland is Gopto, in the Palatinate of Byzetty; and Birals, or the White Lake, which is said to dye those who wash in it of a swarthy complexion.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. } The vegetable productions of Poland have been } already mentioned under the article of SOIL, though } some are peculiar to itself, particularly a kind of manna (if it can be called a vegetable) which in May and June the inhabitants sweep into sieves with the dew, and it serves for food, dressed various ways. A great quantity of yellow amber is frequently dug up in Lithuania, in pieces as large as a man's fist, supposed to be the production of a resinous pine.

The forests of Warsovia, or Masovia, contain plenty of uri, or buffaloes, whose flesh the Poles powder, and esteem it an excellent dish. Horses, wolves, bears, the glouton, lynx, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Polish forests; and there is a species of wild horses and asses, and wild oxen, that the nobility of the Ukraine, as well as natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, resembling a hart, with spots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the best furs in the country. The flesh of the Polish elk forms the most delicious part of their greatest feasts. His body is of the deer-make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high, and feet broad and cloven, the horns large, rough and broad, like a wild goat's. Naturalists have observed, that upon dissecting an elk, there was found in its head some large flies with its brains almost eaten away; and it is an observation sufficiently attested, that in the large woods and wildernesses of the North, this poor animal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a larger sort of flies, that, through its ears, attempt to take up their winter quarters in its head. This persecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling-sickness, when it is frequently taken, which would otherwise prove no eaty matter.

Poland produces a creature called bohac: it resembles a guinea-pig, but seems to be of the beaver kind. They are noted for digging holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occasionally for food, till April: they have separate apartments for their provisions, lodgings, and their dead; they live together by 10 or 12 in a herd. We do not perceive that Poland contains any species of birds peculiar to itself; only we are told that the quails there have green legs, and that their flesh is reckoned unwholesome. Lithuania is rich in birds; among those of prey, are the eagle and vulture. The *reniz*, or little species of titmouse, is frequently found in those parts, famous for the wonderful structure of its pendent nest, formed in the shape of a long purse, with amazing art.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } Some authors have supposed Po- } land and Lithuania to contain 14,000,000 } of inhabitants: and when we consider that the Poles have no colonies, and some- } times have enjoyed peace for many years together, and that not fewer than } 2,000,000 Jews are said to inhabit there, perhaps this calculation is not exagger- } ated. But since the partition and dismemberment of the kingdom in 1772, the } number was reduced to 9,000,000 of which 600,000 are Jews. The provinces } taken by Russia are the largest, by Austria the most populous, and by Prussia the } most commercial. The Russian contain 1,500,000; the Austrian 2,500,000, and } the Prussian about 800,000, amounting to about 5,000,000 souls separated from } their

their ancient kingdom. But from the second dismemberment of this country in 1793, the population must be much more diminished.

The Poles, in their persons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their shapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honest, and hospitable; and their women sprightly, yet modest, and submissive to their husbands. Their mode of salute is to incline their heads, and to strike their breast with one of their hands, while they stretch the other towards the ground; but when a common person meets a superior, he bows his head near to the earth, and with his head touches the leg near to the heel of the person to whom he pays obedience. Their diversions are warlike and manly; vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horse, hunting, scating, bull and bear baiting. They usually travel on horseback: a Polish gentleman will not travel a stone-throw without his horse; and they are so hardy, that they will sleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in frost and snow. The Poles never lie above stairs, and their apartments are not united; the kitchen is on one side, the stable on another, the dwelling-house on the third, and the gate in the front. They content themselves with a few small beds, and if any lodge at their houses, they must carry their bedding with them. When they sit down to dinner or supper, they have their trumpets and other music playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all serving with the most profound respect; for the nobles, who are poor, frequently find themselves under the necessity of serving those that are rich: but their patron usually treats them with civility, and permits the eldest to eat with him at his table, with his cap off; and every one of them has his peasant boy to wait on him, maintained by the master of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor spoons; but every guest brings them with him; and they no sooner sit down to table, than all the doors are shut, and not opened till the company return home. It is usual for a nobleman to give his servant part of his meat, which he eats as he stands behind him, and to let him drink out of the same cup with himself. Bumpers are much in fashion. It would exceed the bounds of this work to describe the grandeur and equipages of the Polish nobility; and the reader may picture in his fancy all that is fastidious, ceremonious, expensive and thievish in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance, when they appear abroad, even to ridicule; for it is not unusual to see the lady of a Polish grandee, besides a coach and six, with a great number of servants, attended by an old gentleman usher, an old gentlewoman for her governess, and a dwarf of each sex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her coach is surrounded by a great number of flambeaux.

The Poles are divided into nobles, clergy, citizens or burghers, and peasants; the peasants are divided into two sorts, those of the crown, and those belonging to individuals. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that arises from the public posts they enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another *brothers*. They do not value titles of honour, but think a *gentleman of Poland* the highest appellation. They have many considerable privileges; and indeed the boasted Polish liberty is properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient custom and prescription. They have a power of life and death over their tenants and vassals, pay no taxes, are subject to none but the king, may chuse whom they will for their king, and lay him under what restraint they please by the *pacta conventa*; and none but they, and the burghers of some particular towns, can purchase lands. In short, they are almost entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges incompatible with a well regulated state. These great privileges make the Polish gentry powerful; and possessing large territories, with a despotic power over their tenants,

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whom they call their subjects, and transfer or assign over with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Until Casimir the Great, the lord could put his peasant to death with impunity, and when the latter had no children, considered himself as the heir, and seized all his effects. In 1347, Casimir prescribed a fine for the murder of a peasant, and enacted, that in case of his decease without issue, his next heir should inherit. But these and other regulations have proved ineffectual against the power and tyranny of the nobles, and have been either abrogated or eluded. Some of them have estates of prodigious extent, and can raise 8 or 10,000 men in their dependant towns and villages. The house of a great nobleman is a secure asylum for delinquents; for none must presume to take them from thence by force. The nobles make an extraordinary figure when they come to the diet, some of them having 5000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the senate are often determined by the sword. When great men have suits at law, the diet, or other tribunals, decide them; yet the execution of the sentence must be left to the longest sword, for the justice of the kingdom is commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they raise 5 or 6000 men of a side, plunder and burn one another's cities, and besiege castles and forts; for they think it below them to submit to the sentence of judges, without a field-battle. As to the peasants, they are born slaves, and have no notion of liberty. If one lord kills the peasant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peasant equal in value. A nobleman who is desirous of cultivating a piece of land builds a little wooden house, in which he settles a peasant and his family, giving him a cow, two horses, a certain number of geese, hens, &c. and as much corn as is sufficient to maintain him the first year, and to improve for his own future subsistence and the advantage of his lord.

The clergy have many immunities; they are all free men, and in some instances, have their own courts of justice, in which the canon law is practised. A bishop is entitled to all the privileges of a senator; was usually appointed by the king, and confirmed by the pope; but is now nominated by the king, out of three candidates chosen by the permanent council. The archbishop of Gnesna is primate, the first senator in rank, and viceroy during an interregnum. The burghers still enjoy some freedom and privileges; they chuse their own burgo-master and council, regulate their interior police, and have their own criminal courts of justice; and when prosecuted at the suit of a noble, they must be cited before the magistrate of their own towns, from whence an appeal lies only to the king in his assessorial tribunal. Without this exemption from the jurisdiction of the nobles, the burghers would long since have been reduced to a state of vassalage.

The peasants of the crown, if oppressed, may lodge a complaint in the royal court of justice, which is some check to injustice; but peasants belonging to individuals are at the absolute disposal of their master, and all their acquittions serve only to enrich him. They are indispensably obliged to cultivate the earth; are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permission of their lords; and are exposed to the casual, and frequently fatal effects of caprice and cruelty. One blessing, however, attends the wretched situation of the Polish peasants, which is their insensibility. Born slaves, and accustomed from their infancy to hardships and severe labour, the generality of them scarcely entertain an idea of better circumstances and more liberty. They regard their masters as a superior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at their severe lot. Cheerful and contented with their condition, they are ready, upon every occasion, to sacrifice themselves and their families for their master, especially if the latter takes care to feed them well. Most of them seem to think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. There are some styled German peasants, whose ancestors were indulged, on settling in

Poland,

Poland, in the use of the German laws, who enjoy several privileges not possessed by the generality of Polish peasants: their villages are better built, they possess more cattle, pay their quit rents better, and are cleaner and neater in their persons. This description of the manners and present state of the Poles has been the more circumstantial, as they bear a near resemblance, in many particulars, to those of Europe in general during the feudal ages; but their tyranny over their tenants and vassals seems to be carried to a much greater height. Lately indeed, a few nobles of enlightened understandings, have ventured to give liberty to their vassals. The first who granted this freedom, was Zamoilki, formerly great chancellor, who, in 1760, enfranchised six villages in the palatinate of Masovia, and afterwards the peasants on all his estates.

Upon signing the deed of enfranchisement of the six villages, their benevolent master intimated some apprehensions to the inhabitants, lest, encouraged by their freedom, they should fall into every species of licentiousness, and commit more disorders than when they were slaves. The simplicity and good sense of their answer is remarkable. "When we had no other property," returned they, "than the sick which we hold in our hands, we were destitute of all encouragement to a right conduct; and, having nothing to lose, acted on all occasions in an inconsiderate manner; but as soon as our houses, our lands, and our cattle, are our own, the fear of forfeiting them will be a constant restraint upon our actions."

The sincerity of this answer was manifested by the event, which hath shewn the project to be no less judicious than humane; friendly to the nobles' own interests as well as the happiness of the peasants: for it appears, that in the districts where the new arrangement hath been introduced, the population of the villages is considerably increased, and the revenues of their estates augmented in a triple proportion. Prince Stanislaus, nephew to the king of Poland, hath very lately enfranchised four villages near Warsaw, and hath not only emancipated his peasants from slavery, but condescends to direct their affairs.

Torture was abolished in Poland in 1776, by an edict of the diet, under the influence of the king. Atrocious crimes, such as murder, &c. are punished by beheading, or hanging; lesser delinquencies, by whipping, imprisonment, and hard labour: the nobles are liable only to imprisonment and death.

The inns in this country are long stables built with boards and covered with straw, without furniture or windows; there is a chamber at one end: but none can lodge there because of flies and other vermin; so that strangers generally chouse rather to sleep among the horses. Travellers are obliged to carry provisions with them; and when foreigners want a supply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith supplies them with necessaries.

It may be proper to observe in this place, that, in this country there are several persons with matted or clotted hair, which constitutes a disorder called *Plica Polonica*: it receives that denomination, because it is considered as peculiar to Poland; although it is not unfrequent in Hungary, Tartary, and several adjacent nations, and instances of it are occasionally to be found in other countries.

According to the observations of Dr. Vicat, an ingenious Swiss physician long resident in Poland, the *Plica Polonica* is supposed to proceed from an acrid humour penetrating into the hair, which is tubular: it then exudes either from its sides or extremities, and clogs the hair together. Its symptoms, more or less violent, according to the constitution of the patient, or malignity of the disease, are itchings, swellings, eruptions, ulcers, intermitting fevers, pains in the head, languor, soreness of joints, rheumatism, gout, and sometimes even convulsions, palsy, and madness. These symptoms gradually decrease as the hair becomes affected. If the patient is shaved in the head, he relapses into all the dreadful complaints which preceded the eruption of the *Plica*; and he continues to labour under them, until

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a fresh growth of hair absorbs the acrid humour. This disorder is thought hereditary, and is proved to be contagious when in a virulent state.

Many physical causes have been supposed to concur in rendering the *Plica* more frequent in these regions than in other parts. The *first* cause is the nature of the Polish air, which is rendered insalubrious by the numerous woods and morasses; and occasionally derives an uncommon keenness, even in the midst of summer, from the position of the Carpathian mountains; for the southern and south-easterly winds, which usually convey warmth in other regions, are in this chilled in the passage over their snowy summits. The *second* is unwholesome water; for although Poland is not deficient in good springs, yet the common people usually drink that which is nearest at hand. The *third* cause is the gross inattention of the natives to cleanliness; for experience shews, that those who are not negligent in their persons and habitations, are less liable to be afflicted with the *plica*, than others who are deficient in that particular. All these causes, and particularly the last, assist its propagation, inflame its symptoms, and protract its cure.

In a word, the *Plica Polonica* appears to be a contagious distemper, which, like the leprosy, stills prevails among a people ignorant in medicine, and inattentive to check its progress; but is rarely known in those countries, where proper precautions are taken to prevent its spreading.

[Dress.] The dress of the Poles is pretty singular. They shave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown, and men of all ranks generally wear large whiskers. They wear a vest which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur and girded with a sash, but the sleeves sit tight on the arm. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their stockings. They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their shirts are without collar or wristbands, and they wear neither stock nor neckcloth. Instead of shoes, they wear Turkey-leather boots, with thin soles, and deep iron heels bent like an half moon. They carry a pole-axe, and a sabre or cutlass, by their sides. When they appear on horseback, they wear over all a short cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the best quality wear fables, and others the skins of tygers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty suits of cloaths, all as rich as possible, and which descend from father to son. Were it not for our own partiality to short dresses, we must acknowledge that of the Poles to be picturesque and majestic. Charles II. of England thought of introducing the Polish dress into his court, and after his restoration wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of English broad-cloth; but discontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women comes very near to that of the men, a simple Polonaise, or long robe edged with fur; but some people of fashion, of both sexes, affect the French or English modes. As to the peasants, in winter they wear a sheep-skin with the wool inwards, and in summer a thick coarse cloth; but as to linen, they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the soles of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and in the district of Samogitia particularly, make them wear little bells before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

[RELIGION.] The number of Protestants, consisting of Lutherans and Calvinists, in the republic of Poland, is very considerable; and when these are joined to the Greek church, the whole are called *Dissidents*. At the same time, the Polish nobility, and the bulk of the nation, are tenacious of the Roman catholic religion. The treaty of Oliva, concluded in 1660, tolerated the Dissidents, and was guaranteed by the principal powers in Europe; but was so far disregarded by the Poles, that, in the year 1724, they made a public massacre of the Protestants at Thorn.

Thorn. Numerous provisions were made for the protection of the Protestants, who were persecuted, when Jews, Turks, and infidels of every kind, have been tolerated and encouraged. The monasteries in Poland are by some writers said to be 576, and the nunneries 177, besides 246 seminaries or colleges, and 31 abbeys. The clergy are possessed of a very large proportion of the lands and revenues of the kingdom, but in general, are illiterate bigots; and the monks are some of the most profligate of mankind, are often seen drunk, and led from taverns, without apprehending any disgrace to their order, or dreading the censure of their superiors, who require equal indulgence. The popish clergy have had great influence in Poland at different periods, notwithstanding the treaties and capitulations in favour of the Protestants and the members of the Greek church. Indeed, it has been chiefly owing to the influence and the conduct of the popish clergy, that the peasants in Poland have been reduced to such a state of wretched slavery.

The principles of Socinianism made a very early and considerable progress; and even before Socinus came into Poland, it is computed that there were thirty-two congregations in that republic who denied the doctrine of the Trinity. A translation of the Bible into the Polish language was published in 1572; and two years after, under the direction of the same persons, the catechism, or confession of the Unitarians, was published at Cracow. It was lately resolved between the republic and the partitioning powers, that all Dissidents should henceforth enjoy the free exercise of their religion, but continue excluded from the diet, the senate, and the permanent council. They are to have churches, but without bells; all schools and seminaries of their own; they are capable of sitting in the inferior courts of justice, and three of their communion are admitted as assessors in the tribunal, to receive appeals in religion.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Poland contains two archbishoprics, Gnesna and Lemburg. The archbishop of Gnesna, besides being primate, and during an inter-reign, prince-regent of the kingdom, is always a cardinal. The other bishops, particularly of Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

LANGUAGE.] The Polish language is a dialect of the Slavonic, and is extremely harsh, from its deficiency in vowels. The Lithuanians and Livonians have a language full of corrupted Latin words; the Ruthian and German tongues are understood in the provinces bordering on those countries.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though Copernicus, the great restorer of the true astronomical system, Vortius, and some other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet many circumstances in this country are far from being favourable to learning. Latin is spoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in some provinces. But the contempt which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever shown for learning, the servitude of the lower people, and the universal superstition among all ranks of men,—these circumstances have wonderfully retarded, and, notwithstanding the liberal efforts of his present majesty, still continue to retard the progress of letters in this kingdom.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Poland are those of Cracow, Wilna, and Posna or Posen. The first consists of eleven colleges, and has the superintendency of fourteen grammar-schools dispersed through the city. The number of students, in 1778, amounted to 600. Wilna was under the superintendance of the Jesuits; but since their suppression, the king hath established a committee of education, who superintend the schools, and direct their salaries and studies; that of Posna, was rather a Jesuits' college than an university.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] The frequent incursions of the Tartars and other barbarous nations into Poland produced a great number of ruins. Some of the women sometimes to spare their children exposed in the woods, where

we must suppose they were nursed by bears and other wild beasts, otherwise it is difficult to account for their subsistence. It is certain that such beings have been found in the woods both of Poland and Germany, divested of almost all the properties of humanity but the form. When taken, they generally went on all fours; but it is said that some of them have, by proper management, attained to the use of speech.

The salt mines of Poland consist of wonderful caverns, several hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Out of these are dug four different kinds of salts; one extremely hard, like crystal; another softer, but clearer; a third white, but brittle; these are all brackish, but the fourth is somewhat fresher. These four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow; on one side of them is a stream of salt-water, and on the other, one of fresh. The revenue, arising from those and other salt-mines, is very considerable, and formed part of the royal revenue before seized by Austria; the annual average profit of those of Wielitzka, eight miles from Cracow, was about 98,000l. sterling. Out of some mines at Itza, about 70 miles north-east of Cracow, are dug several kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potter's use, and supply all Poland with earthen ware. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the deserts of Podolia, are several grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preserved, though buried a vast number of years since, being neither so hard nor so black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits they used to wear. It is thought that this preserving quality is owing to the nature of the soil, which is dry and sandy. The artificial rarities of Poland are but few, the chief being the gold, silver, and enamelled vessels, presented by the kings and prelates of Poland, and preserved in the cathedral of Gnesna.

**CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER.** Warsaw lies on the Vistula, and almost in the centre of Poland. It is the royal residence, and contains many magnificent palaces, and other buildings, besides churches and convents. It is said to contain near 70,000 inhabitants; but a great number are foreigners. The streets are spacious, but ill paved, and the greatest part of the houses, particularly the suburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city exhibits a strong contrast of wealth and poverty, as doth every part of this unhappy country. It has little or no commerce. The same may be said of Cracow, the ancient capital; for we are told, that notwithstanding it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich salt mines, and it is said to contain fifty churches and convents, its commerce is inconsiderable. The city stands in an extensive plain watered by the Vistula, and with the suburbs occupies a vast space of ground; but both together scarcely contain 16,000 souls. It is surrounded with high brick walls, strengthened with round square towers in the ancient style of fortification, and is garrisoned with 600 Russians. Grodno, though not the capital, is the principal town in Lithuania, containing ruined palaces, falling houses, and wretched hovels, with about 7000 inhabitants, 1000 of whom are Jews; and 3000 are employed in new manufactures of cloths, camblets, linen, cotton, silk, stuffs, &c. established there by the king in 1776. He hath also established in this place an academy of physic for Lithuania, in which ten students are instructed for physic, and twenty for surgery, all taught and maintained at his own expence.

Dantzic is the capital of Polish Prutha, and is famous in history on many accounts, particularly that of its being formerly at the head of the Hanseatic association, commonly called the Hanse-towns. It is situated on the Vistula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous city; its houses generally are five stories high; and many of its streets are planted with chestnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is still a most eminent commercial city, although it seems to be somewhat past its meridian glory, which was probably about the time that the pre-

ſident de Thou wrote his much eſteemed *Hiſtoria ſui Temporis*, wherein, under the year 1607, he ſo highly celebrates its commerce and grandeur. It is a republic, claiming a ſmall adjacent territory about forty miles round it, which was under the protection of the king and the republic of Poland. Its magiſtracy, and the majority of its inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Romaniſts and Calviniſts are equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has 26 pariſhes, with many convents and hoſpitals. The inhabitants have been computed to amount to 200,000; but Dr. Buſching tells us, that in the year 1752, there died but 1846 perſons. Its own ſhipping is numerous; but the foreign ſhips conſtantly reſorting to it are more ſo, whereof 1014 arrived there in the year 1752; in which year alſo 1288 Polith veſſels came down the Viſtula, chiefly laden with corn, for its matchleſs granaries, from whence that grain is diſtributed to many foreign nations; Poland being juſtly deemed the greateſt magazine of corn in Europe, and Dantzic the greateſt port for diſtributing it: beſides which, Dantzic exports great quantities of naval ſtores. Dr. Buſching affirms, that it appears from ancient records, as early as the year 997, that Dantzic was a large commercial city.

The inhabitants of Dantzic have often changed their maſters, and have ſometimes being under the protection of the Engliſh and Dutch; but generally have ſhewn a great predilection for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being leſs likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them of their immunities, which reach even to the privilege of coining money. Though ſtrongly fortified, and poſſeſſed of 150 large braſs cannon, the town could not ſtand a regular ſiege, being ſurrounded with eminences. It 1734, the inhabitants diſcovered a remarkable attachment and fidelity towards Stanislaus, king of Poland, not only when his enemies, the Ruſſians, were at their gates, but even in poſſeſſion of their city. The reaſon why Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, have enjoyed privileges, both civil and religious, very different from thoſe of the reſt of Poland, is becauſe, not being able to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themſelves under the protection of Poland, reſerving to themſelves large and ample privileges.

This city, as well as that of Thorn, was exempted by the late king of Pruſſia from thoſe claims which he made on the neighbouring countries; notwithstanding which, he ſoon after thought proper to ſeize on the territories belonging to Dantzic, under pretence of their having been formerly part of Polith Pruſſia. He then proceeded to poſſeſs himſelf of the port-dues belonging to that city, and erected a cuſtom-houſe in the harbour, where he laid arbitrary and inſupportable duties upon goods exported and imported. To complete the ſyſtem of oppreſſion, cuſtom-houſes were erected at the very gates of Dantzic, ſo that no perſons could go in or out of the town, without being ſearched in the ſtricteſt manner. Such is the treatment which the city of Dantzic has received, though few cities have ever exiſted, which have been comprehended in ſo many general and particular treaties, and whoſe rights and liberties have been ſo frequently ſecured, and guaranteed by ſo many great powers, and by ſuch a long and regular ſucceſſion of public acts, as that of Dantzic has been. In the year 1784, it was blockaded by his troops on various pretences: by the interpoſition of the empreſs of Ruſſia, and of the king of Poland, they were withdrawn, and a negotiation carried on by deputies at Warſaw; which was concluded on the 7th of September, by which, as now acceded to by the citizens, the place and trade of the city are to be reſtored to its former ſtability. Notwithstanding this, in the year 1793, the Pruſſian troops took poſſeſſion of Dantzic; the burgomaſters and council of the city, having on the 2d of April, aſſembled at the town-houſe, at the requeſt of the king of Pruſſia, made known to every burgher and inhabitant, by public declaration, to order every perſon to keep himſelf quiet, to follow his trade and buſineſs as uſual, and to remain peaceably in his houſe, when the Pruſſian troops ſhall

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shall enter that city. The city of Thorn was also treated by the king of Prussia in the same unjust and oppressive manner, and is now added to his dominions.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief exports of Poland are all species of grain, hemp, flax, cattle, masts, planks, pitch and tar, honey, wax, potash, and tallow; its imports are foreign wines, cloths, stuffs, manufactured silks and cotton, fine linen, hardware, tin, copper, silver and gold, glass ware, furs, &c. Some linen and woollen cloths, silken stuffs, cumblets, laces, and hard-wares, are manufactured in the interior parts of Poland and Lithuania; but commerce is entirely confined to the city of Dantzic, and other towns on the Vistula and the Baltic.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been written upon this subject. It differs little from an aristocracy: hence Poland has been called a kingdom and commonwealth. The king is the head of the republic, and is elected by the nobility and clergy, in the plains of Warsaw. They elect him on horseback; and in case there should be a refractory minority, the majority has no control over them, but to cut them in pieces with their sabres; but if the minority are sufficiently strong, a civil war ensues. Immediately after his election, he signs the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engages, that the crown shall be elective, that his successor shall be appointed during his life—that the diets shall be assembled every two years—that every noble or gentleman in the realm shall have a vote in the diet of election, and that in case the king should infringe the laws and privileges of the nation, his subjects should be absolved from their allegiance. In fact the king is no more than the president of the senate, which used to be composed of the primate, the archbishop of Lemberg, 15 bishops, and 130 laymen, consisting of the great officers of state, the Palatines, and Castellans. The Palatines are the governors of the provinces, who hold their offices for life.—The Castellans' office in time of peace is mostly nominal; but when the military or feudal services are required, they are the lieutenants of the Palatines, and command the troops of their several districts.

The diets of Poland are ordinary and extraordinary; the former meet once in two, and sometimes three years; the latter is summoned by the king, upon critical emergencies; but one dissenting voice renders all their deliberations ineffectual.

The starosts properly are governors and judges, in particular starosties or districts, though some enjoy this title without any jurisdiction at all. The Palatines and Castellans, besides being senators, are lord-lieutenants, and deputy-lieutenants, in their respective Palatinates.

Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which can sit but six weeks, there are dietines, or provincial diets, held in different districts. The king sends them letters containing the heads of the business that is to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate may sit in the dietine, and chuse nuncios or deputies, to carry their resolutions to the grand diet. The great diet consists of the king, senators, and deputies from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland and Lithuania, and seventy for Prussia; and it meets twice at Warsaw, and once at Grodno, by turns, for the convenience of the Lithuanians, who made this one of the articles of their union with Poland; but since the present reign they have been always summoned to Warsaw.

The king formerly nominated the great offices of state, and to other places, but by the new constitution, for the election of senators, as bishops, palatines, castellans, and ministers, the permanent council nominates, by ballot, three candidates, one of whom the king must appoint—the same respecting the commissioners of war, and of the treasury, &c. &c. The king was also forced to renounce the right of disposing of any of the royal demesnes and starosties. When the king is absent from

Poland, or dead, his place is supplied by the archbishop of Gnesna, and if that see is vacant, by the bishop of Ploiko.

The ten great officers of state in Poland, who are senators, are the two great marshals, one of Poland, the other of Lithuania; the chancellor of the kingdom, and the chancellor of the duchy; the vice-chancellor of the kingdom, and the vice-chancellor of the duchy; the great general, the great treasurer of the kingdom, and the sub-marshal, or marshal of the court of the duchy.

Such are the outlines of this motley constitution, which was new-modelled with almost every new king, according to the *pacta conventa* which he is obliged to sign; so that nothing can be said of it with certainty, there being lately a total dissolution of all order in Poland, through the influence of some of the neighbouring powers, interested to foment anarchy and confusion in the Polish councils; and many of the first nobility do not blush to receive pensions from foreign courts. However, in this imperfect sketch, we can discern the great outlines of a noble and free government. The precautions taken to limit the king's power, and yet invest him with an ample prerogative, were worthy of a wise people. The institutions of the diet and dietines are favourable to public liberty, as are many other provisions in the republic: but it laboured, even in its best state, under incurable disorders. The exercise of the *veto*, or the tribunitial negative, that is vested in every member of a diet or dietine, must always be destructive of order and government. It is founded upon Gothic principles, and that unlimited jurisdiction which the great lords, in former ages, used to enjoy all over Europe. According to Mr. Coxe, the privilege in question is not to be found in any period of the Polish history antecedent to the reign of John Casimir. It was under his administration, in the year 1652, when the diet of Warsaw was debating upon transactions of the utmost importance which required a speedy determination, that Sicinski, nuncio of Uspita in Lithuania, cried out, "I stop the proceedings." Having uttered these words, he quitted the assembly, and, repairing immediately to the chancellor, protested, that as many acts as had been proposed and carried contrary to the constitution of the republic, if the diet continued to sit, he should consider it as an infringement of the laws. The members were thunderstruck at a protest of this nature, hitherto unknown. Warm debates took place about the propriety of continuing or dissolving the diet; at length, the venal and discontented faction, who supported the protest, obtained the majority; and the assembly broke up in great confusion. Ever since that time, the privilege of every member to stop the proceedings of the diet has continued, which is done by the single word, *veto*, "I forbid."

The want of subordination in the executive parts of the constitution, and the rendering noblemen independent and unaccountable for their conduct, is a blemish which perhaps may be impracticable to remove, as it can be done only with their own consent. After all, when we examine the best accounts of the present constitution of Poland, and compare them with the ancient history of Great Britain, and other European kingdoms, we may perceive a wonderful similarity between what these were formerly, and what Poland is at present. This naturally leads us to infer, that the government of Poland cannot be otherwise improved than by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which would render the common people independent on the nobility, and prevent the latter from having it in their power to annoy their sovereign, and so maintain those unequal privileges which are so hurtful to the community.

Indeed the partitioning powers, besides dismembering the best provinces of Poland, proceeded to change and fix the constitution and government, under pretence of amending it; confirming all its defects, and endeavouring to perpetuate the principles of anarchy and confusion. The executive power, which was entrusted

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to the king and senate, is now vested in the permanent council, composed of the king, senate, and the equestrian order—the king as president, the primate and three bishops, nine lay senators, four from the ministry of the republic, the marshal, with 17 counsellors of the equestrian order; in all 36. Of the eighteen senators, six from each province of Great Poland, Little Poland, and Lithuania. They insisted upon four cardinal laws to be ratified, which was at last obtained. *First*, "that the crown of Poland shall be for ever elective, and all order of succession proscribed;" thus the exclusion of a king's son and grandson removes the prospect of an hereditary sovereignty, and entails upon the kingdom all the evils inseparable from an elective monarchy. By the *second*, "that foreign candidates to the throne shall be excluded, and for the future, no person can be chosen king of Poland, except a native Pole of noble origin, and possessing land in the kingdom," the house of Saxony, and all foreign princes who might be likely to give weight to Poland by their hereditary dominions, and restore its provinces and liberties, are set aside. By the *third*, "the government of Poland shall be for ever free, independent, and of a republican form;" the *liberum veto*, and all the exorbitant privileges of the equestrian order, are confirmed in their utmost latitude. And by the *fourth*, "a permanent council shall be established, in which the executive power shall be vested;" and in this council the equestrian order, hitherto excluded from the administration of affairs in the interval of diets, shall be admitted, so that the prerogatives of the crown are still farther diminished. But this change of the constitution was intended by the partitioning powers to serve their own purposes, and give a large scope to influence and faction over that part of the kingdom they had not seized.

**REVENUES.]** Though the king of Poland is stinted in the political exercise of his prerogative, yet his revenue is sufficient to maintain him and his household in splendour, as he pays no troops, or officers of state, not even his body-guards. The present king had 1,000,000 and a half of florins settled upon him by the commission of state; and the income of his predecessors generally amounted to 140,000*l.* sterling. The public revenues arose chiefly from the crown-lands, the salt-mines in the palatinate of Cracow, now in Austrian Poland, which alone amounted to nearly 100,000*l.* sterling; ancient tolls and customs, particularly those of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburg, Dirihau, and Rogenhuis, and of the government of Cracow and district of Niepolomnicz.

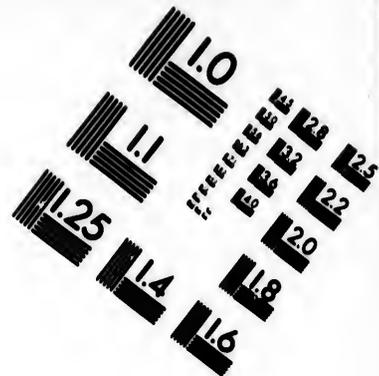
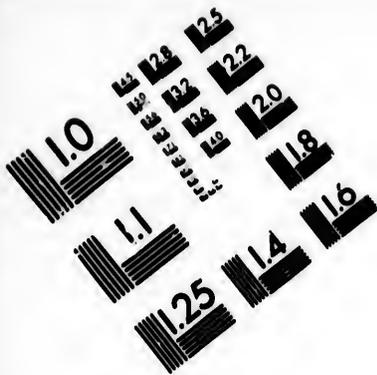
Western Prussia was the greatest loss to Poland, as by the dismemberment of that province, the navigation of the Vistula depends entirely upon the king of Prussia. Prussia has laid such heavy duties on the merchandize passing to Dantzic, as greatly to diminish the trade of that town, and to transfer a considerable part of it to Memel and Königsburgh.

By the dismemberment in 1772, Poland lost nearly half her annual income. To supply this deficiency, it became necessary to new-model and increase the taxes.

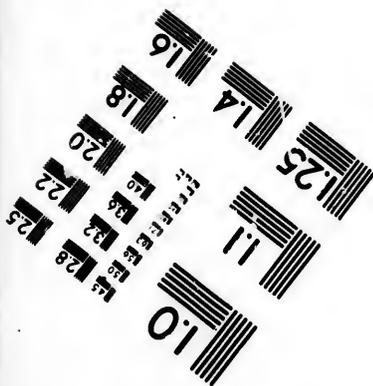
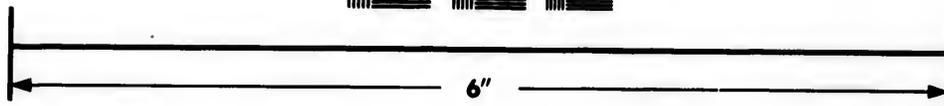
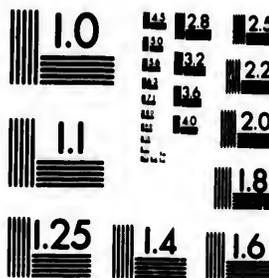
In 1775, all the imposts amounted to	-	-	-	£.	323,012	0	0
The neat revenue of the king is	-	-	-	194,500	0	0	
Out of which he only pays his household expences, and menial servants. It arises from his royal demesnes, starosties, and 74,074 <i>l.</i> out of the treasury.	-	-	-				
Whole revenue	-	-	-	443,938	0	0	
Deduct the king's revenue for privy purse	-	-	-	194,500	0	0	
For army, state officers, and all other charges	-	-	-	249,438	0	0	

MILITARY





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**MILITARY STRENGTH.]** The innate pride of the Polish nobility is such, that they always appear in the field on horseback; and it is said that Poland can raise with ease 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000 cavalry; but it must be understood that servants are included. As to their infantry, they are generally hired from Germany, but are soon dismissed, because they must be maintained by extraordinary taxes, of which the Polish grandees are by no means fond. As to the ordinary army of the Poles, it consisted in 1778, of 12,310 men in Poland, and 7,465 in Lithuania. The empress of Russia maintains in the country 10,000 soldiers, and every garrison is composed of Russians and natives; 1000 of the former are stationed at Warsaw. These hold the nobles in subjection; and the king himself is little more than a viceroy, while the Russian ambassador regulates the affairs of the kingdom under the direction of his court. The *pospolite* consists of all the nobility of the kingdom, and their followers, except the chancellor, and the starosts or governors of frontier places; and they may be called by the king into the field upon extraordinary occasions; but he cannot keep them above six weeks in arms, neither are they obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom.

The Polish hussars are the finest and most showy body of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the pancerns; and both these bodies wear coats of mail and iron caps. The rest of the cavalry are armed with muskets and heavy scymitars. The Poles may be rendered excellent troops by discipline, and on various occasions, particularly under John Sobieski, they made as great a figure in arms as any people in Europe, and proved the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. It did not suit the Saxon princes, who succeeded that hero, to encourage a martial spirit in the Poles, whom they perpetually overawed with their electoral troops; nor indeed to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military; the effects of which conduct have been since severely felt in that country.

**ORDERS.]** The order of the "*White Eagle*" was first instituted by Uladislavus in the year 1325, but revived by Augustus I. in the year 1705, to attach to him some of the Polish nobles who, he feared, were inclined to Stanislaus his competitor; it was conferred also on the czar Peter the Great of Russia. The collar is composed of eagles displayed, and annulets linked together, having pendent to it the badge, which is a cross of eight points enamelled, gold, bordered white and cantoned with a smaller cross, having a bead on each point charged on one side with an eagle, white, displayed, having over its head an imperial crown, and on the reverse the king's cypher with this motto, "*Pro fide, rege, et lege.*" The knights commonly wear the badge pendent to a broad blue ribband, worn fash-ways from the right shoulder and under the left arm, and a star of eight points embroidered in gold and silver alternately, on the left side of their coat. The present king instituted the order of "*St. Stanislaus*," soon after his election to the crown in 1765. The badge is a gold cross enamelled red, and on the centre of it is a medallion with the image of St. Stanislaus enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a red ribband edged with white. The star of the order is silver, and in the centre is a cypher of S. A. R. (Stanislaus Augustus Rex) encircled with the motto "*Premiando incitat.*"

**HISTORY.]** Poland of old was possessed by the Vandals, who were afterwards partly expelled by the Rus and Tartars. It was divided into many small states or principalities, each almost independent of another, though they generally had some prince who was paramount over the rest. In the year 700, the people, through the oppression of their petty chiefs, gave the supreme command, under the title of duke, to Cracus, the founder of the city of Cracow. His posterity failing, in the year 830, a peasant, one Piastus, was elected to the ducal dignity. He lived to the age of 120 years, and his reign was so long and auspicious, that every native Pole who has

has been since elected king is called a Piast. From this period, till the accession of Micislaus II. in 964, we have no very certain records of the history of Poland. The title of duke was retained till the year 999, when Boleslaus assumed the title of king, and conquered Moravia, Prussia, and Bohemia, making them tributary to Poland. Boleslaus II. added Red Russia to Poland, by marrying the heiress of that duchy, anno 1059. Jagello, who, in 1384, mounted the throne, was grand-duke of Lithuania, and a Pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a Christian, but was at pains to bring over his subjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to those of Poland, which gave such influence to his posterity over the hearts of the Poles, that the crown was preserved in his family, until the male line became extinct in Sigismund Augustus, in 1572. This prince admitted the reformed, with the Greeks and all other sects, to a seat in the diet, and to all the honours and privileges before confined to the catholics. He gave such evident marks of favour to the protestant confession, that he was suspected of being inclined to change his religion. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown of Poland. These were Henry, duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian of Austria. The French interest prevailed by private bribes to the nobles, and a stipulation to pay an annual pension to the republic from the revenues of France. But Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when his brother died, and he returned privately to France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had espoused Maximilian's interest endeavoured once more to revive his pretensions; but the majority of the Poles being desirous to chuse a prince who might reside among them, made choice of Stephen Batori prince of Transylvania; who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with some opposition from the Austrian faction, took the wisest method to establish himself on the throne, by marrying Anne, the sister of Sigismund Augustus, and of the royal house of the Jagellons. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by establishing a new militia, composed of the Cossacs, a rough and barbarous race of men, on whom he bestowed the Ukraine. Upon his death, in 1586, the Poles chose Sigismund, son of John king of Sweden, by Catharine sister of Sigismund II. for their king.

Sigismund was crowned king of Sweden after his father's death; but being expelled as we have seen in the history of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war ensued between them and the Poles, and terminated in favour of the latter. Sigismund being secured in the throne of Poland, aspired to that of Russia as well as Sweden; but after long wars, he was defeated in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unsuccessful wars with the Turks and the Swedes. At last a truce was concluded under the mediation of France and England; but the Poles were forced to agree, that the Swedes should keep Elbing, Memel, Branenburg and Pillau, together with all they had taken in Livonia. In the year 1623, Sigismund died, and Uladisslaus his son succeeded. This prince was successful both against the Turks and the Russians, and obliged the Swedes to restore all the Polish dominions they had taken in Prussia. His reign, however, was unfortunate, by his being instigated, through the avarice of his great men, to encroach upon the privileges of the Cossacs in the Ukraine. As the war which followed was carried on against the Cossacs upon ambitious and perfidious principles, the Cossacs, naturally a brave people, became desperate; and on the succession of John II. brother to Uladisslaus, the Cossac general Schmielinski defeated the Poles in two great battles, and forced them to a dishonorable peace. It appears that, during the course of this war, the Polish nobility behaved like the worst of russians, and their conduct being highly condemned by John, they as highly condemned the peace he had concluded. As the jealousy arising from this source continued, the Russians came to a rupture with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Cossacs, they,

in 1654, took Smolensko. This was followed by the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year, Charles X. of Sweden, after over-running Great and Little Poland, entered into Polish Prussia, all the towns of which received him, except Dantzic. The resistance made by that city gave the Poles time to re-assemble, and their king, John Casimir, who had fled into Silesia, was joined by the Tartars, as well as Poles; so that the Swedes, who were dispersed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the same time, disowned the allegiance they had been forced to pay Charles, who returned to Sweden with no more than a handful of his army. It was during this expedition, that the Dutch and English protested Dantzic, and the elector of Brandenburg acquired the sovereignty of Ducal Prussia, which had submitted to Charles. Thus the latter lost Poland, of which he had made an almost complete conquest. The treaty of Oliva was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Prussia was restored to the Poles. They were, however, forced to quit all pretensions to Livonia, and to cede Smolensko, Kiow, and the duchy of Siveria, to the Russians.

During these transactions, the Polish nobility grew dissatisfied with the concessions their king had made to the Cossacs, many of whom had thrown off the Polish yoke; others taxed him with want of capacity; and some, with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Casimir, who was fond of retirement and study, finding that cabals and factions increased every day, and that he himself might fall a sacrifice to the public discontent, abdicated his throne, and died abbot of St. Germain in France, having employed his latter days in Latin poetical compositions, which are far from being despicable.

The most remote descendants of the ancient kings ending in John Casimir, many foreign candidates presented themselves for the crown of Poland; but the Poles chose for their king a private gentleman of little interest, and less capacity, one Michael Wiesznowilki, because he was descended from a Piast. His reign was disgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of the Cossacs had put themselves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces of Podolia, and took Kaminiack, till then thought impregnable. The greatest part of Poland was then ravaged, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the sultan. Notwithstanding those disgraceful events, the credit of the Polish arms was in some measure maintained by John Sobieski, the crown-general, a brave and active commander, who had given the Turks several defeats. Michael dying in 1673, Sobieski was chosen king; and, in 1676, he was so successful against the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had imposed upon Poland; but they kept possession of Kaminiack. In 1683, Sobieski, though he had not been well treated by the house of Austria, was so public-spirited as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Christendom against the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raise the siege of Vienna, and making a terrible slaughter of the enemy; for all which glorious services, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopold.

Sobieski returning to Poland, continued the war against the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the senate, who suspected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

Poland fell into great distractions upon Sobieski's death. Many confederacies were formed; but all parties seemed inclined to exclude the Sobieski family. In the mean while, Poland was insulted by the Tartars, and her crown was in a manner put up to sale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, was the most liberal bidder; but while he thought the election almost sure, he was disappointed by the intrigues of the queen-dowager, in favour of her younger son, prince Alexander Sobieski; for which she was driven from Warsaw to Dantzic. Suddenly

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Augustus, elector of Saxony, started up as a candidate, and after a sham election, being proclaimed by the bishop of Cujavia, he took possession of Cracow with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city, in 1697. The prince of Conti made several unsuccessful efforts to re-establish his interest, and pretended that he had been actually chosen; but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe seemed to acquiesce in the election of Augustus. The manner in which he was driven from the throne by Charles XII. of Sweden (who procured the advancement of Stanislaus), and afterwards restored by the czar, Peter the Great, has been already related in the history of Sweden. It was not till the year 1723 that Augustus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and disagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Stanislaus, and were perpetually forming conspiracies and plots against Augustus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. 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. Augustus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, having done all he could to insure the succession of Poland to his son Augustus II. (or, as he is called by some, III.) This occasioned a war, in which the French king maintained the interest of his father-in-law Stanislaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne by a considerable party, of which the prince primate was the head. But Augustus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Russians, compelled his rival to retreat into Dantzic, from whence he escaped with great difficulty into France. In the history of Germany, the war between Augustus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Russia and Austria, and his late Prussian majesty, has been distinctly noticed. It is sufficient to say, that though Augustus was a mild, moderate prince, and did every thing to satisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts: and all he obtained from them was merely shelter, when his Prussian majesty drove him from his capital and electorate. Augustus died at Dresden, in 1763; upon which, count Stanislaus Poniatowski was chosen king, by the name of Stanislaus Augustus; though it is said that the election was conducted irregularly, and that he obtained the crown chiefly through the influence of the empress of Russia. He is a man of abilities and address; but from various concurring causes, he has had the unhappiness to see Poland, during his reign, a scene of desolation and calamity. In 1766, two Polish gentlemen presented a petition to the king, in the name of all the protestant nobility, and in behalf also of the members of the Greek church, wherein they demanded to be re-instated in their ancient rights and privileges, and to be placed upon the same footing in every respect with the Roman Catholic subjects of the kingdom. "The difference of sentiments upon some points of religion among Christians," said they in their petition, "ought not to interfere with employments of the state. The different sects of Christians, although they differ in opinion among themselves with respect to some points of doctrine, agree all in one point, that of being faithful to their sovereign, and obedient to his orders: all the Christian courts are convinced of this truth; and therefore, without having any regard to the religion they profess, Christian princes ought only to seek after those whose merit and talents make them capable of serving their country properly." The king gave no answer at this time to the petition of the dissidents; but the matter was referred to the diet, which was held the following year, when the ministers of the courts of Russia, of London, of Berlin, and of Copenhagen, supported their pretensions. The diet appeared to treat the complaints of the dissidents with great moderation, as to the free exercise of their worship, which gave some flattering expectations that the affair would be happily terminated. But the intrigues of the late king of Prussia appear to have prevented this: for though he openly professed to be a zealous defender of the

cause of the dissidents, yet it was manifest from the event, that his great aim was to promote the views of his own ambition. The intervention of the Russians in the affairs of Poland also gave great disgust to all parties in the kingdom. The whole nation entered into confederacies formed in distinct provinces; the popish clergy were active in opposing the cause of the dissidents; and this unfortunate country became the theatre of the most cruel and complicated of all wars; partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The confusion and devastation continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, whereby the whole face of the country was desolated; many of the principal Polish families retired into foreign states with their effects; and had it not been for a body of Russian troops which acted as guards to the king at Warsaw, that city had likewise exhibited a scene of plunder and massacre. To these complicated evils, were added, in the year 1770, that most dreadful scourge, the pestilence, which spread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhinia, and the Ukraine; and in these provinces it is said to have swept off 250,000 of the people. Meanwhile, some of the Polish confederates interceded with the Turks to assist them against their powerful oppressors; and a war ensued between the Russians and the Turks, on account of Poland. The conduct of the Grand Signior and of the Ottoman Porte towards the distressed Poles was just and honourable, and the very reverse of that of their Christian, Catholic, and Apostolic neighbours\*.

In the midst of those turbulent and disastrous scenes, the confederates (who ever considered the king as unlawfully elected, and who imputed to his fatal elevation and direction, or approbation, all the various ills under which the kingdom groaned from the Russian oppression) planned and executed one of the most daring enterprises of which modern history makes mention. I mean the attempt to assassinate the king, by Kozinski and two other chiefs, who chose thirty-seven other persons to accompany them. They obtained admission into Warsaw, unsuspected or undiscovered, by the following stratagem. They disguised themselves as peasants who came to sell hay, and artfully concealed their saddles, arms, and cloaths, under the loads of hay which they brought in waggons, the more effectually to escape detection.

It was on Sunday night, the 3d of September, 1771, between nine and ten o'clock, when the king was returning to the palace from a visit to his uncle prince Czartoriski, grand chancellor of Lithuania, that he was attacked by the conspirators, in the very streets of Warsaw, who ordered his coachman to stop upon pain

\* In 1764, the empress of Russia transmitted to the court of Warsaw an act of renunciation, signed with her own hand, and sealed with the seal of the empire, wherein she declares, "That she did by no means arrogate either to herself, her heirs and successors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the districts or territories, which were actually in possession, or subject to the authority of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her said majesty would guarantee to the said kingdom of Poland, and duchy of Lithuania, all the immunities, lands, territories, and districts, which the said kingdom and duchy ought by right to possess, or did now actually possess; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, against the attempts of all and every one who should at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to dispossess them of the same." In the same year did the king of Prussia sign, with his own hand, an act, wherein he declared, "that he had no

claims, formed no pretensions on Poland, or any part thereof; that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as king of Prussia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania." In the same instrument he guarantees, in the most solemn manner, the territories and rights of Poland against every power whatever. The empress-queen of Hungary, so late as the month of January, 1771, wrote a letter with her own hand to the king of Poland, in which she gave him the strongest assurances, "That her friendship for him and the republic was firm and unalterable; that the motion of her troops ought not to alarm him; that she had never entertained a thought of seizing a part of his dominions, nor would even suffer any other power to do it."—From which, according to the political creed of some princes, we may infer, that to guarantee the rights, liberties, and revenues of a state, means to annihilate those liberties, seize upon those rights, and appropriate those revenues to their own use.

of instant death. They fired several shot into the carriage, one of which passed through the body of a heyduc, who endeavoured to defend his master from the violence of the assassins. Though fifteen or sixteen other persons attended his majesty, they all basely abandoned him. Meanwhile, the king had opened the door of his carriage, with a design of effecting his escape under shelter of the night, which was very dark. He had even alighted, when the assassins seized him by the hair, exclaiming in Polish, with horrible execrations, "We have thee now; thy hour is come." One of them discharged a pistol at him so very near, that he felt the heat of the flash, while another cut him across the head with a sabre which penetrated to the bone. They then laid hold of his majesty by the collar, and mounting on horseback, dragged him along the ground between their horses, at full gallop, for near five hundred paces through the streets of Warsaw.

The king, after suffering incredible hardships, at last obtained from Kozinski an instant's repose. They sat down together on the ground, and his majesty employed these moments in endeavouring to soften his conductor, in which he most fortunately succeeded, after having given him the strongest assurances of his pardon and safety. Judging however, that it was prudent to gain some asylum without delay, and recollecting that there was a mill at some considerable distance, he immediately made towards it. Kozinski knocked, but in vain; no answer was given: he then broke a pane of glass in the window, and intreated for shelter to a nobleman who had been plundered by robbers. The miller refused, supposing them to be banditti, and continued for more than half an hour to persist in his denial. At length the king approached, and speaking through the broken pane, endeavoured to persuade him to admit them under his roof, adding, "If we were robbers, as you suppose, it would be very easy for us to break the whole window, instead of one pane of glass." This argument prevailed. They at length opened the door, and admitted his majesty. He immediately wrote a note to general Coccoi, colonel of the foot-guards. It was literally as follows: "Par une espèce de miracle, " Je suis sauvé des mains des assassins. Je suis ici au petit moulin de Mariemont. " Venez au plutôt me tirer d'ici. Je suis blessé, mais pas fort\*."

When the messenger arrived with the note, the astonishment and joy was incredible. Coccoi instantly rode to the mill, not above half a league from Warsaw, followed by a detachment of the guards. He met Kozinski at the door with his sabre drawn, who admitted him as soon as he knew him. The king had sunk into a sleep, caused by his fatigue; and was stretched on the ground, covered with the miller's cloak. Coccoi immediately threw himself at his majesty's feet, calling him his sovereign, and kissing his hand. It is not easy to paint or describe the astonishment of the miller and his family, who instantly imitated Coccoi's example by throwing themselves on their knees. The king returned to Warsaw in general Coccoi's carriage, and reached the palace about five in the morning. Scarcely could the nobility or people at Warsaw credit the evidence of their senses, when they saw him return. Certainly, neither the escape of the king of France from Damien, nor of the king of Portugal from the conspiracy of the duke d'Avceiro, were equally amazing or improbable.

The mill, rendered memorable by so singular an event, is a wretched Polish hovel, at a distance from any house. But the king has rewarded the miller to the extent of his wishes, in building him a mill upon the Vistula, and allowing him a small pension. From the relentings of Kozinski, and his posterior good conduct, as above related, his own life was saved, and he now resides in the papal territories, with an annual pension from the king. Pulaski, another of the conspirators, distinguished

\* "By a kind of miracle I am escaped from the hands of assassins. I am now at the mill of Mariemont. Come as soon as possible, and take me from hence. I am wounded, but not dangerously."

himself in the American service, and was killed in attacking the British lines at Savannah, in 1779.

The following year, 1772, it appeared, that the king of Prussia, the emperor and empress-queen, and the empress of Russia, had entered into an alliance to dismember Poland; though Prussia was formerly its vassal, and Russia, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, saw its capital and throne possessed by the Poles, while Austria in 1683 was indebted to a king of Poland, for the preservation of its metropolis, and almost for its very existence. The three allied powers, acting in concert, set up their formal pretensions to the respective districts which they had allotted for, and guaranteed to, each other: Polish, or Western Prussia, and some districts bordering upon Brandenburg, for the king of Prussia; almost all the south-east parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich salt-works of the crown, for the empress-queen of Hungary and Bohemia\*; and a large district of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper, for the empress of Russia †. But though each of these powers pretended to have a legal title to the territories which were allotted to them respectively, and published manifestos in justification of the measures which they had taken; yet as they were conscious that the fallacies by which they supported their pretensions were too gross to impose upon mankind, they forced the Poles to call a new diet; and threatened them, that, if they did not consent unanimously to sign a treaty for the ceding of those provinces to them respectively, the whole kingdom would be laid under a military execution, and treated as a conquered state. In this extremity of distress, several of the Polish nobility protested against this violent act of tyranny, and retired into foreign states, chusing rather to live in exile, and to have all their landed property confiscated, than to be the instruments of bringing their country to utter ruin; but the king was prevailed upon to sign this act, and his example was followed by many of his subjects.

As to the king of Prussia, his conduct in Poland was highly tyrannical and oppressive. In the year 1771, his troops entered into Great Poland, and carried off from that province, and its neighbourhood, at a moderate computation, 12,000 families. On the 29th of October, in the same year, he published an edict commanding every person, under the severest penalties, and even corporal punishment, to take in payment for forage, provisions, corn, horses, &c. the money offered by his troops and commissaries. This money was either silver, bearing the impression of Poland, and exactly worth one-third of its nominal value, or ducats struck in imitation of Dutch ducats, seventeen per cent. inferior to the real ducats of Holland. With this base money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to supply his army for two whole years, but to stock magazines in the country itself, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re-purchase corn for their daily subsistence at an advanced price, and with good money, his commissaries refusing to take the same coin they had paid. At the lowest calculation, he gained, by this masterly and *honest* manœuvre, seven millions of dollars. Having stripped the country of money and provisions, his next attempt was to thin it still more of

\* The district claimed by Austria, was "all that tract of land lying on the right side of the Vistula, from Silesia above Sandomir, to the mouth of the San, and from thence by Franepole, Zamoisic, and Rubieslow, to the Bog: from the Bog, along the frontiers of Red Russia, to Zabras, on the borders of Volhinia and Podolia; and from Zabras in a strait line to the Nieper, where it receives the Sbrytz, taking in a part of Podolia, and then along the boundaries separating Podolia from Moldavia. This country is now incorporat-

ed with Austria, under the appellation of the kingdoms of Galicia and Lodomeria.

† The Russian claims comprise Polish Livonia, that part of the palatinate of Polotik to the east of the Duna—the palatinates of Vitepsk, Miedzilaw, and two portions of the palatinate of Minsk. This tract of land (Polish Livonia excepted) is situated in White Russia, and includes full one third of Lithuania. It is now divided into the two governments of Polotik and Mohilief.

its inhabitants. To people his own dominions at the expence of Poland, had been his great aim; for this purpose he hit upon a new contribution; every town and village was obliged to furnish a certain number of marriageable girls; the parents to give as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound hand and foot, and carried off as criminals. His exactions from the abbeys, convents, cathedrals, and nobles, were so heavy, and exceeded at last their abilities so much, that the priests abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. These exactions continued with unabated rigour, from the year 1771, to the time the treaty of partition was declared, and possession taken of the provinces usurped. From these proceedings it would appear, that his Prussian Majesty knew no rights but his own; no pretensions but those of the house of Brandenburg; no other rule of justice but his own pride and ambition.

The violent dismemberment and partition of Poland has justly been considered as the first great breach in the modern political system of Europe. The surprize of a town, the invasion of an insignificant province, or the election of a prince, who had neither abilities to be feared, nor virtues to be loved, would, some years ago, have armed one half of Europe, and called forth all the attention of the other. But the destruction of a great kingdom, with the consequent disarrangement of power, dominion, and commerce, has been beheld by neutral nations with the most astonishing indifference and unconcern. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remonstrated against these usurpations: but that was all. Poland was forced to submit, and the partition was ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of the three powers. In the senate, there was a majority of six; but in the lower house, or assembly of nuncios, there was but one vote in favour of the measure, fifty-four against fifty-three. This is a very alarming circumstance, and shews that a most important, though not happy change, has taken place in that general system of policy, and arrangement of power and dominion, which had been for some ages an object of unremitting attention. Our ancestors might, perhaps, on some occasions, discover rather more anxiety about preserving the balance of power in Europe, than was necessary: but it has been well remarked, that the idea of considering Europe as a vast commonwealth, of the several parts being distinct and separate, though politically and commercially united, of keeping them independent though unequal in power, and of preventing any one from becoming too powerful for the rest, was great and liberal. It appears to be owing to this system, that this small part of the western world has acquired so astonishing a superiority over the rest of the globe. The fortune and glory of Greece proceeded from a similar system of policy, though formed upon a smaller scale. Both her fortune and glory expired with that system.

The revolution, which happened in this country on the 3d of May, 1791, deservedly engaged much of the public attention. The evils of elective monarchy were indeed the chief cause that Poland had almost ceased to be considered as a nation. The dynasty of future kings of Poland was to commence in Frederic Augustus, elector of Saxony, with the right of inheritance to his male descendants: in case the present elector should have no male issue, a husband chosen by him for his daughter, with the consent of the Polish representatives, shall begin the dynasty. But after this boasted change, Poland would only have advanced to that degree of freedom and civilization, which other European countries enjoyed in the 13th century. Her hundreds of citizens would have been free, her millions of peasants, slaves: at the utmost, not above five hundred thousand out of fifteen millions would have been free.

After a short and unequal struggle with Russia, this unhappy country has been forced to abandon the new constitution. The Polish king seems, in the consciousness

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ness of his own rectitude, and of the general patriotism, too much to have neglected the serpentine paths of prudence upon this occasion: the previous assent of Saxony should have been procured, and the sacrifice of Dantzic and Thorn to Prussia, though doubtless great, was yet to be preferred to the present national annihilation. The manifesto of the Russian empress, replete with sentiments disgraceful to humanity, was followed by some skirmishes; but it is said, that a letter, written with her own hand to the Polish king, in which she declared her resolution to double or triple her troops, rather than abandon her pretensions, induced that benignant monarch to prevent the further effusion of blood.

On the 6th of January, 1793, the king of Prussia issued a declaration respecting the march of his troops into Poland, in which he mentions the *friendly* interference of her imperial majesty the empress of Russia in the affairs of Poland: in the same strain his majesty adds, that he had entertained *hopes* that the troubles in that country would have subsided without his *own* interference, especially as he was so deeply occupied in another quarter. He *laments* that he has been disappointed, and that the propagation of French democracy, by means of clubs and Jacobin emissaries, especially in Great Poland, had already risen to such a height, as to require his most serious attention: his majesty, however, observes, that he has determined to anticipate their designs, by sending a sufficient body of troops into the territories of the republic, after having concerted proper measures with the friendly courts of Peterburgh and Vienna, who were equally interested with himself in the welfare of the republic.

The protest published at Grodno, in the sitting of the general confederation, the 3d of February, against this violent invasion, sufficiently evinces the detestation which the Poles themselves entertain of the measures of their pretended *friend*. They assure his majesty, that a continued correspondence between the military commanders and the civil magistrates had enabled the confederation to declare, that perfect tranquillity prevailed from one end of the kingdom to the other; that they were "astonished at the *assertions* of his majesty," in his last declaration! and conclude by intreating, that his majesty would revoke the orders which he had given for troops to enter the republic. Notwithstanding, however, these solemn assurances—notwithstanding the evidence and the facts which were alleged in support of them, the Prussian army advanced, and one of its detachments appeared under the walls of Thorn. The inhabitants, faithful to their duty, having refused entrance to the troops, experienced an open attack. Cannons were planted against it, the gates were broken open, the municipal guard were dislodged from their post; a defenceless city exhibited the spectacle of a place taken by assault, and the Prussian regiments entered, while the air resounded with their acclamations of triumph. There were no soldiers of the republic in the city to make resistance; it depended for security on public faith; and that was violated. At the same time, different Polish detachments, dispersed throughout Great Poland, were attacked and driven from their posts by superior force.

The confederation protest, that, confiding in solemn engagements, and in the faith of treaties, they could never have imagined that they had occasion to apprehend a surprise or open violence, where every thing ought to have assured them, that they were to find only friendship and assistance; and declare, that they will enter into no views which may tend to diminish any part of the Polish domains; but, on the contrary, that they are ready to sacrifice even the last drop of their blood, in defence of their liberty and independence. They conclude with *hoping*, that even the two imperial courts, and all other powers, in consequence of the reciprocity of national interests, will not behold with an eye of indifference a manifest violation of the rights of nations, and the open invasion of the domains of a neighbouring and friendly state.

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The same general confederation at Grodno sent a note, dated the 6th of February, to count de Sievers, the Russian ambassador at that place, requesting him to make known to the empress his mistress, that the report of a new partition of Poland has spread a general alarm throughout the kingdom; that a nation, so long the sport of misfortune, is easily alarmed; that the remembrance of past miseries causes it to tremble at the approach of fresh troubles; that the confederation wait with confidence for new assurances from her majesty, of *friendship* and good will, to quiet the alarms raised among the people by these reports; and that their apprehensions are considerably augmented by the obstacles which M. Ighelstrom, the Russian general, has opposed to the troops of the republic, and his forbidding them the use of cannon; and, lastly, that they have all sworn to maintain the unity and indivisibility of the domains of the republic.

The last manifesto from the courts of Berlin and Petersburg, ordering the governors of several provinces of Poland to surrender their respective districts, to be hereafter regulated according to the *will* of these invaders, will be regarded by future historians as among those facts which serve as beacons or land-marks against arbitrary power. It will be adduced as an instance how fatally the possession of despotic authority corrupts the hearts and principles of those who are so unfortunate as to possess it.

It may be proper to mention two additional traits of despotism. On the 2d of April, the burgomasters and council of the city of Dantzic, assembled at the town-house, at the request of the king of Prussia, make known to every burgher and inhabitant, by public declaration, and order every person to keep himself quiet, to follow his trade and business as usual, and to remain peaceably in his house when the Prussian troops shall enter that city. The empress of Russia also commanded the king of Poland to travel to Grodno, under the escort of Russian troops, for the express purpose of sanctioning the alienation and partition of his kingdom.

On the 24th of June, there was an extraordinary diet at Grodno. The notes from the ministers of the courts of Petersburg and Berlin, urging the appointment of a *delegation* to discuss the proposed partition of the republic, being read, the king opposed the appointment of the delegation, contending with great warmth and perseverance, that the only proper course was to intreat the mediation of foreign courts in amity with Poland. The marshal, on the contrary, was for the appointment of a delegation; and, the question being called for, adjourned the diet. The following day the debate was renewed, and the majority in favour of the proposition was increased instead of being diminished. At last, it having been proposed, "that the delegation should be authorized to treat *only* with the court of Petersburg," the majority adopted this plan; and the question being put, it was ultimately decided, by one hundred and seven votes against twenty-four, that the delegation shall treat with the imperial court exclusively.

The means employed to effect the mock ratification of the partition of this unfortunate country, were entirely characteristic of the baseness of the cause. The diet, in the month of September, was assailed, for three successive days, with official notes from the Russian ambassador, and the Prussian minister, full of threats and menaces, pressing the signature of the treaty. The states, however, persisted in their refusal. At last M. de Sievers, the Russian ambassador, sent his ultimatum in a note, which ended with the following remarkable expressions: "The underwritten must besides inform the states of the republic assembled in the confederate diet, that he thought it of absolute necessity, in order to prevent every disorder, to order *100 battalions* of *grenadiers*, with four pieces of cannon, to surround the castle, to secure the *tranquillity* of their deliberations. The underwritten expects, that the sitting will not terminate, until the demanded signature of the treaty is decided."

decided." Conformably to this threat, the Russian soldiers so closely surrounded the castle, that no person was suffered to go out; some of the officers took their station in the senate, pretending to guard his majesty's person against conspirators. The king, on the contrary, sent a delegation to the Russian ambassador, declaring that he would not open the session in the presence of the Russian officers. In consequence, they were ordered to retire, except the general, who declared publicly, that no member should be permitted to quit the senate, before the consent to the treaty was given. The debates were long and violent; and it was not until three o'clock the next morning, after three successive divisions, that the diet came to a resolution, in which they declare, before all Europe, to whom they had frequently appealed, that, contrary to the faith of treaties most sacredly observed on their part, as well as to that of the treaty recently entered into with his majesty, the king of Prussia, and at his own desire, in the year 1790, whereby the independence and the integrity of Poland were guaranteed in the most solemn manner; that, being deprived of free will, surrounded at the moment of the present act by an armed foreign force, and threatened with a further invasion of the Prussian troops, they are forced to commission and authorize a deputation appointed to treat with the said king, to sign the treaty, such as it was, planned and amended under the mediation of the Russian ambassador.

In this ratification-treaty, extorted from the Poles at the point of the bayonet, it is further declared, in the name of the king, &c. that, in contradiction to the last article of the above-mentioned treaty at Grodno, the king does not give his ratification and consent in his own name and that of the diet, but so far, and upon condition that the commercial, and every special article shall be mutually agreed to, and definitively signed by both the high-contracting parties, under the mediation and guarantee of the court of Russia.

It is remarkable, that, at the very moment when Poland was surrendering its liberties to its despotic invaders, the generous sympathy of Great Britain was evinced by a liberal subscription, supported by all the most liberal characters in the nation, of every party, and of every sect, for the purpose of assisting the king and the republic to maintain their independence. Though the benevolent design was frustrated, the fact remains on record, as a noble testimony of the spirit of Britons in the cause of freedom, of the indignation which fills every British heart at the commission of injustice, and of the liberality with which they are disposed to assist those who suffer from the oppression of tyrants.

Thus, in one instance, the concert of princes, as it is called, has proved fatally victorious over the cause of man. Thus the growing happiness of a respectable nation has been sacrificed to the personal ambition of three despotic sovereigns. Thus the citizens of a free republic are, by one blow, reduced to be the abject slaves of tyrants. Thus the balance of Europe, so much the theme of politicians, and perhaps so necessary to the permanent welfare of Europe, has been sacrificed to private and to selfish views; while those nations, who have on former occasions devoted millions of lives, and expended countless sums in maintaining it, view with frigid tranquillity the fatal increase of despotic authority.

Whatever be the real object of this combination, it is such as no sound politician can observe with indifference. The precedent is fatal; the proceedings are ominous. If the object is ultimately the gratification of personal ambition in the parties concerned; if they have really, as some are disposed to believe, formed a secret agreement to divide among themselves, as suits their interest or their inclination, or as opportunity permits, the territory of Europe; if, as in the case of Poland, they may, without a shadow of pretence, without a cause of complaint, without any legal claim or interest, invade and subjugate a country, merely because it is too weak to oppose them; then the citizens of free states have indeed

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cause to tremble. Then the opulent part of every community have cause to fear for their possessions, since a respect for property never has been the creed of conquering despots. Then the enlightened part of mankind may weep over the fate of their fellow-creatures; and every individual, who would not wish to change the government under which he lives, for the most tyrannical and oppressive, may have cause to imprecate the interposition of Providence, to put a stop to a system which threatens the subversion of all that is dear or valuable of temporal enjoyments.

While the despots of Petersburg and Berlin had some reason to felicitate themselves upon the success of their depredations, the patriotic general Kosciuskow, excited by a detestation of the cruel oppression which his unhappy country experienced, entered and fortified the town of Cracow, at the head of a considerable number of the Poles. At Warsaw, the general hatred of tyranny produced an almost universal insurrection against the soldiers of despotism. On the 17th of April, 1794, these patriots, having rendered themselves masters of the grand arsenal at Warsaw, obliged the Russian garrison, consisting of three thousand troops, to evacuate the town. The Russian ambassador was obliged to take refuge with the Prussian army under general Wolky, encamped at a league's distance from that capital. General Igeltrohm, a few days before, had given orders to the whole of the Russian cavalry, in garrison there, to march from Warsaw, to join the troops which had been previously detached, in order to act against the army under general Kosciuskow.

When the insurrection took place, on the 17th, in the morning, general Igeltrohm ordered the only three battalions of Russian infantry, who remained in the garrison, to take up arms; at the same time he dispatched a message to the king, informing his majesty of this event. The king sent him word, that he had already been informed of what had happened; that his majesty had only to add a request to the general, to send all his troops out of the capital, in order to prevent bloodshed, until the minds of the people shall in some measure be pacified. General Igeltrohm, in the mean time, had sent general Bauer, at the head of a detachment, to protect the arsenal; but this was too late. The patriots had already rendered themselves masters of all the artillery contained in that fortress; and the latter general, with his detachment, on their arrival, were forced to lay down their arms, and to surrender as prisoners of war. The patriots afterwards, provided with arms from the arsenal, formed themselves in order of battle, and marched against a battalion of the Russian infantry, whom they drove out of the town. In this state of affairs, general Igeltrohm placed himself at the head of the remaining Russians, and took post in a street, where he was determined to defend himself; the Russian soldiers were fired upon with great violence from every window; and, after an engagement which lasted thirty-three hours, they were driven from Warsaw, with the loss of half their number killed.

Stanislaus Augustus (late count Poniatowski) was born in 1732, and crowned king of Poland in 1764. This prince, while a private nobleman, resided some time in London, and is a fellow of the Royal Society.

S W I T Z E R L A N D.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees.  
 Length 260 } between { 6 and 11 east longitude.  
 Breadth 100 } { 45 and 48 north latitude.

Containing 13,000 SQUARE MILES, with 138 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Alsace and Swabia in Germany, on the North; by the lake of Constance, Tirol, and Trent, on the East; by Italy on the South; and by France, on the West.

DIVISIONS.] Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons, which stand in point of precedency as follows: 1. Zurich; 2. Berne; 3. Lucerne; 4. Uri; 5. Schweitz; 6. Unterwalden; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Basil; 10. Fribourg; 11. Soleure; 12. Schaffhausen; 13. Appenzel.

The best account we have of the dimensions and principal towns of each canton, is as follows:

Switzerland.	Countries' names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Calvinists.	Berne	2,346	111	87	Berne
	Zurich	728	34	33	Zurich
	Schaffhausen	140	23	9	Schaffhausen
	Basil	240	21	18	BASIL { 47-40. N. lat. 7-40. E. Lon.
Papists.	Lucerne	460	33	35	Lucerne
	Unterwalden	270	23	16	Stantz
	Uri	612	48	21	Altorf
	Suisse	250	27	13	Suisse
Calvinists and Papists.	Fribourg	370	24	21	Fribourg
	Zug	112	18	10	Zug
	Soleure	253	31	24	Soleure, or Solothurn
	Appenzel	270	23	21	Appenzel
The subjects of the Switzers, Calvinists and Papists.	Glaris	257	24	18	Glaris
	Baden	216	26	12	Baden
	Bremgarten				Bremgarten
	Mellingen	40	20	5	Mellingen
	Rheinthal				Rheinck
	Thurgau	119	18	11	Flowanfield
	Lugano	850	52	30	Lugano
Locarno	Locarno				
Mendris	Mendris				
	Maggia	Maggia			
		7,553			

Allies of the Switzers.	Countries' Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Calvinists.	Grifons	2,270	100	62	Coire
Subjects of the Grifons, Calvinists & Pap.	Chiavanna	472	42	34	Chiavanna
	Bormio and Valteline				Sondrio
	Tockenburgh				168
Calvinists.	Geneva	160	13	11	Geneva
	Neufchatel	320	32	20	Neufchatel
	Valais	1,287	80	30	Sion
Papists.	Basse	270	13	16	Delfspurg
	St. Gall	144	20	10	St. Gall
Total—		12,884			Mulhausen, in Alsace is also united to them.

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**AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE** } This being a mountainous country, lying  
**OF THE COUNTRY.** } upon the Alps (which form an amphitheatre  
of more than 100 miles) the frosts are consequently bitter in winter, the hills being covered with snow sometimes all the year long. In summer, the inequality of the soil renders the same province very unequal in its seasons; on one side of those mountains, the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are sowing on another. The vallies, however, are warm and fruitful, and well cultivated; and nothing can be more delightful than the summer months in this charming country. It is subject to rains and tempests; for which reason public granaries are every where erected, to supply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often descends from the mountains in large or small cataracts which have a delightful effect.

There is, perhaps, no country in the world, wherein the advantageous effects of unwearied and persevering industry are more remarkably conspicuous than in Switzerland. In passing over the mountainous parts thereof, the traveller is struck with admiration, to observe rocks that were formerly barren, now planted with vines, or abounding with rich pasture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the sides of steep precipices. The inhabitants seem to have surmounted every obstruction which soil, situation, and climate had thrown in their way, and to have spread fertility over various spots of the country, which nature seemed to have consigned to everlasting barrenness. The feet of the mountains, and sometimes also the very summits, are covered with vineyards, cornfields, meadows, and pasture-grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, consisting almost entirely of barren and inaccessible rocks, some of which are continually covered with snow or ice. The vallies, between these icy and snowy mountains, appear like so many smooth frozen lakes; and from them vast fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful spots beneath. In some parts, there is a regular gradation from extreme wildness to high cultivation; in others the transitions are very abrupt, and very striking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with woods, and studded all over with hamlets, cottages above the clouds, pastures which appear suspended in the air, exhibit the most delightful landscape that can be conceived; and in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered with ice and snow.

**GLACIERS.**] No subject in natural history is more curious than the origin of these glaciers, which are immense fields of ice. If a person could be conveyed to such an elevation as to embrace at one view the Alps of Switzerland, Savoy, and Dauphiné, he would behold a vast chain of mountains, intersected by numerous vallies, and composed of many parallel chains, the highest occupying the center, and the others gradually diminishing, in proportion to their distance from that center.

The most elevated, or central chain would appear bristled with pointed rocks, and covered, even in summer, with ice and snow, in all parts that are not absolutely perpendicular. On each side of this chain, he would discover deep vallies clothed with verdure, peopled with numerous villages, and watered by many rivers. In considering these objects with greater attention, he would remark that the central chain is composed of elevated peaks and diverging ridges, whose summits are overspread with snow; that the declivities of the peaks and ridges, excepting those parts that are extremely steep, are covered with snow and ice; and that the intermediate depths and spaces between them are filled with immense fields of ice, terminating in those cultivated vallies which border the great chain.

These immense fields of ice usually rest on an inclined plain: being pushed forwards by the pressure of their own weight, and but weakly supported by the rugged rocks beneath, they are intersected by large transverse crevices; and present the

appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantastic shapes, observed at all heights and in all situations, wherever the declivity is beyond thirty or forty degrees.

Mr. Coxe describes the method of travelling over these glaciers. "We had each of us a long pole spiked with iron; and, in order to secure us as much as possible from slipping, the guides fastened to our shoes *crampons*, or small bars of iron, provided with four small spikes of the same metal. At other times, instead of *crampons*, we had large nails in our shoes, which more effectually answered our purpose. The difficulty of crossing these valleys of ice, arises from the immense chasms. We rolled down large stones into several of them; and the great length of time before they reached the bottom, gave us some conception of their depth: our guides assured us, that in some places they are not less than five hundred feet deep. I can no otherwise convey to you an image of this body of ice, broken into irregular ridges and deep chasms, than by comparing it to a lake instantaneously frozen in the midst of a violent storm." In speaking of an unsuccessful attempt of some gentlemen to reach the summit of Mount Blanc, he presents to his readers a most horrid image of the danger of these chasms. "As they were returning in great haste, (owing to the day being far advanced) one of the party slipped in attempting to leap over a chasm of ice. He held in his hand a long pole, spiked with iron, which he struck into the ice; and upon this he hung dreadfully suspended for a few moments, until he was released by his companions."

[MOUNTAINS.] In this mountainous country, where nature is all upon a grand scale, Mont Blanc is particularly distinguished from other mountains, by having its summits and sides clothed to a considerable depth with a mantle of snow, almost without the intervention of the least rock to break the glare of the *white* appearance. According to the calculations of Mr. De Luc, the height of this mountain above the level of the sea is 2,391 $\frac{1}{2}$  French toises, or 15,304 English feet; or, according to sir George Shuckburgh, of 15,662 feet, which gives a difference of only 358 feet.—It appears, that the Peak of Teneriff and *Ætna* have been frequently supposed to be the highest points of the globe: but from the most accurate observations it will be found that Mont Blanc is of much more considerable elevation.

	Feet.
Mont Blanc is above the level of the sea, according to sir George Shuckburgh's mensuration, which agrees with M. de Sauffure's observations,	15,662
The peak of Teneriff, according to Feuille	13,248
<i>Ætna</i> , according to sir George Shuckburgh	10,954
Canigou, the highest of the Pyrenes	9,222
Ben-nevis, the highest mountain in Scotland	4,337
Vesuvius, according to M. de Sauffure	3,900
Snowden in Wales	3,555

Hence it will appear that there are no mountains (except those in America, particularly Chimboraco, the highest point of the Cordilleras, the elevation of which, according to Condamine, surpasses 3,000 toises, or 19,200 feet, but according to others, 20,608 feet) which are equal to the altitude of Mont Blanc. Some philosophers, upon considering the great superiority of the Eastern rivers over the European, both in depth and breadth, have drawn a presumptive argument, that the Asiatic mountains are much more lofty than those of Europe. But conjectures are now banished from natural philosophy: and until it shall be proved from undoubted calculations, that the highest part of the Caucasus rises more than 15,000 feet above the level of the sea, Mont Blanc may be fairly considered as more elevated.

The

The summit of this mountain was deemed inaccessible before Dr. Pacard attempted to reach it in 1786, and succeeded in the attempt; soon after which, the same journey was undertaken by M. de Saussure, a professor in Geneva, who published a very interesting account of his journey. It was on the first of August 1787 that he began his march from the Priory of Chamouni, accompanied by a servant and eighteen guides, to carry a tent, provisions, instruments, &c. M. de Saussure passed the first night at the top of the mountain of la Côte, situated to the south of the priory; and 779 toises above the village. Hitherto there is no trouble or danger, the ascent is either on turf, or on rock, and it is easily accomplished in 5 or 6 hours.

The second day's journey is not so easy. The glacier of la Côte is to be passed, which is difficult and dangerous, being crossed by wide, deep, and irregular crevices, which frequently cannot be passed but over bridges of snow, sometimes very slight, and suspended over deep abysses. A guide narrowly escaped perishing in one of these: he went in the evening with two others to reconnoitre the passage; fortunately they had taken the precaution of fastening themselves together with cords; the snow gave way in the middle of a wide deep crevice, wherein the man was suspended between his two companions. At four o'clock in the afternoon of the second day, they again encamped, 1,455 toises above the priory, 1,995 above the sea, 90 toises higher than the pike of Teneriff. Here they soon felt the rarity of the air: the barometer was down to 17 inches 10 lines  $\frac{2}{3}$ . Those hardy fellows, who accompanied our philosopher, to whom the seven or eight hours march, which they had just made, was no sort of fatigue, had scarcely thrown up five or six spadefuls of snow, to prepare for fixing the tent, before they were utterly unable to proceed, without resting every moment. M. de Saussure himself, who is so much accustomed to the mountain air, was quite exhausted with fatigue only in observing with his meteorological instruments. They were troubled with an incessant thirst, which they had no means of allaying but by melting the snow. From the midst of this plain, enclosed by the highest summit of Mont Blanc to the south, its lofty steps to the east, and the dome of Gouté to the west, scarcely any thing is to be seen but snow, pure, and of a dazzling whiteness, forming on the highest pikes a singular contrast with the almost black sky of those exalted regions. No living creature is to be seen, no appearance of vegetation; it is the abode of cold and silence.

The guides, fearful of cold, closed the openings of the tent so carefully, that M. de Saussure suffered so much from heat, and air corrupted by respiration, as to be obliged to go out during the night, in order to breathe. He found the moon shining with most astonishing brightness, in the midst of an ebony sky, whilst Jupiter shined all radiant from behind the loftiest peak to the east of Mont Blanc.—As soon as it was light, they found the thermometer 3 degrees below the freezing point. On the third day they safely arrived at the summit at about eleven o'clock. There is no plain, but it is a long ridge nearly horizontal, in a direction from east to west. This ridge is so narrow, that two persons cannot walk a-breast on it; especially at the west end, where it resembles the roof of a house. In this state of awful elevation, as M. de Saussure was putting his instruments in order, to observe with them, he was obliged every moment to interrupt his observations, in order to take breath. If we reflect that the barometer was, on the summit, down to 16 inches 1 line, and consequently that the air was only of about half the common density, we shall easily understand, that it was necessary to supply the defect of density by more frequent inspirations. Now this accelerated the motion of the blood, and the more, because the arteries no longer sustained their ordinary pressure, inasmuch, that they were all in a fever. M. de Saussure continued upon the summit of Mont Blanc till half an hour past three in the afternoon, during which time he made some interesting experiments.

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experiments. The travellers all returned safe and found, with their eyes and faces uninjured, which was owing to their having put black crape over their faces; whereas they who had gone up before them returned almost blind, and with their skin terribly burnt by the reflection from the snow.

**RIVERS AND LAKES.]** The chief rivers are the Rhine, which rises in the chain of mountains bordering on St Gothard, the Aar, the Reufs, the Tesin, the Oglio, and the Rhone. The lakes are those of Geneva, Constance, Thun, Lucerne, Zurich, Biel and Brien.

The fall of the Rhine at Schaffhausen is most astonishing. Descriptions of such scenes are always faint; something, however, may be attempted. The whole river, after rippling and foaming over several scattered breakers, runs, by different channels, against some beautiful rocks which rise several feet out of the water, covered with shrubby wood: beat back from these, it rushes round, and, by three grand openings, precipitates its fall, in accumulated masses, for fifty or sixty feet perpendicular, raging and foaming with wonderful violence, and throwing up a thick dust and shower of spray.

**METALS AND MINERALS.]** The mountains contain mines of iron, crystal, virgin sulphur, and springs of mineral waters.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.]** Switzerland produces sheep and cattle, wine, wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp; plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and chestnuts; the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and most of the cantons abound in timber. Besides game, fish, and fowl, are also found, in some of the higher and more inaccessible parts of the Alps, the bouquetin and the chamois; whose activity in scouring along the steep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both these animals is of so hot a nature, that the inhabitants of some of these mountains, who are much subject to pleurisy, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that disorder. The flesh of the chamois is delicious.

The chamoises are pursued by the huntsmen from rock to rock, particularly on the Freyberg mountains. They go in flocks, posting one as a sentinel, who hisses when he hears the approach of hostile foot. The people, who have sometimes seen their picturesque forms suspended as it were from the side of the mountains, describe them as hanging by the horns from the rock. The cottages, which are of a dark walnut colour, have projecting roofs which hang over to protect them from the snow: their appearance accords well with the scenery of the country; and when seen at a distant height on the mountains, has a very peculiar effect. Stones are placed on the roofs to save them from being carried away by the storms of the winter. Winter, amidst these mountains, must be awful: their lofty summits exclude the sun, except for a few hours, in the longest days of summer.

Among the Alps is likewise found a species of hares, which in summer is said to resemble other hares, but in winter become all over white, so that they are scarcely distinguishable among the snow. But this idea hath been lately exploded, nor is it certain whether the two species ever copulate together. The white hare seldom quits his rocky residence. Here are also yellow and white foxes, which in winter sometimes come down into the vallies.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.]** According to the best accounts the cantons of Switzerland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, industrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general simplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankness, together with an invincible spirit of freedom, are their most distinguishing characteristics. A very striking

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striking proof of the honesty of this people is mentioned by Mr. Coxe, who says, upon the authority of general Pfiffer, that, on each side of the road that runs through the valley of Muotta, in the canton of Schweitz, there are several ranges of small shops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked: any passengers, who wish to become purchasers, enter the shops, take away the merchandize, and deposit the price, which the owners call for in the evening. They are likewise a very enlightened nation; their common people are far more intelligent than the same rank of men in most other countries; a taste for literature is very prevalent among those who are in better circumstances, and even among many of the lowest rank; and a genuine and unartful good-breeding is extremely conspicuous in the Swiss gentry. On the first entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but observe the air of content and satisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanliness of the houses and of the people is peculiarly striking; and in all their manners, behaviour, and dress, some strong outlines may be traced, which distinguish this happy people from the neighbouring nations. Even the Swiss cottages convey the liveliest image of cleanliness, ease, and simplicity, and cannot but strongly impress upon the observer a most pleasing conviction of the peasant's happiness. In some of the cantons, each cottage has its little territory, consisting generally of a field or two of fine pasture ground, and frequently skirted with trees, and well supplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in most parts of Switzerland. Silk, lace, and several other articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in some of the cantons; and even the head-dresses of the ladies are regulated. Their diversions are chiefly of the active and warlike kind; and many of them employ part of their leisure hours in reading. The youth are generally trained to martial exercises, such as running, wrestling, throwing the hammer, and shooting, both with the cross-bow and the musket.

The pensive shades of the Swiss character may, in some degree, be attributed to the nature of the country in which they live. Accustomed to magnificent and solemn scenes, they acquire an elevated, and often a gloomy turn of mind, which shews itself in lofty sentiments, in deep reflection, in strong national affections, and sometimes in very deliberate suicide. Their imagination is quick and ardent, and their passions are lively; but they seldom exhibit broad traits of humour, or features of ludicrous description. Their love of their country, and the tenderness with which in other lands they cherish the remembrance of it, is well known by some striking accounts. This, however, is common to them with all people who inhabit countries of a very marked and peculiar character; where strong local impressions are made at an early age, and attachments are firmly rooted in, and grow up, as it were, with the constitution.

[**GOITERS AND IDIOTS.**] The inhabitants in one part of this country, particularly in the republic of Vallais, are very much subject to *goiters*, or large excrescences of flesh that grow from the throat, and often increase to a most enormous size: but what is more extraordinary, idiotism also remarkably abounds among them. "I saw," says Mr. Coxe, "many instances of both kinds, as I passed through Sion: some idiots were basking in the sun with their tongues out, and their heads hanging down, exhibiting an affecting spectacle of intellectual imbecility. The causes which produce a frequency of these phenomena in this country, form a very curious question."

The notion that snow-water occasions these excrescences is totally void of foundation. For on that supposition, why are the natives of those places that lie most contiguous to the glaciers, and who drink no other water than what descends immediately from those immense reservoirs of ice and snow, free from this malady? And why are the inhabitants of those countries in which there is no snow, afflicted with it? For these guttural tumours are to be found in the environs of Naples, in the

the island of Sumatra, and at Patna, and Purnea in the East Indies, where snow is unknown.

The springs, that supply drink to the natives, are impregnated with a calcareous matter, called in Switzerland *tuf*, nearly similar to the incrustations of Matlock in Derbyshire, so minutely dissolved as not in the least to affect the transparency of the water. It is not improbable, that the impalpable particles of this substance, thus dissolved, should introduce themselves into the glands of the throat, and produce goiters, for the following reasons; because *tuf*, or this calcareous deposition, abounds in all those districts, where goiters are common. There are goitrous persons and much *tuf* in Derbyshire, in various parts of the Vallais, in the Valteline, at Lucerne, Friburgh, and Berne, near Aigle and Bex, in several places of the Pays de Vaud, near Dresden, in the valleys of Savoy and Piedmont, near Turin and Milan. But the strongest proof in favour of this opinion, says our author, is derived from the following facts. A surgeon, whom I met at the baths of Leuk, informed me that he had not unfrequently extracted concretions of *tuf-stone* from several goiters; and that from one in particular, which suppurated, he had taken several flat pieces, each about half an inch long. He added, that the same substance is found in the stomachs of cows, and in the goitrous tumours, to which even the dogs of the country are subject. He had diminished and cured the goiters of many young persons by emollient liquors, and external applications; and prevented them in future by removing his patients from the places where the springs are impregnated with *tuf*; and, if that could not be contrived, by forbidding the use of water which was not purified.

Children are occasionally born with guttural swellings, but this may arise from the aliment of the mother. It is to be presumed, that a people accustomed to these excreescences will not be shocked at their deformity; but it does not appear, as some writers assert, that they consider them as beauties. To judge from the accounts of many travellers, it might be supposed that the natives, without exception, were either idiots or goitrous: whereas, in fact, the Valaisans, in general, are a robust race; and all that with truth can be affirmed, is, that goitrous persons and idiots are more abundant in some districts of the Vallais, than perhaps in any other part of the globe. It has been asserted that the people very much respect these idiots, and even consider them as *blessings from heaven*. The common people, it is certain, esteem them so, for they call them "*Souls of God, without sin*;" and many parents prefer these idiot-children to those whose understandings are perfect; because as they are incapable of intentional criminality, they consider them as certain of happiness in a future state. Nor is this opinion entirely without its good effect, as it disposes the parents to pay greater attention to such helpless beings. These idiots are suffered to marry, as well among themselves as with others\*.

[RELIGION.] Though all the Swiss cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table prefixed, may perceive. Those differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which seem now to have subsided; and the two sects live together in the most perfect harmony; an union the more remarkable, when we consider the fatal quarrels that have been kindled in Switzerland on account of religious tenets. In several parts of the canton of Glarus, the Protestants and Catholics successively perform service in the same church; and all the offices of state are amicably administered by the two parties. Zuinglius was the apostle of protestantism in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Calvin and Luther only in a few speculative points; so that Calvinism is said to be the religion of the protestant Swisses. But this must be understood chiefly with respect to the mode of church government;

\* Cox's Travels through Switzer-land, vol. 1. p. 585, &c.

for in some doctrinal points they are far from being universally Calvinistical. There is, however, too much religious bigotry prevalent among them; and though they are ardently attached to the interest of civil liberty, their sentiments on the subject of religious toleration are in general much less liberal.

Mr. Gray gives a very interesting description of his being present at the ceremony of two girls taking the veil: one of them appeared to be about eighteen, and had a pretty face, with an expression somewhat sullen: the other was about twenty-four, her countenance meek, and expressive of gentle seriousness by a melancholy smile. The ceremony was extremely interesting: the solemnity of the scene, the presence of the parents, the grave and venerable appearance of the abbot, the prostration of the women, the tearing of the chaplets, the cutting off the hair, and the change of dress, suggested many considerations. In a voluntary resignation of the world, and in a solemn dedication to God, there is somewhat grand and awful; but who is not grieved at the sight, when he reflects that religion was not designed for seclusion, but to qualify its disciples for active life; that parental authority, or insidious persuasion; the flattery of artful caresses, the allurements of misrepresented piety, or the desire of distinction, often prompt to exertions, in which subsequent reflection will meditate with unavailing regret and helpless sorrow? Who can behold, without regret and indignation, the ministers of religion prescribing an oath, in which the ties of kindred are solemnly abjured, the parents standing by and countenancing the sacrifice with unmoved features, and not a Swiss girl present shedding a tear at the sight of two young and interesting persons throwing away all attachments and engagements, till life should terminate in eternity?

LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the most common is German. The Swisses who border upon France speak a bastard French, as those near Italy do a corrupted Latin or Italian.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Calvin, whose name is so well known in all protestant countries, instituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high esteem by the most learned of that country. The eloquent and popular, but often wild and dangerous writer, J. J. Rousseau, was born in the same city. M. Bonnet, and Mess. de Saussure and de Luc, deserve to be mentioned as good naturalists. Haller, a native of Berne, deserves the highest eulogy as a poet, a physiologist, and a philosopher, to whom Michaelis, the eminent orientalist, with some justice applies an observation which had been made on the genius of Aristotle; "*Neque celo, neque terra, neque mari quicquam relinquere voluit incognitum, indole præterea adeo mirabili, ut ad singula notum præcipue dicas*:" i. e. He left nothing unexplored, either in the heavens, on the earth, or in the sea, and was of such a wonderful capacity, that he seemed peculiarly born for the object of each separate pursuit.

The Swiss, who have a country of such peculiar scenery to describe, should form a school of painting of their own; but it is singular that Switzerland has as yet produced neither poets nor painters, who have much distinguished themselves. The sublime poem of Haller, on the Alps, is almost the only important description in poetry, of Swiss scenery, by a native of Switzerland; and, till lately, it has had no painters of landscape known beyond their country. The natives become familiar with the grand and noble scenes of their country, before they have attention to admire and powers to imitate them; and Switzerland has scarce yet arrived to that refinement of civilization, in which a knowledge of the polite arts leads men to the investigation of their principles. The foreigners who travel here for the first time, are astonished at the stupendous character of the objects which they behold; but these they dare not attempt to copy. The mountain, with its summit of snow, could not, perhaps, be introduced with harmony. The lake is too spacious for representation; and he who should select only the picturesque cottage, or the woody bank undermined and rugged, would not characterize his work as a description of

Switzerland. Painters, however, may study here every department of the art; and when a *Salvator Rosa* shall arise, he will find materials to employ his pencil.

UNIVERSITIES.] The university of Basle, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious physic-garden, which contains the choicest exotics; and adjoining to the library, which possesses some valuable manuscripts, is a museum well furnished with natural and artificial curiosities, and with a great number of medals and paintings. In the cabinets of *Erasinus* and *Amerbach*, which also belong to this university, there are no less than twenty original pieces of *Holbein*; for one of which, representing a dead *Christ*, a thousand ducats have been offered. The other universities, which indeed are commonly only styled colleges, are those of *Bern*, *Lausanne*, and *Zurich*.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Every district of a canton in this mountain-  
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. }ous country presents the traveller with a natural curiosity; sometimes in the shape of wild but beautiful prospects, interspersed with lofty buildings, and wonderful hermitages, especially one, two leagues from *Friburg*. This was formed by the hands of a single hermit, who laboured on it for 25 years, and was living in 1707. It is the greatest curiosity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour 28 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, ceiling, all cut out of the rock.

At *Shaffhausen* is a very extraordinary bridge over the *Rhine*, justly admired for the singularity of its architecture. The river is extremely rapid, and had already destroyed several stone bridges of the strongest construction, when a carpenter of *Appenzel* offered to throw a wooden bridge, of a single arch, across the river, which is near four hundred feet wide. The magistrates, however, required that it should consist of two arches, and that he should for that purpose employ the middle pier of the old bridge. Accordingly the architect was obliged to obey; but he has contrived to leave it a matter of doubt, whether the bridge is supported by the middle pier, and whether it would not have been equally as safe if formed solely of one arch. The sides and top are covered, and it is what the Germans call *hängewerk*, or hanging bridge; the road, which is almost level, is not carried, as usual, over the top of the arch; but, if the expression may be allowed, is let into the middle of it, and there suspended. A man of the slightest weight feels it almost tremble under him, yet waggons heavily laden pass over without danger. It has been compared to a tight rope, which trembles when struck, but still preserves its firm and equal tension. The architect *Ulric Grubenman* was originally a carpenter, without the least tincture of literature, and totally ignorant of mathematics. The bridge was finished in less than three years, and cost about 8000l. sterling.

At the famous pass of the *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is carried through a solid rock near 50 feet thick, the height of the arch 26, and its breadth 25. The *marcasites*, false diamonds, and other stones, found in these mountains, are justly ranked among the natural curiosities of the country. The ruins of *Cæsar's* wall, which extended 18 miles in length, from *Mount Jura* to the banks of *Lake Leman*, are discernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been discovered near the baths of *Baden*, which were known to the Romans in the time of *Tacitus*, and at *Avanche* in the canton of *Bern*. Switzerland boasts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of *Jesuits*; and many cabinets of valuable manuscripts, antiques, and curiosities of all kinds. At *Lucerne*, (says *Mr. Coxe*) is to be seen a topographical representation of the most mountainous part of Switzerland, by general *Philser*, a native of this town, and an officer in the French service. It is a model in relief, and well deserves the attention of the curious traveller. What was finished in 1776, comprized about 60 square leagues, in the cantons of *Lucerne*, *Zug*, *Bern*, *Uri*, *Schweitz*, and *Underwalden*. The model was twelve feet long, and

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and nine and a half broad. The composition is principally a malle of charcoal lime, clay, a little pitch, with a thin coat of wax; and is so hard as to be trod upon without receiving the least damage. The whole is painted with different colours, representing the objects as they exist in nature. It is worthy of particular observation, that not only the woods of oak, beech, pine, and other trees are distinguished; but also that the strata of the several rocks are marked, each being shaped upon the spot, and formed with granite, gravel, calcareous stone, or such other natural substances as compose the original mountains. The plan is indeed so minutely exact, that it comprizes not only all the mountains, lakes, towns, villages, and forests; but every cottage, every torrent, every road, and even every path is distinctly and accurately represented. The general takes his elevations from the level of the lake of Lucerne, which, according to M. de Saussure, is about fourteen hundred and eight feet above the Mediterranean. This model, exhibiting the most mountainous parts of Switzerland, conveys a sublime picture of immense Alps piled one upon another: as if the story of the Titans were realized, and they had succeeded (at least in one spot of the globe) in heaping Ossa upon Pelion, and Olympus upon Ossa. From the account of this officer it appears, that there are continued chains of mountains of the same elevation, rising in progression to the highest range, and from thence gradually descending in the same proportion to Italy. Near Rosiniere, is a famous spring which rises in the middle of a natural basin of twelve square feet—the force that acts upon it must be prodigious; after a great shower of rain, it carries up a column of water as thick as a man's thigh, nearly a foot above its surface. Its temperature never varies, its surface is clear as crystal, and its depth unfathomable; perhaps it is the end of some subterraneous lake that hath here found an issue for its waters.

**CITIES.]** All the cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided with arsenals, bridges, and public edifices. Basil is situated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, and the confines of Alsace and the empire. It contains two hundred and twenty streets, and six market places. The town-house, which stands on the river Birsee, is supported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. The situation of Basil is pleasing: the Rhine divides it into the upper and lower town, and it is considered as one of the keys of Switzerland. Baden is famous for its antiquity and baths. Zurich is far less considerable than Bern, but in the arsenal is shewn the bow of the famous William Tell, and in the library (says Mr. Gray) are three original manuscript letters, written in Latin, by Lady Jane Gray to Bullinger, with some elegance of style, but with much extravagance of compliment. In one hyperbolical strain, she inconsiderately enumerates St. John among other exemplary characters, to whom Bullinger, in her opinion, was not inferior in piety. One of the letters, however, was written in 1551, when she was only fourteen years of age; the others in 1552, when she was about to learn Hebrew.

To prevent a repetition, I shall here mention the city of Geneva, which is an associate of Switzerland, and is under the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itself is an independent state and republic. The city is well built and well fortified, and contains 24,000 inhabitants. It is situated upon the Rhone, where it flows from the fine lake of Geneva. The streets are not broad, and derive no embellishment from the lofty wooden arcades which shelter them from the sun. They are cheerful, however, and thronged with a busy active people. The houses which face the lake, and those which overlook the parks, are very handsome: the inns are good, the walks pleasant, and much resorted to. The environs of Geneva are very beautiful: the walks of the lake, with the view of the Salve, the mole, the glaciers, and mount Blanc, always afford pleasure. It is celebrated for the learning

of the professors of its university, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeness of its inhabitants. By its situation, it is a thoroughfare from Germany, France, and Italy. It contains a number of fine manufactures and artists; so that the protestants, especially such as are of a liberal turn, esteem it a most delightful place. But the fermentation of their politics, and particularly the usurpation of the senate, hath divided the inhabitants into parties, and the late struggle of patricians and plebeians had nearly ruined all.

Geneva (from the account of Mr. Gray, who travelled into the country in 1791, is very populous. The Lutheran religion is tolerated here, and strangers may be admitted to the rights of burghers. The English are here in great numbers; many have houses. The young men travel upon a disinterested plan, of shewing the manners of their own country, while they study those of other nations. They drive, drink, and game in a gentlemanly and spirited way as in England: sometimes, indeed, they have an altercation with the magistrates of a government, which, though it respects and values the English nation, makes but little allowance for the disorderly and eccentric vivacity of our men of fashion, and has been known to punish, very sternly, slight offences against the regulations of the town. The usual plan adopted by the young Englishmen in Switzerland is, nominally, to board *en pension*, as it is called, with some professor, for which large sums are paid by the parent or guardian, while the young men themselves, spend much larger, and in a much better style, at Secheron's hotel, near Geneva; or in visiting, in expensive schemes, the different parts of the country. The professors are, certainly, many of them, men of learning; but too frequently it happens, that their understandings are narrow; and as the oeconomy of a Swiss house is not liberal, and the manners of the Swiss, in domestic life, must appear coarse and inelegant, we cannot be surprized that young men, accustomed to the politeness and luxuries of genteel families in England, should at an age which begins to reject control, rather ramble with their countrymen in expensive excursions, than confine themselves for superficial lectures on the Swiss governments, to domestic society so little refined. We must, however, except from these remarks a few enlightened men, whose judgment enables them to select, and whose liberal manners qualify them to associate with the best circles at Geneva, Lausanne, and perhaps other principal towns of Switzerland. Some such there are whose reputation are spread beyond the boundaries of their country. The advantages of these men's houses may be considerable, and furnish the occasion for an introduction to families, where some polish has been brought on, without corrupting the simplicity of the Swiss manners. It must be observed only, that it cannot be obtained without great expence, and the risk of forming attachments with women, who, whatever may be their merit, have foreign connections and different principles, and lastly, that it is still difficult for a young man to resist the attraction of a dissipated English society, always within reach. Such is the hazard of being *en pension*; and as for the general cast of houses in which the English are placed, there is considerable risk, and very little benefit to be obtained, by exporting young men here for foreign education; while every advantage of seeing Switzerland, and of studying the constitution and manners of the people, may be better gained by travelling leisurely through the country, under the direction of a tutor of known character and conduct; as a discreet tutor, or an experienced friend.

The inhabitants of Geneva have a general kind of information, which excites surprize in strangers; though, on farther acquaintance, it is often discovered to be superficial enough. They are almost all educated at a public academy, which is well regulated, and supported at the public expence. Here they imbibe a taste for literature, which every citizen is enabled to keep up, by a permission to borrow books at the public library opened to them for that purpose once a week. Literary societies

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societies, though controlled by government, still assemble.—They estimate the population of this city at 22,000 souls.

Lausanne is an irregular town, with few buildings that deserve notice. The cathedral is a light Gothic edifice; near it there is a walk which commands a glorious view of the lake and the projecting mountains, the coast of Chablais, &c. Mr. Gibbon, the late elegant historian of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, loved this country from his early youth, and chose this town for his residence, where he enjoyed, under a mild government, amidst a beautiful landscape, a life of leisure and independence, and the varied pleasures of retirement and society, among a people of easy and elegant manners. All the houses in Lausanne, that are in continuation from that in which this philosopher lived, border on the lake, and have a view that no other country can equal. The college is a large building, which contains a library of many thousand volumes, of which the English are allowed the use, in consideration of many donations by Englishmen. The baillif's castle is well situated. The land scenery near Lausanne is picturesque; the town is divided by a kind of valley; the parts of which would be better connected by a bridge, like that at Edinburgh, than by steps, as it is now. Many English reside here, (says Mr. Gray, in 1791) and something of English manners prevails.

Neuchâtel is sweetly situated on the lake of that name. It is an agreeable town, and has a neat appearance. The Prussian governor seldom resides here, though he has the disposal of the civil and military appointments, with a limitation to the burghers, or subjects of Neuchâtel. No laws can be enacted but by the council of state, the magistrates of the town, and the people of Vallengin. Their municipal immunities and independent privileges are secured by very important regulations, accepted by the house of Brandenburg before it was invested with the sovereignty of Neuchâtel. The people enjoy a considerable share of liberty, and are but slightly taxed. Trade, unfettered by partial restrictions, flourishes to a considerable extent. Many English choose Neuchâtel as an agreeable place of residence. Here is a good and well regulated society; the people are cheerful and affable; the women and girls converse with great frankness and good humour; they are not taught to be apprehensive of men, for the laws protect them from the insidious designs of seduction. If a man corrupt a girl, he must marry her, or give up his country or possessions for ever; or if he be previously married, he is compelled to make very large pecuniary reparations. The magistrates exert themselves with great activity, and prevent all public prostitutes. The people are cheerful and polite: among them resides Mr. Du Perou, the editor of the posthumous continuation of Rousseau's Confessions. The population of the district of Neuchâtel amounts to 36,000 souls; an immense number for a country not more than 36 miles in length, and 15 in its broadest extent, the greater part of which is lofty and barren mountains. If princes knew their real interest, they must be conscious, that the more free, the more flourishing would be their dominions.

Bern is a very handsome town. The streets are spacious; the piazzas, with their low-arched fronts, give it a peculiar character; the store-houses would appear to more advantage, if the arcades were more lofty; the walk, likewise, would in that case be equally sheltered from sun or rain, and there would be a freer circulation of air. The town is kept neat, but it is by felons, chained with a collar and hook over their heads. The terraces, particularly that behind the cathedral, which overlooks the Aar, afford very agreeable walks, where the Bern ladies, who are very pretty, exhibit their charms better displayed in dress than those of most of their country women. The refinements of a rich aristocracy has introduced more of the French manners here, than prevails in the other parts of Switzerland. The public

public buildings at Bern are handsome, though they do not shew any great departure from the simplicity of the country, which consults utility rather than ornament in its buildings, even when the dawns of taste most appear. The hotel de Ville, at which the council and senate assemble, is an old building; in it are some convenient rooms, and some historical pictures, not much interesting as paintings, but only as they relate to the foundation of Bern, and the origin of the charter of the town. The new room for the library shews but little advancement in skill of architecture: it is ill contrived, and fitted up with but little taste or respect to the convenience of readers: it is rich in manuscripts.

Schaffhausen, the capital of the smallest canton in Switzerland, exhibits an appearance of republican equality. The houses are plain and somewhat dirty; there is no contrast of disproportionate splendour; no palace to excite the envy of the neighbouring buildings; on the other hand, there is no edifice for the stranger to admire; no monument for national vanity or taste to point out. The free States of antiquity, long before the private citizen was well lodged, erected public edifices, with emulation of ornament; and republics, as well as monarchies, had magnificent baths, theatres, and temples. The genius of Switzerland is different; the Swifs are not rich; they are fond of simplicity, and consider with a jealous eye whatever indicates the approach of luxury and foreign taste. The fortrefs, and the curious bridge by Ulric Grubenman, of Tussen, are the only public works that engage attention.

Constance was once a very populous city. It flourished while the reformed faith was established, and began to decline as soon as the Romish religion was again set up under Charles the Fifth, in opposition to the endeavours of the league of Smalkalde. Though it is so finely situated for trade, the repeated attempts which have been made to establish manufactures have always failed. The distance from Vienna, the jealousy of the senate of Constance, the pride of the nobility, and the spirit of the Romish religion, which is unpropitious to trade, have been enumerated amidst the causes that have continued to stifle the exertions of the Swifs. The town has the appearance of decline; it contains about 6,000 inhabitants; but its deserted streets would not be too much thronged by ten times that number; they retain, however, somewhat of elegance; and the quay, the adjacent white buildings, reflected by the transparent waters of the lake; the neighbouring convents, and the view of the snowy furrowed mountains of Appenzel, give a striking and interesting character to the town. The view of its solitary streets excites reflections on its history, and lamentations on its departed grandeur. The room in which the council was held in 1414, which contributed to inculcate the subjection of the papal power to general councils, is now a repository for lumber, old armour, watermen's jackets, &c. The emperor's and the pope's chair are still there.—At the Benedictine convent are shewn some cabinets of natural history; at the cathedral a fine altar; and, from the tower, a striking view of the two lakes.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The commerce of Switzerland is very inconsiderable. Its exports consist of linens, muslin, hides, and the produce of their dairies, which are small huts called *Chalets*, built on the mountains, where, during the summer months, their cattle are sent to feed. The Swifs cheese is excellent, and consequently much esteemed in the neighbouring countries, particularly in France, where a great consumption is made of it. Their imports are considerable, though a frugal people, they being in want of corn, iron, and salt; the latter article they draw from France: and according to the treaties of alliance subsisting between the two countries, receive annually a certain quantity at a much more reasonable price than it is sold by the French government to their own subjects. Nevertheless, even in Switzerland it is a dear article, being retailed by the

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officers of state, who monopolize and draw a principal part of the public revenues from its sale. The total receipt of Bern amounts to about 75,000*l.* and of Zurich to a little more than one half. Exclusive of this tax on salt, the revenue is made up of customs and duties on merchandise, the profits of demesne lands, and the tithes of the general produce of the country (the clergy being paid by government) : to which might be added the money that the different cantons receive from foreign powers, for the hire of their troops. This is a custom which has given rise to a difference of opinion among the Swiss, relative to its advantage or ill consequence. They, who oppose it, maintain that the officers and soldiers of these regiments acquire the vices of the different countries in which they serve, and on their return to Switzerland, by spreading them, corrupt the purer morals of its inhabitants. In answer to this it is asserted, that, as the revenues of the cantons are inadequate to the expences of government and the support of a sufficient army for the national defence, it is necessary to pursue this system laid down by their ancestors, as it gives them all the advantages of a regular army, without the expence of its maintenance, it being stipulated in their treaties, that in case of attack from a foreign enemy, these troops, which amount to 30,000, should be at liberty to return home and act in concert with their countrymen. Both of these arguments are plausible ; but the question is, if they be admitted as fact, whether the morality of a nation should be sacrificed to its policy ; but it may be asserted again, that true policy is inseparable from good morals ; and still further, the Swiss cannot be apprehensive of the encroachments of any foreign state as long as they perceive that the general aim of Europe is to preserve an equilibrium of power : this balance is their best, and indeed their only safeguard ; for Switzerland, with all its force could never maintain a defensive war against either France or the emperor. The Swiss and their allies are supposed to amount to more than two millions of souls. Their manner of living is much more simple than that of their neighbours, as they are more restricted by their respective governments ; sumptuary laws being in full force among them, and no amusement, such as games of hazard, plays, operas, or even dancing, except at appointed times being permitted. As every citizen is a soldier (the clergy excepted) they on Sundays, after divine service, go through the military exercise ; they are careful of the education of their youth, as is evident from their public seminaries or universities ; the principal of which are at Basil and Bern.

**NATIONAL CHARACTER.]** In giving a sketch of the national character, notice will only be taken of the popular governments, as the people there retain the temper and manner of the ancient Swiss, more than the other cantons. Of them I think very favourably, provided I except those of the lower class, who have seen other countries, or have any communication with travellers, as such are not only in this, but I believe in every country of the world, mercenary and deceitful. With regard to the general inhabitants of these cantons, they seem to be frugal without meanness ; brave without vanity ; and hospitable without ostentation : to strangers they are courteous and polite, without being either designing or troublesome. They value but little those distinctions of rank, birth, and fortune, which in the other countries of Europe, and indeed in the other cantons of Switzerland, are so obsequiously cultivated, as they measure the dignity of the situation by the merit of the individual. Every man here knows the advantages of his own free government ; and as he also knows himself to be a component part of it, is from interest as well as principle, a real patriot. Such is their attachment to their country, that of the Swiss regiments in foreign service, many of the soldiers, after a long absence, pine and sicken for their return. Should that liberty be refused them (which never is, from experience of the ill consequence) their death is inevitable ; as neither promotion nor emolument can dissipate the melancholy that preys upon them. Home

is the only cure of this singular malady, which is called the *Swiss sickness*\*, and that cure is infallible. In domestic life their private virtues flow from their public character; to their parents they are grateful and obedient; to their families affectionate and attentive; inflexible in friendship; mild as superiors, and benevolent as men.

The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, stockings, handkerchiefs, ribbands, silk and printed cottons, and gloves, are common in Switzerland, and the inhabitants are now beginning, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, to fabricate silks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progress in those manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a prospect of being able soon to make considerable exports.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] These are very complicated heads, though belonging to the same body, being partly aristocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton is absolute in its own jurisdiction; but those of Bern, Zurich, and Lucerne, with their dependencies, are aristocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Bern excepted. Those of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Basil, though it has the appearance of an aristocracy, rather inclines to a democracy. But even those aristocracies and democracies differ in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them the real interests of the people appear to be much attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happiness not to be expected in despotic governments. Each canton hath prudently reconciled itself to the errors of its neighbour, and cemented on the basis of affection a system of mutual defence.

The confederacy, considered as a republic, comprehends three divisions. The first are the *Swisses*, properly so called. The second are the *Grisons*, or the *states*, confederated with the *Swisses*, for their common protection. The third are those *prefectures*, which, though subject to the other two, by purchase or otherwise, preserve each its own particular magistrates. Every canton forms within itself a little republic; but when any controversy arises that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which sits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every question is decided by the majority. The general diet consists of two deputies from each canton, besides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bien. It is observed by Mr. Coxe, to whom the public are indebted for the best account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there is no country in which happiness and content more universally prevail among the people. For whether the government be aristocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general spirit of liberty pervades and actuates the several constitutions; so that even the oligarchical states (which, of all others are usually the most tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the subject is securely guarded against every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their sumptuary laws, and equal division of their fortunes among their children, seem to ensure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the same extent of region, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with such wisdom was the Helvetic union composed, and so little have the *Swiss*, of late years, been actuated by the spirit of conquest, that since the firm and complete establishment of their general confederacy, they have scarcely ever had occasion to employ their arms against a

\* They call it in German *das heim wehe*. There is no motive that induces us to recollect the places which we love, more than the *music* we have heard in them, and from this it is that all songs and tunes

that were popular in their country, are strictly forbidden among the *Swiss* regiments in foreign service.

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foreign enemy; and have had no hostile commotions among themselves, that were not very soon happily terminated.

**REVENUES AND TAXES.]** The variety of cantons that constitute the Swiss confederacy, renders it difficult to give a precise account of their revenues. Those of the canton of Berne are said to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and those of Zurich to 150,000; the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is saved, after defraying the necessary expences of government, is laid up as a common stock; and it has been said, that the Swisles are possessed of 300,000l. sterling in the English funds, besides money in other banks.

The revenues arise, 1. From the profits of the demesne lands; 2. The tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. Customs and duties on merchandise; 4. The revenues arising from the sale of salt, and some casual taxes.

**MILITARY STRENGTH.]** The internal strength of the Swiss cantons, independent of the militia, consists of 13,400 men, raised according to the population and abilities of each. The œconomy and wisdom with which this force is raised and employed are truly admirable, as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign states and princes are supplied, so as to benefit the state, without any prejudice to its population. Every burgher, peasant, and subject, is obliged to exercise himself in the use of arms; appear on the stated days for shooting at a mark; furnish himself with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiss engage in the service of foreign princes and states, either as guards, or as marching regiments. In the latter case, the government permits the enlisting volunteers, though only for such states as they are in alliance with, or with whom they have entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no subject is to be forced into foreign service, or even to be enlisted without the concurrence of the magistracy.

**HISTORY.]** The present Swisles and Grisons, as has been already mentioned, are the descendants of the ancient Helvetii, subdued by Julius Cæsar. Their mountainous, uninviting situation, formed a better security for their liberties, than their forts or armies; and the same is the case at present. They continued long under little better than nominal subjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor Albert I. treated them with so much rigour, that they petitioned him against the cruelty of his governors. This served only to double the hardships of the people; and one of Albert's Austrian governors, Gessler, in the wantonness of tyranny, set up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much respect as to himself. The famous William Tell, being observed to pass frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent marksman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unless he cleft an apple upon his son's head, at a certain distance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Gessler asking him the meaning of another arrow he saw stuck in his belt, he bluntly answered, that it was intended to his [Gessler's] heart, if he had killed his son. Tell was immediately sent to prison; but making his escape, he watched his opportunity, and shot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundations of the Helvetic liberty.

It appears, however, that before this event the revolt of the Swisles from the Austrian tyranny had been planned by some noble patriots among them. Their measures were so just, and their course so intrepid, that they soon effected a union of several cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppression, sought first an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Suisse, and Underwald, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent successes of their arms against Albert, duke of Austria, insensibly formed the grand Helvetic

union.

union. They first conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne joined them in 1353; Friburg and Soleure 130 years after; Basil and Scaffhaufen in 1501; and Appenzel in 1513 completed the confederacy, which resisted the united powers of France and Germany; till by the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent state.

Neuchâtel, since the year 1707, has been under the protection of Prussia, but the inhabitants are free to serve any prince whatever. The king of Prussia hath the power of recruiting among them, and of naming a governor, but the revenue he derives is not above 5000l. yearly, great part of which is laid out on the roads and other public works of the country. With regard to the military character, and great actions of the Swisses, I must refer the reader to the histories of Europe.

## S P A I N.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees.

Length 700 } between 10 and 3 East longitude.  
 Breadth 500 } { 36 and 44 North latitude.

Containing 150,763 SQUARE MILES, with 69 Inhabitants to each.

**BOUNDARIES.]** IT is bounded on the West by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean; by the Mediterranean, on the East; by the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenean Mountains, which separate it from France, on the North; and by the strait of the sea at Gibraltar, on the South.

It is now divided into fourteen districts, besides islands in the Mediterranean.

Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Spain.				
Castile, New	27,840	220	180	MADRID { N. lat. 40-30. W. Lon. 4-15
Andalusia	16,500	273	135	Seville
Castile, Old	14,400	193	140	Burgos
Aragon	13,818	190	105	Saragossa
Estremadura	12,000	180	123	Badajos
Gallicia	12,000	165	120	Compostella
Leon	11,200	167	96	Leon
Catalonia	9,000	172	110	Barcelona
Granada	8,100	200	45	Granada
Valencia	6,800	180	75	Valencia
Biscay and Ipufcoa	4,760	140	55	Bilboa
Asturia	4,600	124	55	Oviedo
Murcia	3,600	87	65	Murcia
Upper Navarre	3,000	92	45	Pampeluna
In the Medi- terranean.				
Majorca I.	1,400	58	40	Majorca
Yvica I.	625	37	25	Yvica
Minorca I.	520	41	20	Citadella
Total—	150,763			

The town and fortress of Gibraltar, subject to Great Britain.

Spain has also been subdivided in the following manner:

Title.	Prov.	Subdivision.	Title.	Chief towns.	Considerable towns.
Kingdom	Galicia	{ Compostella Mondonedo Lugo Ortense Tuy	Archbishoprick Bishoprick Bishoprick Bishoprick Territory	Compostella Mondonedo Lugo Ortense Tuy	{ Corunna. Ferrol. Vigo. Betanzo. Rivadavia.
Principality	Asturia	{ Asturia Asturia	de Oviedo de Santillana	Oviedo Santillana	{ Aviles. St. Vincent.
Lordship	Biscay	{ Biscay Guipiscoa Alava	Proper	Bilboa Tholosa Vittoria	{ St. Sebastian. St. Andrew. Laredo.
Kingdom	Navarre	{ Pampeluna Olita Tudela Estella Sanguesa	Majorship Majorship Majorship Majorship Majorship	Pampeluna Olita Tudela Estella Sanguesa	
Province	Old Castile	{ Burgos Rioxa Calahorra Soria Osma Valadolid Segovia Avila Siguenfa	District District District District District District District District	Burgos Logronno Calahorra Soria Osma Valadolid Segovia Avila Siguenfa	{ Rea, Aranda, Calzada, and St. Domingo.
	New Castile	{ N. of the Tajo Upon the Tajo E. of Toledo On the Guadiana E. of Madrid Frontiers of Valencia N. W. of Madrid N. E. of Madrid N. E. of Madrid La Mancha S. La Sierra E. On the Guadiana Frontiers of Valencia		Madrid Toledo Cuenca Civdad Real Alcala de Henarez Almanza Efeurial Guadalaxara Brihuega  Calatrava Villena Requena	

Title.	Prov.	Subdivision.	Title	Chief towns.	Considerable towns.
Kingdom	Aragon	Saragossa	Archbishoprick	Saragossa	Calataud and Boria.
		Jaca	Bishoprick	Jaca	
Principality	Catalonia	Huesca	Bishoprick	Huesca	Maurcia.
		Balbastro	Bishoprick	Balbastro	
		Taracona	Bishoprick	Taracona	
		Albarafin	Bishoprick	Albarafin	
		Terucl	Bishoprick	Terucl	
		Sobarbe	Bishoprick	Ainsa	
		Barcelona	District	Barcelona	
		Urgel	District	Urgel	
Balaguer	District	Balaguer			
Lerida	District	Lerida			
Tortosa	District	Tortosa			
Girone	District	Girone			
Tarragona	District	Tarragona			
Lampredan	District	Rofes			
Vich	District	Vich			
Cardonna	District	Cardonna			
Solfonna	District	Solfonna			
Puycerda	District	Puycerda			
Kingdom	Valencia	Xucar	District	Valencia	Segorbe, Xativa, Alicante, Denia, Utiel, Innurcia, Morvedre, Gandia, Morvedre, Vilareal, Alcala, Altea.
		Millaros	District	Villa Hermosa	
		Segura	District	Origuela	
Kingdom	Leon	North of the Douro		Leon	Palencia, or Placencia
		South of the Douro		Toro	
Province	Estremadura	On the Guadiana		Zamora	Placentia
		North of the Tajo		Astorgo	
		Between Tajo and Guadiana		Salamauca	Coria
		South of the Guadiana		Alva	
		On the Tajo		Civdad Rodrigo	
On the Guadiana		Merida	Badajox		
		Truxillo			
			Lenera, or Ellenera		
			Alcantara		
			Medelin		

Kingdom

Kingdom

Province

A was pania rior; Ulter Innur lers a Cu rains, vinces chear are in Suc to the their g the ac relaxin much Yet, a produc a hund tended rate ad thousn and ten one Jun hundred The suffered terward most de prunes, are in h cording

Kingdom	Prov.	Subdivision.	Title,	Chief towns.	Considerable towns.
Kingdom	Murcia	{ Murcia Lorca Carthagena	{ District Proper District	{ Murcia Lorca Carthagena	{ Caravaca & Mula
Kingdom	Granada	{ Granada Malaga Almeria Guadix	{ Archbithoprick Bithoprick Bithoprick Bithoprick	{ Granada Malaga Almeria Guadix	{ Bonda, Antique- ra, Beza & Loya
Province	Andalusia	{ Seville Jaen Corduba Medina Sidonia	{ Archbithoprick Bithoprick Bithoprick Duchy	{ Seville Jaen Corduba Medina Sidonia	{ Cadiz, Gib- raltar, St. Mary, Baeza, Offuna, St. Lucar, &c.

[ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the names of Iberia, and Hesperia, as well as Hispania. It was, about the time of the Punic wars, divided into Citerior and Ulterior; the Citerior contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largest part, comprehended all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the internal changes that it afterwards underwent; but they are less accurately known than those of any other European country.

[CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] Excepting in the season of the equinoctial rains, the air of Spain is dry and serene, but excessively hot in the southern provinces in June, July, and August. The vast mountains that run through Spain cheer the plains by refreshing breezes; and those towards the north and north-east are in the winter very cold.

Such is the moisture of the hills, bounded on the north by the bay of Biscay, and to the south by snowy mountains, that no care is sufficient to preserve their fruits, their grain, their instruments of iron, from mould, from rot, and from rust. Both the acetous and the putrid fermentation here make a rapid progress. Besides the relaxing humidity of the climate, the common food of the inhabitants contributes much to the prevalence of most diseases which infest the principality of Asturia. Yet, although subject to such a variety of endemical diseases, few countries can produce more instances of longevity: many live to the age of a hundred, some to a hundred and ten, and others much longer. The same observation may be extended to Galicia, where, in the parish of St. Juan de Poyo, A. D. 1724, the curate administered the sacrament to thirteen persons, whose ages together made one thousand four hundred and ninety-nine, the youngest of these being one hundred and ten, and the oldest one hundred and twenty-seven. But in Villa de Fofinaes, one Juan de Outeyro, a poor labourer, died in the year 1726, aged more than one hundred and forty-six years.

The soil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn, but the natives have lately suffered much through their indolence; the causes of which will be explained afterwards. It produces, in many places, almost spontaneously, the richest and most delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy, oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raisins, and figs. Her wines, especially sack and sherry, are in high request among foreigners. There are, in the district of Malaga, (according to Mr. Townsend, the latest traveller) fourteen thousand vine-presses, chiefly

rable  
ns.

Borra.

Mauréca.

Alicant, Denia,  
Gandia, Morvie-  
do, Vilareal,  
Alcira, Altea.

a

Kingdom

chiefly employed in making the rich wines, which, if white, from the nature of the country, is called *mountain*; if red, from the colour, *vino tinto*, known in England by the name of *rent*. Good mountain is sold from thirteen to sixteen pounds the butt, of one hundred and thirty-five gallons, according to quality and age. It is reckoned that from eight hundred to a thousand vessels enter this port every year, of which about one-tenth are Spanish; and the exports in wine, fruit, oil and fish, are computed at about 375,000*l.* per annum.

Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromising, because uncultivated ground; but no country perhaps maintains such a number of inhabitants, who neither toil nor work for their food; such are the generous qualities of its soil. Even sugar-canes thrive in Spain; and it yields saffron, honey, and silk, in great abundance. A late writer, Utariz, a Spaniard, computes the number of shepherds in Spain to be 40,000; and has given us a curious detail of their œconomy, their changes of pasture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars unknown till lately to the public. Those sheep-walks afford the finest of wool, and are a treasure in themselves. Some of the mountains in Spain are clothed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which renders the taste of their kids and sheep delicious. The Kingdom of Murcia abounds so much with mulberry-trees, that the product of its silk amounts to 200,000*l.* a year. Upon the whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and less to industry.

The waters of Spain, especially those that are medicinal, are little known; but many salutiferous springs are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordova. All over Spain the waters are found to have such healing qualities, as are outdone by those of no country in Europe; and the inclosing, and encouraging a resort to them, becomes daily more prevalent, especially at Alhama in Granada.

**MOUNTAINS.]** It is next to impossible to specify these, they are so numerous; the chief and the highest are the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over these mountains there are only five narrow passages to France, and the road over the pass that separates Roussillon from Catalonia reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. It formerly required the strength of 30 men to support, and nearly as many oxen to drag up, a carriage, which four horses now do with ease. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic Ocean, south of Cape Finisterre. No Englishman ought to be unacquainted with Mount Calpé, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and in former times, one of the Pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lying opposite to it in Africa.

Among the mountains in Spain, Montserrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller; one of the most singular in the world, for situation, shape, and composition. It stands in a vast plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians Monte Serrado, or Mount Scie, words which signify a cut, or fawed mountain; and is so called from its singular and extraordinary form: for it is so broken and divided, and so crowned with an infinite number of spiring cones, or pine heads, that it seems, at a distant view, to be the work of man; but upon a nearer approach, appears to be evidently the production of the God of nature. It is a spot so admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whose first vow is never to forsake it. When the mountain is first seen at a distance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, or like a pile of grotto work, or Gothic spires. Upon a nearer view, each

cone appears of itself a mountain, and the whole composes an enormous mass, about 14 miles in circumference, and the Spaniards compute it to be two leagues in height \*. As it is like no other mountain, so it stands quite unconnected with any, though not very distant from some that are very lofty. A convent is erected on the mountain, dedicated to our lady of Montserrat, to which pilgrims resort from the farthest parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed gratis for three days, and all the sick received into the hospital. Sometimes, on particular festivals, seven thousand persons arrive in one day; but people of condition pay a reasonable price for their entertainment. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels, and most of them little gardens. The inhabitant of one of these hermitages, which is dedicated to St. Benito, has the privilege of annually entertaining his brethren, when they receive the sacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar; and after divine service dine together. They meet also at this hermitage, on the days of the saints to which their several hermitages are dedicated, to say mass, and commune with each other. But at other times they live in a very solitary and reclusive manner, perform various penances, and adhere to very rigid rules of abstinence, never eating flesh. Nor are they allowed to keep within their walls either dog, cat, bird, or any living thing, lest their attention should be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly objects. The number of professed monks there, is 76, of lay-brothers 28, and of singing boys 25, besides physician, surgeon, and servants. Mr. Thicknesse, who has published a very particular description of this extraordinary mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often saw from his habitation the islands of Minorca, Majorca, and Yvica, and the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

RIVERS, LAKES, STRAITS. } Of rivers the principal are the Duero, formerly  
AND CURRENTS. } Durus, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below  
Oporto, in Portugal; the Tajo, or Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Lisbon; the Guadiana falls into the same ocean near Cape Finisterre; as does the Guadalquivir, now Turio, at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean sea below Tortosa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, rises in Sierra Morena, and empties itself into the Mediterranean near Huelva, having the name of Tinto given it, from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the sand, and petrifying it in a most surprising manner. If a stone happens to fall in, and rest upon another, they both become in a year's time perfectly united and conglutinated. This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dyes of the same hue as its waters. No kind of verdure will come up where it reaches, nor any fish live in its stream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but in general, no animals will drink out of this river, except goats, whose flesh nevertheless has an excellent flavour. These singular properties continue till other rivulets run into it, and alter its nature: for when it passes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers, and falls into the Mediterranean sea six leagues lower down.

Several lakes in Spain, especially that of Beneventa, abound with fishes, particularly excellent trout. The water of a lake near Antiquera is made into salt by the heat of the sun.

The Straits of Gibraltar (formerly known by the name of the Herculean Straits) are about twelve leagues in extent, from Cape Spartel to Ceuta point, on the African coast; and from Cape Trafalgar to Europa Point, on the coast of Spain. At the western entrance, they are in breadth about eight leagues, but diminish

\* Mr. Swinburne estimates its height at only 3,300 feet, and observes that the arms of the convent are, the Virgin Mary sitting at the foot of a rock, half cut through by a saw.

considerably

considerably about the middle, opposite Tarifa (a small fishing town on the Spanish coast, originally a place of great consequence), though they widen again between Gibraltar and Ceuta, where they are about five leagues broad.

Philosophers, who have communicated their sentiments on the extraordinary phenomenon of a constant current through the Straits of Gibraltar into the Mediterranean, differ widely in accounting for the disposition of that continual influx of waters, which, it is natural to suppose, would, without some consumption or return, soon overflow the boundaries of the Mediterranean Sea. The late ingenious Dr. Halley was of opinion, that this perpetual supply of water from the vast Atlantic Ocean was intended by nature to recruit what was daily exhaled in vapour: others again think, the waters that roll in with the centre current are returned, by two counter-streams, along the African and Spanish shores. That there are two counter-streams, is without doubt; but their rapidity and breadth bear little proportion to the principal current. A third class suppose a counter-current beneath, and of equal strength with the upper stream; and this opinion appears confirmed by a circumstance related by colonel James, in his description of the Herculean Straits, of a Dutch ship being sunk in an action by a French privateer off Tarifa, which some time afterwards was cast up near Tangier, four leagues to the westward of the place where she disappeared, and directly against the upper current. This hypothesis receives also additional support from the repeated disappointments which have been experienced by many naval officers, in attempting to found the depth of the Straits with the longest lines; for the opposition between the currents might carry the line in such directions as to defeat the intention of the experiment.

These facts seem strongly to indicate a recurrency to the westward; which, though it may not be so rapid as the upper stream, yet with the assistance of the currents along the Spanish and Barbary shores, and the necessary exhalations, may account for the Mediterranean sea never increasing by the constant supply received from the Atlantic Ocean. The rapidity of the superior current renders the passage from the Mediterranean to the westward very precarious, as ships never can stem the stream without a brisk Levanter, or easterly wind. Vessels, therefore, are often detained weeks, and sometimes months, waiting for a favourable breeze; in which case they find a comfortable birth in the Bay of Gibraltar.

BAYS.] The chief bays are those of Biscay, Ferrol, Corunna (commonly called the Groyne), Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthagea, Alicante, Altea, Valencia, Roses, Majorca in that island, and the harbour of Port-Mahon, in the island of Minorca. The strait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety as the other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agate, loadstones, jacinths, turquois stones, quicksilver, copper, lead, sulphur, alum, calamine, crystal, marbles of several kinds, porphyry, the finest jasper, and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethysts, are found here. The Spanish iron, next to that of Damascus, furnishes the best arms in the world; and in former times, brought in a vast revenue to the crown; the art of working it being here in great perfection. Even to this day, Spanish gun barrels, and swords of Toledo, are highly valued. Amongst the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and silver mines; and silver was in such plenty, that Strabo, who was contemporary with Augustus Caesar, informs us, that when the Carthaginians were masters of Spain, their domestic and agricultural utensils were made of that metal. These mines have now disappeared; but whether by their being exhausted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them, we cannot say; though the latter cause seems to be the most probable.

ANIMAL

**ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** } The Spanish horses, especially those of Andalusia, **BY SEA AND LAND.** } are thought to be the handsomest of any in Europe, and at the same time very swift and useful. The king does all he can to monopolise the finest breeds for his own stables and service. Spain furnishes likewise mules and black cattle; and their wild bulls have so much ferocity, that their bull-fights were the most magnificent spectacle the court of Spain could exhibit, nor are they now disused. Wolves are the chief beasts of prey that pester Spain, which is well stored with all game and wild fowl, that are to be found in the neighbouring countries already described. The Spanish seas afford excellent fish of all kinds, especially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection.

This country is much infested with locusts; and Mr. Dillon observes, that in 1754, La Mancha was covered with them, and the horrors of famine assailed the fruitful provinces of Andalusia, Murcia, and Valencia. They have sometimes appeared in the air in such number as to darken the sky; the clear atmosphere of Spain has become gloomy; and the finest summer day of Estremadura been rendered more dismal than the winter of Holland. Their sense of smelling is so delicate, that they can discover a corn field or a garden, at a considerable distance; which they ravage almost in an instant. Mr. Dillon is of opinion, that the country people, by timely attention and observation, might destroy the eggs of these formidable insects, and thereby totally extirpate them.

Mr. Townsend confirms the above account, and observes, that these insects commit the greatest devastations in the south of Spain, and this proceeds not merely from the warmth of climate, but from want of cultivation, because the females never deposit their eggs in arable land, but always in the deserts. For this reason Galicia, where agriculture prevails, is little infested with the locust. Of the locust tribe Linnæus reckons twenty species. Their jaw bones are strong and dented like a saw. Their head bears a striking resemblance to that of the horse, and this similitude has been remarked in the whole genus. The sound of their wings is said to be like the noise of distant chariots. They are not always considered as a plague, being commonly seen only in the forests; but when the season has been peculiarly favorable for their propagation, these rapacious insects darken the air, their assembled hosts fall upon the rich pastures, they rob the vines and olives of their foliage, they devour the corn, they enter the houses, and lay waste every thing before them, and are then justly regarded as the scourge of heaven. As such they were considered, when, for four successive years, from 1754 to 1757, they ravaged all the southern provinces of Spain and Portugal.

The description of this gloomy scene, at least of one similar to it, which a prophet has given us, is scarcely to be equalled for beauty and poetic fire. He calls upon the people to lament because a nation, strong and without number, whose teeth are the teeth of lions, had suddenly invaded them. Then, turning to the heralds, "Blow ye the trumpet, &c." which will richly compensate the reader for the trouble of consulting it. Joel ii. 1—11.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS,** } Spain, formerly the most popu-  
**CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS.** } lous kingdom in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the great drains of people sent to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who are at no pains to raise food for their families. Another cause may be assigned, and that is, the vast numbers of ecclesiastics, of both sexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Some writers have given several other causes, such as their wars with the Moors, and the final expulsion of that people. The present inhabitants of this kingdom have been computed by Feyjoo, a Spanish writer, to amount to 9,250,000; so that England is three times as populous as Spain, considering its extent.

The persons of the Spaniards are generally tall, especially the Castilians; their hair and complexions swarthy, but their countenances expressive. The court of Madrid has of late been at great pains to clear their upper lips of mustachoes, and to introduce among them the French dress, instead of their black cloaks, short jerkins, strait breeches, and long Toledo swords, which dress is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the accession of the house of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dress, in hatred and contempt of the French; and the government, probably, will find some difficulty in abolishing it quite, as the same spirit is far from being extinguished. An old Castilian, or Spaniard, who sees none above him, thinks himself the most important being in nature; and the same pride is commonly communicated to his descendants. This is the true reason why many of them are so fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of feeling a superior.

Throughout the whole of Spain (says Mr. Townsend) I cannot recollect to have seen a single country residence, like those which every where abound in England; the great nobility surround the sovereign, and are attracted by the court; the nobles of inferior rank or fortune are either assembled at Madrid, or establish themselves in the great cities of the distant provinces. This desertion of the country has arisen, not as in other countries, from the oppressions of the great barons, and from the franchises enjoyed by cities, but from two other causes more extensive in their operations. The first of these was the distracted condition of the empire till the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, divided into separate kingdoms of small extent, all engaged in endless wars against each other, which drove men of property into the cities; the second was the jealousy of the court, lest the *grandees*, supported by the people, should endeavour to regain their consequence. To this fear, at the accession of the present family, succeeded one of a more alarming nature; from the attachment which many of the great families had discovered to the house of Austria. For this reason they were assembled round the throne, and kept constantly in sight. In France some inhabited castles are to be found in every province. But, in this respect, no country can be compared to England. If the causes were to be assigned for this equal dissemination of wealth, which appears in the delightful mansions of the great, and the seats of country gentlemen, scattered over the face of the whole island; of that which is to be seen in all our cities, great towns, and country villages; which meets the eye in every farm-house, and which shews itself in the high state of cultivation, in our agricultural improvements, in the flocks, the herds, and the luxuriant crops with which our fields are covered, the leading cause would probably be found in the constitution of our government, not merely as securing life, liberty, and property, but as making it necessary for the first nobility to cultivate their interest in the country, if they will extend their influence at court. By residing on their own estates, they not only spend money among their tenants, which, by its circulation, sets every thing in motion, and becomes productive of new wealth, but their amusement is to make improvements.

Ridiculous, however, as the Spanish pride certainly is, it is connected with exalted qualities. It inspires the nation with generous, humane, and virtuous sentiments; it being seldom found that a Spanish nobleman, gentleman, or even trader is guilty of a mean action. During the most embittered wars they have had with England for near 70 years past, we know no instance of their taking advantage (as they might easily have done) of confiscating the British property on board their galleons and plate fleet, which was equally secure in time of war as peace. This is the more surprising, as Philip V. was often needy, and his ministers were far from being scrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great Britain.

By

By the best and most credible accounts of the late wars, it appears that the Spaniards in America gave the most humane and noble relief to all British subjects who were in distress, and fell into their hands, not only by supplying them with necessaries, but money; and treating them in the most hospitable manner while they remained amongst them.

Having said thus much, we are carefully to distinguish the Spanish nobility, gentry, and traders, from the lower ranks of Spaniards, who are as mean and rapacious as those of any other country. The kings of Spain of the house of Bourbon, have seldom ventured to employ native Spaniards of great families, as their ministers. These are generally French or Italians, but most commonly the latter, who rise into power by the most infamous arts, and of late times from the most abject stations. Hence it is that the French kings of Spain, since their accession to that monarchy, have been but very indifferently served in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greatest genius among them, embroiled his master with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and disgrace; and Grimaldi, the last of their Italian ministers, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppressive and unpopular measures.

The common people who live on the coasts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an assemblage of Jews, French, Russians, Irish adventurers, and English smugglers; who being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards. In time of war, they follow privateering with great success; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Irish and Walloon guards in the Spanish service. There are about 40,000 gypsies, who besides their trade of fortune-telling, are inn-keepers in the small towns and villages.—The character of the Spaniards is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne, after his late travels through the country: "The Catalans appear to be the most active stirring set of men, the best calculated for business, travelling, and manufactures. The Valencians a more sullen, sedate race, better adapted to the occupations of husbandmen, less eager to change place, and of a much more timid, suspicious cast of mind than the former. The Andalusians seem to be the greatest talkers and rhodomontadors of Spain. The Castilians have a manly frankness, and less appearance of cunning and deceit. The New Castilians are perhaps the least industrious of the whole nation: the Old Castilians are laborious, and retain more of the ancient simplicity of manners; both are of a firm determined spirit. The Arragonefe are a mixture of the Castilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biscayners are acute and diligent, fiery, and impatient of control, more resembling a colony of republicans than the province of an absolute monarchy: and the Galicians are a plodding, pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in search of an hardly earned subsistence."

The beauty of the Spanish ladies reigns mostly in their novels and romances; for though it must be acknowledged, that Spain produces 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 are said to employ vast art in supplying the defects of nature. If we are to hazard a conjecture, we might reasonably suppose that those artifices rather diminish than increase their beauty, especially when they are turned of 25. Their indiscriminate use of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, undoubtedly disfigures their complexions, and shrivels their skin. It is universally allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

Among the many good qualities possessed by the Spaniards, their sobriety in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfast, as well as sup in bed; their breakfast is usually chocolate, tea being very seldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together.

gether. They live much upon garlic, chives, salad, and radishes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine; and the women use water or chocolate. Both sexes usually sleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evening. This is the common practice in warm countries, such as Italy, Spain, and Portugal, where, generally speaking, the weather is clear, and the inhabitants are mostly in the habit of rising much earlier than in England. The human body cannot furnish spirits sufficient to resist the effects of the violent heat through the whole day, without some refreshment; it is therefore the universal practice to go to sleep for some hours after dinner, which in those countries is over early, and this time of repose, which lasts for two or three hours, is in Spain called *the Siesta*, and in Portugal *the Sesta*. Dancing is so much their favourite entertainment, that you may see a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the same country-dance. Many of their theatrical exhibitions are insipid and ridiculous bombast. The prompter's head sometimes appears through a trap-door above the level of the stage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling passion in Spain. Jealousy, since the accession of the house of Bourbon, has slept in peace. The nightly musical serenades by their mistresses by their lovers are still in use. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-fights, are almost peculiar to this country and Portugal, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On these occasions, young gentlemen 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. Great pains are used in settling the form and weapons of the combat, so as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diversion itself, which is attended with circumstances of great barbarity, is of Moorish original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaisance, and partly through rivalry.

There is scarcely a town in Spain but has a large square for the purpose of exhibiting bull-fights; and it is said that even the poorest inhabitants of the smallest villages will often club together in order to procure a cow or an ox, and fight them riding upon asses, for want of horses.

RELIGION.] The Romish religion is the only one tolerated in Spain. The inquisition, a tribunal disgraceful to human nature, is not yet abrogated; but the ecclesiastics and their officers cannot now carry any sentence into execution without the royal authority. The Spaniards, embrace and practise the Roman catholic religion with all its absurdities; and in this they have been so steady, that their king is distinguished by the epithet of *Most Catholic*. It appears, however, that the burning zeal which distinguished their ancestors above the rest of the catholic world hath lost much of its activity, and seems nearly extinguished, and the power of the clergy hath been much reduced of late years. A royal edict has also been issued, to prevent the admission of novices into the different convents, without special permission, which has a great tendency to reduce the monastic orders. It is said, that there are now, in the kingdom of Spain, 54,000 friars, 34,000 nuns, and 20,000 secular clergy, but as little true moral religion as in any country under heaven.

In Catalonia, the confidence of the people on the intercession of saints has at all periods been a source of consolation to them, but upon some occasions, has betrayed them into mischief. Every company of artificers, and every ship that sails, is under the immediate protection of some patron. Besides folio volumes, which testify the innumerable miracles performed by our lady of Montserrat, every subordinate shrine is loaded with votive tablets. This has been the parent of presumption, and among the merchants has brought many families to want. The companies

companies of insurance in the last war, having each of them its favourite saint, such as San Ramon de Penaforte, la Virgin de la Merced, and others, associated in form by the articles of partnership, and named in every policy of insurance, and having with the most scrupulous exactness allotted to them their correspondent dividend, the same as to any other partner; they concluded that with such powerful associates it was not possible for them to suffer loss. Under this persuasion they ventured, about the year 1779, to insure the French West-Indiamen at fifty per cent. when the English and the Dutch had refused to do it at any premium; and, indeed, when most of the ships were already in the English ports. By this fatal stroke all the insuring companies, except two, were ruined.

[ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] In Spain there are eight archbishopricks and forty-six bishopricks. The archbishop of Toledo is styled the Primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Castile, and hath a revenue of 100,000l. sterling per annum, but the Spanish court hath now many ways of lessening the revenues of the church, as by pensions, donations to hospitals, &c. and premiums to the societies of agriculture. This archbishoprick pays annually 15,000 ducats to the monks of the Escorial, besides other pensions; and it is asserted, that there is not a bishoprick in Spain but hath somebody or other quartered upon it, and the second-rate benefices are believed to be in the same predicament. Out of the rich canonries and prebends are taken the pensions of the new order of knights of Carlos Tercero. The riches of the Spanish churches and convents are the unvarying objects of admiration to travellers as well as natives; but there is a sameness in them all, except that they differ in the degrees of treasure and jewels they contain.

The sums which are given away in charity, by the archbishops, bishops, and convents, from their ample revenues, are immense; but the effects of it are most deplorable, in promoting indolence, poverty, and every species of wretchedness. In traversing the streets of Seville (says Mr. Townsend) I was struck with the multitude of beggars clothed in rags; and was at first inclined to attribute this to the decay of trade; but upon examination, I found a more abiding cause in the distribution of alms at the archbishop's palace, and at the gates of twenty convents daily, and without distinction, to all who make application for relief. Such misplaced benevolence is a bar to industry, and multiplies the objects of distress, whose numbers bear exact proportion to the provision made for their support. This is the case not in one, but in every place, where beggars abound, for, by the mistaken benevolence of the bishop, of the canons, and of the convents, in distributing alms to all who ask, there is such ample provision made for laziness, that every street swarms with vagabonds, not merely with those who are proper objects of compassion, but with wretches, who, if compelled to work, would be found abundantly able to maintain themselves. What incitement can there be here to industry? Hence it comes to pass, that wherever these indiscriminate charities abound, few traces of it are to be seen, whilst filth and nastiness, immorality and vice, wretchedness and poverty, the inevitable consequences of undistinguishing benevolence, prevail. How evident it is from hence, that he who finds employment for the poor is their greatest friend; whilst he who indiscriminately feeds them, should be ranked amongst their enemies.

[LANGUAGE.] The ground-work of the Spanish language, like that of the Italian, is Latin; and it might be called a bastard Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, especially the former. It is at present a majestic and expressive language: and it is remarkable, that foreigners who understand it the best, prize it the most. It makes but a poor figure even in the best translations; and Cervantes speaks almost as awkward English as Shakspere does French. It may, however, be considered as a standard tongue,

tongue, having retained its purity for upwards of 200 years. Their Paternoster runs thus; *Padre nuestro, que estas en el cielo, santificado se el tu nombre; venga a nos el tu reyno; hágase tu voluntad, asíen la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nuestro de cada dia das nos le ay; y perdona nos nuestras deudas así como nos otros perdonamos a nuestros deudores; no nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es le reyno; y la potencia; y la gloria per los siglos. Amen.*

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect is ascribed to their indolence and bigotry, and the despotic nature of their government. Several old fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes a great deal to Isidore, bishop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewise produced some excellent physicians. Such was the gloom of the Austrian government, that took place with the emperor Charles V. that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote, born at Madrid, in 1549, lifted in a station little superior to that of a common soldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he lost his left hand. His satire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much service to his country by curing them of that ridiculous spirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He was in prison for debt when he composed the first part of this history, and is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous satirists.

The Visions of Quevedo, and some other of his humorous and satirical pieces have been translated into the English language. He was born at Madrid in the year 1570, and besides his merit as a poet, was well versed in the oriental languages, and possessed great erudition. His works are comprised in three volumes, 4to. two of which consist of poetry, and the third of pieces in prose. As a poet he excelled both in the serious and burlesque style, and was happy in a turn of humour similar to that which we admire in Butler and Swift.

Poetry was cultivated in Spain at an early period. After the Saracens had settled themselves in this kingdom, they introduced into it their own language, religion, and literature; and the oriental style of poetry very generally prevailed. Before this period, the Spaniards had addicted themselves much to Roman literature: but Alvaro of Cordova complains, that in his time, the Spaniards had so totally forgotten the Latin tongue, and given the preference to Arabic, that it was difficult, even amongst a thousand people, to find one who could write a Latin letter. The attachment of many of the inhabitants of Spain to oriental literature was then so great, that they could write Arabic with remarkable purity, and compose verses with as much fluency and elegance as the Arabians themselves. About this time the Spanish Jews made a considerable figure in literature, which was promoted by masters from Babylon, where they had academies supported by themselves. In the year 967, Rabbi Moses, and his son Rabbi Enoch, having been taken by pirates, were sold as slaves at Cordova, and redeemed by their brethren, who established a school in that city, of which Rabbi Moses was appointed the head: that learned Jew was, however, desirous of returning back to his own country; but the Moorish king of Cordova would not give his consent, rejoicing that his Hebrew subjects had matters of their own religion at home, without being under the necessity of receiving them from a foreign univerlity, and every indulgence was granted them with respect to their worship. In 1039, Rabbi Ezechias was put to death at Babylon, and the college, over which he had presided, was transferred to Cordova, from whence a number of Hebrew poets issued forth, who have been noticed by various learned writers. The Spanish Jews had also flourishing schools at Seville, Granada, and Toledo, and from hence arose the numerous Hebrew proverbs, and modes of speech, that have crept into the Castilian language, and form a conspicuous part of its phraseology. To these Jews the Spanish language is indebted for a curious

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version of the Hebrew books of the Old Testament, which was afterwards printed at Ferrara, in 1553, in a Gothic-Spanish letter.

The Spanish writers also boast of their Troubadours as high as the twelfth or thirteenth centuries, the Provençal and Galician dialects being then very prevalent. The marquis of Villena, who died in 1434, was the author of that famous work the *Arte de la Gaya Ciencia*, which comprehends a system of poetry, rhetoric, and oratory, besides describing all the ceremonies of the Troubadours at their public exhibitions. That nobleman was also the author of a translation of the *Aeneid* of Virgil into Spanish verse. Juan de Mena, of Cordova, was also much celebrated as a poet in his own time: his poems have passed through a variety of editions, the first of which was printed at Saragossa in 1515. Juan de la Encina was also a poet of considerable merit; he translated some of the Latin poems into Spanish, and published a piece on the art of poetry, and other works, which were printed at Saragossa in 1516. Boscán, Ercilla, Villegas, and other Spanish poets, also obtained great reputation in their own country. But the most distinguished dramatic poet of this nation was Lopez de Vega, who was contemporary with our Shakspeare. He possessed an imagination astonishingly fertile, and in his dramatic works he disregarded the unities, and adapted all his compositions more to the taste of the age than to the rules of criticism. His lyric works and fugitive pieces, with his prose essays, form a collection of fifty volumes, besides his dramatic works, which make twenty-six volumes more; exclusive of four hundred scriptural dramatic pieces, called in Spain *Autos Sacramentales*. Calderon was also a dramatic writer of considerable note, but many of his plays are very licentious in their tendency.

Tostatus, a divine, the most voluminous perhaps that ever wrote, was a Spaniard. Herrera, and some other historians, particularly De Solis, have shewn great abilities in investigating the antiquities of America, and writing the history of its conquest by their countrymen. Among the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Fejoo is one of the most distinguished. His performances display ingenuity, learning, and uncommon liberality of sentiment, especially when his situation and country are considered. Many of his pieces have been translated into English, and published in four volumes, 8vo. Don Francisco Peyrez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia, and author of a dissertation on the Phœnician language, may be placed in the first line of Spanish literati. Spain has likewise produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, some of whom are amusing and instructive. Should the Spaniards disengage themselves from their abstracted metaphysical turn of thinking, and from their present tyrannical form of government, without substituting a worse in its stead, they certainly would make a capital figure in literature. At present, it seems, that the common education of an English gentleman would constitute a man of learning in Spain, and should he understand Greek, he would be quite a phenomenon.

Some of the Spaniards have distinguished themselves in the polite arts, and not only the cities, but the palaces, especially the Escorial, discover many striking specimens of their abilities as sculptors and architects; Palomino, in an elaborate treatise on the art of painting, in two volumes, folio, has inserted the lives of two hundred and thirty-three painters and sculptors, who flourished in Spain from the time of Ferdinand and the Catholic, to the conclusion of the reign of Philip the Fourth. Among the most eminent Spanish painters, were Velasques, Murillo, who is commonly called the Spanish Vandyke, Ribera and Glaudio Coello, whose style of painting was very similar to that of Paul Veronese.

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned 24 universities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonfus, ninth king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains 21 colleges, some of which are very magnificent. Many of the nobility of

Spain fend their sons to be educated here. The rest are, Seville, Granada, Compostella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcalá, Sigüenza, Valencia, Lerida, Huefca, Saragossa, Tortosa, Offuna, Onata, Candia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES. } The former of these consist chiefly of  
ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. } Roman and Moorish antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley, between two hills, and is supported by a double row of 150 arches. It reaches about 140 yards, and where it crosses the valley it is something more than 94 feet high. Its solidity, which has braved upwards of sixteen centuries, seems inexplicable, on closely observing the simplicity of its construction. It is composed of square stones, placed one upon another, without any exterior appearance of cement, though we cannot now be certain whether they were really united without this aid, by being cut and placed with peculiar art, or whether the cement has been destroyed by time. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz is vulgarly, but erroneously, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat stones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height: the roof, which is bold and lofty, is supported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aisles, in which are 366 altars, and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with noble and costly ornaments. At Martorel, a large town, where much black lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built in 1768, out of the ruins of a decayed one that had existed 1985 years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, said to have been raised by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almost entire, well proportioned, and simple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn stone. Near Moviedro (once the faithful Saguntum) destroyed by Hannibal, are some Roman remains—as the ruins of the theatre, an exact semicircle about 82 yards diameter, some of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9000 persons might attend the exhibitions without inconvenience.

The Moorish antiquities are rich and magnificent. Among the most distinguished is the royal palace of the Alhambra at Granada, which is one of the most entire, as well as the most stately, of any of the edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It was built in 1280, by the second Moorish king of Granada; and, in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is situated on a hill, which is ascended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in 1568, which was never finished, though the shell of it remains. It is built of yellow stone; the outside forms a square of one hundred and ninety feet. The inside is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuscan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each supported by thirty-two columns, made of as many single pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jasper, on the pedestals of which are representations of battles, in marble basso relievo. The Alhambra itself is a mass of many houses and towers, walled round, and built of large stones of different dimensions. Almost all the rooms have stucco walls and ceilings, some carved, some painted, and some gilt, and covered with various Arabic sentences. Here are several baths, the walls, floor, and ceiling of which are of white marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the garden is another palace called Ginaraliph, situated on a more elevated station than the Alhambra.

Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the finest prospects in Europe, over the whole fertile plain of Granada, bounded by the Snowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loss of Granada, and still offer up prayers to God for the recovery of the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Moorish times, remain in Spain; some of them in tolerable preservation, and others exhibiting superb ruins.

Among the natural curiosities, the medicinal springs, and some noisy lakes, form a principal part; but we must not forget the river Guadiana, which, like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and afterwards emerges. The royal cabinet of natural history at Madrid was opened to the public by his majesty's orders in 1775. Every thing in this collection is ranged with neatness and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, besides being shewn privately to strangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious stones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect; but the collection of birds and beasts at present is not large, though it may be expected to improve apace, if care be taken to get the productions of the Spanish American colonies. Here is also a curious collection of vases, basons, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental pieces of the finest agates, amethysts, rock crystals, &c. mounted in gold, and enamel, set with cameos, intaglios, &c. in an elegant taste, and of very fine workmanship, said to have been brought from France by Philip V. The cabinet also contains specimens of Mexican and Peruvian vases and utensils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the stone, some of which have been brought to England, and deposited in the British Museum. On the west side of the mountain is the cave called St. Michael's, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon. Many pillars of various sizes, some of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips from the roof, and forms an infinite number of stalactites, of a whitish colour, composed of several coats or crusts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increase in bulk, and may probably in time fill the whole cavern. From the summit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be seen, but the bay, the straits, the towns of St. Roque and Algeiras, and the Alpujara mountains, mount Abyla on the African shore, with its snowy top, the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and great part of the Barbary coast.

CHIEF CITIES, &c.] Madrid is the capital of Spain, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. It is surrounded with very lofty mountains, whose summits are frequently covered with snow. It is well paved and lighted, and some of the streets are spacious and handsome. The houses of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for show, conveniency being little considered: thus you will pass through usually two or three large apartments of no use, in order to come at a small room at the end, where the family sit. The houses in general look more like prisons than the habitations of people at their liberty; the windows, besides having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and sometimes all the rest. Separate families generally inhabit the same house, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much distressed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking strangers into their houses, especially if they are not catholics. Its greatest excellency is the cheapness of its provisions; but neither tavern, coffee-house, nor newspaper, except the Madrid Gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The royal palace stands on an eminence, on the west side of the city; it is a spacious magnificent structure, consisting of three courts, and commands a very fine prospect. Each of the fronts is 470 feet in length and 100 high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence; the great audience chamber especially, which is 120 feet long, and hung with

crimson velvet richly embroidered with gold; ornamented also with 12 looking-glasses made at St. Ildefonso, each 10 feet high, with 12 tables of the finest Spanish marbles. The other royal palaces round it are designed for hunting-seats, or houses of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good statues. The chief of these palaces are the Buen Retiro (now stripped of all its best pictures and furniture), Casa del Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonso.

A late traveller has represented the palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, as extremely delightful. Here is also a park many leagues round, cut across in different parts, by alleys of two, three, and even four miles extent. Each of these alleys is formed by two double rows of elm trees. The alleys are wide enough to admit of four coaches a-breast, and betwixt each double row there is a narrow channel, through which runs a stream of water. Between these alleys there are thick groves of smaller trees of various kinds, and thousands of deer and wild boars wander at large, besides numberless hares, rabbits, pheasants, partridges, and other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is partly surrounded by the garden, and is adorned with fountains and statues; it also contains a vast variety of the most beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itself, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonso is built of brick, plastered, and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two stories high, and the garden-front has thirty-one windows, and twelve rooms in a suite. The gardens are on a slope, on the top of which is a great reservoir of water, called here *El Mar*, the sea, which supplies the fountains: this reservoir is furnished from the torrents which pour down the mountains. The water-works are excellent, and far surpass those at Versailles. The great entry of the palace is somewhat similar to that of Versailles, and with a large iron palisade. In the gardens are twenty-seven fountains: the basins are of white marble, and the statues, many of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt. These gardens are in the formal French style, but ornamented with sixty-one very fine marble statues, as large as the life, with twenty-eight marble vases, and twenty leaden vases gilt. The upper part of the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique statues, busts, and basso-relievos. The expence laid out in this palace and gardens was immense; but when we consider, says Mr. Townsend, that the whole of the garden was a barren rock, that the very soil is brought from a great distance, and that water is conveyed to every tree; when we reflect upon the quantity of lead used for the images, and of cast iron for the pipes, with the expence of workmanship for both, together with all the other elegancies, corresponding to such an undertaking, we shall not wonder to hear that this place cost forty-five millions of piastres, or, in English money, near six millions and an half.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Escorial; and the natives say, perhaps with justice, that the building of it cost more than that of any other palace in Europe. The description of this palace forms a sizeable quarto volume, and it is said, that Philip II. who was its founder, expended upon it six millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious number of windows, 200 in the west front, and in the east 366, and the apartments are decorated with an astonishing variety of paintings, sculpture, tapestry, ornaments of gold and silver, marble, jasper, gems, and other curious stones. This building, besides its palace, contains a church, large and richly ornamented, a mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, a college, and a library, containing about thirty thousand volumes; but it is more particularly valuable for the Arabic and Greek manuscripts with which it is enriched. Above the shelves are paintings in fresco by Bartolomei Carducho, the subjects of which are taken

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from sacred or profane history, or have relation to the sciences of which the shelves below present to us the elements. Thus the council of Nice is represented above the books which treat of theology; the death of Archimedes at the siege of Syracuse indicates those which relate to mathematics; and Cicero pronouncing his oration in favour of Rabirius, the works relative to eloquence and the bar. A very singular circumstance in this library may be agreeable to the curious reader to know, which is, that, on viewing the books, he will find them placed the contrary way, so that the edges of the leaves are outwards, and contain their titles written on them. The reason for this custom is, that Arias Montanus, a learned Spaniard of the sixteenth century, whose library had served as a foundation for that of the Escurial, had all his books placed and inscribed in that manner. Here are also large appointments for all kinds of arts and mechanics, noble walks with extensive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and costly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of 12,000*l*. The mausoleum, or burying-place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, because it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's. It is 36 feet diameter, incrusted with fine marbles.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full estimate of the incredible sums bestowed on this palace, and on its furniture, statues, paintings, columns, vases, and the like decorations, which are equally rich and beautiful, yet we hazard nothing in saying that the fabric itself discovers a bad taste. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, because St. Laurence, to whom it was dedicated, was broiled on such an utensil, and multiplying the same figure through its principal ornaments, upon the doors, windows, altars, rituals, and sacerdotal habits, could have been formed only in the brain of a tasteless bigot, such as Philip II. who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French (but by the assistance of the English forces) at St. Quintin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king resides forms the handle of the gridiron. The building is a long square of 640 feet by 500. The height to the roof is 60 feet. It has been enriched and adorned by his successors; but its outside has a gloomy appearance, and the inside is composed of different structures, some of which are master-pieces of architecture, but forming a disagreeable whole. It must, however, be confessed, that the pictures and statues that have found admission there, are excellent in their kind, and some of them scarcely to be equalled even in Italy itself.

Cadix is the great emporium of Spanish commerce. It stands on an island separated from the continent of Andalusia, without the straits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the sea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts called the Puntals. The entrance has never been of late years attempted by the English, in their wars with Spain, because of the vast interest our merchants have in the treasures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors. The streets are narrow, ill paved, and filthy, and full of rats in the night; the houses lofty, with flat roofs, and few are without a turret for a view of the sea. The population is reckoned at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and as many Italians. The cathedral hath been already 50 years building, and the roof is not half finished. The environs are exceedingly beautiful.

Cordova is now an inconsiderable place; streets crooked and dirty, and but few of the public or private buildings conspicuous for their architecture. The palaces of the inquisition and of the bishops are extensive and well situated. The cathedral was formerly a mosque, divided into seventeen aisles by rows of columns of various marbles, and is very rich in plate; four of the silver candlesticks cost 850*l*. a-piece.

The revenue of the see amounts to 3500*l.* per ann. but as the bishops cannot devise by will, all they die possessed of escheats to the king.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is, next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. The shape is circular, and the walls seem of Moorish construction; its circumference is five miles and a half. The suburb of Triana is as large as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic castle, where, in 1481, the inquisition was first established in Spain. Its manufactures in wool and silk, which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400, and its great office of commerce to Spanish America is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothic building, with a curious steeple or tower, having a moveable figure of a woman at top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind, and which is referred to in Don Quixote. This steeple is reckoned one of the greatest curiosities in Spain, and is higher than St. Paul's in London: but the cathedral, in Mr. Swinburne's opinion, is by no means equal to York-minster for lightness, elegance, or Gothic delicacy. The first clock made in the kingdom was set up in this cathedral in the year 1400, in the presence of king Henry III. The prospect of the country round this city, beheld from the steeple of the cathedral, is extremely delightful.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, said to be founded by Hamilcar Barcas, is a large circular trading city, containing 15,000 houses, is situated in the Mediterranean facing Minorca, and is said to be the handsomest place in Spain; the houses are lofty and plain, and the streets well lighted and paved. The citadel is strong, and the place and inhabitants famous for the siege they sustained in 1714 against a formidable army, when deserted both by England and the emperor, for whom they had taken up arms. Their number is supposed to be nearly 150,000, and they supply Spain with most of the clothing and arms for the troops. A singular custom prevails among them on the first of November, the eve of All Souls; they run about from house to house to eat chestnuts, believing that for every chestnut they swallow, with proper faith and uncti<sup>o</sup>n, they shall deliver a soul out of purgatory.

Valencia is a large and almost circular city, with lofty walls. The streets are crooked and narrow, and not paved, the houses ill built and filthy, and most of the churches tawdry. Priests, nuns, and friars, of every dress, swarm in this city, whose inhabitants are computed at 80,000. Its archbishoprick is one of the best in Spain, to the amount of 40,000*l.* sterling a year.

Carthagena is a large city, but has very few good streets, and fewer remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arsenal is a spacious square south-west of the town, with 40 pieces of cannon to defend it towards the sea. When Mr. Swinburne visited it, in 1775, there were 800 Spanish criminals, and 600 Barbary slaves working at the pumps to keep the docks dry, &c. and treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for which the Spaniards were sent there, deserved indeed exemplary punishments.

Granada stands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra crowns the double summit between two rivers, the Douro and the Xenil. The former glories of this city are passed away with its old inhabitants; the streets are now filthy, and the aqueducts crumbled to dust, and its trade lost. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are employed in labour; the surplus is made up of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars. The amphitheatre, for bull-fights, is built of stone, and one of the best in Spain, and the environs of the city are still pleasing and healthful.

Bilboa is situated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about two leagues from the sea. It contains about eight hundred houses, with a large square by the water side, well shaded with pleasant walks, which extend to the outlets, on the banks

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banks of the river, where there are great numbers of houses and gardens, which form a most pleasing prospect, particularly in sailing up the river: for, besides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, which enlivens the landscape, and completes the scenery. The houses are solid and lofty, and the streets well paved and level; and the water is so conveyed into the streets, that they may be washed at pleasure; which renders Bilboa one of the neatest towns in Europe.

Malaga is an ancient city, and not less remarkable for its opulence and extensive commerce than for the luxuriance of its soil, yielding in great abundance the most delicious fruits; whilst its rugged mountains afford those luscious grapes, which give such reputation to the Malaga wine, known in England by the name of Mountain. The city is large and populous, and of a circular form, surrounded with a double wall, strengthened by stately towers, and has nine gates. A Moorish castle on the point of a rock commands every part of it. The streets are narrow, and the most remarkable building is a stupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II. said to be as large as that of St. Paul's in London. The bishop's income is 16,000l. sterling.

The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, built on three hills and two vallies, and on every side surrounded with prospects of fine houses, noble seats, gardens, orchards, fields, and distant villages; and is ancient, large, rich, and populous. There are ten gates to this city, and it contains twenty-five churches, twenty-five convents of friars, and the same number of nunneries. The most beautiful part of this city is the great square, built about forty years ago. The houses are of three stories, and all of equal height and exact symmetry, with iron balconies, and a stone balustrade on the top of them: the lower part is arched, which forms a piazza all round the square, which extends two hundred and ninety-three feet on each side. Over some of the arches are medallions, with busts of the kings of Spain, and of several eminent men, in stone basso-relievo, among which are those of Ferdinando Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila, and Cid Ruy. In this square the bull-fights are exhibited for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Toledo is one of the most ancient cities in Spain, and during several centuries it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has by degrees stripped it of its numerous inhabitants, and it would have been almost entirely deserted but for its cathedral, the income of which being in great part spent here, contributes chiefly to the maintenance of the few thousands that are left, and artists, in some degree, those small manufactures of sword-blades and silk-stuffs that are established in this city. It is now exceedingly ill-built, poor, and mean, and the streets very steep.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Castile, but now in obscurity. The cathedral is one of the most magnificent structures of the Gothic kind in Europe: its form is exactly the same as that of York-minster, and on the east end is an octagon building exactly like the chapter-house at York.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortress of Andalusia, is at present in possession of Great Britain. Till the arrival of the Saracens in Spain, which took place in the year 711, or 712, the rock of Gibraltar went by the name of *Mons Calpe*. On their arrival a fortress was built upon it, and it obtained the name of *Gibet Tarif*, from the name of their general, and thence Gibraltar. It was in the possession of the Spaniards and Moors by turns, till it was taken from the former by a combined fleet of English and Dutch ships, under the command of sir George Rooke, in 1704; and this rather through accident than any thing else. The prince of Hesse, with 1800 men, landed on the isthmus, but: n attack on that side  
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was found to be impracticable on account of the steepness of the rock. The fleet fired 15,000 shot without making any impression on the works, so that the fortress seems to be equally impregnable both to the British and Spaniards, except by famine. At last, a party of sailors, having got merry with grog, rowed close under the New Mole in their boats, and as they saw that the garrison, who consisted only of 100 men, did not mind them, they were encouraged to attempt a landing, and having mounted the mole, hoisted a red jacket as a signal of possession. This being immediately observed from the fleet, more boats and sailors were sent out, who, in the like manner, having ascended the works, got possession of a battery, and soon obliged the town to surrender. After many fruitless attempts to recover it, it was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated endeavours have been since made to wrest it from England, but without success; the last war hath made it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long siege against the united forces of Spain and France by land and sea, and was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garrison, to the great loss and disgrace of the assailants: though it must be granted, the place is by nature almost impregnable. Near 300 pieces of cannon of different bores, and chiefly brass, which were sunk before the port in the floating batteries, have been raised, and sold, to be distributed among the garrison. It is a commodious port, and formed naturally for commanding the passage of the Straits, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant seas. But the road is neither safe against an enemy, nor storms: the bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The straits 24 miles long, and 15 broad: through which sets a current from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the last siege was totally destroyed by the enemies' bombs: but, on account of its fortifications, it is esteemed the key of Spain, and is always furnished with a garrison well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is accessible on the land side only by a narrow passage between the rock and the sea, but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and so inclosed by high steep hills, as to be almost inaccessible that way. It has but two gates on that side, and as many towards the sea. Across this isthmus, the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garrison of Gibraltar from having any intercourse with the country behind them: notwithstanding which they carry on a clandestine trade, particularly in tobacco. The garrison is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and, as the ground produces scarcely any thing, all their provisions are brought them either from England, or from Ceuta, on the opposite coast of Barbary. Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under military government: but that system being productive of abuses, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magistrates.

The chief islands belonging to Spain in Europe, are those of Majorca, Minorca, and Yvica. Minorca was taken by the English, under general Stanhope, in 1708, and confirmed to Great Britain, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but it was retaken by the Spaniards in the last war, on February 15, 1782, and confirmed to them by the definitive treaty of peace, signed at Paris, September 3, 1783. Thus, it is now become a Spanish island again, containing about 27,000 inhabitants.

Notwithstanding the pride and ostentation of the Spaniards, their penury is easily discernible, but their wants are few, and their appetites easily satisfied. The inferior orders, even in the greatest cities, are miserably lodged, and those lodgings wretchedly furnished. Many of the poorer sort, both men and women, wear neither shoes nor stockings, and coarse bread steeped in oil, and occasionally seasoned with vinegar, is the common food of the country people through several provinces. A traveller in Spain must carry provisions and bedding with him, and

if perchance he meets with the appearance of an inn, he must even cook his victuals, it being beneath the dignity of a Spaniard to perform these offices to strangers; but lately some tolerable inns have been opened by Irish and Frenchmen, in cities, and upon the high roads. The pride, indolence, and laziness of the Spaniards, are powerful inducements to their more industrious neighbours the French, who are to be found in all parts of the kingdom; and here a wonderful contrast distinguishes the character of two neighbouring nations. The Spaniard seldom stirs from home, or puts his hand to work of any kind. He sleeps, goes to mass, takes his evening walk, while the industrious Frenchman becomes a thorough domestic; he is butcher, cook, and taylor, all in the same family; he powders the hair, cuts the corns, wipes the shoes, and, after making himself useful in a thousand different shapes, he returns to his native country loaded with dollars, and laughs out the remainder of his days at the expence of his proud benefactor.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards, unhappily for themselves, make gold and silver the chief branches both of their exports and imports. They import it from America, from whence they export it to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium of this commerce. "Hither (says Mr. Anderson, in his History of Commerce) other European nations send their merchandise, to be shipped off in Spanish bottoms for America, sheltered (or, as our old English phrase has it, coloured) under the names of Spanish factors. Those foreign nations have here their agents and correspondents, and the consuls of those nations make a considerable figure. Cadiz has been said to have the finest storehouses and magazines for commerce of any city in Europe; and to it the flota and galleons regularly import the treasures of Spanish America. The proper Spanish merchandise exported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandise sent thither would yield a great revenue, (and consequently the profits of merchants and their agents would sink), were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding those duties."

At St. Idelfonso the glass manufacture is carried on to a degree of perfection unknown in England. The largest mirrors are made in a brass frame, 162 inches long, 93 wide, and six deep, weighing near 9 tons. These are designed wholly for the royal palaces, and for presents from the king. Yet even for such purposes it is ill placed, and proves a devouring monster in a country where provisions are dear, fuel scarce, and carriage exceedingly expensive.—Here is also a royal manufacture of linen, employing about fifteen looms; by which, as it is said, the king is a considerable loser.

In the city of Valencia there is a very respectable silk manufacture, in which five thousand looms, and three hundred stocking-frames, give employment to upwards of twenty thousand of the inhabitants, without enumerating those who exercise professions relative to the manufacture, such as persons who prepare the wood and iron work of so great a number of machines, or spin, wind, or dye the silk. At Alcora, in the neighbourhood of Valencia, a manufacture of porcelain has been successfully established; and they very much excel in painted tiles. In Valencia, their best apartments are floored with these, and are remarkable for neatness, coolness, and elegance. They are stronger and much more beautiful than those of Holland.

At Carthagená, they make great quantities of the *esparto* ropes and cables, some of them spun like hemp, and others platted. Both operations are performed with singular rapidity. These cables are excellent, because they float on the surface of the water, and are not therefore liable to be cut by the rocks on a foul coast. The *esparto* rush makes good mats for houses, *alpargates* or short trowsers and buskins for peasants, and latterly it has been spun into fine thread for the purpose of making cloth. If properly encouraged, there is no doubt that the manufacture may

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be brought to such perfection, as to make this once uselefs rath a source of abundant wealth to the southern provinces of Spain, for it is the peculiar and natural production of all high and uncultivated mountains in the south.

As to the hempen cordage which is made in Spain for the use of the royal navy, M. de Bourgoanne observes that it is better and more durable than that of the principal dock-yards and magazines in Europe; because, in combing the hemp, all the towy part we leave in it was taken out, and made use of in caulking, whence results the double advantage of more solid cordage, and the better caulking of vessels. Another custom in our rope-yards, which the Spaniards have avoided adopting, is the tarring the cordage and keeping it a long time piled up. In this state the tar ferments, and eats the hemp, and the cordage is extremely apt to break, after being used but a short space of time.

The Spaniards formerly obtained their hemp from the north; at present they are able to do without the assistance, in this article, of any other nation. The kingdom of Granada already furnishes them with the greatest part of the hemp they use, and in case of need, they may have recourse to Arragon and Navarre. All the sail-cloth and cordage in the magazines at Cadiz are made with Spanish hemp; the texture of which is even, close, and solid.

The most important production of this country, and the most valuable article of commerce, is barilla, a species of pot-ash, procured by burning a great variety of plants almost peculiar to the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia; such as *foza*, *algazul*, *fuзон*, *favonnes*, *salicornia*, with *barilla*. It is used for making soap, for bleaching, and for glass. All the nations in Europe, by the combustion of various vegetable substances, make some kind of pot-ash; but the superior excellence of the barilla has hitherto secured the preference. The country producing it is about sixty leagues in length and eight in breadth, on the borders of the Mediterranean. The quantity exported annually from Spain (according to the testimonies of both Mr. Townsend, and M. de Bourgoanne) is about a hundred and fifty quintals, most of which is sent to France and England, and a small quantity to Genoa, and Venice.

Spain is one of the richest countries in Europe in salt-petre. The account of this surprising manufacture we shall abridge from Mr. Townsend. "I observed," says he, "a large inclosure, with a number of mounts of about twenty feet high, at regular distances from each other. These were collected from the rubbish of the city of Madrid, and the scrapings of the highways. They had remained all the winter piled up in the manner in which I found them. At this time men were employed in wheeling them away, and spreading abroad the earth to the thickness of about one foot, whilst others were turning what had been previously exposed to the influence of the sun and air. The preceding summers these heaps had been washed, and being thus exposed, would yield the same quantity of salt again, and, as far as appears, the produce would never fail; but after having been washed, no salt-petre can be obtained without a subsequent exposure." Some of this earth they can lixiviate once a year, some they have washed twenty times in the last seven years, and some they have subjected to this operation fifteen times in one year, judging always by their eye when they may wash it to advantage, and by their taste if it has yielded a lixivium of a proper strength; from which, by evaporating the water in boiling, they obtain the salt-petre.

The other manufactures of Spain are chiefly of wool, copper, and hard-ware. Great efforts have been made by the government to prevent other European nations from reaping the chief advantage of the American commerce; but these never can be successful, till a spirit of industry is awakened among the natives, so as to enable them to supply their American possessions with their own commodities and merchandise. Meanwhile, the good faith and facility with which the English, French,

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French, Dutch, and other nations carry on this contraband trade, render them greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themselves are, the clear profits seldom amounting to less than 20 per cent. This evidently makes it an important concern that those immense riches should belong to the Spaniards, rather than to any active European nation; but on this subject there will be occasion to speak in the account of America.

**CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.]** Spain, from being the most free, is now the most despotic kingdom in Europe; and the poverty which is so visible in most parts of the country is in a great degree the result of its government, in the administration of which no proper attention is paid to the interests and welfare of the people. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of succession. It has even been questioned, whether his catholic majesty may not bequeath his crown at pleasure to any branch of the royal family. It is at least certain, that the house of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain in virtue of the last will of Charles II.

The cortes of Spain, which formerly, especially in Castile, had greater power and privileges than the parliament of England, are now abolished; but some faint remains of their constitution are still discernible in the government, though all of them are ineffectual, and under the control of the king.

The privy-council, which is composed of a number of noblemen or grandes, nominated by the king, sits only to prepare matters, and to digest papers for the cabinet-council or junta, which consists of the first secretary of state, and three or four more named by the king; and in them resides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cognizance of military affairs only. The council of Castile is the highest law tribunal of the kingdom. The several courts of the royal audiences are those of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragossa, Valencia, and Barcelona. These judge primarily in all causes within 15 miles of their respective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior jurisdictions. Besides these, there are many subordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of business.

The government of Spanish America forms a system apart, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magistrates, who are in their respective districts almost absolute. A council for the Indies is established in Old Spain, and consists of a governor, four secretaries, and twenty-two counsellors, besides officers. Their decision is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally chosen from the viceroys and magistrates who have served in that country. The two great viceroalties of Peru and Mexico are so considerable, that they are seldom trusted to the same person for more than three years; and their emoluments are sufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign possessions of the crown of Spain, besides those in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Malulquivir, on the coast of Barbary in Africa; and the islands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrones, in Asia.

**REVENUES.]** The revenues, arising to the king from Old Spain, yearly amount to 5,000,000l. sterling, some writers say eight; and they form the surest support of his government. His American income, it is true, is immense; but it is generally embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the silver mines that are worked; but little of it comes into his coffers. He falls upon means, however, in case of a war, or any public emergency, to sequester great part of the American treasures belonging to his subjects, who never complain, because they are always punctually repaid with interest. The finances of his present catholic majesty are in excellent order, and on a better footing, both for himself and his people, than those of any of his predecessors.

As to the taxes from whence the internal revenues arise, they are various, arbitrary, and so much dependent on emergencies, that they cannot be accurately ascer-

ascertained. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houses, lands, timber, and provisions; the clergy and military orders are likewise taxed.

**MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.** The land forces of the crown of Spain, in time of peace, are never fewer than 70,000; but, in case of war, they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 110,000. The great dependence of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign guards. His present catholic majesty was at great care and expence to raise a powerful marine; and the Spanish fleet in Europe and America at present exceeds seventy ships of the line. All along the coasts of Spain are watch towers from mile to mile, with lights and guards at night, so that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilboa to Ferrol, the whole kingdom may be soon alarmed in case of an invasion.

Nature, which has so liberally bestowed on Spain all the necessaries and luxuries of life, and has scarcely refused that kingdom any of the enjoyments that peace permits to be tasted, has been equally lavish in bestowing all the materials which war employs as the means of destruction; she has given iron in abundance, copper, lead, and saltpetre, so that this country need not be indebted to any other to supply its artillery with these destructive treasures. Spain also (says M. de Bourgoanne) possesses within herself every thing necessary to her navy, and after having long neglected these benefactions of nature, she now makes successful efforts to render it independent of other nations.

**ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS.** Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms, all which, with several others, were by name entered into the royal titles, so that they amounted in all to about thirty-two. This absurd custom is still occasionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of His Catholic Majesty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a sword, without being crowned. Their signature never mentions their name, but, **I THE KING.** The king's eldest son is called Prince of Asturias, and his younger children, of both sexes, are by way of distinction called infants, or infantas, that is, children.

The armorial bearings of the kings of Spain, like their title, are loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a shield, divided into four quarters, of which the uppermost on the right hand and the lowest on the left contain a castle, or, with three towers, for Castile; and in the uppermost on the left, and the lowest on the right, are the three lions gules for Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou.

The general name for those Spanish nobility and gentry, who are unmixed with the Moorish blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandees, may stand covered before the king, and are treated with princely distinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbishops, ambassadors, knights of the Golden Fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and state, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king.

The order of the "*Golden Fleece*," particularly described before in the orders of Germany, is generally conferred on princes and sovereign dukes; but the Spanish branch of it hath many French and Italian nobility; there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

The order of "*St. James*," or *St. Jago de Compostella*, is the richest of all the orders of Spain. Some attribute its institution to Remira, king of Leon, in the year 837, and others to later princes, as an encouragement to valour in the long wars between the Christians and Moors. They were divided into two branches, each under a grand-master; but the offices of both were given by pope Alexander VI. to the kings of Spain and Portugal, as grand-masters in their respective

dominions,

dominions. The badge is a cross of gold, enamelled crimson, edged with gold, and worn round the neck, pendent to a broad ribband; it is charged on the centre with an esclop-shell white. The order is highly esteemed in Spain, and only conferred on persons of noble families. The same may be said of the order of "*Calatrava*," first instituted by Sancho, king of Toledo: it took its name from the castle of Calatrava, which was taken from the Moors; and here began the order, which became very powerful. Their number, influence, and possessions were so considerable as to excite the jealousy of the crown, to which at length their revenues and the office of grand-master were annexed by pope Innocent VIII. Their badge is a cross fleury, red, worn at the breast, pendent to a broad ribband, the whole differing only in colour from the badge of Alcantara: the ceremonial mantle is of white silk, tied with a cordon and tassels, like those of the Garter, and on the left arm a cross fleury, embroidered, gules. The celebrated order of "*Alcantara*" derived its origin from the order of St. Julian, or of the Pear-tree; but after Alcantara was taken from the Moors, and made the chief seat of the order, they assumed the name of Knights of the order of Alcantara, and laid aside the old device of a pear-tree. They were subject to the order of Calatrava, till the year 1417, when, by the sanction of the pope, they became independent. They chose their own grand-master, and acquired vast possessions; but, in 1495, pope Alexander VI. conferred the office on king Ferdinand of Arragon, and annexed it unalienably to the Spanish crown. Since that time the kings of Spain have enjoyed the revenues of the grand-master, and the commanderies belonging to the order. The badge is a gold cross, fleury, enamelled green, and worn pendent to a broad ribband on the breast. On days of ceremony, they wear a mantle of red silk, on the left side of which is embroidered, in silver, a star of five points. This order is highly esteemed, and conferred only on persons of ancient and illustrious families.

The order of the "*Lady of Mercy*" is said to have been instituted by James I. king of Arragon, about the year 1218, on account of a vow made by him to the Virgin Mary, during his captivity in France; and was designed for the redemption of captives from the Moors, in which they expended large sums of money. It was at first confined to men, but a lady of Barcelona afterwards got women included in it: the badge, which is common to both, is a shield per fess, red and gold; in chief a cross pattee, white in base four pallets red, for Arragon, and the shield crowned with a ducal coronet. This order enjoys considerable revenues in Spain. The order of "*Montesa*" was instituted at Valencia, at the close of the thirteenth century, in the place of the Templars, and held their possessions. Their chief seat being the town of Montesa, the order from thence derived its name, and chose St. George for patron. About a century afterwards, it was united to the order of St. George of Alfama, by pope Benedict XIII. and so hath continued ever since. The badge is a plain red cross enamelled on gold, worn pendent to a broad red ribband, fash-wise, and a plain red cross embroidered on the left breast of the outer garment. In the year 1771, the late king instituted, after his own name, the order of "*Charles III.*" in commemoration of the birth of the infant. The badge is a star of eight points enamelled white, and edged with gold: in the centre of the cross is the image of the Virgin Mary, vestments white and blue. On the reverse, the letters C. C. with the number III. in the centre, and this motto, *Virtuti et Merito*. The order is composed of four classes; the first class are styled *Grand Crosses*, and wear the badge pendent to a ribband, striped blue and white, over the right shoulder, and have a star of silver, with the badge embroidered on the left side of the coat. The knights of the second class wear the badge and ribband like the first, but have no star. The third and fourth classes wear the badge in the button-hole of the coat, pendent to a narrow striped ribband. The knights

of the third class have pensions on the revenues of the order. None but persons of noble descent can belong to this order.

**HISTORY OF SPAIN.]** Spain was probably first peopled by the Celts, from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous; or from Africa, from which it is only separated by the narrow strait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians sent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the rise of Rome and Carthage, the possession of this kingdom became an object of contention between those powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their possession until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths. In the beginning of the fifth century, the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Alani, divided Spain among them; but in the year 584, the Goths again became its masters. These in their turn were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the seventh century, had possessed themselves of the finest kingdoms of Asia and Africa; and not content with the immense regions that formerly composed great part of the Assyrian, Persian, Macedonian, and Roman empires, crossed the Mediterranean, ravaged Spain, and established themselves in the southerly provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelagius is mentioned as the first Old Spanish prince who distinguished himself against these Infidels (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors, the greater part of them having come from Mauritania), and he took the title of king of Asturia about the year 720. His successes animated other Christian princes to take arms likewise, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal were for many ages perpetually embroiled in bloody wars.

The Moors in Spain were superior to all their contemporaries in arts and arms, and the Abdoulrahman line kept possession of the throne near 300 years. Learning flourished in Spain, while the rest of Europe was buried in ignorance and barbarity. But the Moorish princes by degrees became weak and effeminate, and their chief ministers proud and insolent. A series of civil wars ensued, which at last overturned the throne of Cordova, and the race of Abdoulrahman. Several petty principalities were formed on the ruins of this empire, and many cities of Spain had each an independent sovereign. Now, every adventurer was entitled to the conquests he made upon the Moors, till Spain was at last divided into twelve or fourteen 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 the dependence on Leon, and declared himself king. A series of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1492, when all the kingdoms of Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Isabella the heirs, and afterwards queen of Castile, who took Granada, and expelled out of Spain the Moors and Jews, who would not be converts to the Christian faith, to the number of 170,000 families.

The expulsion of the Moors and Jews in a manner depopulated Spain of artists, labourers, and manufacturers; and the discovery of America not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards most deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Isabella introduced the Popish inquisition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a safeguard against the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V. of the house of Austria, and the emperor of Germany, succeeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, in the year 1516. The extensive possessions of the house of Austria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, America, from whence he drew immense treasures, began to alarm the jealousy of neighbouring princes, but could not satisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him constantly engaged in foreign

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wars, or with his own protestant subjects, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic church. He also reduced the power of the nobles in Spain, abridged the privileges of the commons, and greatly extended the regal prerogative. At last, after a long and turbulent reign, he came to a resolution that filled all Europe with astonishment, the withdrawing himself entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in order that he might spend the remainder of his days in retirement and solitude\*.

Agreeably to this resolution, he resigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the presence of his principal nobility, to his son Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which dignity they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the house of Austria into two branches; Spain, with all its possessions in Africa and the New World, 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, which they still possess.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was austere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cause of popery. His marriage with queen Mary of England, an unfeeling bigot like himself, his unsuccessful addresses to her sister Elizabeth, his resentment and unfortunate wars with that princess, his tyranny and persecutions in the Low Countries, the revolt and loss of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned, in the history of those countries.

\* Charles, of all his vast possessions, reserved nothing for himself but an annual pension of 100,000 crowns; and chose for the place of his retreat, a vale in Spain, of no great extent, watered by a small brook, and surrounded by rising grounds, covered with lofty trees. He gave strict orders, that the style of the building which he erected there, should be such as suited his present situation rather than his former dignity. It consisted only of six rooms, four of them in the form of friars' cells, with naked walls; and the other two, each twenty feet square, were hung with brown cloth, and furnished in the most simple manner: they were all level with the ground, with a door on one side into a garden, of which Charles himself had given the plan, and had filled it with various plants, which he proposed to cultivate with his own hands. After spending some time in the city of Ghent in Flanders, the place of his nativity, he set out for Zealand in Holland, where he prepared to embark for Spain, accompanied by his son, and a numerous retinue of princes and nobility; and taking an affectionate and last farewell of Philip and his attendants, he set out, on the 17th of September 1566, under convoy of a large fleet of Spanish, Flemish, and English ships. As soon as he landed in Spain, he fell prostrate on the ground; and considering himself now as dead to the world, he kissed the earth, and said, "Naked came I out of my mother's womb, and naked I now return to thee, thou common mother of mankind." Some of the Spanish nobility paid their court to him as he passed along to the place of his retreat; but they were so few in number, and their attendance was so negligent, that Charles observed it, and

felt, for the first time, that he was no longer a monarch. But he was more deeply affected with his son's ingratitude; who, forgetting already how much he owed to his father's bounty, obliged him to remain some weeks on the road, before he paid him the first moiety of that small portion, which was all that he had reserved of so many kingdoms. At last the money was paid; and Charles having dismissed a great number of his domestics, whose attendance he thought would be superfluous, he entered into his humble retreat with twelve domestics only. Here he buried in solitude, and silence, his grandeur, his ambition, together with all those vast projects which, during half a century, had alarmed and agitated Europe; filling every kingdom in it, by turns, with the terror of his arms, and the dread of being subjected to his power.

New amusements and new objects now occupied his mind; sometimes he cultivated the plants in his garden with his own hands; sometimes he rode out to the neighbouring wood on a little horse, the only one that he kept, attended by a single servant on foot. He was particularly curious with regard to the construction of clocks and watches; and having found, after repeated trials, that he could not bring any two of them to go exactly alike, he reflected, it is said, with a mixture of surprise and regret, on his own folly, in having bestowed so much time and labour on the more vain attempt of bringing mankind to a precise uniformity of sentiment concerning the intricate and mysterious doctrines of religion. And here, after two years' retirement, he was seized with a fever, which carried him off, in the 59th year of his age.

In Portugal he was more successful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wise and brave princes, fell to Sebastian, about the year 1557. Sebastian lost his life and a fine army, in a headstrong, unjust, and ill-concerted expedition against the Moors in Africa; and in the year 1580, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family of Portugal asserted a prior right. By this acquisition, Spain became possessed of the Portuguese settlements in India, some of which she still holds.

The descendants of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had so totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almost unmolested in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once so tyrannical and insolent over the Portuguese, that, in the reign of Philip IV. in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conspiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. upon their throne; and ever since, Portugal has remained a separate kingdom.

The kings of Spain, of the Austrian line, failing in the person of Charles II. who left no issue, Philip duke of Anjou, second son to the dauphin of France, and grandson to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne by virtue of his predecessor's will, and by the name of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody struggle with the German branch of the house of Austria, supported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the conclusion of the war, by the shameful peace of Utrecht, 1713. And thus Lewis XIV. through a masterly train of politics (for in his wars to support his grandson, as we have already observed, he was almost ruined), accomplished his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich possessions in America and the Indies, from the house of Austria to that of his own family of Bourbon. In 1734, Philip invaded Naples, and got that kingdom for his son Don Carlos, the Sicilians readily acknowledging him for their sovereign, through the oppression of the Imperialists.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was disturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand VI. a mild and pacific prince, who reformed many abuses, and endeavoured to promote the commerce and prosperity of his kingdom. In 1759, he died without issue, through melancholy for the loss of his wife. Ferdinand was succeeded by his brother, Charles III. then king of Naples and the Two Sicilies, late king of Spain, son to Philip V. by his wife, the princess of Parma.

He was so warmly attached to the family compact of the house of Bourbon, that two years after his accession, he even hazarded his American dominions to support it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the famous port and city of Havannah, in the island of Cuba, and thereby rendered herself entirely mistress of the navigation of the Spanish plate fleets. Notwithstanding the success of the English, their ministry thought proper hastily to conclude a peace, in consequence of which the Havannah was restored to Spain. In 1775, an expedition was concerted against Algiers by the Spanish ministry, which had a most unsuccessful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards of 24,000, and who were commanded by lieutenant-general Conde de O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to the eastward of the city of Algiers; but were disgracefully beaten back, and obliged to take shelter on board their ships, having 27 officers killed, and 191 wounded; and 501 rank and file killed, and 2088 wounded. In the years 1783, and 1784, they renewed their attacks against Algiers by sea, but after spending much ammunition, and losing many lives, were forced to retire without doing that place much injury.

When the war between Great Britain and her American colonies had subsisted for some time, and France had taken part with the latter, the court of Spain was also prevailed upon to commence hostilities against Great Britain. In particular,  
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the Spaniards, in 1779, began their first operations, by closely besieging Gibraltar, both by sea and land; it having been always a great mortification to them, that this fortress should be possessed by the English.

The siege was continued throughout the war with occasional fierce attacks on both sides, though what the garrison had chiefly to dread was famine; and so soon did this begin to make its appearance, that about the middle of January, 1780, not only bread, but every article necessary to the support of life, was hard to be procured, and only to be purchased at exorbitant prices. Captain Drinkwater, in his very interesting history of this siege, informs us that veal, mutton, and beef, sold from two shillings and sixpence to four shillings per pound; fresh pork from two to three shillings; salt beef and pork, one shilling and three pence per pound; fowls, eighteen shillings per couple; ducks, a guinea; and other articles in proportion. And though they were frequently relieved, yet the same difficulties frequently returned. However, the garrison still held out; and though the Spanish army and train of artillery continued daily to increase, the utmost efforts of their power seemed to be insufficient to make the least impression on this impregnable fortress. So little regard indeed was paid to the formidable preparations of the Spaniards, that even from the beginning of the siege, it had been customary with general Elliot, the governor, to allow them to bring their works to perfection and then to demolish them. The more frequently the besiegers were disappointed, the more eager they seemed to accomplish their point. The most prodigious number of cannon, mortars, and all other destructive engines of that kind, that perhaps ever were assembled in any one enterprise were now brought before a single fortress, without being able to make the least impression upon it. By the violence of their fire, indeed, the houses were reduced to ruins, and the inhabitants were obliged to remove to England; but the fortifications of the place were scarce ever damaged in the least. The soldiers were so much accustomed to shells falling and bursting near them, that they became in a manner insensible of danger; and their officers were frequently obliged to call to them to avoid them, when just ready to burst at their feet. Our historian gives many instances of their destructive power, particularly in a wounded matross, when a shell from the mortar-boats fell into the ward of the hospital, and rebounding fell upon the bed where he lay. The convalescents and sick, in the same room, instantly summoned up strength to crawl out on hands and knees, whilst the fuse was burning, but this wretched victim was kept down by the weight of the shell, which after some seconds burst, took off both his legs, and scorched him in a dreadful manner; he survived for some time, and only regretted that he had not been killed on the batteries. What was more surprising, though the shells, by reason of their fiery train, were visible in the air, and from the length of way they had to go, might have been avoided, the sight of them was attended with a kind of fascination in the beholder, so as to deprive him of motion, of which several instances are related. Amidst this dreadful scene there were two boys who proved of singular use to the garrison, the acuteness of their sight being such that they could trace the shot directly from the mouth of the cannon, and thus give warning to the soldiers of their danger.

But the grand attack was on the 13th of September 1782, under the command of the duke de Crillon, by 10 battering ships, from 600 to 1400 tons burden, carrying in all 212 brass guns entirely new, and discharging shot of 26 pounds weight. The showers of shot and shells which were directed from them, from their land-batteries, and on the other hand from the various works of the garrison, exhibited a scene, of which perhaps neither the pen nor the pencil can furnish a competent idea. It is sufficient to say, that *four hundred pieces* of the heaviest artillery were playing at the same moment; an instance which has scarcely occurred in any siege since the invention of those wonderful engines of destruction.

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The irresistible impression of the red-hot balls, which were sent from the garrison in such numbers, and in such directions, was soon conspicuous; for in the afternoon smoke was perceived to issue from the admiral's ship and another; and by one in the morning several were in flames, and numbers of rockets were thrown up from each of their ships as signals of distress. To rescue from the flames those who were now incapable of acting as enemies, could not be done without the greatest hazard, by reason of the blowing up of the ships, and the previous discharge of the guns as the fire reached them. Yet, in defiance of every danger, brigadier Curtis distinguished himself in an eminent manner in this humane undertaking, and, with twelve gun-boats, saved nine officers, two priests, and 334 men, all Spaniards, besides one officer, and eleven Frenchmen, who had floated in the preceding evening.

Thus ended all the hopes of the Spaniards of reducing the fortrefs of Gibraltar.

In other enterprizes the Spaniards proved more successful. The island of Minorca was surrendered to them on the 6th of February 1782, after having been besieged for 171 days. The garrison consisted of no more than 2692 men, while the forces of the enemy amounted to 16,000, under the command of the duke de Crillon. The Spanish commander at first attempted to corrupt the governor (general Murray); but this being rejected with indignation, the siege was commenced in form; and the garrison would have shewed themselves equally invincible with those of Gibraltar, had it been possible to relieve them in the same manner. The scurvy soon made its appearance, and reduced them to such a deplorable situation, that they were at last obliged to surrender, in spite of every effort of human fortitude or skill; and so sensible were both parties that this was the true cause, that the Spanish general allowed them to march out with their arms shouldered, drums beating, and colours flying, while the disconsolate British soldiers protested that they surrendered their arms to God, and not to the Spaniards.

His late catholic majesty used much pains to oblige his subjects to desist from their ancient dress and manners, and carried his endeavours so far, that it occasioned an insurrection at Madrid, and obliged him to part with his minister, the marquis of Squillace; thereby affording an instance of the necessity that even despotic princes are under, of paying some attention to the inclinations of their subjects.

The government of Spain testified much uneasiness at the French revolution, and watched narrowly those who spoke in favour of its principles. The circulation of all public papers and political pamphlets from France was severely prohibited. The proclamation against tinkers and knife-grinders, introducing seditious papers into the kingdom, and the rescript concerning strangers, shew all the terror and weakness of despotism.

A short war arose between the Spaniards and the emperor of Morocco. The emperor besieged Ceuta; but peace is since restored. It was unjustly surmised, that this war was entered into, in order to divert the attention of the people, who might be impressed with the affairs of France.

The sudden dismissal of count Florida Blanca from the office of prime minister, originates in causes not disclosed. It is imagined that the court found this step necessary, to appease the public murmurs at some late measures, particularly the edict concerning strangers, which contributed to impose further fetters upon commerce, and which has since been repealed. On the 28th of February, 1792, the minister was removed, and count d'Aranda, an old statesman, a warm friend of the queen and nobility of France, succeeded to his employments till some other arrangement could be formed. It is said, he abolished the superintendant tribunal

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of police, a kind of civil inquisition; and in other liberal measures, appeared to see the real interest of monarchs, which is certainly to concede with grace, in order to prevent the despair of the people from recurring to force. His influence, however, was but short; and has been succeeded by that of the duke d'Alcaudia.

The irregularities committed in France, the indecent reception of the humane interference of the court of Spain in favour of the king, and the industry of the confederated sovereigns, have at length engaged his catholic majesty in open hostilities. His declaration of war is dated the 23d of March, 1793. His majesty observes, that his former moderation with respect to France proceeded from a hope, that there might be a possibility of inducing them to act on a rational system; of restraining their boundless ambition, and preventing the calamities of a general war throughout Europe; he adds, that he long flattered himself with the hope of obtaining the liberty of their king, Louis the XVth, and that of his family. Impressed with these sentiments, he had formerly ordered two notes to be delivered to the French ministry, in the one of which a neutrality was stipulated, and in the other, the withdrawing of the troops from the frontiers. That he had instructed his chargé d'affaires in Paris to employ the most efficacious interference in behalf of the king and his unhappy family, but that he did not stipulate their enlargement as an express condition, hoping that it would be so construed by implication, and the omission proceeded from delicacy, and the fear of injuring a cause in which he was so deeply interested. But to the great grief and horror of himself and his people, they had proceeded in the most cruel and outrageous of their crimes, the *assassination of their sovereign*. Finally, that the French had declared war against Spain on the 7th instant, which they were already waging against that country since the 26th of February, as appeared by letters of marque found on board one of their privateers, captured by the Spanish ship of war, the *Ligero*.

Charles IV. king of Spain, born November 11, 1748; ascended the throne December 13, 1788 (upon the death of his father, Charles III.) and was married to Louisa-Maria-Theresa, princess of Parma, September 4, 1765, by whom he has issue,

1. Charlotte, born April 25, 1775.
2. Mary-Louisa, born July 9, 1777.
3. Philip, born August 10, 1783.
4. Ferdinand, born October 14, 1784.
5. Maria-Isabella, born July 6, 1789.

Brothers to the king.

1. Ferdinand, the present king of the Two Sicilies, born in 1751, married in 1768 to the archduchess Mary-Caroline-Louisa, sister to Joseph II. late emperor of Germany.
2. Anthony-Pascal, born December 31, 1755.

P O R T U G A L.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	300	} between { 37 and 42 north latitude. 7 and 10 west longitude.
Breadth	100	

Containing 32,000 SQUARE MILES, with 72 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Spain on the North and East, and on the South and West by the Atlantic Ocean, being the most westerly Kingdom on the continent of Europe.

**ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.** } This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Lusitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It most probably is derived from some noted harbour or port, to which the Gauls (for so strangers are called in the Celtic) resorted. By the form of the country, it is naturally divided into three parts; the northern, middle, and southern provinces.

	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
The Northern Division contains	{ Entre Minho Douro and Tralos Montes Beira	{ Braga Oporto and Viana Miranda and Villa Real Coimbra	} 6814
The Middle Division contains	{ Estremadura	{ Guarda Castel Rodrigo LISBON { 38-42 N. lat. 8-55 W. lon. St. Ubes and Leira	
The Southern Division contains	{ Entre Tajo Guadiana Alentejo Algarva	{ Eborá, or Evora Portalegre, Elvas, Beja Lagos Faro, Tavora, and Silves	} 8397

**SOIL, AIR, AND PRODUCTIONS.]** The soil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, especially in corn, which is imported from other countries. The fruits are the same as in Spain, but not so highly flavoured. The Portuguese wines, when old and genuine, are esteemed to be very friendly to the constitution, and safe to drink \*. Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; variety of gems, marbles, and mill-stones, and a fine mine of salt-petre, near Lisbon. Their cattle and poultry are not indifferent eating. The air, especially about Lisbon, is reckoned soft and beneficial to consumptive patients; it is not so searching as that of Spain, being refreshed by the sea breezes.

**MOUNTAINS.]** The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for their mountains are generally barren: the chief are those which divide Algarva from Alentejo; those of Tralos Montes, and the rock of Lisbon, at the mouth of the Tagus, or, according to its latest name, Tajo.

**WATER AND RIVERS.]** Though every brook in Portugal is reckoned a river, yet the chief Portuguese rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantic Ocean. The Tagus, or Tajo, was celebrated for its golden sand. Portugal contains several roaring lakes and springs; some of them are absorbent even of the lightest substances, such as wood, cork, and feathers; some, particularly one about 45 miles from Lisbon, are medicinal and sanative; and some hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province, of Algarva.

**PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.]** The promontories or capes of Portugal are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; Cape Roca, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; Cape Espithel, at the south entrance of the river Tajo; and Cape St. Vincent, on the south-west point of Algarva. The bays are those of Cadooan, or St. Ubes, south of Lisbon, and Lagos Bay in Algarva.

**ANIMALS.]** The sea-fish, on the coast of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable eating. Their mules are sure, and serviceable both for draught and carriage; and their horses, though slight, are lively.

\* The Port-wines are made in the district round Oporto, which does not produce one half the quantity that is consumed under that name in the British dominions only. The merchants in that

city have very spacious wine vaults, capable of holding 6 or 7000 pipes, and it is said that 20,000 are yearly exported from Oporto.

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POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } According to the best calculation, Portugal contains near two millions of inhabitants.

By a survey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom 3344 parishes, and 1,742,230 lay persons (which is but 522 laity to each parish on a medium), besides about 300,000 ecclesiastics of both sexes.

The modern Portuguese retain nothing of that enterprising spirit that rendered their forefathers so illustrious 300 years ago. Ever since their subjugation by Spain, they have degenerated in all their virtues; though some noble exceptions are still remaining among them, and no people are so little obliged as the Portuguese are to the reports of historians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakness of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of disobliging their powerful neighbours; and that inactivity has proved the source of pride, and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude, and above all, an intemperate passion for revenge. They are, if possible, more superstitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more state than the Spaniards themselves. Among the lower people, thieving is often practised; and all ranks are accused of being unfair in their dealings, especially with strangers. It is hard, however, to say, what alteration may be made in the character of the Portuguese, by the diminution of priestly influence, and by that spirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, which is now so much encouraged by their court and ministry.

The Portuguese are neither so tall nor so well made as the Spaniards, whose habits and customs they imitate, the nobility however affecting to be more gaily and richly dressed. The characteristic distinction between the Spaniards and Portuguese is thus described by Mr. Costigan: "In Spain the (*Hidalgo*) nobleman is what he ought to be; brave, sincere, and liberal, both in his sentiments and actions—in this country he is perfectly the reverse. As you descend among the Spaniards, the national character vitiates, and it is well known the Spanish peasant is a proud, beggarly, insolent, brutal animal—in this country (Portugal) the lower you descend in rank, the personal character rises and improves upon you; and you will hardly meet with a peasant who is not courteous and affable to a degree hardly to be found in any other country." The Portuguese ladies are thin and small of stature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expressive, and their features generally regular. They are esteemed generous, modest, and witty. They dress like the Spanish ladies, with much awkwardness and affected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and they are taught by their husbands to exact from their servants an homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal personages. The furniture of the houses, especially of their grandees, is rich to excess; and they maintain an incredible number of domestics, as they seldom discharge any who survive, after serving their ancestors. The poorer sort have scarcely any furniture at all; for they, in imitation of the Moors, sit always cross-legged on the ground.

The Portuguese peasant has never reaped any advantage from the benefits of foreign trade, and of the fine and vast countries the kings of Portugal possessed in Africa and the East, or of those still remaining to them in South America. The only foreign luxury he is yet acquainted with is tobacco; and when his feeble purse can reach it, he purchases a dried Newfoundland cod-fish; but this is a regale he dares seldom aspire to. A piece of bread made of Indian corn, and a salted pilchard, or a head of garlick, to give that bread a flavour, compose his standing dish; and if he can get a bit of the hog, the ox, or the calf he himself fattens, to regale his wretched family at Christmas or Easter, he has reached the pinnacle of worldly happiness.

RELIGION.] The established religion of Portugal is popery in the strictest sense. The Portuguese have a patriarch; but formerly he depended entirely upon the

the pope, unless when a quarrel subsisted between the courts of Rome and Lisbon. The power of his holiness in Portugal has been of late so much curtailed, that it is difficult to describe the religious state of that country: what is certain is, that the royal revenues are greatly increased, at the expence of the religious institutions in the kingdom. The power of the inquisition is now taken out of the hands of the ecclesiastics, and converted to a state-trap for the benefit of the crown.

The baneful influence of their superstition is, however, too obvious; for, says a late traveller, this little country presents a striking instance how far the human mind and character may be depraved and corrupted, by the unhappy effects of a domineering and fictitious mode of worship, which has almost suppressed every sentiment of virtue. Here the practice and exercise of those dispositions of piety, gratitude, generosity, benevolence, and universal charity, which would often arise naturally in the breasts of most men, if only left to themselves, are diverted, and another and most pernicious direction is given to them. The great object of charity, all over this country and Spain, is the relieving of the souls in purgatory, by lavishing money on churches and convents, for masses to be said on that account; and such an influence has the belief of that ideal place of torment, that it will squeeze hard cash from between the fingers of many a miser, when no other consideration could have produced that effect; nay, so depraved are the understandings of the best-intentioned people, by the perverse lessons of their spiritual directors, that their charitable donations to people in distress are unaccompanied with those liberal and disinterested motives of relieving the necessitous and comforting the afflicted, which are the best stimulatives to such actions, and are divested of much of their excellency, by being bestowed from personal and selfish considerations. As the intercessions of others, especially of persons who have once address enough to be looked on by the multitude as of extraordinary sanctity, are reckoned of the greatest avail; so wherever such a person or persons appear, they are frequented by those whose consciences accuse them of any deadly sins, who load such devotees with alms and charitable gifts, charging them at the same time to intercede earnestly in their favour with the Virgin, or with their particular saint or angel, to represent the charities they have done, and to request that, in consideration of these, so much may be discounted from the degree of punishment their sins may be found to deserve; establishing by this means a sort of account current of debtor and creditor, between themselves and the Almighty, or his agents. And so universal is this notion among the people, that when they give charity to a common beggar in the streets, they charge that beggar to pray for them, that such charity may be admitted in discount of their transgressions, and which the beggar faithfully engages to do.

[ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] The archbishopricks are those of Braga, Evora, and Lisbon. The first of these has ten suffragan bishops; the second, two; and the last, ten, including those of the Portuguese settlements abroad. The patriarch of Lisbon is generally a cardinal, and a person of the highest birth.

[LANGUAGE.] The Portuguese language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. Their Pater-noster runs thus: *Padre nosso que estas nos Ceos, sanctificado seja o tu nome; venha a nos tua reyno, seja feita a tua vontade, assi nos Ceos, como na terra. O paonessa de cada dia, dono so oei nestro dia. E pedoa nos, senhor, as nossas devidas, assi como nos perdamos a nos nossos devedores. E nao nos dexes cahir em tentatio, mas liora nos do mal.* Amen.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] These are so few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by those of the Portuguese themselves, who have the smallest tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by a few, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable state of ignorance. It is

universally

universally allowed that the defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. The ancestors of the present Portuguese were certainly possessed of more true knowledge, with regard to astronomy, geography, and navigation, than any European nation, about the middle of the sixteenth century, and for some time after. Camoens, who himself was a great adventurer and voyager, was possessed of a true, but neglected poetical genius.

**UNIVERSITIES.]** These are, Coimbra, founded in 1291 by king Dennis; and which had fifty professors; but it has been lately put under some new regulations. Evora, founded in 1559; and the college of the nobles at Lisbon, where the young nobility have an opportunity (of which few of them profit) of being educated in every branch of polite learning, and the sciences. All the books that did belong to the banished Jesuits are kept here, which compose a very large library. The English language is likewise taught in this college. Here is also a college where young gentlemen are educated in the science of engineering, and when qualified, get commissions in that corps.

**CURIOSITIES.]** The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned, form the chief of these. The remains of some castles in the Moorish taste are still standing. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almost entire, and deservedly admired. The walls of Santarem are said to be of Roman work likewise. The church and monastery near Lisbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpressibly magnificent; and several monasteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch is probably one of the finest and richest in the world; the paintings are mosaic work, so curiously wrought with stones of all colours, as to astonish the beholders. To these curiosities we may add, that the king is possessed of the largest, though not the most valuable diamond, in the world. It was found in Brazil.

**CHIEF CITIES.]** Lisbon is the capital of Portugal, and is thought to contain 200,000 inhabitants. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, which also set the remainder on fire, upon All-Saints'-day, 1755. It still contains many 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, which could make however but a poor defence against ships of war. All that part of the city that was demolished by the earthquake, is planned out in the most regular and commodious form. Some large squares and many streets are already built. The streets form right angles, and are broad and spacious. The houses are lofty, elegant and uniform; and being built of white stone, make a beautiful appearance. The second city in this kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain 30,000 inhabitants. The chief article of commerce in this city is wine; and the inhabitants of half the shops in the city are coopers. The merchants assemble daily in the chief street to transact business; and are protected from the sun by sail-cloths hung across from the opposite houses. About thirty English families reside here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine trade.

**AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, AND MANUFACTURES.]** With regard to agriculture, this country is in a most wretched state, producing grain for only three months' consumption, which renders corn the most considerable article of importation.

The Portuguese exchange their wine, salt, fruits, and most of their own materials, for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and some coarse silk and woollen, with a variety of straw work, and are excellent in preserving and candying fruits. The commerce of Portugal, though seemingly extensive, proves of little solid benefit to her, as the European nations, trading with her, engross all

the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities, as her gold, diamonds, pearls, sugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red-wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Brazil; her ivory, ebony, spices, and drugs of Africa and East India, in exchange for the almost numberless manufactures, and the vast quantities of corn and salt fish, supplied by those European nations, and by the English North American colonies.

The Portuguese foreign settlements are, however, not only of immense value, but vastly improveable: Brazil, the isles of Cape Verd, Madeira, and the Azores. They bring gold from their plantations on the east and west coast of Africa, and likewise slaves for manufacturing their sugars and tobacco in Brazil and their South American settlements.

What the value of these may be, is unknown, perhaps, to themselves; but they certainly abound in all the precious stones, and rich mines of gold and silver, and other commodities that are produced in the Spanish dominions there. It is computed that the king's fifth of gold sent from Brazil amounts annually to 300,000l. sterling, notwithstanding the vast contraband trade. The little shipping the Portuguese have is chiefly employed in carrying on the slave trade; and in a correspondence with Goa, their chief settlement in the East Indies, and their other possessions there, as Dieu, Daman, Macao, &c.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is absolute; but the nation still preserves an appearance of its ancient free constitution, in the meeting of the cortes or states, consisting, like our parliaments, of clergy, nobility, and commons. They pretend to a right of being consulted upon the imposition of new taxes, but the only real power they have is, that their assent is necessary in every new regulation, with regard to the succession. In this they are indulged, to prevent all future disputes on that account.

The nature of this government may be fairly pronounced the most despotic of any kingdom in Europe. The established law is generally a dead letter, excepting where its decrees are carried into execution by the supplementary mandates of the sovereign, which are generally employed in defeating the purposes of safety and protection which law is calculated to extend equally over all the subjects.

Here the people have no more share in the direction of government, in enacting laws, and in the regulating of agriculture and commerce, than they have in Russia, or China. How would an Englishman, alive to all the feelings of civil liberty, tremble at reading the preamble of every new law published here! and which runs thus, "I, the king, in virtue of my own certain knowledge, of my royal will and pleasure, and of my full, supreme, and arbitrary power, which I hold only of God, and for which I am accountable to no man on earth, I do in consequence order and command, &c. &c."

All great preferments, both spiritual and temporal, are disposed of in the council of state, which is composed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the secretary of state. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treasury courts do the finances. The council of the palace is the highest tribunal that can receive appeals; but the *Casa da Supplicação* is a tribunal from which no appeal can be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

[REVENUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above 3,000,000 and a half, sterling, annually. The customs and duties on goods exported and imported are excessive, and farmed out; but if the Portuguese ministry should succeed in all their projects, and in establishing exclusive companies, to the prejudice of the British trade, the inhabitants will be able to bear these taxes without murmuring. Foreign merchandise pays 23 per cent. on importation,

importation, and fish from Newfoundland, 25 per cent. Fish taken in the neighbouring seas and rivers pay 27 per cent. and the tax upon lands and cattle that are sold is 10 per cent. The king draws a considerable revenue from the several orders of knighthood, of which he is grand master. The pope, in consideration of the large sums he draws out of Portugal, gives the king the money arising from indulgences to eat flesh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now greatly increased by the suppression of the Jesuits, and other religious orders and institutions.

**MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.]** The Portuguese government used to depend chiefly for protection on England; and therefore, for many years, they greatly neglected their army and fleet; but the same friendly connection between Great Britain and Portugal does not at present subsist. In the late reign, though they received the most effectual assistance from England, when invaded by the French and Spaniards, his most faithful majesty judged it expedient to raise a considerable body of troops, who were chiefly disciplined by foreign officers. Since that period the army has been again neglected, no proper encouragement being given to foreign officers, and little attention paid to the discipline of the troops; so that the military force of Portugal is now again inconsiderable, amounting, it is said, to 25,000 men. The naval force of this kingdom is about seventeen ships of war, including six frigates.

**ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.]** The king's titles are, king of Portugal and the Algarves, lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conquest, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and Brasil. The last king was complimented by the pope, with the title of His Most Faithful Majesty. That of his eldest-son is Prince of Brasil.

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five escutcheons, azure, placed cross-wise, each charged with as many besants as the first, placed saltier-wise, and pointed, sable, for Portugal. The shield bordered, gules, charged with seven towers, or, three in chief, and two in each flanch. The supporters are two winged dragons, and the crest a dragon, or, under two flanches, and the base of the shield appears at the end of it; two crosses, the first flower-de-luce, vert, which is for the order of Avieze, and the second patée, gules, for the order of Christ; the motto is changeable, each king assuming a new one; but it is frequently these words, *Pro Rege et Grege*, "For the King and the People."

**NOBILITY AND ORDERS.]** The titles and distinctions of their nobility are much the same with those of Spain. Their orders of knighthood are three; 1. That of *Aviz*, or *Avieze*, first instituted by Alphonfus Henriquez, king of Portugal, in the year 1147, as a military and religious order, on account of his taking Evora from the Moors. In 1213, it was subject to the order of Calatrava in Spain; but when Don John of Portugal seized the crown, he made it again independent. The badge is a cross fleury, enamelled green, and between each angle a fleur-de-lis, gold: it is worn pendent to a green ribbon round the neck. 2. The "Order of St. James," instituted by Dennis I. king of Portugal, in the year 1370, because under that saint's protection he became victorious over the Moors; he endowed the order with great privileges. The knights profess chastity, hospitality, and obedience, and none are admitted till they prove the gentility of their blood. Their ensign is a red sword, the habit white, and their principal convent is at Dalmela. 3. The "Order of Christ" was instituted in 1317, by Dennis I. of Portugal, to engage the nobility to assist him more powerfully against the Moors. The knights obtained great possessions, and elected their grand master, till 1522, when Pope Adrian VI. conferred that office on John III. and his successors to the crown of Portugal. This order is under the same regulations, and enjoys the same privileges as that of Calatrava in Spain: the badge is a cross pattee, red, charged with a cross, white.

worn pendent to a broad scarlet ribbon round the neck, and on days of ceremony to a collar composed of three chains of gold. By the statutes, the knights should prove the nobility of their descent for four generations; but the order is now indiscriminately given to all kinds of people who profess the Roman Catholic religion, and is very little regarded. These orders have small commanderies and revenues annexed to them, but are in small esteem. The "Order of *Mato*" hath likewise 23 commanderies in Portugal.

[*HISTORY OF PORTUGAL.*] This kingdom comprehends the greatest part of the ancient Lusitania, and shared the same fate with the other Spanish provinces in the contests between the Carthaginians and Romans; and in the decline and fall of the Roman empire, was successively conquered by the Suevi, Alans, Visigoths, and Moors. In the eleventh century, Alphonfus VI, king of Castile and Leon, rewarded Henry, grandson of Robert, king of France, for his bravery and assistance against the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal then in the hands of the Christians. Henry was succeeded by his son Alphonfus Henry, in the year 1095, who gained a decisive victory over five Moorish kings, in July 1139. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal, for Alphonfus was then proclaimed king by his soldiers. He reigned 30 years, and was esteemed for his courage and love of learning. His descendants maintained themselves on the throne for some centuries; indeed Sancho II. was expelled from his dominions for cowardice in the year 1240.

Dennis I. or Dionysius, was called the *Father of his Country*; he built and rebuilt 44 cities and towns in Portugal, founded the military order of Christ, and was a very fortunate prince. He reigned 46 years. Under his successor Alphonfus IV. happened several earthquakes at Lisbon, which threw down part of the city, and destroyed many lives. John I. was illustrious for his courage, prudence, and conquests in Africa; under him Madeira was first discovered in the year 1420, and the Canaries; he took Ceuta, and after a reign of 49 years, died in the year 1433. In the reign of Alphonso V. about 1480, the Portuguese discovered the coast of Guinea; and in the reign of his successor John II. they discovered the Cape of Good Hope, and the kingdom of Moni-Congo, and settled colonies, and built forts at Guinea in Africa, and the East Indies. Emanuel, surnamed the Great, succeeded him in 1495, and adopted the plan of his predecessors, fitting out fleets for new discoveries. Vasco de Gama, under him, cruised along the coast of Africa and Ethiopia, and landed in Indostan; and in the year 1500, Alvarez discovered Brazil.

John III. succeeded in 1521, and while he lost some of his African settlements, made new acquisitions in the Indies. He sent the famous Xavier, as a missionary to Japan, and in the height of his zeal, established that infernal tribunal, the inquisition, in Portugal, anno 1526, against the entreaties and remonstrances of his people. Sebastian, his grandson, succeeded him in 1557, and undertook a crusade against the Moors in Africa. In 1578, in a battle with the king of Fez and Morocco, on the banks of the river Lucco, he was defeated, and either slain or drowned. Henry, a cardinal, and uncle to the unfortunate Sebastian, being the son of Emanuel, succeeded, but died without issue in the year 1580; on which, Anthony, prior of Crato, was chosen king, by the states of the kingdom; but Philip II. of Spain, as has been observed in our history of that country, pretended that the crown belonged to him because his mother was the eldest daughter of the grandmother of the princes of Braganza; and sent the duke of Alva, with a powerful force, who subdued the country, and proclaimed his master king of Portugal, the 12th of September, 1580.

The viceroys under Philip and his two successors, Philip III. and Philip IV. behaved towards the Portuguese with great rapacity and violence. The Spanish ministers,

nisters treated them as vassals of Spain; and by their repeated acts of oppression and tyranny, they so kindled the hatred and courage of the Portuguese, as to produce a revolt at Lisbon, the 1st of December, 1640. The people obliged John duke of Braganza, the legitimate heir to the crown, to accept it, and he succeeded to the throne by the title of John IV. almost without bloodshed, and the foreign settlements also acknowledged him as their sovereign. A fierce war subsisted for many years between the two kingdoms, and all the efforts of the Spaniards to reunite them proved vain, so that a treaty was concluded in February, 1668, by which Portugal was declared to be free and independent.

The Portuguese could not have supported themselves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and upon the restoration of Charles II. of England, that prince, having married a princess of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain, to give up all pretensions to the kingdom. Alphonso, son to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to disagree at once with his wife and his brother Peter; and they uniting their interests, not only forced Alphonso to resign his crown, but obtained a dispensation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually consummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a second marriage, had sons, the eldest of whom was John, his successor, and father to the late king of Portugal. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much service in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, John almost ruined the allies, by occasioning the loss of the great battle of Almanza, in 1707. He died in 1750, and was succeeded by his son Joseph, whose reign was neither happy to himself, nor fortunate for his people. The fatal earthquake, in 1755, overwhelmed his capital, and shook his kingdom to the centre. His succeeding administration was not distinguished by the affection that it acquired at home, or the reputation which it sustained abroad. It was deeply stained with domestic blood, and rendered odious by excessive and horrible cruelty. In September, 1758, the king was attacked by assassins, and narrowly escaped with his life, in a solitary place near his country palace of Belem. The families of Aveira, and Tavora, were destroyed by torture, in consequence of an accusation exhibited against them, of having conspired against the king's life. But they were condemned without any proper evidence, and their innocence has been since publicly and authentically declared. From this supposed conspiracy is dated the expulsion of the Jesuits (who were conjectured to have been at the bottom of the plot) from all parts of the Portuguese dominions.

The abolition of the order of the Jesuits, being one of the most important events which have hitherto occurred in the eighteenth century, and it having originated in the court of Portugal, deserves some notice in this place. The active genius of this order, which penetrated the remotest countries of Asia, at a very early period of the preceding century, directed their attention to the extensive continent of America, as a proper object of their missions. Conducted by their distinguished leader, St. Francis Xavier, they formed a considerable settlement in the province of Paragony, and made a rapid progress in instructing the Indians in arts, religion, and the more simple manufactures, and accustoming them to the blessings of security and order. A few Jesuits presided over many thousand Indians; they soon, however, altered their views, and directed them altogether to the increase of the opulence and power of their order. Immense quantities of gold were annually transported to Europe; and in the design of securing to themselves and independent empire in these regions, they industriously cut off all communication with both the Spaniards and the Portuguese in the adjacent provinces, and inspired the Indians with the most determined opposition to those nations. Such was the state of af-

fairs, when, in the year 1750, a treaty was concluded between the courts of Lisbon and Madrid, which ascertained the limits of their respective dominions in South America. Such a treaty was death to the projects of the Jesuits, and the consequence was a violent contest between the united forces of the two European powers, and the Indians of Paraguay, incited by the Jesuits. The crafty and vindictive marquis of Pombal, who had raised himself from performing the duties of a common soldier in the character of a cadet, to be absolute minister of the kingdom of Portugal, could not easily forget this refractory conduct; and perhaps he might apprehend the downfall of his own authority, unless some decisive check was given to the growing influence of this dangerous society. Whether there was a foundation or not for the report of the conspiracy against the life of the king, or whether the discontented Jesuits were really concerned with the unfortunate noblemen who suffered on that account, or not, is difficult to determine. It was sufficient that it afforded a specious pretence for this expert, but unprincipled statesman, to rid himself of enemies, whom he could not regard in any other than a formidable light. In the beginning of the year 1759, therefore, the Jesuits of all descriptions were banished the kingdom of Portugal, on the plea that certain of their order were concerned in the attempt upon the life of the king in 1758, and their effects were confiscated. The hostilities, which commenced not long after between Portugal and Spain, served a little to protract the existence of the Jesuits in the latter kingdom; the jealousy, however, which their conduct had excited in the court of Madrid, lay dormant only for a while, and when a fit opportunity presented, no nation in Europe was more clamorous for their abolition.

In 1762, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards, and their allies the French, pretended to force his faithful majesty 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 body of French threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of these courts were in earnest upon this occasion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain, in consideration of Portugal's apparent danger. It is certain, that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that, had they been in earnest, they might have been masters of Lisbon long before the arrival of the English troops to the assistance of the Portuguese.

Be that as it will, a few English battalions put an effectual stop, by their courage and manœuvres, to the progress of the invasion. Portugal was saved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainebleau in 1763. Notwithstanding this eminent service, and similar favours often performed by the English to the Portuguese, the latter, ever since that period, cannot be said to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The most captious distinctions, and frivolous pretences, have been invented by the Portuguese ministers for cramping the English trade, and depriving them of their privileges.

His Portuguese majesty having no son, his eldest daughter was married, by dispensation from the pope, to Don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown from falling into a foreign family. The late king died on the 24th of February, 1777, and was succeeded by his daughter, the present queen. One of the first acts of her majesty's reign was the removal from power the marquis de Pombal, an event which excited general joy throughout the kingdom, as might naturally be expected from the arbitrary and oppressive nature of his administration, though it has been alleged in his favour, that he adopted sundry public measures, which were calculated to promote the real interests of Portugal.

On the 10th of March, 1792, the prince of Brazil, as presumptive heir to the crown, published an edict, declaring, that as his mother, from her unhappy situation, was incapable of managing the affairs of government, he would place his signature to public papers, till the return of her health; and that no other change should be made in the forms.

The queen is disordered by religious melancholy; and Dr. Willis has been called to cure her: but her insanity remaining incurable, the government of the country rests with the prince of Brazil.

Maria-Frances-Isabella, queen of Portugal, born December 17, 1734; married, June 6, 1760, to her uncle Don Pedro Clement, F. R. S. born July 5, 1717, who died May 25, 1786.—Began to reign February 24, 1777.

Their issue.

John-Maria-Joseph-Lewis, born May 13, 1767; married, March 20, 1785, Maria-Louisa of Spain, born July 9, 1777.

The issue of the late king.

1. Her present Majesty.
2. Anna-Frances-Antonietta, born October 8, 1736.
3. Maria-Francisca-Benedicta, born July 24, 1746; married, in 1776, to her nephew the prince of Brazil, who died September 11, 1788.

I T A L Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 600 } Breadth 400 }	between { 38 and 47 north latitude. 7 and 10 east longitude.

Containing 116,967 SQUARE MILES, with 170 Inhabitants to each.

**T**HE form of Italy renders it very difficult to ascertain its extent and dimensions; for, according to some accounts, it is, from the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about 750 miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to those of the dominions of the states of Venice, which is its greatest breadth, about 400 miles, though in some parts it is scarcely 100.

**BOUNDARIES.]** Nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy; for towards the East it is bounded by the Gulf of Venice, or Adriatic sea; on the South and West by the Mediterranean sea; and on the North, by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corsica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other islands, are divided and exhibited in the following table:

Italy		Countries' Names.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
		Piedmont	140	98	Turin
		Savoy	87	60	Chambery
	To the king of	Montserrat	40	22	Casal
	Sardinia	Alellandrine	27	20	Alexandria
		Oneglia	24	7	Oneglia
		Sardinia I.	135	57	Cagliari
	To the king of	Naples	275	200	Naples
	Naples	Sicily I.	183	92	Palermo
	To the Em-	Milan	155	70	Milan
	peror	Mantua	47	27	Mantua
		Mirandola	19	10	Mirandola
		Pope's dominions	235	143	ROME } N. Lat. 41-54. E. Lon. 12-45.
Papists.	To their re-	Tuscany	115	94	Florence
	spective	Massa	16	11	Massa
	princes	Parma	48	37	Parma
		Modena	65	39	Modena
		Piombino	22	18	Piombino
		Monaco	12	4	Monaco
		Lucca	28	15	Lucca
	Republics	St. Marino			St. Marino
		Genoa	160	25	Genoa
	To England	Corfica I.	90	38	Istria
	Venice	175	95	Venice	
To the re-	Istria P.	6	32	Capo d'Istria	
public of	Dalmatia P.	135	20	Zara	
Venice	Iles of Dalmatia				
	Cephalonia	40	18	Cephalonia	
	Corfu, or Corcyra	31	10	Corfu	
	Zant, or Zacynthus	23	12	Zant	
	St. Maura	12	7	St. Maura	
	Little Cephalonia				
	Ithaca olim	7	3		

## S U B D I V I S I O N S.

The King of **SARDINIA** possesses **PIEDMONT**, **SAVOY**, **MONTSERRAT**, the **ISLAND** of **SARDINIA**, part of the **MILANESE**, and of **GENOA**.

The subdivisions in these territories are,

	Subdivisions.	Titles.	Chief Towns.
Piedmont	Piedmont	Proper	Turin, Pignerol, Carignan
	Vercell	Lordship	Vercell
	Mafferan	Principality	Mafferan
	Ivrea	Marquisate	Ivrea
	Asti	County	Asti
	Susa	Marquisate	Susa
	Saluzzo	Marquisate	Saluzzo, Coni
	Vaudois	Valties	Pragelas, or Cluson
	Nice	Territory	Nice
Tende	County	Tende	
Aouste	County	Aouste	

Savoy

Genoa, Milane, C. Mont-  
Lavo  
Ultra  
Citra  
Moli  
Basil  
Citra  
Island of Sicily  
Milanese  
The

	Subdivisions.	Titles.	Chief Towns.
Savoy	Savoy	Proper	Chambery, Montmelian
	Geneva	County	Annacy
	Chablais	County	Tonor, or Thonor
	Tarantaise		Moufriers
	Maurienne	Valley	St. John de Maurienne
	Folligny		Bonneville
Mont-	Montferrat	Duchy	Casal, Albi, Aqui
Genoa	Tortonefe		Tortona
	Alessandrino		Alexandria
	Laumelin		Laumello
	Oneglia	Territory	Oneglia

The dominions of the King of N A P L E S.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Lavora	Naples, Capua,	Ult. Calabria	Reggio
	Gaeta	Ult. Abruzzo	Aquila
Ultra Princip.	Benevento	Citra Abruzzo	Chieti
Citra Princip.	Salerno	Capitinate, or	Manfredonia
Molise	Bojano	Apulia	Luccera
Basilicata	Cerenza	Bari	Bari
Citra Calabria	Cofenza	Otranto	Otranto
			Brundisi
			Tarenta

	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Island of Sicily	Val de Mazara	Palermo
	Val de Demona	Messina
	Val de Noto	Catania, Syracuse, Noto.

LIPARI ISLANDS, North of Sicily.  
Lipari, Strombulo, Rotte, Panaria, Elicufa.  
ISLANDS on the WEST COAST of ITALY.  
Capri, Ischia, Ponza, Pianofa, &c.

The House of AUSTRIA possesses the MILANESE, the MANTUAN, and TUSCANY.

The subdivisions and chief towns in these territories are,

	Subdivisions.	Titles.	Chief Towns.
Milanese	Milanese	Proper	Milan
	Pavesan		Pavia
	Navarese		Navara
	Comasco		Como
	Lodofan		Lodi
	Cremonese		Cremona

Florentina

	Subdivisions.	Titles.	Chief Towns.
Tuscany	{ Florentina Siennese Pisa		Florence Sienna Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino
Mantuan	{ Mantua	Proper	Mantua

In Tuscany is contained the republic of Lucca, and the principality of Massa Carara, subject to its own prince; also the coast del Presidii, of which the capital is Orbitello, subject to the king of Naples.

The duke of PARM A (of the House of BOURBON) is Sovereign of the Duchies of

Parma Placentia Guastalla	} Chief Towns, {	Parma Placentia Guastalla, Castiglione, Luzzara.
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The subdivisions of the Genoese territories, with their chief towns, are,

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Genoa, Proper	Genoa	St. Remo, Territory	St. Remo
Savona, Territory	Savona	Ventimiglia, Territory	Ventimiglia
Vado, Territory	Vado	Monaco, Principality	Monaco
Noli, Territory	Noli	Rapallo, Territory	Rapallo
Final, Territory	Final	Lavigna	Lavigna
Albenga, Territory	Albenga	Specia	Specia
Oneglia, to Sardinia	Oneglia		

The Duchy of MODENA is subject to its own Duke, and contains Duchies. Chief Towns.

Modena Mirandola Rhegio		Modena Mirandola Rhegio, Borfello, Carpi.
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The Republic of VENICE is subdivided in the following manner:

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Venice	Venice	Rovigno	Rovigno
Paduan	Padua	Trevigiano	Trevise
Veronese	Verona	Bellunese	Belluno
Bresciano	Brescia	Friuli	Aquileia
Cremafcso	Crema	Udinese	Udina
Bergamasco	Bergamo	Istria, part.	Capo de Istria
Vincenzino	Vincenza		

The

The Patriarchate, or the Dominions of the POPE, are subdivided thus:

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Campania of Rome	Rome	Ancona, Marqui.	Ancona
	Tivoli		Loretto
	Frescati	Urbino, Duchy	Urbino
	Ostia		Pesaro
St. Peter's Patrimony.	Albano	Romania	Semigalia
	Viterbo		Ravenna
	Civita Vecchia	Bolognese	Rimini
	Bracciano	Ferrarese	Bologna
	Castro	Republic of St. Marino	Ferrara
Orvieto	Comachia		
Ombria, or Spoletto	Aquapendente		St. Marino
	Spoletto		
	Narni		
	Terni		
	Perugia		

Island of **CORSICA**, now united to the crown of Great Britain.

Chief towns, Bastia and Bonifacio.

Island of **MALTA**, subject to the Knights. Chief town, Valetta.

**SOIL AND AIR.]** The happy soil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; each district has its peculiar excellency and commodity; wines, the most delicious fruits, and oil, are the most general productions. As much corn grows here as serves the inhabitants; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheeses, particularly those called Parmesans, and their native silk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air: and some parts of Italy bear melancholy proof of the alterations that accidental causes make on the face of nature; for the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the most salubrious air of any place perhaps on the globe, is now almost pestilential, through the decrease of inhabitants, which has occasioned a stagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being in many places covered with snow in winter. The Appennines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almost divide Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries on the South being warm, those on the North mild and temperate. The sea-breezes refresh the kingdom of Naples so much, that no remarkable inconyeniency of air is found there, notwithstanding its southern situation. In general, the air of Italy may be said to be dry and pure.

**MOUNTAINS.]** We have already mentioned the Alps and Appennines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Vetusius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

**RIVERS AND LAKES.]** The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, and the Tiber which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the southern boundary between Italy and the ancient Cisalpine Gaul.

The lakes of Italy are, the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Iseo, and Garda, in the North; the Perugia or Trasimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the middle.

SEAS,

**SEAS, GULFS OR BAYS, CAPES, } Without a knowledge of these, neither**  
**PROMONTORIES, AND STRAITS. }** the ancient Roman authors, nor the history  
 nor geography of Italy, can be understood. The seas of Italy are, the gulf of  
 Venice, or the Adriatic sea; the seas of Naples, Tuscany, and Genoa; the bays or  
 harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca,  
 Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policastro,  
 Rhegio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieste, Istria, and  
 Fiume; Cape Spartavento, del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; and the strait of  
 Messina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulfs and bays in the Italian islands are those of Fiorenzo, Bastia, Talada,  
 Porto Novo, Cape Corso, Bonifacio, and Ferro, in Corsica; and the strait of Boni-  
 facio, between Corsica and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oristagni; Cape  
 de Sardinis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulfs of Messina,  
 Melazzo, Palermo, Mazara, Syracuse, and Catania; Cape Faro, Melazzo, Or-  
 lando, Gallo, Trapano, Passaro, and Alellia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto  
 Ferro, and Porto Longone, in the island of Elba.

**METALS AND MINERALS. }** Many places of Italy abound in mineral springs;  
 some hot, some warm, and many of sulphureous, chalybeate, and medicinal qualities.  
 Many of its mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds,  
 jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable stones. Iron and copper-  
 mines are found in a few places; and a mill for forging and fabricating these met-  
 als is erected near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is said to contain mines of gold,  
 silver, lead, iron, sulphur, and alum, though they are now neglected; and curious  
 crystals and coral are found on the coast of Corsica. Beautiful marble of all kinds  
 is one of the chief productions of Italy.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO- } Besides the rich vegetable productions**  
**DUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. }** mentioned under the article of soil, Italy  
 produces citrons, and such quantities of chestnuts, cherries, plums, and other fruits,  
 that they are of little value to the proprietors.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy, either by land  
 or sea, and those of France and Germany, already mentioned.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MAN- } Authors are greatly divided on the head**  
**NEERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. }** of Italian population. This may be owing  
 to the partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The  
 number of the king of Sardinia's subjects in Italy, according to the statement of  
 Mr. Watkins in 1787, when he visited this country, amount to 2,695,727 souls, of  
 which Turin contains about 77,000. The city of Milan itself, by the best accounts,  
 contains 200,000; and the duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces  
 of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers of  
 natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only of those who in-  
 habit the great cities. Some doubts have arisen whether Italy is as populous now  
 as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. I am  
 apt to believe that the present inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna  
 of Roma, indeed, and some other of the most beautiful parts of Italy, are at pre-  
 sent in a manner desolate; but the modern Italians being in a great measure free  
 from the unintermitting wars, which, down to the sixteenth century, depopulated  
 their country, as some encouragement is now given to agriculture and manufac-  
 tures of all kinds, population will undoubtedly be promoted. It may not perhaps be  
 extravagant, if we assign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but some calculations  
 greatly exceed that number\*. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and

\* M<sup>r</sup>. Swinburne saith, that, in 1779, the number of inhabitants in the kingdom of Naples amounted to 4,249,430, exclusive of the army and naval establishment.

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have such meaning in their looks, that they have greatly assisted the ideas of their painters. Their women are well shaped, and sprightly. The marriage ties, especially of the higher class, are said to be of little force. Every wife has been represented to have her gullant or cicisbeo, with whom she keeps company, and sometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence on either side. But the representations which have been made of this kind by travellers, appear to be much exaggerated. With regard to the modes of life, the best quality of the modern Italians is sobriety, and they submit very patiently to the public government. With great taciturnity they discover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more superstitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native customs, and seem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondness for greens, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and satisfaction; and an Italian gentleman, or peasant, can be luxurious at a very small expence. Though perhaps Italy does not contain many descendants of the ancient Romans, yet the present inhabitants speak of themselves as successors to the conquerors of the world, and look upon the rest of mankind as their inferiors.

The dress of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium between the French volatility and the solemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans frequently dress in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in the fine arts; though they make at present but a very inconsiderable figure in the sciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal music at a very dear rate, by emasculating their males when young; to which their mercenary parents agree without remorse. Not one in fifty of these wretched martyrs to harmony and avarice succeed, but fortunately they are received as choristers by many of the religious fraternities, and are thus enabled to gain a bare subsistence.

The Italians, the Venetians especially, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many customs that are considered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their sons should throw themselves away by unsuitable marriage, or contract diseases by promiscuous amours, hire mistresses for them, for a month, or a year, or some determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licensed trade. The Italian courtezans, or *bona robas*, as they are called, make a kind of profession in all their cities. Masquerading and gaming, horse-races without riders, and conversations or assemblies, are the chief diversions of the Italians, except religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, describing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians, and their manner of living. Give what scope you please to your fancy, says he, you will never imagine half the disagreeableness that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian nastiness, offer to an Englishman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can express the wretchedness of the other inns. No other beds than those of straw, with a mattress of straw, and next to that a dirty sheet, sprinkled with water, and consequently damp: for a covering, you have another sheet as coarse as the first, like one of our kitchen jack towels, with a dirty coverlet. The bedstead consists of four wooden forms or benches: an English peer and peeress must lie in this manner, unless they carry an upholsterer's shop with them. There are, by the bye, no such things as curtains; and in all their inns the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been washed since it was first laid. One of the most indelicate customs here is, that men, and not women, make the ladies beds, and would do every office of a maid-servant, if suffered. They never scour their pewter; their knives are of the same colour. In these inns they

make you pay largely, and send up ten times as much as you can eat. The soup, like wash, with pieces of liver swimming in it; a plate full of brains, fried in the shape of fritters; a dish of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your arrival) boiled to rags, without any the least kind of sauce or herbage; another fowl, just killed, stewed, as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey roasted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are so stringy you may divide the breast into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal: and, generally speaking, it is the only eatable morsel that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceedingly bad; and the butter so rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of your smell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, are the infinite number of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infect us by day and night.

We beg leave to add a still more modern description of the national character of the Italians, given lately by the abbé Jagemann, member of the Florentine Academy of Agriculture; "Considering the mildness of the climate, the uncommon fertility of the soil, the situation of most towns and boroughs on hills, the excellent spring-water from the Alps and the Appennines, the number of mineral waters and baths, the spaciousness of the streets and houses, the delightful views, the frequent residence of the Italians on their villas, the fragrant and healthiness of the air, the temperate diet, the facility of getting cured of diseases in the hospitals, one is inclined to think that the corporeal frame of an Italian, if not enervated in early youth, cannot but be strong, healthy, and beautiful. The handsomest persons of either sex are found in Tuscany. The Italians, in general, are also endowed with good sense and discernment; apt to despise mere theoretical speculations, and to judge by their own feelings and experience: but education is rather neglected. The chief part of their religion consists in an external observance and practice of ecclesiastical rites, ceremonies, and injunctions. An Italian, not enlightened by reflection and experience, will sooner commit adultery than eat any flesh-meat on a Friday; but a foreigner, who wishes to pass for a Roman catholic, needs only to stick to his window an attestation, by a physician, that his state of health requires a flesh-meat diet; and he may, without any risk, eat flesh-meat in Lent. Such attestations may be purchased in coffee-houses, at Florence. The Italians are very sensual; exceedingly fond of music; impatient of delay in their passions for the fair sex; jealous of the French; but fond of the national characters of the English and the Germans. They still breathe their ancient spirit of liberty and republicanism, and are averse to monarchical government, to which they were subjected by force. Hence, a true born Italian, of an independent fortune, seldom courts public employments; hence their best geniuses too are little known; hence also their almost general inclination to satire, and the bitterness of their satires. Hence their general hatred and contempt for the military service, and for the ministers and executors of criminal jurisdiction. Their dress and their whole conduct prove their fondness of liberty and ease, and their aversion to constraint, ceremony, and compliments. As so great a variety of enjoyments and conveniences are, for an Italian, so many necessaries of life, he must be a rigid economist; but those most famous for their economical management, are the Florentines and the Genoese. Hence their habitual custom of entering into the most minute details and calculations, and of strictly adhering to rules. Hence their peculiar talents and skill for commerce, trade, political economy, finances, their avidity for gain, and their envy at the prosperity of other people. Their resentment lasts only till they have produced a satisfaction adequate to a wrong sustained; they are less irascible than many other nations; but when grossly injured in their character or fortunes, they are capable of every excess. Of assidua-

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tions, however, abbé Jagemann recollects only three instances in Tuscany, in fifteen years. From their mutual distrust, an Italian indeed seldom becomes an intimate friend to another Italian; but then their friendship proves the more cordial and lasting. No nation is more compassionate to the distressed, or more ready to serve strangers; yet letters of recommendation ought not to be neglected by travellers."

RELIGION.] The religion of the Italians is Roman-catholic. The inquisition here is little more than a sound; and persons of all religions live unmolested in Italy, provided no gross insult is offered to their worship. In the Introduction, we have given an account of the rise and establishment of popery in Italy, from whence it spread over all Europe; likewise of the causes and symptoms of its decline. The ecclesiastical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in describing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holiness, are seventy: but that number is seldom or never complete: they are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalship, the pope regulates himself according to the nomination of the princes who profess that religion. His chief minister is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amassing what he can. When met in a consistory, the cardinals pretend to control the pope, in matters both spiritual and temporal, and have been sometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is seldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a scene where the cardinals principally display their parts and their characters. During the election of a pope in 1721, the animosities ran so high, that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the inkstandishes at each other. We shall here give an extract from the creed of pope Pius IV. 1560, before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the protestant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Christians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows:

"I most firmly admit and embrace the apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions, and all other constitutions of the church of Rome.

"I do admit the holy scriptures in the same sense that holy mother-church doth, whose business it is to judge of the true sense and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous consent of the fathers.

"I do profess and believe that there are seven sacraments of the law, truly and properly so called, instituted by Jesus Christ our Lord, and necessary to the salvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptism, confirmation, eucharist, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of these, baptism, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without sacrilege. I do also receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her solemn administration of the abovesaid sacraments.

"I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent concerning original sin and justification.

"I do also profess, that in the mass there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the most holy sacrament of the eucharist there is truly, really, and substantially, the body and blood,

\* A convocation of Roman-catholic cardinals, bishops, bishops, and divines, who assembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, anno 1546, and devoted to him, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to suppress what they were pleased to term the Rising Hercules in the church.

together with the soul and divinity, of our Lord Jesus Christ; and that there is a conversion made of the whole substance of the bread into the body, and of the whole substance of the wine into the blood; which conversion the catholic church calls Transubstantiation. I confess that under one kind only, whole and entire, Christ and a true sacrament is taken and received.

"I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the souls kept prisoners there do receive help by the suffrages of the faithful.

"I do likewise believe that the saints, reigning together with Christ, are to be worshipped and prayed unto; and that they do offer prayers unto God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

"I do most firmly assert, that the images of Christ, of the blessed Virgin the mother of God, and of other saints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them \*.

"I do likewise affirm, that the power of indulgencies was left by Christ to the church, and that the use of them is very beneficial to Christian people †.

"I do acknowledge the holy, catholic, and apostolical Roman church to be the mother and mistress of all churches; and I do promise and swear true obedience to the bishop of Rome, the successor of St. Peter, the prince of the apostles, and vicar of Jesus Christ.

"I do undoubtedly receive and profess all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the sacred canons and œcumenical councils, and espe-

\* An English traveller, speaking of a religious procession some years ago at Florence, in Italy, describes it as follows: I had occasion, says he, to see a procession, where all the noblest of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniversary of a charitable institution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About two hundred of these virgins walked in procession, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in sack-cloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and bellowing the litanies; but the greatest object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, standing within a gilt frame, dressed in a gold stuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of false jewel, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the fashion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the cross; but when the Lady Mother appeared on the shoulders of three or four lusty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt.

† A long list of indulgencies, or frees of the pope's chancery, may be seen in a book printed 150 years ago, by authority of the then pope. It has been translated into English, under the title of *Rome a great Custom-House for Sin*; from which we shall give a few extracts.

#### ABSOLUTIONS.

For him that stole holy or consecrated things out of a holy place, 10s. 6d.

For him who lies with a woman in the church, 9s.

For a layman for murdering a layman, 7s. 6d.

For him that killeth his father, mother, wife, or sister, 10s. 6d.

For laying violent hands, on a clergyman, so he be without effusion of blood, 10s. 6d.

For a priest that keeps a concubine: as also his dispensation for being irregular, 10. 6d.

For him that lyeth with his own mother, sister, or godmother, 7s. 6d.

For him that burns his neighbour's house, 12s.

For him that forgeth the pope's hand, 1l. 7s.

For him that forgeth letters apostolical, 1l. 7s.

For him that takes two holy orders in one day, 2l. 6s.

For a king for going to the holy sepulchre without licence, 7l. 10s.

#### DISPENSATIONS.

For a bastard to enter all holy orders, 18s.

For a man or woman that is found hanged, that they may have Christian burial, 1l. 7s. 6d.

#### LICENCES.

For a layman to change his vow of going to Rome to visit the apostolic churches, 18s.

To eat flesh and white meats in Lent, and other fasting days, 10s. 6d.

That a king or queen shall enjoy such indulgencies, as if they went to Rome, 15l.

For a queen to adopt a child, 300l.

To marry in times prohibited, 2l. 5s.

To eat flesh in times prohibited, 1l. 4s.

Not to be tied to fasting days, 1l. 4s.

For a town to take out of a church them (murderers) that have taken sanctuary therein, 4l. 10s.

#### FACULTIES.

To absolve all the delinquents, 3l.

To dispense with irregularities, 3l.

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cially by the holy synod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all heresies condemned, rejected, and anathematized by the church, I do likewise condemn, reject, and anathematize."

[ARCHBISHOPRICKS.] There are thirty-eight archbishopricks in Italy, but the suffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for the reader to depend upon, the pope creating or suppressing them as he pleases.

[LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its smoothness, and the facility with which it enters into musical compositions. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is easily mastered by a good classical scholar. Almost every state in Italy has a different dialect; and the prodigious pains taken by the literary societies there, may at last fix the Italian into a standard language. At present the Tuscan style and writing is most in request.

The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Padre nostro, che sei nel cielo, sia santificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volontà sia fatta, siccome in cielo così anche in terra; dacci oggi il nostro pane cotidiano; e rimettici i nostri debiti, siccome noi ancora rimettiamo a' nostri debitori; e non inducici in tentazione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perciocché tuo è il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria in sempiterno. Amen.*

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS.] In the Introduction, we have particularized some of the great men which ancient Italy produced. In modern times, that is, since the revival of learning, some Italians have shone in controversial learning. The mathematics and natural philosophy owe much to Galileo, Toricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and several other Italians. Strada is an excellent historian; and the history of the council of Trent, by the celebrated Father Paul, is a work of great merit. Guicciardini, Bentivoglio, and Davila, have been much commended as historians by their several admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an historian and as a political writer. His comedies deserve some praise for the liberality of his sentiments, considering the age in which he lived. Among the prose writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thought one of the most pure and correct in point of style: he was a very natural painter of life and manners, but his productions are too licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the spirit and genius of ancient literature: but among the Italian poets, Dante, Ariosto, and Tasso, are the most distinguished. There are said to be upwards of a thousand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent: but Metastasio has acquired a great reputation by writing dramatic pieces set to music. Sannazarius, Fracastorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have distinguished themselves by the elegance, correctness, and spirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compositions approaching in some degree to the classics themselves. Socinus, who was so much distinguished by his opposition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, sculptors, architects, and musicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the sack of Constantinople by the Turks, revived taste likewise, and gave mankind a relish for truth, and beauty in design and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, assisted by the ancients, struck out a new creation by his pencil, and still stands at the head of painting. Michael Angelo Buonarotti excelled at once in painting, sculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled, Buonante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried sculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veronese, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their several manners. The same may be said of Corelli, and other Italians, in music. At present, Italy cannot justly boast of any paramount genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Those of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Pisa, Naples, Salerno, and Perugia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES. } Italy is the native country of all that is  
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } stupendous, great, or beautiful, either in an-  
cient or modern times. A library might be filled by descriptions and delineations  
of all that is rare and curious in the arts; but the bounds of this work admit only  
of a very brief account of those objects that are most distinguished either for anti-  
quity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the first rank, as a species of the most striking magni-  
fence: there are at Rome considerable remains of that which was erected by  
Vespasian, and finished by Domitian, called the Colisseo. Twelve thousand Jewish  
captives were employed by Vespasian in this building; and it is said to have been  
capable of containing eighty-seven thousand spectators seated, and twenty thou-  
sand standing. The architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its  
proportions are so just, that it does not appear near so large as it really is. But  
it has been stripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments, at various  
times, and by various enemies. The Goths, and other barbarians, began its de-  
struction, and popes and cardinals have endeavoured to complete its ruin. Car-  
dinal Farnese, in particular, robbed it of some fine remains of its marble cornices,  
friezes, &c. and, with infinite pains and labour, got away what was practicable of  
the outside casing of marble, which he employed in building the palace of Farnese.  
The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the consul Flaminius, is thought  
to be the most entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of steps carried all  
round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high each, and  
above two feet broad. Twenty-two thousand persons may be seated here at their  
ease, allowing one foot and a half for each person. This amphitheatre is quite per-  
fect, and has been lately repaired with the greatest care, at the expence of the inha-  
bitants. They frequently exhibited in it plays, combats of wild beasts, and other  
public spectacles. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are also visible in other  
places. The triumphal arches of Vespasian, Septimius Severus, and Constantine the  
Great, are still standing, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and  
temples, are correspondent to the highest ideas we entertain of the Roman gran-  
deur. The Pantheon, which is at present converted into a modern church, and which,  
from its circular figure, is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any  
other Roman temple now remaining. It was built by Agrippa, the son-in-law of  
Augustus, and called Pantheon, from the universality of its celestial dedication.  
The ascent to it was originally by seven steps, but the ground on which Rome stood  
being raised from 12 to 35 feet by its ruins, for several ages it was entered by a  
descent of 13 steps; but Alexander the Seventh caused the earth that surrounded  
it to be removed, so that the exterior surface is now upon a level with its floor.  
There are still left several of the niches which anciently contained the statues of  
the Heathen deities. The outside of the building is of Tivoli freestone, and within,  
it is encruited with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without  
pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has  
no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light  
in every part. The pavement consists of large square stones and porphyry, slop-  
ing round towards the centre, where the rain-water, falling down through the  
aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain covered  
with a stone full of holes. The colonade in the front, which consists of sixteen  
columns of granite, thirty-seven feet high, exclusive of the pedestals and capitals,  
each cut out of a single block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be

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viewed without astonishment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a single piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vase of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is a fountain, with an antique bason of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with instructive sculptures, are still remaining. A traveller forgets the devastations of the northern barbarians, when he sees the rostrated column erected by Duillius, in commemoration of the first naval victory the Romans gained over the Carthaginians; the statue of the wolf giving suck to Romulus and Remus, with visible marks of the stroke of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the very original brass plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thousand other identical antiquities, transmitted unhurt to the present times; not to mention the infinite variety of medals, seals, and engraved stones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furnished with busts and statues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the first 200 miles, the second 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places still entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs, bridges, and the like, present themselves all over Italy.

The subterraneous constructions of Italy are as stupendous as those above ground; witness the cloacæ, and the catacombs, or repositories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above thirty years since a painter's apprentice discovered the ancient city of Pæstum or Posidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, still standing; for so indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new discovery to the learned. Many curiosities are frequently dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Vesuvius, which in the reign of Nero was almost destroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the first year of the reign of Titus, anno 79, overwhelmed by a stream of the lava of Vesuvius. The melted lava in its course filled up the streets in some places to the height of sixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in others one hundred and ten feet. The lava is now of a consistency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away: it is composed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitrified sandy substances, which altogether form a close and heavy mass. In the revolution of so many ages, the spot it stood upon was entirely forgotten; but in the year 1713, upon digging in these parts, somewhat of this unfortunate city was discovered, and many antiquities were dug out; but the search was afterwards discontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but also the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then brought to light, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a statue of gold, and the inscription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre, the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze, with horses of the same metal, likewise gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. They likewise found among the ruins of this city multitudes of statues, busts, pillars, paintings, manuscripts, furniture, and various utensils; and the search is still continued. The streets of the town appear to have been quite straight and regular, and the houses well built, and much alike; some of the rooms paved with mosaic, others with fine marbles, others again with bricks, three feet long and six inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up so unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greatest part of the inhabitants from escaping with many of their rich effects; for when the excavations were made, there were not more than a dozen skeletons found, and but little of gold, silver, or precious stones. The difficulty of removing the rubbish induced his majesty to fill it up again as he went on, after collecting all the moveables

moveables of any consequence. The theatre alone is left open. It is larger than any in England; and the ends of the beams burnt to coal, are still seen sticking in the walls; but all the ornaments that withstood the eruption are removed to Portici.

The town of Pompeia was destroyed by the same eruption of Mount Vesuvius, which occasioned the destruction of Herculaneum; but it was not discovered till near forty years later. One street, and a few detached buildings have been cleared; and that with more facility than at Herculaneum, no lava having ever gone over the ashes which buried Pompeia. The street is well paved with the same kind of stone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow causeways are raised a foot and a half on each side for the conveniency of foot passengers. The street itself is not so broad as the narrowest part of the Strand, and is supposed to have been inhabited by trades-people. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be seen on the pavement. The houses are small, but give an idea of neatness and conveniency. The stucco on the walls is smooth and beautiful, and as hard as marble. Some of the rooms are ornamented with paintings, mostly single figures, representing animals. They are tolerably well executed, and on a little water being thrown on them, the colours appear surprisngly fresh. Most of the houses are built on the same plan, and have one small room from the passage, which is conjectured to have been the shop, with a window to the street, and a place which seems to have been contrived for shewing the goods to the greatest advantage. In another part of the town is a rectangular building, with a colonade towards the court, something in the style of the Royal Exchange at London, but smaller. This has every appearance of a barrack and guard-room; the pillars are of brick, covered with shining stucco, elegantly fluted; the scrawlings and drawings still visible on the walls, are such as might be naturally expected on the walls of a guard-room, where soldiers are the designers, and swords the engraving tools. They consist of gladiators fighting, some with each other, some with wild beasts; the games of the circus, as chariot races, wrestling, and the like; a few figures in caricatura, designed probably by some of the soldiers in ridicule of their companions, or perhaps of their officers; and there are many names inscribed on various parts of the wall, particularly *Cn. Balbus*, *Lu. Jun. Rufus*, &c. &c. At a considerable distance from the barrack is a temple of the goddess Isis, the pillars of which are of brick, stuccoed like those of the guard-room; but there is nothing very magnificent in the appearance of this edifice. The best paintings, hitherto found at Pompeia, are those of this temple; they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few skeletons were found in the streets of this town, but a considerable number in the houses. In one apartment (says Mr. Sutherland) we saw the skeletons of seventeen poor wretches, who were confined by the ancles in an iron machine. Many other bodies were found, some of them in circumstances which plainly shew that they were endeavouring to escape, when the eruption overtook them.

With regard to modern curiosities in Italy, they are as bewildered as the remains of antiquity. Rome itself contains 300 churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and sculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number.

The church of St. Peter, at Rome, is the most astonishing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps existed; as neither the temple of Jerusalem, nor those of Ephesus, Eleusis, or of Olympian Jupiter at Athens, could, from what history has recorded of them, be ranked with it in this respect. The semicircular colonades that enclose its spacious court: the Egyptian obelisk in the center brought from Heliopolis to Rome by Caligula: and the fountains on each side, which generally  
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throw up columns of water sufficient to fill the bed of a small river, are the grandest objects of the kind which the world can produce. The front of this edifice is generally thought less noble than that of St. Paul's in London, which was built in imitation of St. Peter's; but when the whole is viewed together, crowned with its majestic dome of 617 feet in circumference, its general superiority will be manifest.

The Vatican, which is the largest palace in Christendom, is said to contain 13,000 chambers and closets. It stands close to St. Peter's, the perspective of which loses much of its effect by their junction, as the exterior of the Vatican but ill accords with the grand and regular appearance of the church; being an immense pile of building without order, raised by different architects, and at different times. The library of this palace is supposed to contain the most numerous and valuable collection of books, &c. in the world. On going into it, you look up an immense room, which had little the appearance of what it is, the volumes being shut up in armories. It is said to contain 120,000 in printed and manuscript; but this assertion is rather dubious. The house and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination, notwithstanding the ridiculous romance that composes its history.

The natural curiosities of Italy, though remarkable, are not so numerous as its artificial. Mount Vesuvius, which is five Italian miles distant from the city of Naples, and Mount *Ætna*, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. The declivity of Mount Vesuvius towards the sea, is every where planted with vines and fruit-trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful prospect, and the air is clear and wholesome. The South and West sides of the mountain form very different views, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and stones. The height of Mount Vesuvius has been computed to be 3900 feet above the surface of the sea. It hath been a volcano beyond the reach of history or tradition. An animated description of its ravages in the year 79, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witness to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but small and moderate: however then it broke out with accumulated fury, and desolated miles around. In 1694, was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with so much force, that some of it fell at thirty miles distance, and a vast quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, such quantities of cinders and ashes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon-day. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned to be the twenty-seventh from that which destroyed Herculaneum in the time of Titus. In this eruption the ashes, or rather small cinders, showered down so fast at Naples, that the people in the street were obliged to use umbrellas, or adopt some other expedient, to guard themselves against them. The tops of the houses, and the balconies, were covered with these cinders; and ships at sea, twenty leagues from Naples, were annoyed by them, to the great astonishment of the sailors. An eruption happened also in 1766, and another in 1779, which has been particularly described by sir William Hamilton, in the *Philosophical Transactions*.

This gentleman, the British envoy at the court of Naples, has been at great pains to investigate the phenomena of this volcano. From the time of his arrival at Naples, in 1764, he paid particular regard to the state of the mountain at all times, and observes that the smoke is much more considerable in bad, than in fair weather; and that the inward explosions of the mountain are often heard at Naples in bad weather, which is six miles distant. On looking into the mouth from whence the fire issues, in fair weather the smoke has sometimes been so little, that

he has seen a great way down, and observed the sides to be incrufted with fairs and minerals of various colours, white, green, deep and pale yellow. In bad weather alfo the fmoke was moist, white, and much lefs offensive than the fleams which iffued from the cracks in the fides of the mountain. The figns of an approaching eruption are an increafe of the fmoke in fair weather; and after this has continued for fome time, a puff of black fmoke is frequently feen to fhoot up in the middle of the white kind to a prodigious height; and thefe puffs are attended with confiderable explofions. While Vefuvius was in this ftate, fir William afcended to the top. It was about the beginning of November, and the upper part of the mountain was then covered with fnow. A little hillock of fulphur, about fix feet high, had been thrown up by the mountain, and burned with a blue flame at the top: but while our author was examining this phenomenon, a fudden and loud report was heard, a column of black fmoke thot up with violence, and was followed by a reddith flame. A ftower of ftones fell, which obliged him to retire; and he informs us, that it is by no means fafe to approach too near to the mountain in this ftate, as fome gentlemen, whom he mentions, were wounded by the ftones which were thrown out by an explofion of this kind. As the eruption proceeds, the fmoke becomes totally black in the day time, and at night appears like clouds tinged by the fetting fun. Afterwards it appears like flame in the night; ftowers of afhes are thrown out, earthquakes are produced, and great volleys of red-hot ftones are difcharged to an immense height in the air. The height and diftance to which thefe ftones are thrown is generally in proportion to the magnitude of the volcano which emits them, and hence the explofions of Vefuvius are commonly lefs terrible than thofe of *Ætna*; but the eruption in 1779 from Vefuvius feems to have been as violent as we have an account of in any volcano whatever. The largeft ftone thrown out by Vefuvius, whofe dimentions have been meafured, was 12 feet in length, and 45 in circumference. It was projected to the diftance of a quarter of a mile from the place where it was emitted; but much larger ones have been thrown out from volcanoes of a fuperior magnitude; and Mr. Brydone was affured by the Canon *Recupero*, that he had feen ftones of immense magnitude thrown out from *Ætna*, to the height of more than 7,000 feet above the top of the mountain, as he calculated from the time they took in falling. Along with thefe dreadful phenomena, the fmoke which iffues from the mountain is in a highly electrified ftate: the fmall afhes, which the mountain continually throws out along with the ftones and cinders, are attracted by the fmoke, and form with it one vaft, and, to appearance, dense column, from whence continual ftashes of forked, or zig-zag lightning iffue, fometimes attended with thunder, and fometimes not, but equally powerful with the ordinary lightning. This phenomenon has been taken notice of in the accounts of all volcanoes. Pliny mentions it in his account of the great eruption in 79; it has been obferved in thofe of the Icelandic volcanoes; in *Ætna*; and Sir William Hamilton has more than once feen it proceed from the fmoke of Vefuvius.

The eruption of lava in 1766 took place on the 28th of March, about feven at night. The lava began to boil over in one ftream, but foon after divided itfelf into two. It was preceded by a partial earthquake in the neighbourhood of the mountain, occafioned by a violent explofion, and a ftower of red-hot ftones and cinders were thrown up to a confiderable height. The lava had the appearance of red-hot and liquid metal, fuch as the vitrified matter of the glafs-houfes, on which were large floating cinders half lighted, and rolling one over another down the mountain with great precipitation, forming a moft beautiful and uncommon cataract. The colour of the fire was much paler and brighter the firft night than any of the fubfequent ones, when it became of a deep red, probably owing, fays Sir William,

to

to its having been more impregnated with sulphur at first than afterwards. In the day time, unless you are very near it, the lava has no appearance of fire, but its course is marked by a thick white smoke.

The heat of the lava was such, that one could not approach nearer than within ten feet of the stream, and of such consistence (though it appeared as liquid as water) as almost to resist the impression of a long stick, with which the experiment was made. Large stones thrown upon it with all his force did not sink; but, making a slight impression, floated on the surface, and were carried out of sight in a short time; for, notwithstanding the consistency of the matter, it ran with great velocity; not less, in our author's opinion, than that of the river Severn at the passage near Bristol. The stream was about ten feet wide at its source, but soon extended itself, dividing into three branches, so that these rivers of fire, communicating their heat to the cinders of former lavas, between one branch and the other, had the appearance at night of a continued sheet of fire, four miles long, and in some places near two in breadth.

Next year there was a much more violent eruption of the mountain; and the frequent emissions of red-hot-stones and cinders, which took place previous to the eruption, had at last formed a small mountain within the mouth of the great one, by their continually falling back into the place from whence they were emitted; and from the top of this little mountain the smoke issued so thick, that it seemed to have a difficulty in effecting a passage; while volleys of great stones were every minute thrown up to an immense height. At last the whole took the shape of a huge pine tree, which appearance was taken notice of by Pliny in his account of the eruption in 79. The column ascended to such an extraordinary height, as, when bent by the wind, to reach the island of Caprea, not less than 28 miles from Vesuvius. These violent symptoms ceased on the bursting forth of the lava; after which, our author, supposing the danger was over, went to the mountain to make his observations. But while he was employed in this manner, a violent noise was heard within the mountain, immediately after which the lava broke out from a new mouth only a quarter of a mile distant from where he stood, springing up to a considerable height in the air, and rolling directly towards him. He was now in extreme danger, the earth shaking with such violence as to endanger the fall of some of the rocks under which he must necessarily pass, while the showers of cinders and pumice-stone threatened to overwhelm him; and the clouds of smoke produced such an intense darkness, that he could not see which way to go. The sulphureous smell was likewise very offensive, and the explosions of the mountain were much louder than thunder. In this situation he ran three miles before he got out of danger, and afterwards perceived that the lava had actually covered the road by which he retreated, and that to the depth of no less than 60 or 70 feet. The concussions of the air were so violent upon this occasion, that windows and doors of houses, even though locked, were burst open. There was likewise a continual and rumbling subterraneous noise; which lasted for several hours, and which sir William conjectured to have been owing to rain-water lodged in the cavities of the mountain, and meeting with the lava.

The eruption of 1779 was much more violent than that already described. It commenced in the month of August, and besides the usual symptoms of volleys of stones, immense clouds of smoke, &c. a most extraordinary scene was presented by the approach of a thunder cloud. No sooner did this come over the mouth of the inflamed volcano, than the fire from its bowels spouted out in a vast column to meet that in the cloud; both together producing an appearance not to be paralleled. Next night the lava, which had not hitherto got sufficient vent, after a most astonishing explosion, spouted up to the height of at least 10,000 feet above the summit of the mountain, while the smoke around it, emitting continual flashes of zig-zag lightning,

ning, gave an appearance much more awful and tremendous, though, according to Sir William, less beautiful than that of the preceding evening. On this occasion the town of Ottaviano, upon which the volcanic shower was driven by the wind, narrowly escaped the fate of Herculaneum and Pompeii of old. The vast stream of lava indeed did not reach them, otherwise it must have been irresistible.

To the subterraneous fires which the volcanoes are produced, we must undoubtedly ascribe the frequency of earthquakes in this country. In the year 1783, the southern part of Italy was ruined by one of the most violent earthquakes mentioned in history. It affected also the island of Sicily, but less violently than the country already mentioned. Its extent, however, was much less than that of several others. Sir William Hamilton fixes the centre of its force at the town of Oppido; and from the survey which he made of the country which had suffered, computes that its violent effects were confined within a circle whose circumference is 220 Italian miles, and its centre the town of Oppido; nor did it produce any sensible effects beyond the circumference of a circle whose radius was 72 such miles, and Oppido the centre.

The most violent shock happened about noon on the 5th of February; it came on instantaneously, without any warning, and the shock seemed to be directed perpendicularly upwards. The city of Oppido is situated on a mountain, surrounded by two rivers, in a very broad and deep ravine. Into this there were vast pieces of the plain detached, in such a manner as to stop the course of both the rivers, and to form two great lakes. Part of the rock on which Oppido stood was also precipitated into the same hollow, with several houses which had been built upon it. Vast tracts of land, with large plantations of vines and olive trees, were thrown from one side of the hollow to the other, though the distance was more than half a mile; and with one of these vast pieces of earth a countryman was transported along with his field, and two oxen, who were dragging a plough, to the distance above mentioned, without receiving any hurt. The most extraordinary circumstance, however, was, that a hill about 250 feet high, and 1300 in circumference, was moved from its place near four miles down this ravine, before it settled. In several places also the soil, though there was no appearance of fire upon it, had run like the lava of a volcano, and overflowed, like it, the neighbouring grounds.

At Terra Nuova, the ground on which the town stood was split under it, and many hundred houses, with the earth on which they stood, were in a similar manner thrown about half a mile from the place where they stood; and, what is very extraordinary, some of the inhabitants were dug out of the ruins alive, and even unhurt. At Casal Nuova, the princess Gerace Grimaldi, with more than 4000 of her subjects, were destroyed in a moment. Some of the inhabitants, who had been dug alive out of the ruins, declared that they felt their houses suddenly lifted from the foundation, without having had the least previous warning. An inhabitant of the place, who happened to be on an hill which overlooks the town, at that time, turned about on feeling the shock, but, instead of the town, saw only a vast cloud of white dust in the place where it had been. The whole indeed was so effectually overthrown, that no vestige of house or street remained, all being converted into one promiscuous heap of ruins.

Near Scilla, a mountain fell into the sea, and raised such a vast wave, as swept away the prince of Scilla, with 2473 of his subjects at once. A great part of the town of Messina was overthrown. The part of Calabria which was most affected by this grievous calamity, was that which is comprehended between 38 and 39 degrees.

Such were some of the particulars of this earthquake, remarkable not only for its violence, but for the number and continuance of its shocks, which scarcely ceased

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ceased for a whole year after its commencement. The number of persons who lost their lives was computed not to be less than 40,000, and the damage in other respects was prodigious.

It has been observed by a modern traveller, that though Mount Vesuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet as few things in nature are so absolutely noxious as not to produce some good; even this raging volcano, by its sulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its subterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country around it, and to the profusion of fruits and herbage with which it is every where covered. Besides, it is supposed that the mountain, being open and active, proves less hostile to Naples, than it would be, if its eruptions were to cease, and its struggles confined to its own bowels; for then might ensue the most fatal shocks to the unstable foundation of the whole district of Terra di Lavoro\*.

The plain of Solfaterra, (so called from the vast quantities of sulphur, which are continually forced out of the cliffs by subterranean fires), which is justly considered as one of the natural curiosities of Italy, and is situated between the lakes Agnano and Puzuzoli, is no other than the crater of an ancient volcano, or the hollow from whence its eruptions formerly issued. In the plain within the hollow, we see still issues from many parts, as well as from many places in the sides. From these places they collect a kind of sal ammoniac, but in a very awkward manner, by heaping stones upon one another to collect the vapours as they rise. From the soil of the plain, sulphur and alum are extracted; and our author is of opinion, that by careful management this spot might produce a very considerable revenue, though at present it does not yield above 200l. annually. The hollow found produced by throwing a heavy stone upon the plain of Solfaterra, seems to indicate that it is supported by a kind of vault: and it is also probable, that there is underneath it a pool of water, which boils by the heat of a subterraneous fire. This supposition is confirmed by the very moist steam which issues from the cracks in the ground, and runs off in great drops from a piece of cold iron presented to it. On the outside, and towards the lake Agnano, water gushes out of the rock so hot as to raise the quicksilver in Fahrenheit's thermometer to the boiling point. After a great deal of rain, however, the heat of this fountain is much less. When you hold your ear near the rocks from whence the water issues, you hear a horrid boiling noise, which seems to proceed from the huge cauldron that may be supposed to be under the Solfaterra.

Mount Ætna is 10,954 feet in height; its ascent by roads, about 26 miles; and the circumference at the basis 160. From the very summit of Ætna, our adventurous traveller, Mr. Watkins, for a few seconds gazed into the crater: but how great was his surprise, when, instead of a shallow basin as that of Vesuvius, he saw a horrid gulf, not less than two miles in circumference, lined with immense rocks, and deeper than the eye could fathom! This crater was the grave of Empedocles, who unfortunately forgot to leave his iron sandals behind him, before he attempted to impose upon the world a belief of his immortality, by throwing himself into it. Ætna stands separate from all other mountains, its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and sugar-canes; the middle

\* Sir William Hamilton, in his account of the earthquakes in Calabria Ultra, and Sicily, from February 5th, to May 1783, gives several reasons for believing that they were occasioned by the operation of a volcano, the seat of which lay deep under the bottom of the sea, between Stromboli, and the coast of Calabria, or under the parts of the plain towards Oppido and Terra Nuova. He plainly observed a gradation in the damage done to

the buildings, as also in the degree of mortality, in proportion as the countries were more or less distant from this supposed centre of the evil. One circumstance he particularly remarked: if two towns were situated at an equal distance from this centre, the one on a hill, the other on the plain, or in a bottom, the latter had always suffered greatly more by the shocks of the earthquakes than the former; a sufficient proof to him of the cause coming from beneath.

abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines: and the upper part is almost the whole year covered with snow. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it famous; in one of these, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were destroyed, and there have been several terrible eruptions since that time. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port-town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people perished.

The grotto del Cane is remarkable for its poisonous steams, and is so called from its killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there; and doubtless, it would have the same effect on man, or any other animal, whose head was held near to the ground. This noxious vapour is no other than fixed air, which is produced probably from the effervescence of an acid and alkaline mixture; and this being heavier than common air, is near the earth, and fatal to those animals whose heads are so low as to breathe it. Scorpions, vipers, and serpents, are said to be common in Apulia.

Among the several curiosities of Italy, those vast bodies of snow, and ice, which are called the Glaciers of Savoy, deserve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers, which include the vale of Chamouny, and are separated by wild forests, corn-fields, and rich meadows; so that immense tracts of ice are blended with the highest cultivation, and perpetually succeed to each other, in the most singular and striking situations. All these several vallies of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are some leagues in length, unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc; the highest mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world; but for a fuller description of this celebrated mountain, and of the glaciers that surround it, we refer our readers to the account of Switzerland.

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION, AND CHIEF CITIES. } Thus far, of Italy in general; but as the Italian states are not, like the republics of Holland, or Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable (for every Italian state has distinct forms of government, trade, and interests), I shall be obliged to take a separate view of each, to assist the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

The duke of SAVOY, or, as he is now styled, king of SARDINIA \*, taking his royal title from that island, is a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or keeper, against the French. His capital is Turin. This noble city which stands on the northern bank of the river Pô, is perhaps, if taken all in all, the best built, best fortified, and the most uniform in Europe. Its form is oval, the streets are wide, and extend in straight lines from one end of it to the other. Through the middle of which the clear stream of the Doria is made to flow in little channels that keep them clean, and supply the inhabitants with good water. The fronts of the houses in every street are similar to each other, being built of hewn stone, three stories high. The late king, who was what kings should be, the

\* Charles-Emanuel-Ferdinand-Marie, king of Sardinia, and duke of Savoy, born May 24, 1751; married, in 1775, to Maria Adélaïde, sister to Louis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French.

1. Maria-Josepha-Louisa, born September 2, 1753; married to the Count de Provence, vid. France.

2. Maria-Theresa, born January 31, 1756; married to the Count d'Artois.

3. Anna-Maria-Carolina, born December 17, 1757.

4. Victor-Emanuel-Cajetan, duc d'Aoste, born July 24, 1759; married, April 25, 1789, Maria Theresia, niece to the present emperor.

5. Maurice-Joseph-Maria, duc de Montferrat, born September 12, 1762.

6. Maria-Charlotta, born January 1764.

7. Charles-Joseph, duc de Guénois, born April 6, 1765.

8. Joseph-Benedict, comte de Maurienne, born October 5, 1766.

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father of his country, began these improvements, and might be called the second founder; for so great is the alteration, that it would be impossible for any person, who had seen it before the new plan was executed, to know it in the present time. The venerable appearance of the royal palace makes it look like the great ancestor of the city: its heavy and ill proportioned structure stands as a memento of the rude and barbarous ages of Italy. The duchy of Savoy and principality of Piedmont are more populous than they were; by the last returns, the number is found to amount to 2,695,727 souls, of which Turin contains about 77,000. The authority of his Sardinian majesty is as absolute as his will, being neither controuled by parliaments nor conditions of government. The troops of his majesty, on the peace establishment, amount to between 25,000 and 30,000 men, besides a militia of about 15,000, who are called out during one month in the year, and receive a third of the pay of the regulars; and four Swiss regiments, one of which is a protestant corps, and has a minister, paid 100 louis per ann. partly by the king and partly by the regiment.

The MILANESE, belonging to the house of Austria, is a considerable state, and formerly predominant in Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country are almost incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, are very strong, and furnished with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taste, which contains a very rich treasury, consisting chiefly of ecclesiastical furniture, composed of gold, silver, and precious stones. Few travellers come to Milan who are not soon after their arrival taken to a place called La Casa Simonetta, an uninhabited feat, two miles from the city, remarkable for its echo, which repeats the human voice 38, and the report of a pistol 57 times. It is at a back part of the house, and seems to be produced by the projection of two wings from the body, that forms a kind of court-yard, but probably there must be some other unknown cause for so singular an effect. The military establishment of the country is from 16 to 20,000 men, the population 1,000,000, including the capital, which is said to contain 116,000. The revenue of the duchy is above 300,000l. annually. The natives are fond of literary and political assemblies. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the natives of Milan make but few exports; so that its revenue, unless the court of Vienna should pursue some other system of improvement, cannot be much bettered. The duchy of Mantua, being now incorporated with it, the province is to take the name of Austrian Lombardy.

The republic of GENOA is vastly degenerated from its ancient power and opulence, though the spirit of trade still continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa may be called a city of marble palaces; but unfortunately it stands on such a confined slip of land, between the sea and the mountain behind it, that these noble edifices press upon one another. Add to this, the streets are so narrow, as to prevent the passenger from seeing their style of architecture to advantage. The two principal are La Strada Nuova, and La Strada Balbi. The first consists of fourteen superb palaces, that contain a profusion of marbles, and a fine collection of paintings, among which are many most admirable pieces of Titian, the Caracci, and Guido Rene. This city is seen from the sea to the greatest advantage, and forms a very magnificent scene, comprehending the city, the surrounding hills, and the numerous villas that occupy every part of them. Amongst its palaces as particularly worthy of notice, are those of Doria \*, and Durazzo. The inhabitants of

\* Andrew Doria, the head of this family, famous for his many exploits, and the deliverer of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1498: he was offered the sovereignty of the

state, but refused it, and gave to the people that republic a form of government which still subsists: he lived to the age of 93, the refuge and friend of the unfortunate.

distinction dress in black, in a plain, if not an uncouth manner, perhaps to save expences. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants (but some writers greatly diminish that number), among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to six gallees. The chief safety of this republic consists in the jealousy of other European powers, because to any one of them it would be a most valuable acquisition. The common people are wretched beyond expression, as is the soil of its territory. Near the sea some parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is aristocratical, being vested in the nobility: the chief person is called the Doge, or Duke; to which dignity no person is promoted till he is fifty years of age. Every two years a new doge is chosen, and the former is incapable, during five years, of holding the same post again. The doge gives audience to ambassadors; all orders of government are issued in his name, and he is allowed a body-guard of two hundred Germans.

VENICE is one of the most celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its constitution and former power. It commands several fine provinces on the continent of Italy, some islands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is seated on 72 islands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic sea, and is separated from the continent by a marshy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too shallow for large ships to navigate, which forms its principal strength. Venice preserves many vestiges of its ancient magnificence and strictly adheres to its ancient ceremonies. As to the constitution of the republic, it was originally democratical, the magistrates being chosen by a general assembly of the people, and so continued for one hundred and fifty years; but various changes afterwards took place: doges, or dukes, were appointed, who were invested with great power, which they often grossly abused, and some of them were assassinated by the people. By degrees a body of hereditary legislative nobility was formed; and a complete aristocracy was at length established upon the ruins of the popular government. The nobility are divided into six classes, amounting in the whole to 2500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. These elect a doge or chief magistrate by ballot. The doge is invested with great state, and with emblems of supreme authority, but has very little power, and is not permitted to stir from the city without the permission of the grand council. The government and laws are administered by different councils of the nobles.

The college otherwise called the seigniory, is the supreme cabinet council of the state, and also the representative of the republic. This court gives audience, and delivers answers, in the name of the republic, to foreign ambassadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It also receives all requests and memorials on state affairs, summons the senate at pleasure, and arranges the business to be discussed in that assembly. The council of ten takes cognizance of state crimes, and has the power of seizing accused persons, examining them in prison, and taking their answers in writing, with the evidence against them. But the tribunal of state inquisitors, which consists only of three members, and which is in the highest degree despotic in its manner of proceeding, has the power of deciding without appeal, on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian state; the highest of the nobility, even the doge himself, not being excepted. To these three inquisitors is given the right of employing spies, and issuing orders to seize all persons whose words or actions they think reprehensible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed, when they think proper. They have keys to every apartment of the ducal palace, and can, whenever they please, penetrate

penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers. They continue in office only one year, but are not responsible afterwards for their conduct whilst they were in authority. So much distrust and jealousy are displayed by this government, that the noble Venetians decline having any intercourse with foreign ambassadors, or with foreigners who visit them.

All the orders of Venetian nobility are dressed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, from his bucentaur or state-berge, attended by those of all the nobility, is the most superb exhibition in Venice, and according to Mr. Watkins, much more splendid than that of our lord Mayor. When the bucentaur proceeds to a certain distance, on a signal given, a general silence ensues. The doge, leaning over the water from the stern of his nuptial vessel, extends his right arm, holding in his hand a ring, and pronouncing aloud, *Te, mare, desponsamus in signum veri perpetuæque dominii* \*, dropt it into the bosom of his bride. This pageant was instituted in the dogeship of Sebastian Ziani, by Pope Alexander the Third. The naval force which Venice then maintained in its gulph, the Mediterranean, and Archipelago, gave it some countenance; but time has effected such a change, that in the present age it is become quite ridiculous. The inhabitants of Venice are said to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treasury, and the arsenal, are beyond expression. Over the several canals of Venice, are laid near 500 bridges, the greatest part of which are stone. The Venetians still have some manufactures in scarlet cloth, gold and silver stuffs, and above all, fine looking-glasses, which bring in a considerable revenue to the owners; that of the state annually is said to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian florins, each valued at twenty-pence of our money. Out of this are defrayed the expences of the state and the pay of the army, which in time of peace consists of 16,000 regular troops (always commanded by a foreign general), and 10,000 militia. They keep up a small fleet for curbing the insolences of the piratical states of Barbary, and they have among them some orders of knighthood, the chief of which are those of the *Stola d'oro*, so called from the robe they wear, which is conferred only on the first quality, and the military order of St. Mark; of which in the proper place.

In ecclesiastical matters the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power; and both of them are chosen by the senate; and all religious sects, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting Protestants, are here tolerated in the free exercise of their religion.

The Venetians are a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amusements, with an uncommon relish for humour. They are in general tall and well made; and many fine manly countenances are met with in the streets of Venice, resembling those transmitted to us by the pencils of Paul Veronese and Titian. The women are of a fine style of countenance, with expressive features, and are of an easy address. The common people are remarkably sober, obliging to strangers, and gentle in their intercourse with each other. As it is very much the custom to go about in masks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival, an idea has prevailed, that there is much more licentiousness of manners here than in other places. Great numbers of strangers visit Venice during the carnival, and eight or nine theatres are then open.

The dominions of Venice consist of a considerable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the islands of Corfu, Pachfu, Antipachfu, Santa Maura,

\* *Te, O Sea, we espouse, in token of our true and perpetual dominion over thee.*

Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante. The Venetian territories in Italy contain the duchy of Venice, the Paduanese, the peninsula of Rovigo, the Veronese, the territories of Vicenza and Brescia, the districts of Bergamo, Cremona, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. The subjects of the Venetian republic are not oppressed: the senate has found, that mild treatment and good usage are the best policy, and more effectual than armies in preventing revolts.

The principal city of TUSCANY is Florence, which is now possessed by a younger branch of the house of Austria, after being long held by the illustrious house of Medicis, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and masterly in architecture, literature, and the arts, especially those of painting and sculpture. It is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces have been often described; but all description falls short of their excellence. The celebrated Venus of Medicis, justly deemed the standard of female beauty and proportion, stands in a room called the Tribunal. The inscription on its base mentions its being made by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and surrounded by other master-pieces of sculpture, some of which are said to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek masters. Among the proofs of the genius of Michael Angelo, at Florence, may be particularly noticed the anti-chamber and stair-case to the library of St. Lorenzo, from a design of that great artist: they are uncommonly elegant. The library itself is well contrived, and contains, as appears from the catalogue made by the present librarian, a very valuable collection of books: among which are the Pandects of Justinian, in two large volumes, written very fairly on parchment, and in the same state as they were brought from Amalphi. Every corner of this beautiful city, which stands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders in the arts of painting, statuary, and architecture. It is a place of some strength, and contains an archbishop's see, and an university. The inhabitants boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Crusca; and several other academies are now established at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great state, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they sell from their cellar-windows, and sometimes they even hang out a broken flask, as a sign where it may be bought. They deal, besides wine and fruits, in gold and silver stuffs. Peter Leopold, the late emperor of Germany, when he governed this duchy, by his mild and wise regulations promoted a great reformation in the government; and improved the manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuscany could bring into the field, upon occasion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its present revenues are above 500,000*l.* a year. The other principal towns of Tuscany are, Pisa, Leghorn, and Sienna; the first and last are much decayed; but Leghorn is a very handsome city, built in the modern taste, and with such regularity that both gates are seen from the market-place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the sea, besides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable prospect of the sea, and of many villas on the land side. Here all nations, and even the Mahometans, have free access, and may settle. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000, among whom are said to be 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handsome synagogue, and, though subject to very heavy imposts, are in a thriving condition, a considerable part of the commerce of this city going through their hands.

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The inhabitants of **LUCCA**, a small free commonwealth, lying on the Tuscan sea, in a delightful plain, are the most industrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, so that though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000*l.* sterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, especially olives. Some vestiges of the splendour of Lucca, in former ages, are still to be seen. An ossuarium and a cinerarium were discovered in 1692, by which it appeared, that the people were, formerly, buried and burnt within the walls of the town, contrary to a law of the twelve tables \*, which the independent spirit of the people disregarded, as well as to all salutary regulations. The remains of its magnificent amphitheatre, into which whole forests and oceans were occasionally introduced, and which was alternately filled with the beasts of Asia and Africa, and with the fleets and monsters of the deep, are now converted into the walls of a prison still to reverberate with the sounds of guilt and misery. The materials of this amphitheatre have been employed in the erection of churches, in honour of that religion which suppressed the barbarous spectacles therein exhibited. This republic is under the protection of the emperor. The vicinity of the grand-duchy of Tuscany keeps the people of Lucca constantly on their guard, in order to preserve their freedom; for in such a situation, an universal concord and harmony can alone enable them to transmit to posterity the blessings of their darling liberty, whose name they bear on their arms, and whose image is not only imprinted on their coin, but also on the city gates, and all their public buildings. It has been remarked that the inhabitants of this little republic, being in possession of freedom, appear with an air of cheerfulness and plenty, seldom to be found among those of the neighbouring countries.

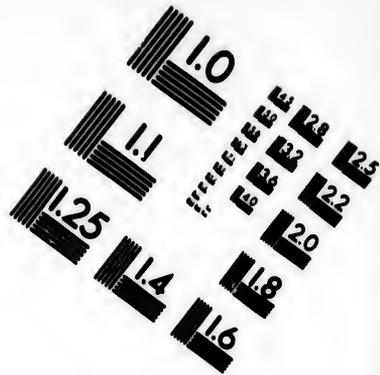
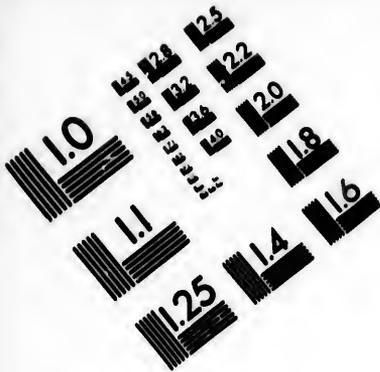
The republic of **St. MARINO** is here mentioned as a political curiosity. Its territories consist of a high craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope; and the inoffensive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 7000 in all, with the small value of their territory, have preserved its constitution.

The duchy and city of **PARMA**, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guastalla, now form one of the most flourishing states in Italy. The soils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richest fruits and pasturages, and contain considerable manufactures of silk. Parma is a bishop's see, and has an university; and some of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The present duke † of Parma is a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. This country was, some years past, the seat of a bloody war between the Austrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings, but his catholic majesty, on his accession to the throne of Naples, is said to have carried with him thither the most remarkable pictures and moveable curiosities. The duke's court is deemed one of the polite in Italy, and his revenues are computed at 100,000*l.* sterling a year. The city of Parma contains 50,000 inhabitants.

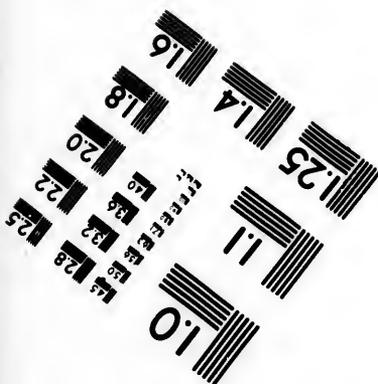
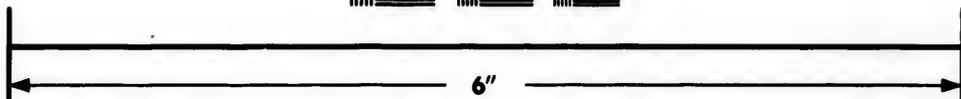
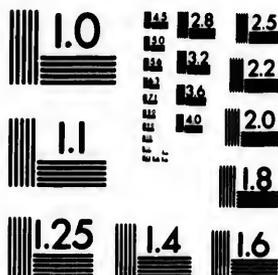
\* In Urbe ne urito neve sepelito.

† Ferdinand duke of Parma, born Jan. 20, 1751, married to the archduchess Maria-Amelia-Josepha, June 27, 1769. Their issue are a prince and two princesses.





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**MANTUA**, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year, is now much decayed. The government of it is annexed to that of the Milanese, in possession of the house of Austria. The capital is one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boast that Virgil was a native of their country. By an order of the emperor in 1785, this duchy is incorporated with that of Milan into one province, and is now to be called Austrian Lombardy.

The duchy of **MODENA** (formerly Mutina) is still governed by its own duke\*, the head of the house of Este, from whom the family of Brunswic descended. Modena is a very elegant town; its streets are regular and remarkably neat: the winding arcades which are seen in some of them have a good effect. The town is not large; it may contain about 20,000 men. The duke is absolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. The duke is under the protection of the house of Austria, and is a vassal of the empire. His dominions are not flourishing, though very improvable.

The **ECCLESIASTICAL STATE**, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. The bad effects of Popish tyranny, superstition, and oppression, are here too visible. Those spots which, under the masters of the world, were formed into so many terrestrial paradises, surrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into pestilential marshes; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, affords a scanty subsistence to a thousand miserable peasants. Notwithstanding this the pope † is a considerable temporal prince, and some suppose that his annual revenue amounts to above a million sterling; other authors rate it much higher. When we speak comparatively, the sum of a million sterling is too high a revenue to raise from his territorial possessions; his accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that sum, is now diminished, by the suppression of the order of Jesuits, from whom he drew vast supplies, and the measures taken by the popish powers for preventing the great ecclesiastical issues of money to Rome. According to the latest accounts, the taxes upon the provisions and lodgings furnished to foreigners, who spend immense sums in visiting his dominions, form now the greatest part of his accidental revenues. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have not been attended with much success. The discouragement of industry and agriculture seems to be interwoven in the constitution of the papal government; but the poverty and sloth of the lower ranks in Italy do not proceed from their natural dispositions.

Modern Rome, which stands on the *Campus Martius*, &c. is thirteen miles in circumference, and was supposed, in 1787, to contain (according to Mr. Watkins) 160,000 inhabitants. Within its circuit there is a vast number of gardens and vineyards. It stands upon the Tiber, an inconsiderable river when compared to the Thames, and navigated by small boats, barges, and lighters. The castle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortress, would be found to be a place of small strength, were it regularly besieged. The city standing upon the ruins of ancient Rome, lies much higher, so that it is difficult to distinguish the seven hills on which it was originally

\* Hercules-Renaud, duke of Modena, born Nov. 22, 1727; married April 16, 1741, to the princess of Massa Carara. Their issue,

Mary Beatrix, born April 29, 1750; married to Ferdinand, archduke of Austria, 1771.

† His holiness, pope Pius VI. (formerly count Braschi) was born at Casena, Dec. 27, 1717; created a cardinal in 1773; and elected pope, Feb. 15, 1775.

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built. No city, in its general appearance, as the last mentioned traveller observes, can unite more magnificence and poverty than this; as adjoining the most superb palaces, we see the meanest habitations; and temples, the boasted ornaments of antiquity, choked up by sheds and cottages. From the drawings of this city, Mr. Watkins expected to see the streets at least as broad as in London; but was disappointed. Il Corso, the principal and most admired, is little more so than St. Martin's lane; but this mode of building their streets so narrow, is done with the view of intercepting as much as possible the sun's heat. There is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes, he has his guards, and sbirri, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magistrates, both ecclesiastical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inspection of his holiness. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice-legates. He monopolises all the corn in his territories, and has always a sufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. Pope Clement XIV. wisely disclaimed all intention of opposing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but those of prayers and supplications.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bolognese, is the most considerable city in the ecclesiastical state, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. It is said to contain 55,000 people. Though in the churches and palaces we have some specimens of noble architecture, its general appearance is unpleasing, from the prevailing custom of building all the houses with piazzas or porticos before them, which, however useful against the inclemency of the seasons, close up and disfigure the streets. Bologna is, above all other cities, Rome excepted, remarkable for its collection of paintings. It was the birth-place and school of the Caracci.

The public museum, or Istituto, founded by pope Lambertini, who was a Bolognese, is a noble collection of every thing that can promote and facilitate the study of the arts and sciences; a library of 100,000 volumes, apartments for chemistry, botany, and surgery, full of anatomical preparations in wax: a cabinet of natural history; an observatory: schools for the polite arts: a collection of genuine and counterfeit medals for that study: in short, it is a complete practical encyclopaedia, with appointed professors for each respective branch. The government is under a legate *à latere*, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The people here live more sociably and comfortably than the other subjects of the pope; and perhaps their distance of near two hundred miles from Rome has contributed to their ease. The rest of the ecclesiastical state contains many towns, celebrated in ancient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of their flourishing state about the beginning of the sixteenth century.

The grandeur of FERRARA, RAVENNA, RIMINI, URBINO (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael), ANCONA, and many other states and cities, illustrious in former times are now to be seen only in their ruins and ancient history. LORETTO, on the other hand, an obscure spot never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world for the riches it contains, and the prodigious resort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion industriously propagated by the Romish clergy, that the house in which the Virgin Mary is said to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumstances, such as that all the trees, on the arrival of the sacred mansion, bowed with the profoundest reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this house from being carried to other places, and exposed as relics, to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine Infant, are of cedar, placed in a small apartment, separated from the others by a silver ballustrade, which has a gate of the

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same metal. It is impossible to describe the gold chains, the rings and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is or was loaded; and the angels of solid gold, who are here placed on every side, are equally enriched with the most precious diamonds. To the superstition of Roman catholic princes, Loretto is indebted for this mass of treasure. It has been matter of surprize, that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks or Barbary states upon Loretto, especially as it is badly fortified, and stands near the sea; but it is now generally supposed that the real treasure is withdrawn, and metals and stones of less value substituted in its place.

The king of NAPLES and SICILY, or, as he is more properly called, the King of the Two Sicilies (the name of Sicily being common to both), is possessed of the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna Græcia, and the island of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 square miles. They are bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-east, where Naples terminates on the ecclesiastical state. The Apennine runs through it from North to South, and its surface is estimated at 3,500 square leagues. The air is hot, and its soil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines, called *Vino Greco* and *Lachryma Christi*, are excellent. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely superb, and adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the most delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of *Vetuvius*, which sometimes threatens the city with destruction, and the soil being pestered with insects and reptiles, some of which are venomous. The houses in Naples are inadequate to the population, but in general are five or six stories in height, and flat at the top: on which are placed numbers of flower vases, or fruit-trees, in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the streets are very handsome: no street in Rome equals in beauty the *Strada di Toledo* at Naples; and still less can any of them be compared with those beautiful streets that lie open to the bay. The richest and most commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city; the most fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them; and a small part of their revenue is spent in feeding the poor, the monks distributing bread and soup to a certain number every day before the doors of the convents.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of ecclesiastics, the protestants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majesty presents to his holiness every year a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquisition is established in Naples. The present revenues of that king amount to above 750,000l. sterling a year; but it is more than probable that, in consequence of the new system pursued by the princes of the house of Bourbon, of abridging the influence and revenues of the clergy, his Neapolitan majesty's annual income will considerably exceed a million sterling. The exports of the kingdom are legumes, hemp, aniseeds, wool, oil, wine, cheese, fish, honey, wax, manna, saffron, gums, capers, macaroni, fait, pot-ash, flax, cotton, silk, and divers manufactures. The king has a numerous but generally poor nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, marquesses, and other high-sounding titles; and his capital, by far the most populous in Italy, contains at least 350,000 inhabitants. Among these are about 30,000 *lazaroni*, or black-guards, the greater part of whom have no dwelling-houses, but sleep every night in summer under porticos, piazzas, or any kind of shelter they can find, and in the winter or rainy time of the year, which lasts several weeks, the rain falling by pail-

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fuls, they resort to the caves under Capo di Monte, where they sleep in crowds like sheep in a penfold. Those of them who have wives and children, live in the suburbs of Naples, near Paullippo, in huts, or in caverns or chambers dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fishing, others by carrying burthens to and from the shipping; many walk about the streets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power for a very small recompence. As they do not meet with constant employment, their wages are not sufficient for their maintenance; but the deficiency is supplied by the soup and bread which are distributed at the doors of the convents.

The Neapolitan nobility are excessively fond of shew and splendour. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richness of their dress, and the grandeur of their titles. According to Mr. Swinburne, luxury of late hath advanced with gigantic strides in Naples. Expence and extravagance are here in the extreme. The great families are oppressed with a load of debt; the working part of the community always spend the price of their labour before they receive it; and the citizen is reduced to great parsimony, and almost penury, in his house-keeping, in order to answer these demands of external shew: short commons at home whet his appetite when invited out to dinner; and it is scarcely credible what quantities of victuals he will devour. The nobility in general are well served, and live comfortably; but it is not their custom to admit strangers to their table; the number of poor dependents who dine with them, and cannot properly be introduced into company, prevents the great families from inviting foreigners: another reason may be, their sleeping after dinner in so regular a manner as to undress and go to bed: no ladies or gentlemen finish their to let till the afternoon, on which account they dine at twelve or one o'clock. The great officers of state, and ministers, live in a different manner, and keep sumptuous tables, to which strangers and others have frequent invitations.

Through every spot of the kingdom of Naples, the traveller may be said to tread on classic ground, and no country presents the eye with more beautiful prospects. There are still traces of the memorable town of Cannæ; as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and under-ground granaries: and the scene of action between Hannibal and the Romans is still marked out to posterity by the name of *pezzo di sangue*, "field of blood." Taranto, a city that was once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little else than its fisheries. Sorrento is a city placed on the brink of steep rocks, that over-hang the bay, and, of all the places in the kingdom, hath the most delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatres, and as the place where Augustus Cæsar died, is now hardly worth observation.

Brundisium, now Brindisi, was the great supplier of oysters for the Roman tables. It hath a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous; and the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to a state of inactivity and poverty, from which it hath not yet emerged. Except Rome, no city can boast of so many remains of ancient sculpture as Benevento; here the arch of Trajan, one of the most magnificent remains of Roman grandeur, erected in the year 114, is still in tolerable preservation. Reggio hath nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral. The town was destroyed by an earthquake before the Marston war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæsar; part of the wall still remains, and was much damaged by the earthquake in 1783, but not destroyed: only 126 lost their lives out of 16,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th of February, and the greatest force thereof seems to have been exerted near that spot, and at Casal Nuova, and Terra Nuova. From Tropea to Squillace, most of the towns and villages were either totally or in part overthrown, and many of

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the inhabitants buried in the ruins. To ascertain the extent of the ravages, Sir William Hamilton, who surveyed it, gives the following description: "If on a map of Italy, and with your compasses on the scale of Italian miles, you were to measure off 22, and then fixing your central point in the city of Oppido (which appeared to me to be the spot on which the earthquake had exerted its greatest force) form a circle (the radii of which will be, as I just said, 22 miles) you will then include all the towns and villages that have been utterly ruined, and the spots where the greatest mortality has happened, and where there have been the most visible alterations on the face of the earth. Then extend your compass on the same scale to 72 miles, preserving the same centre, and form another circle, you will include the whole of the country that has any mark of having been affected by the earthquake."

The island of SICILY, once the granary of the Roman world, still continues to supply Naples, and other parts, with the commodity of corn: but its cultivation, and consequently fertility, is greatly diminished. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the same with those of Italy.

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained, that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually separated from it by the encroachments of the sea, and the shocks of earthquakes. The climate of Sicily is so hot, that even in the beginning of January the shade is refreshing; and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a small fire is sufficient to banish the cold. The only appearance of winter is found towards the summit of Mount *Ætna*, where snow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance for preserving. Churches, convents, and other religious foundations, are here extremely numerous: the buildings are handsome, and the revenues considerable. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity. Some parts of this island are remarkable for female beauty. Palermo, the capital, is computed to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal streets cross each other, and are exceedingly beautiful. This is said to be the only town in all Italy which is lighted at night at the public expence. It carries on a considerable trade. The dead at Palermo are never buried; but their bodies are carried to the Capuchin convent, where, after the funeral service is performed, they are dried in a stove, heated by a composition of lime, which makes the skin adhere to the bones. They are then placed erect in niches, and fastened to the wall by the back or neck. A piece of coarse drab is thrown over the shoulders and round the waist, and their hands are tied together, holding a piece of paper with their epitaph, containing their names, age, and when they died. "We of course" (says Mr. Sutherland) "visited this famous repository, and it is natural to suppose that so many corpses would impress one with reverence and awe. It was near dusk when we arrived at the convent. We passed the chapel, where one of the order had just finished saying vespers, by the gloomy glimmering of a dying lamp. We were then conducted through a garden, where the yew, the cypress, and the barren orange, obscured the remaining light, and where melancholy silence is only disturbed by the hollow murmuring of a feeble water-fall. All these circumstances tuned our minds for the dismal scene we were going to behold, but we had still to descend a flight of steps impervious to the sun; and these at last conveyed us to the dreary mansion of the dead. But notwithstanding the chilling scene we had gone through; notwithstanding our being in the midst of more than a thousand lifeless bodies, we could not help smiling. For the physiognomies of the deceased are so ludicrously mutilated, and their muscles so contracted and distorted in the drying, that no French mimick could equal their grimaces. Most of the corpses have lost the lower part of the nose—their necks are generally a little twisted—their mouths drawn awry in one direction—their noses in another

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another—their eyes sunk and pointed different ways—one ear perhaps turned up—the other drawn down. The relations of the deceased are bound to send two wax tapers every year for the use of the convent; in default of which the corpse is taken down and thrown into the charnel-house. Women are dried as well as the men, but are not exposed. Nobles are shut up in chests.

Messina was formerly a place of considerable trade, and before the earthquake in 1713, was a large and well-built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant structures. By that earthquake a great part of the lower district of the city and of the port was destroyed, and considerable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the *Palazzata*, in the shape of a crescent, which extended along the water side, for above two thousand yards, adorned with pilasters and pediments, and a grand esplanade open to the sea, which at once formed a noble pier, and a delightful public walk, flanked by a fort at each end. The houses were built with great taste, all four stories high, and nearly alike. Of this beautiful and magnificent range, only the outside shell remains; the rest, with all the town, except one or two churches, was entirely destroyed; but of 30,000, the supposed population of the city, only 700 are said to have perished.

The island of **SARDINIA**, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy\*, lies about 150 miles south by west of Leghorn, and hath seven cities or towns. Its capital, Cagliari, is an university, an archbishoprick, and the seat of the viceroy, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. It is thought that his Sardinian majesty's revenues, from this island, do not exceed 5000l. sterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fishery. Its air is bad, from its marshes and high mountains on the North, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and in 1719 to the house of Savoy.

The island of **CORSICA** lies opposite to the Genoese continent, between the gulf of Genoa and the island of Sardinia, and is distinguished by the noble stand which the inhabitants made for their liberty against the Genoese tyrants, and afterwards, though unsuccessfully, against the base and ungenerous measures of the French to enslave them. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, chestnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has also some cattle and horses, and is plentifully supplied, both by sea and rivers, with fish. The inhabitants are said to amount to 120,000. Bastia, the capital, is a place of some strength; though other towns of the island appear to have been but poorly fortified. Bastia, and soon after the rest of the island, surrendered to the arms of his Britannic majesty, in the summer of 1794, to whom the states have presented the crown of Corsica.

**CAPRI**, the ancient **CAPREA**, is an island to which Augustus Cæsar often came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a scene of the most infamous pleasures. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects farthest into the sea. It extends four miles in length from East to West, and about one in breadth. The western part is, for about two miles, a continued

\* Ferdinand IV. king of the Two Sicilies, third son of his late catholic majesty, the king of Spain, born Jan. 12, 1751; ascended the throne Oct. 5, 1759; and married April 7, 1768, to the archduchess Maria-Carolina-Louisa, sister to the late emperor; by whom he has had issue 15 children, ten of whom are living; among whom are,

1. Maria-Theresa, present empress of Germany, born June 6, 1772.
2. Theresa Clementina, born Nov. 23, 1775; married Sept. 17, 1790, the archduke Ferdinand.
3. Francis Jaquatus, prince royal, born Aug. 17, 1777; married Maria-Clementina, the archduchess, Sept. 1790.

rock, high, and almost inaccessible; yet Anacapri, the largest town of the island, is situated here; and in this part are several places covered with a very fruitful soil. The eastern end of the island also rises up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite so long as the western. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a slip of lower ground running across the island, and one of the pleasantest spots conceivable; covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn-fields, which afford a most delightful landscape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is situated the town of Capri, two or three convents, and the bishop's palace. In the midst of this fertile tract rises a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings, some remains of which are still to be seen. But the most considerable ruins are at the very extremity of the eastern promontory, from which there is a very noble prospect; on one side of it the sea extends farther than the eye can reach; just opposite is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other side the bay of Naples.

**ISCHIA**, and some other islands on the coast of Naples and Italy, have nothing to distinguish them but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful summer retreats for their owners. **ELBA** hath been renowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of history. Virgil and Aristotle mention it. It lies ten miles S. W. from Tuscany, is 80 miles in circumference, and contains near 7000 inhabitants; it is divided between the king of Naples, to whom Porto Longone belongs, and the Great Duke of Tuscany, who is master of Porto Ferrajo, and the prince of Piombino. The fruits and wine of the island are very good, and the tunnery, fishery, and salt, produce a good revenue.

I shall here mention the island of **MALTA**, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian islands. It was formerly called Melita, and is situated in 15 degrees E. lon. and 45 degrees N. lat. 60 miles south of Cape Passaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. Its air is clear, but scorching: the whole island seems to be a white rock covered with a thin surface of earth, producing excellent fruits and vegetables. This island, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroy of Sicily, and an acknowledgment of the kings of Spain and Sicily for their protectors: they are now known by the distinction of the Knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chastity; but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have considerable possessions in the Roman catholic countries on the continent, and are under the government of a grand-master, who is elected for life. The lord prior of the order was formerly accounted the prime baron in England. The knights are in number 1000: 500 are to reside on the island, the remainder are in their seminaries in other countries, but at any summons are to make a personal appearance. They had a seminary in England, till it was suppressed by Henry VIII. They were considered as the bulwark of Christendom against the Turks on that side. They wear the badge of the order, a gold cross of eight points enamelled white, pendant to a black watered ribband at the breast, and the badge is decorated so as to distinguish the country of the knight. They are generally of noble families, or such as can prove their gentility for six descents, and are ranked according to their nations. There are 16 called the great crosses, out of whom the officers of the order, as the marshal, admiral, chancellor, &c. are

\* The island of Malta is governed by a grand master.

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chosen. When the great-master dies, they suffer no vessel to go out of the island till another is chosen, to prevent the pope from interfering in the election. Out of the 16 great crosses, the great-master is elected, whose title is, "The most illustrious, and most reverend prince, the lord friar A. B. great master of the hospital of St. John of Jerusalem, prince of Malta, and Gaza." All the knights are sworn to defend the church, to obey their superiors, and to live on the revenues of their order only. Not only their chief town Valetta, or Malta, and its harbour, but their whole island is so well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable. On the 8th of September, there is an annual procession at Malta, in memory of the Turks raising the siege on that day, 1563, after four months assault, leaving their artillery, &c. behind.

ARMS AND ORDERS.] The chief armorial bearings in Italy are as follow: The pope, as sovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his escutcheon, gules, consisting of a long headcape, or, surmounted with a cross, pearly and garnished with three royal crowns, together with the two keys of St. Peter, placed in saltier. The arms of Tuscany, or, five roundels, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three fleurs-de-lis, or. Those of Venice, azure, a lion winged, sejant, or, holding under one of his paws a book covered, argent. Those of Genoa, argent, a cross, gules, with a crown closed for the island of Corsica; and for supporters, two griffins, or. The arms of Naples, are, azure, semée of fleurs-de-lis, or, with a label of five points, gules.

The order of "St. Januarius" was instituted by the present king of Spain, when king of Naples, in July 1738. The number of knights is limited to 30. They must prove the nobility of their descent for four centuries, and are to be addressed by the title of excellency. The badge of the order is a cross of eight points, enamelled white, edged with gold, and in the centre is a bishop holding in his left hand a book and crozier, and below his waist is this motto, "In sanguine foedus;" on the reverse is a book, on which are two red pillars surmounted with palms, enamelled in their proper colours. The knights wear the badge of the order pendant to a broad red ribband, worn scarfwise, and a gold star of eight points with fleurs-de-lis at the angles embroidered on their outer garment. St. Januarius, the celebrated patron of Naples, is the patron of the order. The order of "Annunciation," was instituted in the year 1355, by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I. who bravely defended Rhodes against the Turks, and with those arms which are now borne by the duke of Savoy, gules, a cross argent. It at first consisted of 15 knights, but afterwards the number was enlarged. At present their number is small, limited by the will of the prince, sovereign of the order. It is counted amongst the most respectable orders in Europe; the knight must not only be of a noble family, but also a papist. The colour of the order is composed of golden roses, enamelled red and white, with lovers' knots of the same. To the end of the middle rose is pendent the badge, which consists of three chains of gold, encircling an oval, and disposed in knots. On the oval is represented the salutation, as described by St. Luke, enamelled in proper colours. In the year 1572, Emanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, instituted the order of "St. Lazarus," and revived and united the obsolete order of St. Maurice to it; which was confirmed by the pope on the condition of maintaining two galleys against the Turks. The badge of the order is a cross pomette, white, upon a cross of eight points, green, and is worn pendant to a green ribband.

In the year 828, it is pretended, that the body of St. Mark was removed from Alexandria, in Egypt, to Venice. Accordingly this saint has been taken for their tutelar saint and guardian, and his picture was formerly painted on their ensigns

and banners. When the order of "*St. Mark*" was first instituted, is uncertain; but it is an order conferred by the doge, or duke of Venice, and the senate, on persons of eminent quality, or who have done some signal service to the republic. The knights when made, if present, are dubbed with a sword on their shoulders, the duke saying, "*Esse miles fidelis*," (be a faithful soldier;) absent persons are invested by letters patent; but their title, "*Knights of St. Mark*," is merely honorary: they have no revenue, nor are they under any obligations by vows as other orders. The badge is a medal of gold, pendant to a gold chain; on one side is the emblem of St. Mark, a winged lion sejant with elevated wings, holding in his sinister paw a drawn sword erect, and in his right an open book with the words, "*Pax tibi, Marco Evangelista meus*;" on the reverse, the portrait of the reigning doge, with the image of St. Mark, delivering a standard to him.

About the year 1465, Frederic III. emperor of Germany, instituted the order of "*St. George*," and dedicated it to St. George, tutelar saint and patron of Genoa. The doge is perpetual grand master; the badge a plain cross, enamelled, gules, pendent to a gold chain, and worn about their necks. The cross is also embroidered on their cloaks. In the year 1561, Cosmo of Medici, first grand duke of Tuscany, instituted the order of "*St. Stephen*," in memory of a victory, which secured to him the sovereignty of that province. He and his successors were to be grand masters. The knights are allowed to marry, and their two principal conventional houses are at Pisa. It is a religious as well as a military order, but the knights of Justice and the Ecclesiastics are obliged to make proof of nobility of four descents. They wear a red cross with right angles, orled or, on the left side of their habit, and on their mantle.

The order of the "*Holy Ghost*" was founded with their chief seat, the hospital of that name in Rome, by pope Innocent III. about the year 1198. They have a grand master, and profess obedience, chastity, and poverty. Their revenue is estimated at 24000 ducats daily, with which they entertain strangers, relieve the poor, train up deserted children, &c. Their ensign is a white patriarchal cross with twelve points sewed on their breast on the left side of a black mantle. The order of "*Jesus Christ*," instituted by pope John XXII. was reformed and improved by pope Paul V. The reigning pope was to be always sovereign of it, and it was designed as a mark of distinction for the pope's Italian nobility, but on account of its frequent prostitution, it hath fallen into discredit. The order of the "*Golden Spur*" is said to have been instituted by pope Pius IV. 1559, and to have been connected with the order of Pius, instituted a year afterwards; but the badges were different. The knights of Pius are suppressed, and all that the knights of the Golden Spur have preserved to themselves, is the title of counts of the sacred palace of the Lateran. The badge is a star of eight points, white; and between the two bottom points, a spur, gold.

[History.] Italy was probably first peopled from Greece, as we have mentioned in the Introduction, to which we refer the reader for the ancient history of this country, which, for many ages, gave law to the then known world under the Romans.

The empire of Charlemagne, who died in 814, soon experienced the same fate with that of Alexander. Under his successors it was in a short time entirely dismembered. His son, Lewis le Debonair, succeeded to his dominions in France and Germany, while Bernard, the grandson of Charlemagne, reigned over Italy and the adjacent islands. But Bernard having lost his life by the cruelty of his uncle, against whom he had levied war, and Lewis himself dying in 840, his dominions

were

were divided among his sons, Lothario, Lewis, and Charles. Lothario, with the title of emperor, retained Italy, Provence, and the fertile countries situated between the Saone and the Rhine; Lewis had Germany; and France fell to the share of Charles, the youngest of the three brothers. Shortly after this, Italy was ravaged by many contending princes; but in 964, re-united by Otho the Great to the imperial dominions. Italy afterwards suffered much by the contest between the popes and the emperors; it was harrassed by wars and internal divisions; and at length various principalities and states were erected under different heads.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the ancestors of his present Sardinian majesty, whose father became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718.

The great duchy of Tuscany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies to the year 1240, when the famous distinctions of the Guelfs, who were the partisans of the pope, and Ghibellines, who were in the emperor's interest, took place. The popes then persuaded the imperial governors in Tuscany to put themselves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines, in a short time, formed themselves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties against both parties by turns. Faction at last shook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people seemed still to exist. The Medici, particularly Cosmo, who was deservedly called the father of his country, being in the secret, shared with the Venetians in the immense profits of the East India trade, before the discoveries made by the Portuguese. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any sovereign prince in Europe, enabled his successors to rise to sovereign power; and pope Plus 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, without issue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief to the empire, and given to his son-in-law the duke of Lorraine, (afterwards emperor, and father of Joseph II.) in lieu of the duchy of Lorraine, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his second son, (brother and successor to the emperor Joseph II.) upon the death of his father, became Grand Duke. When he succeeded to the imperial crown, his son Ferdinand entered upon the sovereignty of the great duchy of Tuscany, who has now succeeded his father in the empire of Germany. Leghorn, which belongs to the great duchy, 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 Barbary rovers and pirates.

No country has undergone greater vicissitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconstancy of the natives. Christians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and by their connections with the Greeks, established there, while the rest of Europe was plunged in monkish ignorance, a most respectable monarchy flourishing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all-powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke the succession of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at last came into the possession of the French; and the house of Anjou, with some interruptions, and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards under the Austrian line was so oppressive, that it gave rise to the famous revolt, headed by Massaniello, a young fisherman,

without

without shoes or stockings, in the year 1647. His success obliged the haughty Spaniards to abolish oppressive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before these could be re-established perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily remained to the Spaniards till the year 1700, when the extinction of the Austrian line opened a new source of litigation. In 1706, the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took possession of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's son, to the possession of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houses of Austria and Bourbon, about the possession of Naples; and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies: this was followed by a very bloody campaign, which terminated in 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, by the inspection of physicians, and other trials, that his eldest son was by nature incapacitated for reigning, and his second son being heir apparent to the Spanish monarchy, he resigned the crown of Naples to his third son, Ferdinand IV. who married an archduchess of Austria.

The Milanese, the fairest portion of Italy, went through several hands; the Viscontis were succeeded by the Galezzos and the Sforzas, but fell at last into the hands of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his son Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1706, by the Imperialists. They 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 viceroy.

Mantua, with its duchy, 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 Guastalla was separated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The first duke of Parma was natural son to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy see, in 1545, by pope Julius II. The descendants of the house of Farnese terminated in the late queen dowager of Spain, whose son, his present Catholic majesty, obtained that duchy; and his nephew now holds it, with the duchy of Placentia.

As a maritime power the Venetians were formerly the most formidable in Europe. In 1194, they conquered Constantinople itself, and held it for a short time, together with valuable provinces in Europe and Asia. They were more than once brought to the brink of destruction, by the confederacies formed against them among the other powers of Europe, especially by the league of Cambray, in 1509, but were as often saved by the disunion of the confederates. The discovery of a passage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the first blow to their greatness, as it lost them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their best possessions on the continent; and so late as the year 1715, they lost the Morea.

The Genoese often disputed the empire of the Mediterranean sea with the Venetians, but were seldom or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and sometimes subjected, by the French and

Impe-

Imperialists. Their doge, or first magistrate, used to be crowned king of Corsica, though it does not clearly appear by what title. The successful effort they made in driving the victorious Austrians out of their capital, during the war which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, has few parallels in history, and serves to shew the effects of despair under oppression. At present they are possessed of revenue barely sufficient to preserve the appearance of a sovereign state.

With the history of Christendom itself, that of the Papacy is connected. The most solid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the famous Matilda, countess of Tuscany, and heiress to the greatest part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. (who, before his accession in 1073, was so well known by the name of Hildebrand.) It would be too tedious here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other causes that operated to the aggrandizement of the papacy, previous to the Reformation. Even since that era the state of Europe has been such, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakness and bigotry of temporal princes.

The papal power is evidently now upon the decline. The order of Jesus, which was not improperly called its Janizaries, has been exterminated in 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 in the reduction of his holiness to the exercise of his ecclesiastical functions as first bishop of Christendom.

A vehement memorial has been sent by the pope to most European courts, against the conduct of the French assembly, in refusing Avignon, and the Comtat Venaissin; but the pontiff's memorials are now as little regarded as his bulls; and the papal power is falling with increasing velocity.

The invasion of the Sardinian dominions by France, and the appearance of a French fleet in the Mediterranean, have thrown Italy into the greatest alarms. The pope held a select consistory, and reinforced the garrison at Civita Vecchia with some hundreds of men, at the same time victualling his capital. An army of ten thousand men has been raised for the defence of the papal dominions. Lombardy is also alarmed, and a dread prevails, that the French will invade it by the way of Genoa. The Milanese territory has no strong-holds, and would easily fall a prey to the stronger army. Amid the panic Tuscany alone remains tranquil.

Lord Hervey, the British ambassador, having given notice to the secretary of state of the Grand Duke of Tuscany, of the arrival of the combined British and Spanish fleets in the Mediterranean, and expressed his scruples respecting the neutrality adopted by the Grand Duke towards the belligerent powers, received for answer from the secretary of state, that the Grand Duke would not depart from the neutrality he had hitherto observed.

The measures taken to induce the small republic of Genoa to declare against France will perhaps require some detail. On the 5th of October, 1793, the English admiral Gell entered the port of Genoa, and captured the *Molyte*, a French frigate, which was followed by that of two French tartans, which had been abandoned by their crews. These, with other acts of hostility, incensed all ranks of people against the English. But although the minds of the Genoese appear to be alienated from the English, it is hoped that they will not rush into the opposite extreme, and become the partisans of the French.

John Angelo Braschi, born in 1717, was elected pope in 1775, and took upon him the name of Pius VI.

T U R K E Y.

The Grand Signior's Dominions are divided into

	Sq. M.
1. TURKEY IN EUROPE.	}
2. TURKEY IN ASIA.	
3. TURKEY IN AFRICA.	
	960,000

T U R K E Y I N E U R O P E.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	1000	}
Breadth	900	
		between { 17 and 40 east longitude. 36 and 49 north latitude.
Containing 181,400 SQUARE MILES, with 44 Inhabitants to each.		

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Russia, Poland, and Selavonia, on the North; by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellespont, and Archipelago, on the East; by the Mediterranean, on the South; by the same sea, and the Venetian and Austrian territories, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
On the north coast of the Black Sea are the provinces of	Crim and Little Tartary, and the ancient Taurica Cherfonefus *	Precop	}
		Brachiseria	
		Kassa	
	Budziac Tartary	Oczakow	12,000
	Beffarabia	Bender	8,000
		Belgorod	
North of the Danube are the provinces of	Moldavia, olim Dacia	Jazy	}
		Choczim	
		Falczin	
	Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia	Tergovife	10,500
South of the Danube are	Bulgaria, the east part of the ancient Mysia	Widin	}
		Nicopoli	
		Siliftra	
		Scopia	

\* The Russians, in 1783, seized on the Crimea, the principal part of this division, and by a treaty, signed January 9th, 1784, the Turks ceded it to them with the title of Taman, and that part of Cu-

ban which is bounded by the river of that name. The Turks have now only the Tartar nations beyond the river Cuban, and from the Black sea.

South

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

657

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.		
South of the Danube are	Servia, the west part of Myfia	Belgrade Semendria Niffa	} 22,570	
	Bosnia, part of the ancient Illyricum	Seraio		8,640
On the Bosphorus and Hellespont	Romania, olim Thrace	Constantinople, N. L. 41. E. L. 29.	} 21,200	
	Macedonia	Adrianople Strymon Contessa		18,980
South of Mount Rhodope or Argemum, the north part of the ancient Greece	Thessaly, now Janua	Salonichi Larissa	} 4,650	
	Achaia and Bœotia, now Livadia	Athens Thebes Lepanto		} 3,420
	Epirus	Chimæra Burtinto Scodra		
On the Adriatic Sea, or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum	Albania	Durazzo Dulcigno	} 6,375	
	Dalmatia	Zara Narenza		4,560
In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus.	Ragusa republic * Corinthia	Ragusa Corinth	} 430	
	Argos	Argos		
	Sparta	Napoli de Romania Lacedæmon, now Mistra, on the river Eurotas		

\* The republic of Ragusa, though reckoned by geographers part of Turkey in Europe, is not under the Turkish government. It is an aristocratical state, formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republic, who is styled rector, is changed every month, and elected by scrutiny or lot. During his short administration, he lives in the palace, and wears a ducal habit. As the Ragusans are unable to protect themselves, they make use of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom, for many years, was the grand signior. They endeavoured also to keep upon good terms with the Venetians, and other neighbouring states. But in the year 1783, a dispute arose between them and the king of Naples, respecting a claim of right to his appointing a commander of the Ragusan troops. It was terminated by the republic's putting itself under that

king's protection. The city of Ragusa is not above two miles in circumference, but it is well built, and contains some handsome edifices. The ancient Epidaurus was situated not far from this city. The Ragusans profess the Romish religion, but Greeks, Armenians, and Turks, are tolerated. Almost all the citizens are traders, and they keep so watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of the city of Ragusa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. The language chiefly in use among the Ragusans is the Sclavonian, but the greatest part of them speak the Italian. They have many trading vessels, and are great carriers in the Mediterranean, being constantly at peace with the piratical states of Barbary. The city of Gravosa, and Stagno, 30 miles N. E. of Ragusa, are within the territories of this republic, and there are also five small islands belonging to it, the principal of which is Melida.

4 P

In

South

Sq. M.  
26,200  
12,000  
8,000

26,000  
10,500  
17,000

that name.  
nations be-  
ack Sea.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Thwns.
In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the fourth division of Greece, are	Olympia, where the Games were held	Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus
	Arcadia	Modon Coron
	Elis	Partas Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Peneus.

7220

**SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.]** Nature has lavished upon the inhabitants of Turkey all her blessings, in those four particulars. The soil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond description. The air is salubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unless when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence or uncleanness of the Turkish manner of living. The seasons are here regular, and the climate has been celebrated from the remotest antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholesomeness of the water all over their dominions.

**MOUNTAINS.]** These are the most celebrated in the world, and at the same time the most fruitful. Mount Athos lies on a peninsula, running into the Egean Sea; the Mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, separate Thessaly from Epirus. Parnassus, in Achaia, so famous for being consecrated to the Muses, is well known. Mount Haemus is likewise often mentioned by the poets; but most of the other mountains have changed their names; witness the mountains Shua, Witoka, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the most celebrated mountains abovementioned have modern names imposed upon them by the Turks, their new masters, and others in their neighbourhood.

**SEAS.]** The Euxine or Black Sea; the Palus Maotis, or Sea of Afoph; the Sea of Marmora, which separates Europe from Asia; the Archipelago; the Ionian Sea, and the Levant, are so many evidences that Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Constantinople stands, of all other countries, had the best claim to be mistress of the world.

**STRAITS.]** Those of the Hellespont and Bosphorus are joined to the sea of Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as ancient history. The former, viz. the Hellespont, or Dardanelles \*, is only two miles and an half in breadth, and is famous for the passage of Xerxes over it when about to invade Greece, and of Alexander in his expedition against Asia. Xerxes, for the more easy transportation of his numerous forces, laid a bridge of boats over it. It is also celebrated by the poets in the story of two lovers, Hero and Leander, of whom the latter swam across it to his mistress; but one night was unhappily drowned. The Bosphorus is about the same breadth, but has not been so much celebrated by historians and poets.

**RIVERS.]** The Danube, the Save, the Neister, the Neiper, and the Don, are the best known rivers in this country; though many others have been celebrated by poets and historians.

**LAKES.]** These are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applause, either by the ancients or moderns. The Lago di Scutari lies in

\* The Dardanelles are two ancient and strong castles of Turkey, one of which is in Romania, the other in Nætolia, on each side the canal, formerly called the Hellespont. The mouth of the canal is four miles and a half over.

Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, so famous for its harpies and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and Peneus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx issues, conceived by the ancients to be the passage into hell.

**METALS AND MINERALS.]** Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all sorts of mines, and its marbles are esteemed the finest in the world.

**VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.]** These are excellent all over the European Turkey, especially when assisted by the smallest degree of industry. Besides pot and garden herbs of almost every kind, this country produces in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes, figs, almonds, olives, cotton, and many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe.

**ANIMALS.]** The Thessalian or Turkish horses are excellent both for their beauty and service. The black cattle are large, especially in Greece. The goats are highly prized for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and flesh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Badadagi, furnish the best feathers for arrows for the Turkish archers, and they sell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece; as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupeds all over Turkey in Europe; but the Turks and Mahometans in general are not very fond of animal food.

**ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES,}** Almost every spot of ground, every river **NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.** } and every fountain of Greece, presents the traveller with celebrated antiquities. On the isthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Isthmian games were celebrated, are still visible. Athens, which contains at present above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful source of magnificent ruins, among which are the remains of the temple of Minerva, built of white marble, and encompassed with forty-six fluted columns of the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and seven feet and a half in circumference: the architrave is adorned with basso-relievos, admirably executed, representing the wars of the Athenians. To the south-east of the Acropolis, a citadel which defends the town, are seventeen beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, thought to be the remains of the emperor Adrian's palace. They are of fine white marble, about fifty feet high, including the capitals and bases. Just without the city stands the temple of Theseus, surrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order: the portico at the west end is adorned with the battle of the Centaurs, in basso-relievo; that at the east end appears to be a continuation of the same history; and on the outside of the porticos, in the spaces between the triglyphs, are represented the exploits of Theseus. On the south-west of Athens is a beautiful structure, commonly called the Lantern of Demosthenes: this is a small round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is supported by six fluted columns of the Corinthian order, nine feet and an half high; in the space between the columns are pannels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the resemblance of scales; and on the frieze are beautifully represented in relievo the labours of Hercules. Here are also to be seen the temple of the Winds: the theatre of Bacchus; the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian; and the temples of Jupiter Olympius, and Augustus. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo are still visible at Castri, on the south side of mount Parnassus; and the marble steps that descend to pleasant running water, supposed to be the renowned Castalian spring, with the niches for statues in the rock, are still discernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is still a natural curiosity in Livadia, the old Bœotia.

Mount Athos, which has been already mentioned, and which is commonly called Monte Santo, lies on a peninsula which extends into the Ægean sea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninsula, seven

Turkish miles in length and three in breadth: but it is only a single mountain that is properly called Athos. This is so lofty, that on the top, as the ancients relate, the sun-rising was beheld four hours sooner than by the inhabitants of the coast; and, at the solstice, its shade reached into the Agora or market-place of Myrina, a town in Lemnos, which island was distant eighty-seven miles eastward. There were twenty-two convents on mount Athos, besides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no less than six thousand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty; the other monks are anchorites, or such as live in cells. These Greek monks, who call themselves the inhabitants of the holy mountain, are so far from being a set of slothful people, that, besides their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, masons, stone-cutters, cloth-workers, taylor, &c. They also live a very austere life; their usual food, instead of flesh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit; onions, cheese, and on certain days, Lent excepted, fish. Their fasts are many and severe; which, with the healthfulness of the air, renders longevity so common here, that many of them live above an hundred years. It appears from *Ælian*, that anciently the mountain in general, and particularly the summit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long-life: whence the inhabitants were called *Macrobii*, or long-lived. We are farther informed by *Philostratus*, in the life of *Apollonius*, that numbers of philosophers used to retire to this mountain, for the better contemplation of the heavens, and of nature.

**CITIES.]** Constantinople, the capital of this great empire, is situated on the European side of the Bosphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Constantine the Great, as a more inviting situation than Rome for the seat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire, and having escaped the destructive rage of the barbarous nations, was the greatest as well as the most beautiful city in Europe, and the only one during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the possession of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the East Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the crusaders; and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the crusades, speak of it with astonishment. "O what a vast city is Constantinople! (exclaims one when he first beheld it), and how beautiful! How many monasteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wonderful art! How many manufacturers are there in the city amazing to behold! It would be astonishing to relate how it abounds with gold, silver, and stuffs of various kinds; every hour ships arrive in the port with all things necessary for the use of man." Constantinople is at this day one of the finest cities in the world by its situation and its port. The prospect from it is noble; but the traveller who visits Constantinople is almost as much disappointed at the internal, as delighted with the exterior appearance of it. The houses are wooden, low, and mean: the streets narrow, hollow, and dirty: in every object he beholds the little progress the Turks have made in the liberal arts, and laments that its beauty should be confined to its situation.

The capital of the Turks being, like its parent city Rome, situated upon seven hills, is divided in four parts;—Constantinople, called by the Turks Stamboul, Pera, Galata, and Scutari. The second and third divisions are separated from the first by a branch of the sea, called the Port, near half a mile across, and the last on the Asiatic coast, is divided from these by the Bosphorus, which is not less than two miles in breadth. The circumference of the whole is probably, including the water, from 17 to 20 miles, and the population in time of peace, about 750,000 souls.

souls. There is no city in Europe—perhaps in the world, that contains such a variety of inhabitants;—Turks, Greeks, Armenians, Franks, Jews, &c. &c. The three first of these nations are scattered over the whole, though the Greeks and Armenians have distinct places in which the body of them resides. The most regular part is the Befestiu, inclosed with walls and gates, where the merchants have their shops excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the Hippodrome, an oblong square of 400 paces by 200, where they exercise on horseback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large spacious square, the general resort of all ranks. On the opposite side of the port are four towns, but considered as a part of the suburbs, their distance being so small, a person may easily be heard on the other side. They are named Pera, Galata, Pacha, and Tophana. In Pera, the foreign ambassadors and all the Franks or strangers reside, not being permitted to live in the city: Galata also is mostly inhabited by Franks and Jews, and is a place of great trade. The city abounds with antiquities: the tomb of Constantine the Great is still preserved.

The mosque of Santa Sophia, once a Christian church, called by the Greeks *ἡ ἁγία σοφία*, it having been consecrated by the emperor Justinian the first, to the DIVINE WISDOM, is thought in some respects to exceed in grandeur St. Peter's at Rome. It is very advantageously situated in the finest part of Constantinople, upon an eminence, with a gradual descent to the sea. It is of a long square form, about 100 paces in length, and 80 in breadth, but in the inside it is round. A portico, or piazza, about 36 feet in breadth, supported by marble pillars, extends the whole length of the front. This communicates with the body of the church by nine folding-doors of brass, the middlemost of which has some remains of Mosaic work and paintings. This portico is joined to another which has five brazen doors. The body of the church is almost covered by a cupola of admirable structure, at the foot of which runs a colonnade supporting a gallery of nine yards broad, formerly set apart for the women. Over this run two balustrades, just broad enough for one person to pass; which, in the time of their Ramadan, or Lent, are adorned with lamps, and make a fine appearance. The dome is 34 yards from side to side, and rests upon four vast pillars, at least 15 yards in circumference. It is a perfect hemisphere, illuminated by 24 windows placed at equal distances. In the inside are upwards of 100 pillars of various kinds of marble, some of which are porphyry, and others Egyptian granite. The whole dome, and indeed all the walls, are curiously lined with marble, and the incrustations of the gallery are Mosaic, generally done with small glass cubes, which are continually loosening from their cement, but the colours are unchangeable. The Turks have added four minarets, or tall slender steeples, somewhat resembling the monument in London, and terminating in spires, with gilded crescents on the top.

The city is built in a triangular form, with the seraglio standing on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a prospect of the delightful coast of the Lesser Asia. When we speak of the seraglio, we do not mean the apartments merely in which the grand signior's women are confined; but the whole inclosure of the Ottoman palace, which might well suffice for a moderate town. The wall which surrounds the Seraglio is thirty feet high, having battlements, embrasures, and towers, in the style of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of these the Ottoman court takes the name of the *Porte*, or the *Sublime Porte*, in all public transactions and records. The town is surrounded by a high and thick wall with battlements after the Oriental manner, and towers, defended by a lined but shallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land-side. The best authors think that it does not contain above 800,000 inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are said to be Greeks and Armenians, and the rest are Jews and Turks. The city hath been frequently as-

failed

failed by fires, either owing to the narrowness of the streets and the structure of the houses, or the arts of the Janizaries. In August, 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter situated towards the harbour, and spread into other quarters, and about 10,000 houses (most of which had been rebuilt since the fire in 1782) were consumed.

Opposite to the seraglio, on the Asiatic side, and about a mile and a half distant across the water, is Scutari, adorned with a royal mosque, and a pleasure-house of the grand signior. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand prospect: in one view are the cities of Constantinople, Galata, and Pera, the small seas of the Bosphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each shore.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military strength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks, these several heads depending on the same principles all over the empire, shall be mentioned under **TURKEY IN ASIA.**

**CRIM-TARTARY, or the CRIMEA, is the ancient Taurica Chersonesus, and is a peninsula, lying on the Euxine or Black Sea, by which it is bounded on the West and South, and on the East and North East, by that Asoph. It is between 44 and 46 degrees of north latitude, and 34 and 37 degrees of east longitude.**

This Peninsula was esteemed a part of Turkey in Europe, until it was ceded to Russia in consequence of the peace in 1784. Many cities were built on it by the Greeks, particularly those of Kherfon, Theodosia, Panticapeum, and some others, which carried on a great trade with the Scythians, as well as with the Greek cities, on the continent. It is probable, however, that the modern towns of this country are not situated exactly in the same places with those built by the Greeks. Eupatoria, now Kosleo, is but at a small distance from the seat of the ancient Eupatorium, if not exactly in the same spot; and Sebastopol stands but a very little way from the Kherfon of the Greeks; the ruins of which last are still extant. Strabo mentions a place, named Portus Symbolon, which is probably the same with that named *Symbol* by the Genese, and in more modern times *Babylava*; Janikale is the Panticapeum of the ancients; and Theodosia, lately called Kassa, has now received its ancient appellation of Theodosia again.

The most considerable rivers in the Crimea are those of Karafu and Salagir, both which, taking an easterly course, and uniting their streams, at the distance of more than 20 weills from the sea, run into the gulf of the sea of Asoph, which is interposed between the main land of Crimea, and a long narrow peninsula.

Of the towns in this part of the world we have but very slight descriptions; and indeed where the country has been so often the seat of war, and the inhabitants are still so rude, very little can be expected from their buildings. Lady Craven, now the margravine of Anspach, who, without doubt, had access to the best lodgings in the country, informs us, that "a Tartar's house is a very slight building of only one story, without any chair, table, or piece of wooden furniture. Large cushions are ranged round the room for seats; but what is extremely convenient, there is more than double the space of the room behind the wainscot, which draws back in most places; so that in a place where the room appears exceedingly small and confined, there is yet every conveniency to be met with. A Tartar house has always another building, at a small distance from it, for the convenience of strangers or travellers, whom the noble Tartar always treats with the greatest hospitality. The palace of the khan at Baczzeria is an irregular building; the greatest part of it is of one floor, raised upon pillars of wood, arched and gilt in a fanciful and lively manner; the arch, or last door-way, is finely proportioned, and is adorned with an inscription in letters of gold. The whole was entirely in ruins, but the governor caused

caused it to be repaired, and new gilt and painted for the reception of the empress. Court within court, and garden within garden, make a variety of apartments, where the khan walked from his own residence to the haram, which is spacious, and higher than the rest of the buildings. Several of the square places under his apartment were paved with marble, and have in the centre fountains which play constantly.

Among the curiosities in this country, we may reckon the source of the river Karasu, which is situated among rocks, in a very romantic manner, and rises in a considerable stream. It was visited by Lady Craven in 1786. No less wonderful are those lakes which receive the rivulets, without any visible outlet. This celebrated female traveller mentions a house, near Sebastopol, situated in a very romantic manner, at the foot of some rocks, from which issue many clear springs that amply supply the houses and baths with water. On the summit of these rocks, there are places where immense cables have certainly passed and been tied. The Tartars insist that the sea was once close to the foot of them, and ships were fastened there. Near Bacziferia there is a mine of earth, exactly like soap, which is reckoned very good for the skin, and vast quantities of it are consumed by the women at Constantinople. Our fair traveller bestows the greatest encomiums on the sheep, which in this peninsula are innumerable, and afford the most beautiful and costly fleeces. The sheep are all spotted; the lambskins very beautiful, and they kill the ewes to have them before birth, when their skins have small spots, and are smooth like the finest and lightest fattins. Coats lined with these skins are called Pelisses; and as a great number of these small animals must be killed to make the lining of one coat, this is one of the finest presents the empress can make to an ambassador. Throughout the whole of this peninsula, there are many ruins of ancient towns, particularly one at Soudak, which was rebuilt by the Genoese on the descent of steep rocks. The summit of these overlooks the sea; and here there is a chapel, with a granite pillar, situated in such a manner that on the first shake it must fall perpendicularly into it.

The peninsula of the Crimea has a considerable trade in what is called Morocco leather, of various colours, which is to be had very cheap, and like fatten. At Bacziferia there is a great trade of sword-blades, knives, and hangers, many of which are not to be distinguished from those made at Damascus.

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#### ISLANDS BELONGING TO TURKEY IN EUROPE, BEING PART OF ANCIENT GREECE.

I shall mention these islands chiefly for the use of such readers as are conversant with ancient history, of which they make so distinguished a part.

**NEGROPONT**, the ancient Eubœa, stretches from the south-east to the north-west, and lies on the eastern coast of Achaïa or Livadia. It is 90 miles long, and 25 broad, and contains about 1300 square miles. Here the Turkish galleys lie. The tides on its coasts are irregular; and the island itself is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in such abundance, that all kinds of provisions are extremely cheap. The chief towns are, Negropont, called by the Greeks, Egripos, situated on the south-west coast of the island, on the narrowest part of the strait; and Castell Rosso, the ancient Carysus.

**LEMNOS,**

LEMNOS, or STALIMENE, lies in the northern part of the *Ægean* sea or Archipelago, and is almost a square of 25 miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches arise from its mineral earth, much used in medicine, sometimes called *terra Lemna*, or *sigillata*, because it is sealed up by the Turks, who derive from it a considerable revenue.

TENEDOS is remarkable only for its lying opposite to Old Troy, and its being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal security; it hath a town of the same name.

SEYROS is about 60 miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains: about 300 Greek families inhabit it.

LESBOS, or MYTELENE, is about 60 miles long, and is famous for the number of philosophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality. Formerly it had many cities, the ruins of which are still extant, and was so powerful by sea, as to dispute the empire of the *Ægean* with Athens. Among its illustrious characters were Pittacus, one of the seven wise men of Greece, Sappho, the poet Alcæus, and Arion, who, they tell you, was so skilled in musick, that he even won the affections of a dolphin. It was in this island that Pompey left his Cornelia when he went to dispute with Cæsar at Pharfalia the power of enslaving his country.

SCIO, or CHIOS, lies about 80 miles west of Smyrna, and is about 100 miles in circumference. This island, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and above 3,000 Latins. It hath 300 churches besides chapels and monasteries; and a Turkish garrison of 1,400 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold and silver stuffs. The island likewise produces oil and silk, and the lentisk-tree, or mastic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almost all the other Greek islands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their persons have been the most perfect models of symmetry for painters and statuaries. A late learned traveller, Dr. Richard Chandler, says, "The beautiful Greek girls are the most striking ornaments of Scio. Many of these were sitting at the doors and windows, twirling cotton or silk, or employed in spinning and needle-work, and accosted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome, as we passed. The streets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groups. They wear short petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white silk or cotton hose. Their head-dress, which is peculiar to the island, is a kind of turban, the linen so white and thin, it seemed snow. Their slippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them fastened with a thong. Their garments were of silk of various colours; and their whole appearance so fantastic and lively, as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a separate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and historians said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and shew a little square house, which they call Homer's school.

SAMOS lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of the Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is 30 miles long, and 15 broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Christians, who are well treated by the Turks, their masters. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request; and the island also produces wool, which they sell to the French; oil, pomegranates,

nates, and silk. This island is supposed to have been the native country of Juno and some travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city of mos, are the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the south of Samos lies **PATMOS**, about 20 miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an island. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the island shew a cave where St. John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

The **CYCLADES** islands lie like a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which is south of the islands Mycone and Tirse, and almost midway between the continents of Asia and Europe. Though Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. This island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

**PAROS** lies between the islands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek islands, it contains the most striking and magnificent ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteness of its marble.

**CERIGO, or CYTHERA**, lies south-east of the Morea, and is about 50 miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous. When Venus was born of the sea, she is said to have landed at this island, of which she became the presiding deity, and was from it called Cythere.

**SANTORIN** is one of the most southern islands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Calista, and afterwards Thera. Though seemingly covered with pumice-stones, yet, through the industry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with some wheat. One third of the people are of the Latin church, and subject to a popish bishop. Near this island another arose, of the same name, from the bottom of the sea, in 1707. At the time of its birth there was an earthquake, attended with most dreadful lightnings and thunders, and boilings of the sea for several days, so that when it rose out of the sea, it was a mere volcano, but the burning soon ceased. It is about 200 feet above the sea; and at the time of its first emerging, was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference, but it has since increased. Several other islands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original, although the sea in their neighbourhood is so deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous island of **RHODES** is situated in the 28th degree of east longitude, and 36 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, about 20 miles south-west of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about 60 miles long, and 25 broad. This island is healthful and pleasant, abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town, of the same name, stands on the side of a hill fronting the sea, and is three miles in circumference, interspersed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour is the Grand Signior's principal arsenal for shipping, and the place is esteemed among the strongest fortresses belonging to the Turks. The colossus of brass which anciently stood at the mouth of the harbour, was 50 fathom wide, and deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: one foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships passing between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The face of the colossus represented the

fun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks in 1308, and lost it to them in 1522 after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

**CANDIA**, the ancient Crete, is still renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, and the fountain of legislation for all Greece. It lies between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude, being 200 miles long, and 60 broad, almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa, and contains 3220 square miles. The famous Mount Ida stands in the middle of the island, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid stream. Some of the vallies of this island produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kinds. The siege of Candia, the capital of the island, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645, and its Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself against 56 storms, till the latter end of September 1669, made, at last, an honourable capitulation. The siege cost the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

**CYPRUS** lies in the Levant sea, about 30 miles distant from the coast of Syria and Palestine. It is 150 miles long, and 70 broad, and lies at almost an equal distance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess; and, during the time of the Crusades, was a rich flourishing kingdom, inhabited by Christians. Its wine, especially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the most palatable and the richest of any that grows in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, in the midst of the country, and the see of a Greek archbishop; indeed most part of the inhabitants of the islands are Greeks. Famagusta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to such a surprising degree, that the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250*l.* a year. The island produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made, and also cotton of a very fine quality, and oil, silk, and turpentine. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their ancestors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, that ancient seat of pleasure and corruption, is one of the divisions of the island. Richard I. king of England, subdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Lulignan, king of Jerusalem, from whence it passed to the Venetians, who still hold that empty honour.

The islands in the Ionian sea are, **SAPIENZA**, **STIVALI**, **ZANTE**, **CEPHALONIA**, **SAN LAMAURA**, **CORFU**, **FANNO**, and others of smaller note, particularly **ISOLA DEL COMPARE**, which would not deserve mention, had it not been the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulysses. These islands in general are fruitful and belong to the Venetians.

Zante has a populous capital of the same name, and is a place of considerable trade, especially in currants\*, grapes, and wine. There are but few ships bound to the Adriatic that do not touch here; some of them take in a cargo of currants. This rich and wholesome article of consumption is the dried fruit of grapes, which

\* So called from a corruption of Corinth, from whence the vines were originally imported.

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are peculiar to a few of these islands, and to part of the Morea. They are as inferior in size as superior in flavour to all other; and perhaps the most delicious ever tasted. There are two sorts, the black and the purple, both of which are ripe in July; but the inhabitants do not gather them till August, when they are exposed to the sun till dried, then put into hogheads and trodden down by naked feet to compress and preserve them the better. Zante freights six or seven ships annually, and Cephalonia four, the greater number of which are English. The citadel is erected on the top of a large hill, strong by nature, but now little better than a heap of ruins. Here is a garrison of 500 men, but their chief dependence is on their fleet and the island of Corfu. The inhabitants of Zante are about 30,000, mostly Greeks, and friendly to strangers. Corfu, which is the capital of the ancient Coreyra, and the residence of the governor-general over all the other islands, is a place of great strength, and its circumference about four miles. The Venetians are said to concern themselves very little about the welfare or government of these islands, so that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character. Their number at Corfu is estimated at 50,000, and their manners more severe than at Zante.

## A S I A.

AS Asia exceeds Europe and Africa in extent of territory, it is also superior to them in serenity of air, fertility of soil, the deliciousness of its fruits, the fragrance and balsamic qualities of its plants, spices, and gums; the salubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems; the richness of its metals, and the fineness of its silks and cottons. It was in Asia, according to the sacred records, that the all-wise Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the first man and first woman, from whom the race of mankind was to spring. Asia became again the nursery of the world after the deluge, whence the descendants of Noah dispersed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Asia that God placed his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accomplished by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious gospel was carried with amazing rapidity into all the known nations by his disciples and followers. Here the first Christian churches were founded, and the Christian faith miraculously propagated and cherished even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Asia that the first edifices were reared, and the first empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all these accounts, this quarter claims a superiority over the rest; but it must be owned, that a great change hath happened in that part of it called Turkey, which hath lost much of its ancient splendour. The other parts of Asia continue much in their former condition, the soil being as remarkable for its fertility, as most of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is much owing to the warmth of the climate; whence the Tartars, who live near the same latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, strong, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is wanting in the robust frame of their bodies among the Chinese, Mogul Indians, and all the inhabitants of the more southern regions, is in a great measure compensated by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanship.

This vast extent of territory was successively governed in past times by the Assyrians, the Medes, the Persians, and the Greeks; but the immense regions of India and China were scarcely known to Alexander, or the conquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of those empires, great part of Asia submitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the successors of Mahomet, or as they are usually called, Saracens, founded in Asia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman when in its height of power. The Saracen greatness ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every side, took possession of the middle regions of Asia, which they still enjoy. Besides the countries possessed by the Turks and Russians, Asia contains at present three large empires, the Chinese, the Mogul, and the Persian, upon which the lesser kingdoms and sovereignties depend. The prevailing form of government in this division of the globe is absolute monarchy. If any of them can be said to enjoy some share of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Asiatic nations, when the Dutch first came among them, could not conceive how it was possible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a despotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Persia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profess Mahometanism. The Persian and Indian Mahometans are of the sect of Hali, and the Turks of that of Omar; but both acknowledge Mahomet for their law-giver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Asiatic Islands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Asia. Christianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apostles and primitive fathers, suffered an almost total eclipse by the conquest of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks. Incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and sufferings of pious missionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the most distant regions, and among the grossest idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of success, owing in a great measure to their own nvarice, and the cruelty and injustice of the Europeans, who resort thither in search of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages spoken in Asia are, the modern Greek, the Turkish, the Russian, the Tartarian, the Persian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chinese, and the Japanese. The Portuguese and other European languages are also spoken upon the coasts of India and China.

The continent of Asia is situated between 25 and 180 degrees of east longitude, and between 10 degrees of southern, and 80 degrees of northern latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the West, to the eastern shore of Tartary; and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the most southern part of Malacca, to the most northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the west it is separated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the sea of Marmora, the Bosphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the east, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, which separates it from America; and on the south, by the Indian Ocean; so that it is almost surrounded by the sea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follow:

Nations.

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Nations.	Length.	Bread.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bear. from London.	Diff. of time from London.	Religions.
Russia	The bounds of these parts are unlimited, each power pushing on his conquests as far as he can.			Tobolsk	1160 N. E.	4 19 bef.	Christ. & Pag.
			644,000	Chytian	4480 N. E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans
			105,150	Tibet	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans
			690,000	Samarcand, and Laffa	2500 E.	4 30 bef.	Pagans
China	1440	1000	1104,000	Peking	4100 S. E.	7 24 bef.	Pagans
Mingals	2000	1500	1,116,000	Delhi	3720 S. E.	6 6 bef.	Mah. & Pag.
India beyond the Ganges	2000	1000	711,500	Siam, Pegu	5040 S. E.	6 44 bef.	Mah. & Pag.
Perth	1300	1100	800,000	Spahan	2460 S. E.	1 40 bef.	Mahometans.
Part of Arabia	1300	1400	700,000	Mexia	2640 S. E.	1 53 bef.	Mahometans.
Syria	270	160	29,000	Aleppo	1860 S. E.	2 30 bef.	Christ. & Mah.
Holy Land	210	90	7,600	Jerusalem	1920 S. E.	2 24 bef.	Christ. & Mah.
Natolia	750	390	195,000	Burh or Smyrna	1440 S. E.	1 48 bef.	Mahometans.
Diarbeck or Mesopotamia	210	210	27,600	Diarbeck	2060 S. E.	2 56 bef.	Mahometans, with some few Christians.
Irac, or Chaldea	420	240	59,400	Bagdad	2240	2 13 bef.	
Armenia, or Armenia	360	300	55,000	Erzerum	1860 S. E.	2 44 bef.	
Georgia *	240	180	25,600	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.	
Curdistan, or Assyria	210	205	23,900	Mouful	2220 E.	3 00 bef.	Mahometans.

All the islands of Asia (except Cyprus, already described, in the Levant, belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eastern Ocean, and the Indian Seas, of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have settlements, are

Islands.	Towns.	Sq. M.	Trade with or belong to.	
The Japanese isles	Yedo, Meaco	138,000	Dutch	
The Ladrone	Guam	---	Spain	
Formosa	Tai-ouan-fou	17,000	China	
Anian	Kiontcheow	11,900		
The Philippines	Manilla	133,700	Spain	
The Molucca, or Clove isles	Victoria Fort, Ternate	---	Dutch	
The Banda, or Nutmeg isles	Lantor	---	Dutch	
Amboyna	Amboyna	400	Dutch	
Celebes	Molucca and Macassar	68,400	Dutch	
Gilolo, &c.	Gilolo	10,400	Dutch	
The Sunda isles	Borneo, Caytongee	228,000	All nations	
	Sumatra	Achen, Bencoolen	129,000	English and Dutch
	Java, &c.	Batavia, Baman	38,250	Dutch
The Andaman and Nicobar isles	Andaman, Nicobar	---	All nations	
Ceylon	Candy	27,730	Dutch	
The Maldives	Caridon	---	All nations	
Bombay	Bombay	---	English	
The Kurile isles, and those in the sea of Kamtsatka, lately discovered by the Russians	Kamtsatka	---	Russia	

\* Georgia hath lately claimed independence, and put itself under the protection of Russia.

TURKEY

Nations.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	1000	between { 27 and 46 east longitude. } { 28 and 45 north latitude. }	520,820.
Breadth	800		

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the Black Sea and Circassia, on the North; by Persia, on the East; by Arabia and the Levant Sea, on the South; and by the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, which separate it from Europe, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
The eastern provinces are	1. Eyraca Arabic or Chaldea	Bassora and Bagdad.
	2. Diarbec or Mesopotamia	Diarbec, Orfa, &c.
	3. Curdistan or Assyria	Mouful and Betlis.
	4. Turcomania or Armenia	Erzerum and Van.
	5. Georgia, including Mengrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circassia	Tefis, Amarchia, and Gonie.
Natolia, or the Lesser Asia, on the west.	1. Natolia proper	Bursa, Nici, Smyrna, and Ephesus.
	2. Amasia	Amasia, Trapezond, and Sinope.
	3. Aladulia	Ajazzo and Marat.
	4. Caramania	Satalia and Terasfo.
East of the Levant Sea.	Syria with Palestine, or the Holy Land	Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, and Jerusalem.

MOUNTAINS.] These are famous in sacred as well as profane writings. The most remarkable are, Olympus; Taurus, and Anti-taurus; Caucasus and Ararat; Lebanon; and Hermon.

RIVERS.] The same may be observed of the rivers, which are the Euphrates; Tigris; Orontes; Meander; Sarabat; Kara; and Jordan.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Though both are delightful, and naturally salubrious to the human constitution, yet such is the equality with which the author of nature has dispensed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, is often visited by the plague; here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in predestination, which prevents them from taking any precautions against this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contains the most fertile provinces of Asia, I need scarcely inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abundance, notwithstanding the indolence of its owners. Raw silk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every species, coffee, myrrh, frankincense, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are produced here with little culture, which is practised chiefly by Greek and Armenian Christians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, are highly delicious, and in such plenty, that they cost the inhabitants a mere trifle. Their asparagus is uncommonly large, and their grapes far exceed in size those of other countries.

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**ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.** } The breed of the Turkish and Arabian horses, the latter especially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have considerably improved that of the English. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to these countries, but they contain all that are necessary for the use of mankind. Camels are here in much request, from their strength, their agility, and above all, their moderation in eating and drinking. Their manufacture, known by the name of camlets, was originally made by a mixture of camels' hair and silk, though it is now often made with wool and silk. Their kids and sheep are exquisite eating, and are said to surpass, in flavour and taste, those of Europe; but their butchers' meat in general, beef particularly, is not so fine.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in great perfection: their ostriches are well known by their tallness, swiftness in running, and stupidity. The Roman epicures prized no fish, except lampreys, mullets, and oysters, but those that were found in Asia.

**METALS AND MINERALS.]** This country contains all the metals discovered in the richest kingdoms and provinces of Europe; and its medicinal springs and baths exceed those of any in the known world.

## OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.** } THE population of this great country is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the best geographers been able to ascertain it. It certainly is not so great as it was before the Christian era, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to various causes, and above all to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy to population, since the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practised, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithstanding the rigid subjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cause of depopulation. Yet, after all, the subjects of the Turkish empire are computed at 49,000,000.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robust: when young, their complexions are fair, and their faces handsome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are sometimes handsome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their ordinary demeanour, the Turks are grave, sedate, and passive; but when agitated by passion, furious, raging, ungovernable; big with dissimulation, jealous, suspicious, and vindictive: in matters of religion, tenacious, superstitious, and morose. Interest is their supreme good, and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, consanguinity, or friendship, are with the generality speedily dissolved. The morals of the Asiatic Turks are far preferable to those of the European. They are said to be charitable to one another, punctual in their dealings, and hospitable to strangers. They have no inns in Turkey, but houses called *kâns*, or Caravanferais, erected by charitable persons for the accommodation of the pilgrim or traveller. These are square buildings, not dissimilar to the smaller quadrangles at Oxford, with galleries, into which the apartments open. With the same laudable view they search out the best springs, and dig wells, which in those countries are a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks sit cross-legged upon mats, not only at their meals but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from opium, are simple and confined, seldom reaching without the walls of their own houses; where they sit conversing with their women, drinking coffee, smoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curiosity to be informed of the state of their own or any other country. If a visitor, bahaw,

basilaw, or other officer, is turned out or strangled, they say no more on the occasion than that there will be a new visier or governor, seldom enquiring into the reason of the disgrace of the former. They are perfect strangers to wit and agreeable conversation. They have few printed books, and seldom read any other than the Koran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negotiated in Turkey without presents; and here justice may commonly be bought and sold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and they sup at five in the winter, and six in the summer, and supper is their principal meal. Among the great people their dishes are served up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to use gold or silver spoons. Their victuals are always high-seasoned. Rice is the common food of the lower sort, and sometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief dish is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the soup is highly seasoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, sherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them sensations resembling those of intoxication. Guests of higher rank sometimes have their beards perfumed by a female slave of the family. They are temperate and sober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the use of wine; though in private many of them indulge themselves in the use of strong liquors. Their common salutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breast. They sleep in linen waistcoats and drawers, upon mattresses, and cover themselves with a quilt. Few or none of the considerable inhabitants of this vast empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diversion. The most religious among them find, however, sufficient exercise when they conform themselves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites prescribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diversions consist in shooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purposes, that they may know the strength of their dependents. Within doors, the chess or draught-board are the usual amusements; and if they play at chance games they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

**DRESS.]** The men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, which they never take off but when they sleep. Their shirts are without collar or wristband, and over them they throw a long vest, which they tie with a sash, and over the vest they wear a loose gown somewhat shorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their stockings; and instead of shoes they wear slippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or house. They suffer no Christians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dress of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear stiffened caps upon their heads with horns something like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are so muffled up as not to be known by their nearest relations. Such of the women as are virtuous make no use of paint to heighten their beauty, or to disguise their complexion; but they often tinge their hands and feet with *henna*, which gives a deep yellow. The men make use of the same expedient to colour their beards.

**MARRIAGES.]** Marriages in this country are chiefly negotiated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a sum of money, a licence is taken out from the cadi, or magistrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity, and the money is generally employed in furnishing the house of the young couple. They are not

allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain.

**FUNERALS.]** The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpse is attended by the relations, chanting passages from the Koran; and after being deposited in a mosque (for so they call their temples), they are buried in a field by the imam or priest, who pronounces a funeral sermon at the time of the interment. The male relations express their sorrow by alms and prayers; the women by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and in mourning for a husband they wear a particular head-dress, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

**RELIGION.]** The established religion is the Mahomedan, so called from Mahomed, the author of it; some account of which the reader will find in the following history of Arabia, the native country of that impostor. The Turks profess to be of the sect of Omar; but are split into as many subdivisions as their neighbours the Christians. There is no ordination among their clergy; and any person may be a priest that chooses to take the habit, and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleases. Their chief priest, or musti, enjoys great power in the state.

**ECCLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS.]** These are tolerated because they are profitable; but the fines imposed on the Greek church are such as must always dispose that people to favour innovation. Constantinople, Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an ecclesiastical authority over their votaries. The same may be said of the Nestorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege has its archbishop or bishop. All male Christians pay also a capitation tax from seventeen years old to sixty, according to their situations.

**LANGUAGE.]** The radical languages of this empire are the Slavonian, which seems to have been the mother-tongue of the ancient Turks; the Greek modernized, but still bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic, and the Syriac, a dialect of which is still spoken. A specimen of the modern Greek follows in their Paternoster:

*Pater hemas, opios iso ees tos ouranons: hagiasthito to onoma sou: na erti he basilia sou: to thelema sou na genetex itzon eu to ge, os is ton ouranon: to psomi hemas doze hemas semoreu: ke si chorase hemos ta crimata hemou itzone, ke hemas sichorajomen ekinous opou: mas adikouka men ternes hemais is to pirajmo, alla sison hemas apo to kaxo. Amen.*

**LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.]** The Turks till of late professed a sovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and sciences, produces at present, besides Turks, numerous bands of Christian bishops, priests, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themselves, and are divided into various absurd sects of what they call Christianity. The education of the Turks seldom extends farther than reading the Turkish language and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Some few of them understand astronomy so far as to calculate the time of an eclipse, and are looked upon as extraordinary persons.

**ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.]** These are so various, that they have furnished matter for many voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. These countries contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture and sculpture; and neither the neglect of the Turks, nor the depredations they have suffered from the Europeans, seem to have diminished their number. Many of the finest temples are converted into Turkish mosques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than those which

remain in ruins. Amidst such a plenitude of curiosities, we shall select the most striking.

Balbec is situated on a rising plain, between Tripoli in Syria and Damascus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, and is the Heliopolis of Cælo Syria. Its remains of antiquity display, according to the best judges, the boldest plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpressibly grand, though disfigured by two Turkish towers. The hexagonal court behind it is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. Its walls were adorned with Corinthian pilasters and statues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the same taste and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now so ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, supported by nine lofty columns, each consisting of three pieces joined together, by iron pins, without cement. Some of those pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the sordid Turks are daily at work to destroy the columns, for the sake of the iron. A small temple is still standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto relievo, expressing the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors. To the west of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but disfigured with mosques and houses. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionably magnificent.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of these immense buildings. The inhabitants of Asia ascribe them to Solomon, but some make them so modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his successors may have rebuilt some part of them, yet the boldness of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the stupendous execution of the whole; seem to fix their foundation to a period before the Christian æra, but without mounting to the ancient times of the Jews or the Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek style in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at present a little city, encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 3000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the ancient ruins. A free-stone quarry, in the neighbourhood, furnished the stones for the body of the temple; and one of the stones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep, and, reduced to our measure, is 1135 tons. A coarse white marble quarry, at a greater distance, furnished the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the Desert, is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petraea, about 33 deg. N. lat. and 200 miles to the south-east of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and, opening all at once, the eye is presented with the most striking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the access to it is through a vast number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, published by Mr. Wood, who, with his friends, visited it some years ago, purposely to preserve some remembrance of such a curiosity. As those drawings, or copies from them, are now common, we must refer the reader to them, especially as he can form no very adequate ideas of the ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticos, peristyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest style, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on every side, but so dispersed and disjointed, that it is impossible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. These striking

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striking ruins are contrasted by the miserable huts of the wild Arabs, who reside in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that so superb a city, formerly 10 miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of a sandy desert. Nothing, however, is more certain than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eastern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the western nations, for the merchandises and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered situation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which have turned the more fertile tracts into barren deserts. The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Anthony; and its most superb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus. Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly caressed by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for some time, and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and among others the excellent Longinus. That emperor also destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of Zenobia's treasures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majestic ruins of which have been mentioned. None of the Palmyrene inscriptions reach above the Christian era, though there can be no doubt that the city itself is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore it to its ancient splendour, but without effect, for it dwindled by degrees to its present wretched state. It has been observed very justly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to those of Balbec.

Nothing can be more futile than the boasted antiquities shewn by the Greek and Armenian priests in and near Jerusalem, which is well known to have been so often razed to the ground, and rebuilt anew, that no one scene of our Saviour's life and sufferings can be exactly ascertained; and yet those ecclesiastics subsist by pretending to guide travellers to every spot mentioned in the Old and New Testament. They are, it is true, under severe contributions to the Turks, but the trade still goes on, though much diminished in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, said to be built by Helena, mother to Constantine the Great, is still standing, and of tolerable good architecture; but its different divisions, and the dispositions made round it, are chiefly calculated to support the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches, built by the same lady, are found in Palestine; but the country is so altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the most despicable of any in Asia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any vestiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon. But let a fertile country be under the frowns of heaven, and abandoned to tyranny and wild Arabs, it will in time become a desert. Thus oppression soon thinned the delicious plains of Italy; and the noted countries of Greece, and Asia the Less, once the glory of the world, are now nearly destitute of learning, arts, and people.

Mecca and Medina are curiosities only through the superstition of the Mahomedans. Their buildings are mean, when compar'd to European houses or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a sorry appearance, though erected on the spot where the great prophet is said to have been born. The same may be said of the mosque at Medina, where that impostor was buried; to that the vast sums spent yearly by Mahomedan pilgrims, in visiting those places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uses. I shall not amuse the reader with any

accounts of the spot which is said to have formed Paradise, and to have been situated between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where there are some tracts which undoubtedly deserve that name. The different ruins, some of them inexpressibly magnificent, that are to be found in those immense regions, cannot be assigned with any certainty to their original founders. It is indeed easy to pronounce whether the style of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracen; but all other information must come from their inscriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Ismir) contains many valuable antiquities. The same may be said of Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in antiquity. The site of Old Troy cannot be distinguished by the smallest vestige, and is known only by its being opposite to the isle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook, which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble built in honour of Augustus Cæsar, at Milatio in Caria, and a few structures of the same kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are still entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Latichea, have suffered very little from time or barbarism; and some travellers think that they discern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Ephesus.

**CHIEF CITIES, MOSQUES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS.** These are very numerous, and at the same time very insignificant, because they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur. Scanderoon stands upon the site of Old Alexandria, but is now almost depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however, holds a respectable rank among the cities of the Asiatic Turkey. It is still the capital of Syria, and is superior in its buildings and conveniencies to most of the Turkish cities. Its houses, as usual in the East, consist of a large court, with a dead wall to the street, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain, of the same, in the middle. Aleppo and its suburbs are seven miles in compass, standing on eight small hills, on the highest top of which the citadel or castle is erected, but of no great strength. An old wall and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, surround the city, which contains 235,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Christians, and 5000 are Jews. It is furnished with most of the conveniencies of life, except good water, within the walls, and even that is supplied by an aqueduct distant about four miles, said to have been erected by the empress Helena. The streets are narrow, but well paved with large square stones, and are kept very clean. Their gardens are pleasant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and pistachio trees; but the country round it rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and transact their business in caravanferas, or large square buildings, containing their warehouses, lodging-rooms, and counting-houses. The city abounds in mosques, public bagnios, and bazars, or market-places, which are formed into long, narrow, arched or covered streets, with little shops, as in other parts of the East. The coffee is excellent, and considered by the Turks as a high luxury; and their sweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater splendour and safety than in any other city of the Turkish empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not used here, but persons of quality ride on horse-back with a number of servants before them, according to their rank. The English, French, and Dutch, have consuls, who are much respected, and appear abroad, the English especially, with marks of distinction.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to sleep in the open air, here, over all Arabia, and many other parts of the East, for which reason their houses are flat on the top. This practice accounts for the early acquaint-

ance those nations had with astronomy, and the motions of the heavenly bodies, and explains some parts of the holy scripture. As the Turks are very uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of the other Turkish cities.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far, it is supposed, from the site of ancient Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular square, and rudely fortified: but the conveniency of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and it has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and western caravans. The houses of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the freer circulation of air: many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glass, and the ceiling ornamented with chequered work. Most of the houses have also a courtyard before them, in the middle of which is a small plantation of orange trees. The number of houses is computed at 80,000, each of which pays an annual tribute to the Hethaw, which is calculated to produce 300,000l. sterling. Their bazars, in which the tradesmen have their shops, are handsome and extensive, filled with shops of all kinds of merchandize, to the number of 12,000. These were erected by the Persians, when they were in possession of the place, as were also their bagnios, and almost every thing here worthy of notice. In this city are five mosques, two of which are well built, and have handsome domes, covered with varnished tiles of different colours. Two chapels are permitted for those of the Romish and Greek persuasions. On the north-west corner of the city stands the castle, which is of white stone, and commands the river, consisting of curtains and bastions; on which some large cannon are mounted, with two mortars on each bastion; but in the year 1779, they had become, through neglect, altogether unserviceable. Below the castle, by the water-side, is the palace of the Turkish governor; and there are several summer-houses on the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians, who inhabited this city under the caliphs, were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Ancient Assyria is now called the Turkish Curdistan, though part of it is subject to the Persians. The capital is Curdistan; the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins. Curdistan is said to be for the most part cut out of a mountain, and is the residence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg. Orta, formerly Edessa, is the capital of the fine province of Mesopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly supported by a manufacture of Turkey leather. Mosul is also in the same province, a large place, situated on the western shore of the Tigris, opposite to where Nineveh formerly stood.

Georgia, or Gurgistan, now no longer subject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Christians, a brave, warlike race of men. Their capital, Teflis, is a handsome city, and makes a fine appearance: all the houses are of stone, neat and clean, with flat roofs, which serve as walks for the women, but the streets are dirty and narrow: its inhabitants are about 30,000. It is situated at the foot of a mountain, by the side of the river Kur, and is surrounded by strong walls, except on the side of the river. It has a large fortress on the declivity of the mountain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garrison consists of native Persians. There are thirteen Greek churches in Teflis, seven Armenian, and one Roman catholic church: the Mahomedans who are here, have no mosques. In the neighbourhood of the city are many pleasant houses, and fine gardens. The Georgians are said, by some travellers, to be the handsomest people in the world; and some think that they owe their beauty to the long use of inoculation for the

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small-pox. They make no scruple in selling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many distinguishing liberties and privileges. Lately they formed an alliance with Rulin, under the brave prince Heraclius, as hath the czar or prince Solomon, sovereign of Immeretta, a district between the Caspian and Black Seas, who is distinguished from his subjects (all of the Greek religion) by riding on an ass, and wearing boots.

The ancient cities of Damascus, Tyre, and Sidon, still retain part of their former trade. Damascus is called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is highly beautiful. It contains a fine mosque, which was formerly a Christian church. It is still famous for its steel works, such as sword-blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is said to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manufacture also those beautiful silks, called Damasks from their city, and carry on a considerable traffick in raw and worked silk, rose-water extracted from the famous damask roses, fruits, and wine.

Sidon, now Said, which lies within the ancient Phœnicia, has still some trade, and a tolerable harbour. The town is surrounded with a stone wall, a citadel on the land side, and another towards the sea. The houses are built chiefly of stone, and are two stories high. The inhabitants are about 16,000, chiefly Christians, of the Greek church, and the place is the seat of a bishop of that persuasion. There are in the town two public baths, and two mosques. It stands on a neck of land over against Tyre, and both form a bay of about 16 miles in breadth.

Tyre, now called Sur, about 20 miles distant from Sidon, so famous formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by scarcely any but a few fishermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur. There are strong walls on the land side, of stone, 18 feet high, and seven broad. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half; and Christians and Mahomedans make the number of 500. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are still visible. The pavements of the old city, Mr. Bruce tells us that he saw, and observes that they were  $7\frac{1}{2}$  feet lower than the ground upon which the present city stands.

Passing by Tyre (says our author, who deserves much praise for some happy elucidations of scripture) I came to be a mournful witness of the truth of that prophecy, That Tyre, the queen of Nations, should be a rock for fishers to dry their nets on. Two wretched fishermen, with miserable nets, having just given over their occupation with very little success, I engaged them, at the expence of their nets, to drag in those places where they said shell-fish might be caught, in hopes to have brought out one of the famous purple-fish. I did not succeed, but in this I was, I believe, as lucky as the old fishers had ever been. The purple-fish at Tyre seems to have been only a concealment of their knowledge of cochineal, as had they depended upon the fish for their dye, if the whole city of Tyre applied to nothing else but fishing, they would not have coloured twenty yards of cloth in a year.

Næolia, or Asia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Paphlagonia, Lycæonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amasia, all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman history, are now, through indolence and tyranny, either forsaken, or a theatre of ruins. The sites of ancient cities are still discernible; and so luxuriant is nature in those countries, that in many places the triumphs over the folly and cruelty of man. The selfish Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themselves; and their gardens and summer-houses fill up the circuit of their most flourishing cities. The most judicious travellers, upon an attentive survey of those countries, fully vindicate all that has been said by sa-

\* Ezek. chap. xxvi. 5.

† Bruce's Travels, vol. I. Introduction, p. lix.

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ered and profane writers of their beauty, strength, fertility, and population. Even Palestine in Judea, the most despicable at present of them all, lies buried under the luxuries of its own soil. The Turks seem particularly fond of representing Judea in the most dreadful colours, and have formed a thousand falsehoods concerning it, which being artfully propagated by some among ourselves, have imposed upon weak Christians\*.

Under the government of Sheik Daher, the ally of the famous Ali Bey, some part of Palestine revived. He enlarged the buildings and walls of St. John de Acre, formerly Ptolemais, and shewed great indulgence to the Christians. Its inhabitants were lately computed at 40,000. Caifa, which stands on the declivity of mount Carmel, distant about 20 miles from Acre, was also new built and enlarged by Daher. The ancient Joppa, now Jussa, 50 miles west from Jerusalem, stands on a rocky hill, hath an harbour for small vessels, and its circumference is about two miles. The number of inhabitants is 7000; the western part of the town is filled with Christians. The present state of Ramah is deplorable, its walls in decay, and most of the houses empty, though the number of inhabitants is still between 3 and 4000. Not a house is standing of the once magnificent city of Cesarea, but the remains of the walls testify its former grandeur. Azotus is about two miles in circumference, the inhabitants are near 3000, and mostly Mahomedans: an old structure is shewn here, with fine marble pillars, which is said to be the house that Sampson pulled down, when insulted by the Philistines. Gaza is still respectable; it extends from east to west three miles, and is a mile in breadth, divided into the old and new town. The last is inhabited by the inferior Turks and Arabs; amounting to 26,000. It is about five miles from the sea, and without the walls is a market for the country people to dispose of their commodities to the inhabitants, for they are not permitted to enter the town. The country around is very fertile, in corn, oil, wine, honey, bees-wax, flax, and cotton.

Whether those countries of Asia could ever be restored to their ancient grandeur, trade, and population, may be a question with some; but it is most likely that it would now be impossible (let the Turkish government be ever so beneficent) to divert commerce (without which all attempts of that kind must be feeble) from its European channels. There can, however, be no question, that a government less brutal and bigoted than that of the Turks, might make the natives a powerful as well as a happy people. The misfortune is, that the Greeks, Armenians, and other sects of eastern Christians, partake but too much of the Turkish stupidity. Though they are not suffered to wear white turbans, or to ride on horseback, and are subjected to a thousand indignities and miseries, and are even, in many places, far more numerous than their oppressors, yet so abject is their spirit, that they make no efforts for their own deliverance. If they are less indolent than their oppressors, it is because they must otherwise starve; and they dare not enjoy even the property they acquire, lest it should be discovered and seized by their tyrants.

\* The late reverend Dr. Shaw, professor of Greek at Oxford, who seems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the soundest philosophy to make just observations, says that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very best parts of Syria and Phœnicia, because the soil is generally much richer, and, every thing considered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenness, says he, at which some authors complain, does not proceed

from the natural unfruitfulness of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who possess it, and the perpetual discords and depredations of the petty princes who share this fine country. Indeed the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Palestine, says Mr. Wood, we have often seen the husbandman sowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the seed."

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The nature of the Turkish government destroys that happy security which is the mother of arts, industry, and commerce. The advantages of Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all those countries which carried on the commerce of the ancient world, are overlooked. The Turks command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the southern ocean, and presents them with all the riches of the Indies. Whoever looks on a map of Turkey must admire the situation of its capital, upon a narrow strait that separates Europe from Asia, and communicates on the south with the Mediterranean sea, thereby opening a passage to all the European nations as well as the coasts of Africa. The same strait, communicating northwards with the Black Sea, opens a passage, by means of the Danube and other great rivers, into the interior parts of Germany, Poland, and Russia.

In this extensive empire, where all the commodities necessary for the largest plan of industry and commerce are produced, the Turks content themselves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather and soap. The most valuable of their commodities, such as silk, a variety of drugs, and dying stuffs, they generally export, without giving them any additional value from their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is extremely small, and managed entirely by Jews and Armenians. In their traffic with Europe the Turks are altogether passive. The English, French, Dutch, and other Europeans, resort thither with their commodities, and bring back those of Turkey in the same bottoms. The Turks seldom undertake distant voyages, and possess only a few coasting vessels in the Asiatic Turkey; their chief royal navy lying on the side of Europe. The intention of the Turks to objects of commerce is perhaps the best security to their government. The balance of power established among the princes of Europe, and their jealousies of each other, secure to the Infidels the possession of countries, which in the hands of the Russians, or any active state, might endanger the commerce of their neighbours, especially their trade with India.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Turkish government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is shocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. But from the late accounts of sir James Porter, who resided at the Porte in quality of ambassador from his Britannic majesty, it appears that the rigours of that despotic government are considerably moderated by the influence of religion. For though in this empire there is no hereditary succession, the property of families may be fixed and perpetuated by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconsiderable expence. Even Jews and Christians may in this manner secure the enjoyment of their lands to the latest posterity; and so sacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there is no instance of an attempt on the side of the prince to trespass or reverse it. Neither does the observance of this institution altogether depend on the superstition of the sultan; he knows that an attempt to violate it would shake the foundation of his throne, which is solely supported by the laws of religion. The laws enacted in the Koran having all the force of religious prejudices to support them, are inviolable; and by them the civil rights of the Mahomedans are regulated. Even the comments upon this book, which explain the law where it is obscure, or extend and complete what Mahomed had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the first institutions of the prophet; and no member of the society, nor even its head, can transgress them without censure, or violate them without punishment.

The Asiatic Turks, or rather subjects of the Turkish empire, who hold their possessions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their serving in the field with a particular number of men, think themselves, while they perform that agreement, almost independent of the emperor. The most unhappy subjects of the Turkish

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government, are those who attain the highest dignities of state, and whose fortunes depend on the breath of their master. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the grand vizir, the prime minister, the *chiaya*, second in power to the vizir; the *reis essendi*, or secretary of state; and the *aga* of the janizaries, are the most considerable. These, as well as the *mufti*, or high priest, the *bashaws*, or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raised, by their application and assiduity, from the meanest stations in life, and are often the children of Tartars, or Christian slaves taken in war. Tutored in the school of adversity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thousand difficulties and dangers, these men are generally as distinguished for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They possess all the dissimulation, intrigue, and corruption which often accompanies ambition in a humble rank: and they have farther reason for plundering the people, because they are uncertain how long they shall enjoy the dignities to which they have attained. The administration of justice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded upon very equitable principles.

[REVENUES.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of this empire must be immense. According to Baron de Tot, the revenues estimated on the records amount to 25,400,000*l.* but produce effectively only 3,200,000*l.* to the public treasury. The revenues arise from the customs, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Christians and other subjects, not of the Mahometan religion; the rich pay a capitation tax of 30 shillings a year; tradesmen 15 shillings, and common labourers 6 shillings and 10 pence half-penny. Another branch of the revenue arises from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. All these, however, are trifling, when compared with the vast sums extorted by the governors of provinces, and officers of state, under the name of *resents*. These harpies, to indemnify themselves, exercise every species of oppression, till, becoming wealthy from the vitals of the country, their riches frequently give rise to a pretended suspicion of disloyalty or misconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is seldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accusers; but, without giving him the least opportunity of making a defence, an officer is dispatched, with an imperial decree, to take off his head. The unhappy *bashaw* receives it with the highest respect, and after he has read it, says, *The will of God and the emperor be done*, or some such expression, testifying his entire resignation. Then he takes the silken cord, which the officer has in his bosom, and having tied it about his neck, and said a short prayer, the officer's servants throw him on the floor, and strangle him by drawing the cord strait; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

[FORCES.] The militia of the Turkish empire is of two sorts: the first has certain lands appointed for its maintenance, and the other is paid out of the treasury. Those that have certain lands amount to about 268,000 effective men. Besides these, there are also certain auxiliary forces raised by the tributary nations; as the Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, and, till of late, the Georgians, who are commanded by their respective princes. The *Kan* of the *Crim Tartars*, before his country was subjected to Russia, was obliged to furnish 100,000 men and five in prison, when the grand-signior took the field. In every war, besides the above force, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of succeeding the officers. These adventurers not only promise themselves an estate if they survive, but are taught, that if they die in the war

against the Christians, they shall go immediately to paradise. The forces which receive their pay from the treasury, are called the Spahis, or horse-guards, and are in number about 12,000; and the janizaries, or foot-guards, who are esteemed the best soldiers in the Turkish armies, amounting to about 25,000 men, who are quartered in and near Constantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have often proceeded so far as to depose the Sultan. They are educated in the seraglio, and trained up to the exercise of arms from their infancy; and there are no less than 100,000 foot soldiers, scattered over every province of the empire, who are registered in this body, and enjoy the privileges of janizaries, who are subject to no jurisdiction but that of their aga, or chief commander.

**ARMS AND TITLES.]** The emperor's titles are swelled with all the pomp of eastern magnificence. He is styled by his subjects, *the Shadow of God, a God on Earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, Disposer of all earthly crowns, &c.* The grand-signior's arms are, vert, a crescent argent, crested with a turban, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donec totum impleat orbem.*

**COURT AND SERAGLIO.]** Great care is taken in the education of the youths destined to employments in the state, the army, or the navy; but they are seldom preferred till about 40 years of age, and they rise by their merit. They are generally the children of Christian parents, either taken in war, purchased, or presents from the viceroys and governors of distant provinces, the most beautiful, well made, and sprightly children that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved by the grand-signior, before they are sent to the colleges or seminaries, where they are educated for employments according to their genius and abilities.

The ladies of the seraglio are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly sent as presents from the provinces and the Greek islands, most of them the children of Christian parents. The brave prince Heraclius hath for some years past abolished the infamous tribute of children of both sexes, which Georgia formerly paid every year to the Porte. The number of women in the harem depends on the taste of the reigning monarch or sultan. Selim had 2000. Aehmet had but 300, and the present sultan hath nearly 1600. On their admission they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to sew and embroider, music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest cloaths and ornaments. They all sleep in separate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptress. Their chief governess is called *Katon Kiaga*, or governess of the noble young ladies. There is not one servant among them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation; the last that is entered serves her who preceded her. These ladies are scarcely ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand-signior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are inclosed with latices and linen curtains; and when they go by land they are put in close chariots, and signals are made at certain distances, to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. The boats of the harem, which carry the grand-signior's wives, are manned with 24 rowers, and have white covered tills, that alternately by Venetian blinds. Among the emperor's attendants, are a number of mutes, who act and converse by signs, with great quickness, and some dwarfs who are exhibited for the diversion of his majesty.

When he permits the women to walk in the garden of the seraglio, all people are ordered to retire, and on every side there is a guard of black eunuchs, with fishes in their hands. If unfortunately any one is found in the garden, even through ignorance or inadvertence, he is undoubtedly killed, and his head brought to the

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feet of the grand-signior, who rewards the vigilant guard. Sometimes the grand-signior passes into the gardens to amuse himself, when the women are there: and it is then that they make use of their utmost efforts, by dancing, singing, seducing gestures, and amorous blandishments, to ensnare the affections of the monarch. It is not permitted that the monarch should take a virgin to his bed except during the solemn festivals, and on occasion of some extraordinary rejoicings, or the arrival of some good news. Upon such occasions, if the sultan chooses a new companion to his bed, he enters into the apartment of the women, who are ranged in files by the governesses, to whom he speaks, and intimates to the person he likes best: the ceremony of the handkerchief which the grand-signior is said to throw to the girl that he elects, is an idle tale. As soon as the grand-signior has chosen the girl that he has destined to be the partner of his bed, all the others follow her to the bath, washing and perfuming her, and dressing her superbly, conducting her, singing, dancing, and rejoicing, to the bed-chamber of the grand-signior, who is generally, on such an occasion, already in bed. No sooner has the new-selected favourite entered the chamber, introduced by the grand eunuch who is upon guard, than she kneels down, and when the sultan calls her, she creeps into bed to him at the foot of the bed, if the sultan does not order her, by especial grace, to approach by the side: after a certain time, upon a signal given by the sultan, the governesses of the girls, with all her suite, enter the apartment, and take her back again, conducting her with the same ceremony to the women's apartments; and if by good fortune she becomes pregnant, and is delivered of a boy, she is called *afaki sultanesi*, that is to say, sultanesi-mother; for the first son, she has the honour to be crowned, and she has the liberty of forming her court, as before mentioned. Eunuchs are also assigned for her guard, and for her particular service. No other ladies, though delivered of boys, are either crowned or maintained with such costly distinction as the first: however, they have their service apart, and handsome appointments. After the death of the sultan, the mothers of the male children are shut up in the old seraglio, from whence they can never come out any more, unless any of their sons ascend the throne. Baron de Tott informs us, that the female slave who becomes the mother of a sultan, and lives long enough to see her son mount the throne, is the only woman who, at that period alone, acquires the distinction of *Sultana Mother*: she is till then in the interior of her prison, with her son. The title of *Bache Kadun*, principal woman, is the first dignity of the grand-signior's harem, and she hath a larger allowance than those who have the title of second, third, and fourth woman, which are the four free women the Koran allows.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.] It has been the fate of the more southern and fertile parts of Asia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vast country, known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of these people, called Turks or Turcomans, which name signifies *Wanderers*, extended its conquests under various leaders, and during several centuries, from the shore of the Caspian to the straits of the Dardanelles. Being long resident in the capacity of body guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief residence was in the neighbourhood of Mount Caucasus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the sultans of Persia, they seized that kingdom about the year 1037, and spread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometanism, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were sometimes

commanded by very able generals. Upon the declension of the caliphate or empire of the Saracens, they made themselves masters of Palestine; and the visiting the Holy City of Jerusalem, being then part of the Christian exercises, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under such heavy contributions, and exercised such horrible cruelties upon the Christian inhabitants of the country, as gave rise to the famous Crusades, which we have mentioned more fully in the Introduction.

It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progress of the Christians than of the Turks; and though, after oceans of blood were spilt, a Christian kingdom was erected at Jerusalem under Godfrey of Boulogne, neither he nor his successors were possessed of any sufficient power for maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1299, had extended their dominions on every side, and possessed themselves, under Othman, of some of the finest provinces in Asia, of Nice, and Prusa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital: from Othman they took the name of Othmans, the appellation of Turks, as it signifies in the original, wanderers, or banished men, being considered by them as a term of reproach. Othman was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes mentioned in history. About the year 1357, the Turks passed the Hellespont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath settled the seat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in the year 1360: under him the order of janizaries was established. Bajazet I. after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigismund, laid siege to Constantinople, in hopes of subjecting all the Greek empire. His greatness and insolence provoked Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was just then returned from his eastern conquests, to declare war against him. A decisive battle was fought between those rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates, when Bajazet's army was cut in pieces, and he himself taken prisoner, and shut up in an iron cage, where he ended his life.

The successors of Tamerlane, by declaring war against one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long siege, Mahomet II. took Constantinople in 1453. Thus, after an existence of ten centuries, from its first commencement under Constantine the Great, ended the Greek empire; an event which had been long foreseen, and was owing to many causes; the chief was the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themselves, their courts, and families; the dislike their subjects had to the popes, and the western church, one of their patriarchs declaring publicly to a Romish legate, "that he would rather see a turban than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of Constantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conquests, did not exterminate, but reduce the nations to subjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks still exist, as we have already observed, particularly in Constantinople, and the neighbouring islands; where, though under grievous oppressions, they profess Christianity under their own patriarchs of Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem. The Armenians have only three patriarchs, who are richer than those of the Greek church, the Armenians being richer than the Greeks, and more conversant with trade.

The conquest of Constantinople was followed with the submission of all Greece; and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was succeeded by Bajazet II. who carried on war against the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as the Persians and Egyptians. Bajazet

jazet falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harassed by family dissensions, and at last, by order of his second son, Selim, he was poisoned by a Jew physician. Selim afterwards ordered his eldest brother Achmet to be strangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Persians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Persia, he turned his arms against Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, in the year 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was succeeded, in 1520, by his son, Soliman the Magnificent; who, taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Christian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that island to Malta, which was given them by the emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Christian powers, and generally successful, both by sea and land. He took Buda, the metropolis of Hungary at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives, A. D. 1526, and, two years afterwards, advanced into Austria and besieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V. He miscarried also in an attempt to take the isle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greatest prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was succeeded, in 1566, by his son, Selim II. In his reign, the Turkish marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Christians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkish power, had the blow been pursued by the Christians, especially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus, from the Venetians, and Tunis in Africa, from the Moors. He was succeeded, in 1575, by his son Amurath III. who forced the Persians to cede Taurus, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewise took the important fortress of Raab, in Hungary, and in 1593, was succeeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is distinguished by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be strangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were supposed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the sea. He was often unsuccessful in his wars with the Christians, and died of the plague in 1604. His successor Achmet was beaten by the Persians, but forced the Austrians to a treaty in 1606, by which he retained his conquests in Hungary. Osman, a prince of great spirit, but no more than sixteen years of age, being unsuccessful against the Poles, was put to death by the janizaries. Morad IV. succeeded in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Persians. His brother Ibrahim succeeded him in 1640; a worthless, inactive prince, and strangled by the janizaries, in 1648. His successor Mahomet IV. was excellently well served by his grand vizir Cuperli. He took Candia from the Venetians, after it had been besieged for 30 years. This conquest cost the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is said, 180,000. A bloody war succeeded between the Imperialists and the Turks, in which the latter were so successful, that they laid siege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raise it with great loss, by John Sobieski, king of Poland, and other Christian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687, shut up in prison by his subjects, and succeeded by his brother Soliman II.

The Turks continued unsuccessful in their wars during this reign, and that of his brother and successor, Achmet II. but Mutapha II. who mounted the throne in 1694, headed his armies in person; after some brisk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene; and the peace of Carlowitz, between the Imperialists and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after, Mutapha was deposed, his musti was beheaded, and his brother Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave shelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with

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the Russians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. When the Russian army was surrounded without hopes of escape, the Czarina inclined the grand vizir to peace by a present of all the money, plate, and jewels that were in the army; but the Russians delivered up to the Turks, Afoph, Kamienieck, and Taiganrog, and agreed to evacuate Poland. Aehmet afterwards made war on the Venetians, which alarmed the Christian powers. The scene of action was changed to Hungary, where the Imperial general, prince Eugene, gave so many repeated defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a disgraceful peace, at Passarowitz, in 1713. An unfortunate war with the Persians, under Kouli Khan, succeeding, the populace demanded the heads of the vizir, the chief admiral, and secretary, which were accordingly struck off; but the sultan also was deposed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He was unsuccessful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at last obliged to recognise that usurper as king of Persia. He was, after that, engaged in a war with the Imperialists and Russians; against the former he was victorious; but the success of the latter, which threatened Constantinople itself, forced him to conclude a treaty with the emperor, and after that another with the Russians. Mahomet died in 1754.

He was succeeded by his brother Osman II. who died in 1757, and was succeeded by his brother, Miltapha III. who died on the 21st of January, 1774, whilst engaged in an unsuccessful war with the Russians. In the course of this war, a considerable Russian fleet was fitted out, which set sail from the Baltic, with a view of shaking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet having arrived at Minorca, departed from thence in the beginning of February 1770, and shaped its course for the Morea. Count Orlov having debarked such land forces as he had with him at Maina, which lies a little to the westward of cape Metapan, and about 50 miles to the south-west of Mitra, the ancient Sparta; the Mainotes, descendants of the Lacedaemonians, and still possessing the country of their ancestors, under subjection to the grand-signior, immediately flew to arms, and joined the Russians by thousands, from their aversion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks immediately followed their example, and the whole Morea was in commotion. The open country was quickly over-run, and Mitra, Arcadia, and several other places, as speedily taken; while the Russian ships, that had been separated, or that put into Italy, arrived successively, and landed their men in different quarters, where every small detachment soon swelled to a little army, and the Turks were every where attacked or intercepted. In the mean time the Greeks gratified their revenge, and slaughtered the Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants on the continent were seized extended itself to the islands, where also the Turks were massacred in great numbers. They were, indeed, unable to make head against the Russians and Greeks in the field; their only protection was found within their fortresses. The malecontents had so much increased since the first debarkation of the Russians, that they invested Napoli di Romania, Corinth, and the castle of Patras, with several other places of less note. But whilst they were employed in these enterprises, an army of thirty thousand men, composed chiefly of Albanians and Epiotes, entered the Morea, commanded by Seraskier, bashaw of Bosnia. This Turkish general quickly recovered all the northern part of the peninsula; and the Greeks that were found in arms, or out of their villages, were instantly put to death. The Russians were now driven back to their ships; but about the same time another Russian squadron, commanded by admiral Elphinston, arrived from England, to reinforce count Orlov's armament. The Turkish fleet also appeared, and an obstinate engagement was fought in the channel of Seio, which divides that island from Natolia, or the Lesser Asia. The

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Turkish fleet was considerably superior in force, consisting of fifteen ships of the line, from sixty to ninety guns, besides a number of chebeques and galleys, amounting in the whole to near thirty sail; the Russians had only ten ships of the line, and five frigates. Some of the ships engaged with great resolution, whilst others on both sides found various causes for not approaching sufficiently near. But Spiritoz, a Russian admiral, encountered the captain pacha, in the Sultane of ninety guns, yard-arm and yard-arm; they both fought with the greatest fury, and at length ran so close, that they locked themselves together with grappling irons and other tackling. In this situation, the Russians, by throwing hand-granades from the tops, set the Turkish ship on fire, and as they could not now be disentangled, both ships were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumstanced, without a possibility of succour, they both at length blew up with a terrible explosion. The commanders and principal officers on both sides were saved; but the crews were almost totally lost. The dreadful fate of these ships, as well as the danger to those that were near them, produced a kind of pause; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night, without any material advantage on either side. When it became dark, the Turkish fleet cut their cables, and ran into a bay on the coast of Natolia: the Russians surrounded them thus closely pent up, and in the night some fire-ships were successfully conveyed among the Turkish fleet, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Englishman in the Russian service, who, though abandoned by his crew, himself directed the operations of the fire-ships. The fire took place so effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war and a few galleys that were towed off by the Russians, was totally destroyed; after which they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a castle that protected it, with such success, that a shot having blown up the powder magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbish. Thus was there scarcely a vestige left, at nine o'clock, of a town, a castle, and a fine fleet, which had been all in existence at one the same morning.

Some of the principal military transactions by land, in the war between Russia and Turkey, having been already noticed in our account of the former empire, we shall here only add, that, after a most unfortunate war on the side of the Turks, peace was at length concluded between them and the Russians, on the 21st of July, 1774, a few months after the accession of the late grand-signior Aehmet IV. The emperor, Mustapha III. left a son, then only in his 13th year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government, in the then critical situation of the Turkish affairs, Mustapha appointed his brother, the late emperor, to succeed him in the throne: and to this prince, under the strongest terms of recommendation, he confided the care of his infant son.

The perseverance of the Turks, supplied by their numerous Asiatic armies, and the implicit submission to their officers, rather than any excellency in military discipline or courage in war, have been the great springs of those successes which have rendered their empire so formidable. The extension, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed be in some measure owing to the military institution of the janizaries, a corps originally composed of the children of such Christian parents as could not pay their taxes. These being collected together, were formed to the exercise of arms under the eyes of their officers in the seraglio. They were generally in number about 40,000, long deemed invincible: and are still the flower of the Turkish armies; but the Ottoman power has been long on the decline. The political state of Europe, and the jealousies that subsist among its princes, is now the forced basis of this empire, and the principal reason why the finest provinces.

vinces in the world are suffered to remain in the possession of these ignorant and haughty infidels.

Notwithstanding the peace which was established in 1774 between Russia and the Porte, various sources of discord were left open between them. For an account of these we refer our readers to our historical narrative of the former empire. Towards the latter end of the year 1786, the Turks seem to have adopted a regular system of indirect hostility against the Russians, who were continually making such encroachments as made the Turks resolve to tempt again the fortune of war. Scarcely had the empress returned from the splendid journey which she made to Cherson, before a declaration of Turkish hostilities was announced at Petersburg. What part the emperor of Germany would take in this war, was not at first known. The capriciousness of his character kept the spirit of curiosity in suspense for some little time; but he soon declared himself determined to support all the claims which Russia had upon the Porte.

Instead of being disheartened at the formidableness of the confederacy that had broken out against them, the Turks applied themselves with redoubled ardour to prepare for resistance. But an event that seems greatly to have contributed to the bad success experienced by the crescent in the year 1789, was the death of Achmet the Fourth, grand signior, on the 7th of April.

This prince, if we make suitable allowances for the disadvantages under which he laboured as a despotic monarch, and the prejudices of his country, may be allowed to possess some claim to our toleration. He filled the throne of Constantinople without reflecting disgrace upon human nature. His temper appears to have been mild and humane. He not only permitted Selim his nephew, son of the late emperor, to live, but even publicly acknowledged him for his successor. His reign was not stained with so many arbitrary murders as those of his predecessors, nor did he think it at all necessary that a disgraced minister should part at once with his office and his life. He suffered his countrymen to improve by the arts and military discipline of Europe. Ysouf, his prime minister during the three last years of his life, though by no means consistently great, must be allowed to deserve our applause; and will be better known to posterity as the patron of the Turkish translation of the Encyclopédie, than as the victorious and skilful rival of the Austrian arms in the Banat of Transylvania.

Achmet died at the unenterprising age of sixty-four, and Selim the Third succeeded at twenty-eight. In the vigour of youth he thought it necessary to distinguish himself by something extraordinary; and at first purposed to put himself at the head of his forces. He was easily, as might be expected from his effeminate education, dissuaded from this rash and ridiculous project. But he conceived that at least it became him to discomentenance the ministers of his predecessor, to confound their plans, and reverse all their proceedings. These ministers had acquired in some degree the confidence of those who acted under their command; and it appeared in the sequel, that the fantastic splendour of a new and juvenile sovereignty could not compensate for the capricious and arbitrary changes with which his accession was accompanied.

In the year 1788 Chockzin and Oczakow surrendered to the arms of Russia, as will be found in the history of that country; and on the 12th of Sept. 1786, the Austrian forces sat down before Belgrade, and with that good fortune which seemed almost constantly to attend their present commander marshal Laudohn. The place, together with its numerous garrisons, surrendered, after a vigorous resistance, on the 8th of October. The rest of the campaign was little else than a facerann of the most important success; and a circumstance that did not a little contribute

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bute to this, was the system adopted by the Austrians and Russians, of suffering the Turkish troops to march out of the several places they garrisoned without molestation. Bucharest, the capital of Walachia, fell without opposition into the hands of prince Cobourg; while Akerman on the Black Sea was reduced by the Russians; and Bender surrendered to prince Potemkin, not without suspicion of sinister practices, on the 15th of November. One only check presented itself to the allied arms. The garrison of Orsova displayed the most inflexible constancy; and marshal Laudohn was obliged to raise the siege of this place in the middle of December, after having remained before it for a period of six weeks. In a short time after, the siege was renewed, and Orsova was reduced on the 16th of April, 1790.

After the reduction of Orsova, the war was carried on with languor on the part of Austria; and in the month of June a conference was agreed upon at Reichenbach, at which the ministers of Prussia, Austria, England, and the United Provinces assisted, and at which also an envoy from Poland was occasionally present. After a negotiation, which continued till the 17th of August, it was agreed that a peace should be concluded between the king of Hungary and the Ottoman Porte, that the basis of this treaty should be a general surrender of all the conquests made by the former, retaining only Choczim as a security till the Porte should accede to the terms of the agreement, when it was also to be restored. On the other hand, the king of Prussia gave up the Belgic provinces, and even promised his assistance in reducing them to the dominion of the house of Austria.

The king of Prussia was less successful in his mediation with Russia. Catherine had not, like Leopold, an imperial crown at stake, which, unsubstantial as it is, has always its charms with those who are educated in the habitual adoration of rank and dignities. Her conquests also on the side of Turkey were too important to be easily relinquished; and she considered her dignity attacked by the insolent style of Prussian mediation. The substance of her answer to the Prussian memorial was therefore, "That the empress of Russia would make peace and war with whom she pleased, without the interference of any foreign power."

The campaign of 1791 opened on the part of Russia with the taking of Maczin, on the 4th of April, by prince Gallitzin; and in a subsequent victory on the 12th by the same general, in the neighbourhood of Brailow, the Turks lost not less than 4000 men, and upwards of 100 officers, besides many pieces of cannon. On the 14th the Russian arms experienced a check, by which they lost about 700 men, and were obliged to relinquish the intention of besieging Brailow. After reinforcing this place, the vizir proceeded to the banks of the Danube near Silistria; and by means of a bridge which he threw across the river, his advanced posts were enabled to make incursions on the opposite side. The ability of the vizir, and the valour of the Turks, were however exerted in vain against the discipline and experience of European armies. In the month of June, 15,000 Turks were defeated by a party of cavalry under general Kutusow. On the 3d of July the fortress of Anape was taken by general Gudowitsch, and the garrison to the amount of 6,000 men made prisoners. This event was followed on the 9th of the same month by a signal victory which prince Repnin obtained near Maczin over a body of 70,000, the flower of the Turkish army. The Ottomans left upwards of 4000 dead upon the field of battle, and lost their entire camp equipage, colours, and 30 pieces of cannon. The Russians are said to have lost only 150 men killed, and between 2 and 300 wounded.

While the war was thus vigorously carried on, the mediating powers were not inactive. Great Britain and Prussia, in particular, declared themselves determined to support the balance of Europe, and to force the empress to peace upon the basis

of a *status quo*. Of the interference of Britain in this dispute, we have treated more largely in another place. To the first applications of the English minister the empress answered in nearly the same terms in which she had before replied to the memorial of Prussia—"That the British court would not be permitted to dictate the terms of peace." In the course of the negotiation, however, her demands became more moderate; and as the northern powers, and particularly Denmark, began to exert themselves for the prevention of hostilities, she confined her views to the possession of Oczakow, with the district extending from the Bog to the Niefler, and even then providing for the free navigation of the latter river. The negotiation was protracted to the 11th of August, when at length peace was concluded between the czarina and the Porte, nearly upon these terms:—terms, which, considering the ill success of the war, cannot be accounted very disadvantageous to the Porte, who has lost a fortress more useful for the purpose of annoying Russia, than for defending its own territories; but certainly of considerable importance to Russia, which, by this cession, has secured the peaceable possession of the Crimea.

It is computed that in the last war Turkey lost 200,000 soldiers, Russia 100,000; the Austrians, who fell in battle, or in the unhealthy marshes, are supposed to exceed 130,000.

The new division of Poland is not likely to prove agreeable to the Porte; the fertile province of the Ukraine, from its being in the vicinity of the Turkish emperor's dominions, and being one of the districts lately seized by Russia, must in any future war become very convenient to the latter court, for the purpose of forming establishments and magazines. The policy of the court of Constantinople probably may view these approaches as preliminary steps to a similar attack upon the disciples of Mahomet.

Intelligence was received at Constantinople in December 1793, that Giafar Khan, sovereign of the Chiras, one of the most powerful princes of Persia, had been dethroned by his brother, Mahomet Khan, who entered into the possession of his dominions. This new Persian usurper is now threatening the Turkish dominions with a powerful invasion. A far more formidable enemy has lately arisen in Arabia, who menaces the Sublime Porte with no less than a total subversion of the Mahometan religion. This enemy is a Scheich Hujabi, who is at the head of a numerous Arabian tribe, encamped between Mecca and Bassora. He professes to deny the divine mission of Mahomet, the sanctity of the Alcoran, and all the religious ceremonies of Mahometanism. He and his tribe adore the Divinity in the open field, despising the institution of mosques or temples. These new sectaries seem to menace Mecca and Medina, which contain immense treasure.

The divan is at present so far from taking any steps inimical to the new republic of France, that it seems to have more predilection for its cause than avowed amity for that of the powers combined against it.

Selim III. Grand Signior, born in 1761, succeeded to the throne of Turkey on the death of his uncle, the late sultan, April 7, 1789.

TARTARY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	4000	} between { 50 and 150 east longitude. 30 and 72 north latitude.
Breadth	2400	

**BOUNDARIES.]** IT would be deceiving the reader to desire him to depend upon the accounts given us by geographers, of the extent, limits, and situations of these vast regions. Even the empress of Russia and her ministry are ignorant of her precise limits with the Chinese, the Persians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fullest extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean, on the North; by the Pacific Ocean, on the East; by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian Sea, on the South; and by Muscovy on the West.

Grand Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
North-east division	{ Kamtschatka Tartars { Jakutikoi Tartars	{ Kamtschatka { Jakutikoi	} 98, 310
South-east division	{ Bratki { Thibet and Mogul Tar- tars	{ Bratki { Thibet { Polou { Kudak	
North-west division	{ Samoieda { Ostiak	{ Mangasia { Kortikoi	}
South-west division	{ Circassian and Afracan { Tartary	{ Terki { Afracan	
Middle division	{ Siberia { Kalmuc Tartary { Usbeck Tartary	{ Tobolsk { Bocharia { Samarcand	850,000 339,840

Kamtschatka is a great peninsula, which extends from North to South about seven degrees thirty minutes. It is divided into four districts, Bolcheretk, Tigiliskaia Krepost, Verchnoi or Upper Kamtschatkoi Ostrog, and Nizhnoi or Lower Kamtschatkoi Ostrog.

**MOUNTAINS.]** The principal mountains are Caucasus in Circassia and those of Taurus and Ararat so contiguous to it, that they appear like a continuation of the same mountain, which crosses all Asia, from Mongrelia to the Indies, and the mountains of Stolp, in the North.

**SEAS.]** These are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caspian Sea.

**RIVERS.]** The principal rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course of two thousand miles; the Oby, which divides Asia from Europe; the Tabol, Irtyz, Genesha or Jenka; the Burrampooter, the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Russian and Chinese empires.

**AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.]** The air of this country is very different, by reason of its vast extent from north to south; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the southern being in the same latitudes with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova Zembla, and Russian Lapland, are most uncomfortable regions; the earth, which is covered with snow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholesome marshes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thickneses. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air pure and wholesome; and Mr. Tooke observes, that its inhabitants in all probability would live to an extreme old age, if they were not so much addicted to spirituous liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almost to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radishes, turnips, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well; but scarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit trees to bear, have hitherto proved vain: but there is reason to believe that industry and patience may at length overcome the rudeness of the climate. Currants and strawberries of several sorts are said to grow here in us great perfection as in the English gardens. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, together with various edible roots, are found very generally here: but there are no bees in Siberia. Astracan, and the southern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than industry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almost all the kinds known in Europe, especially grapes, which are reckoned the largest and finest in the world. Their summers are very dry; and from the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is pestered, and the soil sometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locusts. Mr Bell, who travelled with the Russian ambassador to China, represents some parts of Tartary as desirable and fertile countries, the grass growing spontaneously to an amazing height. The country of Thibet is the highest in Asia, and forms a portion of that elevated region, which gives rise to the rivers of India and China, and those of Siberia and other parts of Tartary.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] It is said that Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, jasper, lapis lazuli, and loadstones; a sort of large teeth found here creates dispute among the naturalists, whether they belong to elephants or fishes.

[ANIMALS.] These are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the northern parts of Europe. The horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy; as they run wild till they are five or six years old, they are generally headstrong. Near Astracan there is a bird called by the Russians *baba*, of a grey colour, and something larger than a swan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and on seeing a shoal or fry of small fishes, spreads his wings and drives them to a shallow where he gobbles as many of them as he can put into his bag, and then going ashore, eats them or carries them to his young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

The forests of Siberia are well stocked with a variety of animals, some of which are not to be found in other countries. These supply the inhabitants with food and cloaths; and, at the same time, furnish them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be considered as the native country of black foxes, fables, and ermines, the skins of which are superior to those of any part of the world. Horses and cattle are in great plenty, and sold at low prices.

The *Bos grunniens* of Linnaeus, or grunting ox, which inhabits Tartary and Thibet, hath a tail of uncommon beauty, full and nowing, of a glossy and silky texture. These tails are a considerable article of exportation from Thibet. The Indians fasten small bundles of the hair to a handle, which they use for fly-flaps; the Chinese dye tufts of it with a beautiful scarlet, to decorate their caps, and the Turks employ it as ornaments to their standards; by some erroneously called horse-tails.

POPU-

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } We can form no probable con-  
CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } jecture as to the number of the in-  
habitants of Tartary; but from many circumstances they are far from being pro-  
portional to its extent. They are, in general, strong made, stout men; their faces  
broad, their noses flatish, their eyes small and black, but very quick; their beards  
are scarcely visible, as they continually thin them by pulling up the hairs by  
the roots.**

The beauty of the Circassian women is a staple commodity; for parents make no scruple of selling their daughters to recruit the seraglios, or rather harems, of the great men of Turkey and Persia. They are purchased, when young, by merchants, and taught such accomplishments as suit their capacities to render them more valuable against the day of sale.

According to Mr. Bruce, the Circassian women are extremely well shaped, with exceeding fine features, smooth, clear complexions, and beautiful black eyes, which with their black hair hanging in two tresses, one on each side the face, give them a most lovely appearance: they wear a black coil on their heads, covered with a fine white cloth tied under the chin. During the summer they all wear only a thin garment of divers colours, open so low before, that one may see below their navels: this, with their beautiful faces always uncovered, (contrary to the custom of most of the other provinces in those parts), their good humour and lively freedom in conversation, contributes to render them very desirable: they have the reputation of being very chaste, although it is an established point of good manners among them, that as soon as any person comes to speak to the wife, the husband goes out of the house. Their language they have in common with the other neighbouring Tartars; although the chief people among them are also not ignorant of the Russian; the apparel of the men of Circassia is much the same with that of the Nagayans, only their caps are something larger, and their cloaks being likewise of coarse cloth or sheep-skins, are fastened only at the neck, with a string, and as they are not large enough to cover the whole body, they turn them round according to the wind and weather.

The Tartars are in general great wanderers; in their peregrinations they set out in the spring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting spot, they live upon it till the verdure is consumed. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Russians, Persians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle: with this they purchase cloth, silks, stuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except those who make arms. They avoid all labour as the greatest slavery: their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their herds. If they are angry with a person, they will he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Russian. Among themselves they are social, and extremely hospitable to strangers and travelers, who confidentially put themselves under their protection. They are naturally of an easy cheerful temper, always disposed to laughter, and seldom depressed with care or melancholy. There is a strong resemblance between the northern and independent Tartars and some nations of Canada in North America; particularly, when any of their people are infirm through great age, or seized with distempers reckoned incurable, they make a small hut for the patient near some river, in which they leave him with some provisions, and seldom or never return to visit him. On such occasions they say they do their parents a good office, in sending them to a better world. Notwithstanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, especially towards the south, are tractable, humane, and susceptible of pious and virtuous sentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their submission to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and  
this.

this noble quality of filial love has distinguished them in all ages. History tells us, that Darius, king of Persia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius sent an ambassador to demand where it was they proposed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting. They returned for answer, "That they had no cities or cultivated fields, for the defence of which they should give him battle; but when once he came to the place of their fathers' monuments, he should then understand in what manner the Scythians used to fight."

The Tartars are inured to horsemanship from their infancy; they seldom appear on foot. They are dextrous in shooting at a mark, inasmuch that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will split a pole with an arrow, though at a considerable distance. The dress of the men is very simple, and fit for action; it generally consists of a short jacket, with narrow sleeves made of deer skin, having the fur outward; trowsers and hose of the same kind of skin, both of one piece, and tight to the hinds. The Tartars live in huts half sunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the smoke, and benches round the fire to sit or lie upon. This seems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eastward to the Japanese ocean. In the extreme northern provinces, during the winter, every family burrows itself under ground; and we are told, that so sociable are they in their dispositions, that they make subterraneous communications with each other, so that they may be said to live in an invisible city. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horse-flesh, especially if it be young, and a little tainted, which makes their cabins extremely nauseous. Though horse-flesh be preferred raw by some northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been smoked and dried. The Tartars purchase their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or slave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes the wife's son is always preferred to the succession. After a wife is turned of forty she is employed in menial duties as another servant, and as such must attend the young wife who succeeds to her place; nor is it uncommon, in some of the more barbarous tribes, for a father to marry his own daughter.

The descendants of the old inhabitants of Siberia are still most of them idolaters. They consist of many nations, entirely differing from each other in their manner of living, religion, language, and countenances. But in this they agree, that none of them follow agriculture, which is carried on by some Tartar tribes, chiefly by those converted to Christianity. A few of them breed cattle, and others follow hunting. The population of Siberia has been much increased since it became a Russian province; for the Russians have founded therein a number of towns, fortresses, and villages. Notwithstanding which it presents but a void and desert view; since, by its extent it is capable of supporting several millions more than it at present contains. For the manners and customs of the other Tartars belonging to the Russian empire, we refer to our account of that country.

**RELIGION.** The religion of the Tartars is variously modified by that of their neighbours; for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the Popish religions. Some of them are idolaters, and worship little rude images dressed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom he makes very free when matters do not go according to his mind.

The Circassians are Pagans, for notwithstanding they use circumcision, they have neither priest, altar, or mosque. Every body here offers his own sacrifice at pleasure, for which, however, he has certain days, established rather by custom than any positive command; their most solemn sacrifice is offered at the death of their nearest friends, upon which occasion both men and women meet in the field

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to be present at the offering, which is a he-goat; and having killed it, they flay it, and stretch the skin with the head and horns on, upon a cross at the top of a long pole, placed commonly in a quickset hedge, (to keep the cattle from it), and near the place the sacrifice is offered by boiling and roasting the flesh, which they afterwards eat. When the feast is over, the men rise, and having paid their adoration to the skin, and muttering certain prayers, the women withdraw, and the men conclude the ceremony with drinking a great quantity of aqua vite, and often with a quarrel.

But the religion and government of the kingdom of Thibet, and Lassa, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, are most worthy of attention. The Thibetians are governed by the Grand Lama, or Delai Lama, who is not only submitted to, and adored by them, but is also the great object of adoration for the various tribes of Heathen Tartars, who roam through the vast tract of continent which stretches from the banks of the Wolga, to Korea on the sea of Japan. He is not only the sovereign pontiff, the vicergerent of the Deity on earth; but, as superstition is ever the strongest where it is most removed from its object, the more remote Tartars absolutely regard him as the Deity himself. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worship and make rich offerings at his shrine: even the emperor of China, who is a Manchou Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgments to him in his religious capacity, though the Lama is tributary to the emperor, and actually entertains, at a great expence, in the palace of Peking, an inferior Lama, deputed as his nuncio from Thibet. The opinion of those who are reputed the most orthodox among the Thibetians is, that when the Grand Lama seems to die, either of old age or infirmity, his soul in fact only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another younger or better, and it is discovered again in the body of some child, by certain tokens known only to the lamas or priests, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the Grand Lama was an infant, which had been discovered some time before by the Tsyothou Lama, who in authority and sanctity of character is next to the Grand Lama, and during his minority acts as chief. The lamas, who form the most numerous, as well as the most powerful body in the state, have the priesthood entirely in their hands; and, besides, till up many monastic orders, which are held in great veneration among them. The residence of the Grand Lama is at Patoh, a vast palace on a mountain near the banks of the Burrampooter, about seven miles from Lassa. The English East India Company made a treaty with the Lama in 1774\*. The religion of Thibet, though in many respects it differs from that of the Indian Bramins, yet in others has a great affinity to it. The Thibetians have a great veneration for the cow, and also highly respect the waters of the Ganges, the source of which they believe to be in heaven. The Sumiatles, or Indian pilgrims, often visit Thibet as an holy place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred in his pay. Besides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama enjoys unlimited power throughout his dominions, which are very extensive, and stretch to Bengal.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamanism. The professors of this religious sect believe in one supreme God, the creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend or

\* The town of Dellamotta, which commanded the principal pass through the ridge of the Bootean mountains, was taken by Storm by captain Jenca, in 1773, and the fame of this exploit made the Thibetians sue for peace.

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please him. But they also maintain, that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the destiny of men, among a great number of subaltern divinities, under his command and control, but who nevertheless generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot dispense with using all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewise suppose, that, for the most part, these inferior deities abominate and punish premeditated villainy, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly persuaded of a future existence; but they have many superstitious notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are considered as beings vastly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their sensual pleasure, to people the world, and to look after household affairs: and in consequence of these principles, they are treated with severity or contempt.

[LEARNING.] The reader may be surpris'd to find this article in speaking of Tartars; yet nothing is more certain than that, under Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early descendants, Astracan and the neighbouring countries were the seats of learning as well as empire. Modern luxury, be it ever so splendid, falls short of the magnificence of those princes; and some remains of their taste in architecture are still extant, but in spots so desolate that they are almost inaccessible. The encouragement of learning was the first care of the prince, and it was generally cultivated by his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Persian and Arabic tongues; and their histories, many of which are still extant in manuscript, carry with them the strongest marks of authenticity.

[CURIOSITIES.] These are comprehended in the remains of the buildings left by the above mentioned great conquerors and their successors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently met with, which heretofore either surrounded towns, now quite demolished, or defended camps, forts, or castles, the vestiges of which are often to be discovered. The slabode, or Tartarian suburb of Kafanof, on the Oka, seems to have been the residence of a khan. In the midst of the ruins of that city is a round and elevated tower, called in their language *Misquir*, a sort of temple. Here are also the remains of the walls of a palace; and in one of the mausoleums, or burial places, is a very considerable mausoleum, all which edifices are built of hewn stone and bricks. From an Arabic inscription we learn, that the khan Schagali was buried there in the 962d year of the hegira, or the 1520th of the Christian era. Near Mount Caucasus are still very considerable remains of Madfchar, a celebrated city of former times. Near Derbent are numerous tombs covered with cylindrical stones, exceeding the usual stature of men, with Arabic inscriptions. In the environs of Astracan the ruins of ancient Astracan are very visible; and the rubbish and ramparts of another respectable town still exist near Tzaritzin, on the left shore of the Wolga. A little below the mouth of the Kama which empties itself into the above mentioned river, are many superb monuments of the ancient city Bulgaria, consisting of towers, mosques, houses and sepulchres, all built of stone or brick. The oldest epitaphs have been there more than eleven centuries, and the most modern at least four hundred years. Not far from hence, on the Tscheremtkhan, a little river that runs into the Wolga, are found ruins somewhat more injured by the depredations of time: they are those of Boulymer, an ancient and very considerable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its site the small town of Bilvaïrk.

In the fortress of Kafan is a monument of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are so broad, that they serve at present for ramparts: the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn stone. Ascending the river Kafanlia, we meet with the strong ramparts of the old Kafan. Near the Oufa are cemetaries full of innumerable inscriptions, and several sepul-

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chral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are still seen about Tobolsk upon the Irtysh. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulf of the river Om; and near the mouth of the Oural are the ditches of the city Saratschik. There are other ruins in Siberia; and the desert of Kirguis abounds in relics of opulent cities. Some gold and silver coins have been found there, with several manuscripts neatly written, which were carried to Peterburgh. In 1720 there were found in Kalme Tartary a subterraneous house of stone, some urns, lamps, and ear-rings, an equestrian statue, an Oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women seated on thrones, and a roll of manuscripts, which was sent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Thibet. About 80 miles from Lassa is the lake Palte, or Jangfo, of such extent, according to the natives, that it requires 18 days to walk round it. In the middle of it are islands, one of which is the seat of the *Lamissa Tarcopama*, or the *great regenerate*, in whom the Thibetians think a divine spirit inhabits as in the Great Lama. The quantity of gold ornaments found in the tombs of Siberia, and of elegant workmanship, as bracelets, collars in the shape of serpents, vases, crowns, rings, bucklers, fibres, figures of animals, Tartar idols, &c. is surprizing. It is supposed that these burial-places were made about the time of Zinghis Khan, and that the superstition prevailed in those parts, of departed souls following the same kind of life they did in this world, and therefore, on the death of a prince, they sacrificed his favourite wife, &c. and buried with him his arms and other valuable things.

[CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of these we know little but the names, and that they are in general no better than fixed hordes. They may be said to be places of abode rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence against an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding divisions of this country, merit notice. Tobolsk and Astracan are considerable cities; the first contains 15,000, and the latter 70,000 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns, have also been lately erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Russian government.

Tekl, the capital of Circassian Tartary, is seated in a spacious plain on an island formed by the rivers Tekl and Butrow, and is garrisoned by 2000 regulars, and 1000 Cossacks. It is fortified with ramparts and bastions in the modern style, well stored with cannon, and has always a considerable garrison in it, under the command of a governor. The Circassian prince who resides here, is allowed five hundred Russians for his guard, but none of his own subjects are permitted to dwell within any part of the fortifications. Ever since the reduction of those parts to the obedience of Russia, they have put, in all places of strength, not only Russian garrisons and governors, but magistrates, and priests for the exercise of the Christian religion; yet the Circassian Tartars are governed by their own princes, lords, and judges; but these administer justice in the name of the empress, and in matters of importance, not without the presence of the Russian governors, being all obliged to take the oath of allegiance to her Imperial majesty.

Tarku is the capital of Dagestan, and contains 3000 houses, two stories high, platformed at top for walking. The Tartars of this province are numerous, and Mahometans, governed by a theskal, whose office is elective. The city of Derbent is situated on the Caspian shore, and called the frontier of Persia. It is said to have been first built by Alexander the Great, and that he here received the visit from the Amazonian queen Thalestris. It is now inclosed with a broad strong wall, built with large square stones, hard as marble, from the quarries in Caucasus. Lassa is a small city, but the houses are of stone, and are spacious and lofty.

**COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.]** This head makes no figure in the history of Tartary, their chief traffic consisting in cattle, the fine ox tails, skins, beavers, rhubarb, musk, and fish. The Astracans, notwithstanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a considerable traffic with Persia, to which they export leather, woollen and linen cloth, and some European manufactures. The Bucharians also are a very commercial people: their caravans travel through a great part of Asia, and traffic with Thibet, China, India, Persia, and Russia. Their principal marts are Tomsk and Orenburgh. Gold dust is often found in the sand of the rivers of Bucharia.

**HISTORY.]** Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furnished those amazing swarms of warriors that conquered the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and those fine provinces, where learning and the arts resided, are now scenes of horror and barbarity. This must have been owing to the dreadful massacres made among the natives by the two above-mentioned conquerors and their descendants; for nothing is more common in their histories than their putting to the sword three or four hundred thousand people in a few days.

The country of Ulbec Tartary was once the seat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite residence of Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the spoils of India and the eastern world. The former, about the year 1200 made himself master of these regions, which form at this day the Asiatic part of the Russian empire; and his son Batou Sagin conquered Southern Russia, and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now confounded or blended with the Russians. Long and heavily did the Tartar yoke gall the neck of Russia, till alleviated by divisions among the conquerors. But not till the time of Ivan III. who ascended the Russian throne in 1462, were the Russians delivered from these warlike invaders. Ivan repeatedly defeated them, subdued the kingdom of Kafan and other provinces, and made his name respected in all that quarter.

Tamerlane's fame hath been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan. His defeat of the Turkish emperor Bajazet hath been before noticed in the history of that nation. The honour of being allied to him is claimed not only by all the Khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Indostan himself. The capital of this country is Bokaria, which was known to the ancients by the name of Bucharia; situated in the latitude of 39 degrees 15 minutes, and 13 miles distant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane, who died in the year 1405.

The present inhabitants of this immense common compose innumerable tribes, who range at pleasure with their flocks and herds in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by separate Khans or leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great Khan, invested with a paramount power over strangers as well as natives, and whose forces often amount to 100,000 horsemen. His palace is a military station, which is moved and shifted according to the chance of war, and other occasions. When the vast dominions of Zenghis Khan fell to pieces under his successors in the 16th century, the Mogul and Tartar hordes, who had formed one empire, again separated, and have since continued distinct.

Besides what may be learned from their history and traditions, the standard or colours of the respective tribes form a distinctive mark, whereby each Tartar knows the tribe to which he belongs. These marks of distinction consist of a piece of Chinese linen, or other coloured stuff, suspended on a lance, twelve feet in length, among the Pagan Tartars. The Mahometan Tartars write upon their standards the name of *God*, in the Arabic language. The Kalmucs and the Mogul Tartars distinguish

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distinguish theirs by the name of some animal; and as all the branches or divisions of a tribe preserve the figure drawn upon the standard of that tribe, adding only the particular denomination of each branch, those standards answer the purpose of a genealogical tree or table.

The Tartars are bounded on every side by the Russian, the Chinese, the Mogul, the Persian, and the Turkish empires; each of whom are pushing on their conquests in this extensive, and in some places, fertile country. The Khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgment of their dependency, to one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendship of these barbarians is often of the utmost consequence. Some tribes maintain total independency; and when united form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chinese, as we shall mention in our account of that empire. The method of carrying on war by devastation is very ancient among the Tartars, and practised by all of them from the Danube eastward. This circumstance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who must thereby be deprived of subsistence; while the Tartars, having always many spare horses to kill and eat, are at no loss for provisions.

## THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1450 } Breadth 1260 }	between { 20 and 42 north latitude. 98 and 123 east longitude.	1,105,100
	Chinese Tartary.	644,000

**BOUNDARIES.]** IT is bounded by the Chinese Tartary, and an amazing stone wall, of five hundred leagues in length, on the North; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North America, on the East; by the Chinese Sea, South; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Russia, on the West.

**DIVISIONS.]** The great division of this empire, according to the authors of the Universal History, and the abbé Grosier, in his general Description of China, is into fifteen provinces (exclusive of that of Lyau-Tong, which is situated without the Great Wall, though under the same dominion); each of which might, for their largeness, fertility, populousness, and opulence, pass for so many distinct kingdoms. We have the following account of the division of this kingdom from the best authority. It will be of use in consulting the map.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	CHINESE TARTARY.	
Pe-tcheli	Pekin	<p>This is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the east by the Gulf of Kamtschatka and the eastern sea; on the south by China; and on the west by the country of the Kalmouks, who are established between the Caspian sea, and Casghar.</p> <p><b>EASTERN CHINESE TARTARY</b></p> <p>Extends north and south from the 41st to the 55th degree of north latitude, and east and west from about the 137th degree of longitude to the eastern sea. It is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the south by the Gulf of Lea-tong and Corea; on the east by the eastern sea; and on the west by the country of the Moguls. The country is divided into three grand departments.</p>	
Kiang-nan	Kiang-ning-fou		
Kiang-li	Nan-tchang-fou		
Fo-kien	Fou-tcheou-fou		
Tche-kiang	Hang-tcheou-fou		
Hou-quang	Vou-tchang-fou		
Ho-nan	Cai-fong-fou		
Chang-tong	Tsi-nan-fou		
Chan-li	Tai-yuen-fou		
Chenfi	Si-ngan-fou		
Se-tchuen	Tching-tou-fou		
Quang-tong	Canton		
Quan-li	Quei-ling-fou		
Yun-nan	Yionan-fou		
Koei-Tcheou	Koei-Yang		
States tributary to China.		Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Corea		Chen-yang	Mougdon
Ton-king		Kirin	Kirin
Cochin China		Triticar	Triticar
Tibet			
The country of Ha-mie			
The isles of Lieou Kicou			

But it is necessary to acquaint the reader, that the information contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, is drawn from the papers of Jesuits, and other monks sent hither by the pope, but whose millions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of those fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of information; but their accounts of this empire are justly to be suspected. They had powerful enemies at the court of Rome, where they endeavoured to maintain their footing by magnifying their own labours and successes, as well as the importance of the Chinese empire. If their accounts are to be received with much caution, much more are those of succeeding travellers, who have seldom penetrated farther into the empire than was necessary for the purpose of trade.

**NAME.]** It is probably owing to a Chinese word, signifying *Middle*, from a notion entertained by the natives that their country lay in the middle of the world.

**MOUNTAINS.]** China, except to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

**RIVERS AND WATER.]** The chief are the Yamour and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Russian and Chinese Tartary; the Croceus, or Whambo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River; and the Tay. Common water in China is often so bad that it must be boiled to make it fit for use.

**BAYS.]** The chief are those of Nankin and Canton.

**CANALS.]** The commodiousness and length of the canals of the Chinese are wonderful. The chief of them are lined with hewn stone on the sides, and they are so deep that they carry large vessels, and sometimes extend above 1000 miles in length. That is a most celebrated canal which extends from Canton as far as Pekin, and which

forms a communication between the fourthern and northern provinces. This work, which is called *The Royal Canal*, is six hundred leagues in length; and its navigation is no where interrupted but by the mountain *Melling*, where passengers are obliged to travel ten or twelve leagues over land. In this principal canal between others end, which stretch out into the country, and form a communication between the neighbouring cities, towns, and villages. The greater part of those private canals have been made by the industry of the inhabitants of these cities and towns, who have spared neither labour nor expence to obtain an easy conveyance of their goods into all the provinces of the empire. The vessels which navigate these canals are provided with all the conveniencies of life; and it has been thought by some, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. The canals are furnished with stone quays, and sometimes with bridges of an amazing construction. The navigation is slow, and the vessels sometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perseverance, for the safety of the passengers, in case a canal is crossed by a rapid river, or exposed to torrents from the mountains. These canals, and the variety that is seen upon their borders, renders China delightful to the eye, as well as fertile, even in places naturally barren and disagreeable.

**FORESTS.]** Such is the industry of the Chinese, that they are not encumbered with forests; but no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They suffer none to grow but for ornament or use, or on the sides of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed by water.

**AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.]** The air of this empire varies much, according to local situation. Towards the north it is sharp, in the middle mild, and in the south hot. All travellers agree in their accounts of the fertility of China, and of the extent and beauty of its plains. Neither inclosure, hedges, nor ditches are seen in them; scarcely is there to be found a single tree: so careful is the husbandman not to lose the smallest portion of his land. The plains of the northern provinces produce wheat, those of the south, rice, because the country is low, and even covered with water. In several provinces there are two crops in a year; and even in the interval between the harvests, the people sow several kinds of pulse, and other small grain. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is extremely ingenious. The rare trees, and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and some are peculiar to itself.

The *cotton-tree*, the produce of which forms one of the most considerable branches of Chinese commerce, is cultivated with success in the southern provinces. Even on the very day that the labourers have reaped their grain, they sow cotton in the same field, after having turned up the earth slightly with a rake. When the rain or dew has moistened the ground, a shrub is seen insensibly springing up, which rises to the height of two feet. The flowers appear about the beginning, or towards the middle of August. They are generally yellow; but sometimes red. To the flower succeeds a button, which increases in the form of a pod, till it acquires the size of a walnut. The fortieth day after the flower has appeared, this pod bursts, divides itself into three parts, and discovers three or four small cotton balls: of a bright white colour, the figure of which is almost like that of those produced by silk-worms. These small downy balls, when freed from the seeds by an ingenious process, is then carded and spun; and afterwards made into cloth.

The *tallow-tree* has a short trunk, a smooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves shaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. Its fruit has all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil serves the natives as candles; but for want of purifying, as we purify tallow in Europe, it  
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smells strong, nor is the light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China, are some which yield a kind of flour; some partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of some is poisonous, but affords the finest black Japan in the world. The Chinese, notwithstanding their industry, are so wedded to their ancient customs that these trees are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The same may be said of their richest fruits, which, in general, are far from being so delicious as those of Europe, or indeed of America. This is owing to the neglect of grafting, or inoculation of trees, and other branches of experimental gardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw-silk, which so much abounds in China, and above all, the *tea-plant*, or shrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent its luxuriance. Notwithstanding our long intercourse with China, writers are still divided about the different species and culture of this plant. It is generally thought that the green and bohea grows on the same shrub, but that the latter receives some kind of preparation, which takes away its raking qualities, and gives it a deeper colour. The other kinds, which go by the names of imperial, congo, singlo, and the like, probably owe their differences to the qualities of the soil on which they respectively grow. It is thought that the finest, which is called the flower of tea, is imported over-land to Russia; but there seems to be little difference in the effects of different teas on the human body. The greatest is between the bohea and the green.

The Portuguese had the use of tea long before the English, but it was introduced among the latter before the Restoration, since mention of it is made in the first act of parliament, that settled the excise on the king for life in 1660. Catharine of Lisbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the use of it common at court. The *ginseng*, so famous among the Chinese as the universal remedy, and monopolised even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in North America. When brought to Europe, it is little distinguished for its healing qualities; and this instance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The *ginseng*, however, is a native of the Chinese Tartary.

**METALS AND MINERALS.]** China (if we are to believe naturalists) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper is peculiar to itself, and is so pure and fine that it approaches near to silver. Those who are desirous of preserving its splendor and beautiful colour, add to it a fifth part of silver. The gold mines are but slightly worked, for such is the policy of the Chinese, that they have always feared, that if their men should be exposed to the temptation of these artificial riches, they would be induced to forsake the more useful labours of agriculture. The currency of gold is principally supplied by the grains the people pick up in the sand of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Honan.

Iron, lead, and tin mines must be very common, since these metals are sold at a low rate throughout the empire; and it appears from very authentic documents, that the use of iron in particular was very ancient there. Quarries, and coal-mines, abound in almost every province. Coals are found in great plenty in the mountains of the provinces of Chen-si, Chan-si, and Pe-tcheli; they are used by workmen in their furnaces, in all kitchens, and in the stoves with which the Chinese warm their apartments during winter.

**POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.]** According to some accounts, there are fifty-eight millions of inhabitants in China; and all between twenty and sixty years of age pay an annual tax. But according to father Amiot, who was at great pains to investigate this point, it would seem that China contains, at present, two hundred millions of inhabitants. This enormous population the abbe Grolier endeavoured

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to prove, by a detail of the numbers in each of the fifteen provinces, to be by no means exaggerated. The extreme populousness of China often occasions dearths, and sometimes famine. Parents, who cannot support their female children, are allowed to cast them into the river; but they fasten a gourd to the child that it may float on the water, and compassionate people are often moved by its cries to save it from death. The Chinese, in their persons, are middle-sized, their faces broad, their eyes black and small, their noses rather short. They have peculiar ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few straggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion towards the north is fair, towards the south swarthy, and the fatter a man is, they think him the handsomer. Men of quality and learning, who are not much exposed to the sun, are delicately complexioned, and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to shew that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump rosy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate, though florid complexion. The smallness of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no swathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that perfection, so that when they grow up, they may be said to totter rather than walk. This fanciful piece of beauty was probably invented by the ancient Chinese, to palliate their jealousy.

To enter into all the starchy ridiculous formalities of the Chinese, especially of their men of quality when paying or receiving visits, would give little information, and less amusement. It is sufficient to observe, that the legislators of China looking upon submission and subordination as the corner-stones of all society, devised those outward marks of respect, ridiculous as they appear to us, as the test of duty and respect from inferiors to superiors; and their capital maxim was, that the man who was deficient in civility was void of good sense.

The Chinese in general have been represented as the most dishonest, low, thieving set in the world, employing their natural quickness only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, especially the Europeans, but they observe that none but a Chinese can cheat a Chinese. They are fond of law-disputes beyond any people in the world. Their hypocrisy is without bounds; and the men of property among them practise the most avowed bribery, and the lowest meanesses to obtain preferment. It should, however, be remembered, that some of the late accounts of China have been drawn up by those who were little acquainted with any parts of that empire but the sea-port towns; in which they probably met with many knavish and designing people. But it seems not just to attempt to characterise a great nation by a few instances of this kind, though well attested; and we appear not to be sufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China to form an accurate judgment of the manners and characters of the inhabitants. By some of the Jesuit missionaries the Chinese seem to have been too much extolled, and by the later writers too much degraded.

DRESS.] This varies according to the distinction of ranks, and is entirely under the regulation of the law, which has even fixed the colours that distinguish the different conditions. The emperor, and princes of the blood, have alone a right to wear yellow; certain mandarines are intitled to wear satin of a red ground, but only upon days of ceremony; in general, they are clothed in black, blue, or violet. The colour to which the common people are confined, is blue or black; and their dress is always composed of plain cotton cloth. The men wear caps on their heads of the fashion of a bell; those of quality are ornamented with jewels. The rest of their dress is easy and loose, consisting of a vest and a fast, a coat or a gown thrown over them, silk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies

ladies towards the south wear nothing on their head. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and sometimes it is dishevelled. Their dress differs but little from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very large open sleeves. The Chinese muffle themselves up closely in the morning; as the heat increases they gradually throw off their covering, and again wrap themselves up at the approach of evening.

**MARRIAGES.]** The parties never see each other in China till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children. Next to being barren, the greatest scandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of a poor family happens to have three or four girls successively, it not unfrequently happens that she will expose them on the high roads, or cast them into a river.

**FUNERALS.]** People of note cause their coffins to be made, and their tombs to be built in their life-time. No persons are buried within the walls of a city, nor is a dead corpse suffered to be brought into a town, if a person died in the country. Every Chinese keeps in his house a table, upon which is written the names of his father, grandfather, and great-grandfather, before which they frequently burn incense, and prostrate themselves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great-grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceased is added.

**LANGUAGE.]** The Chinese language contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one syllable: but then each word is pronounced with such various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be easily imagined, and enables them to express themselves very well on the common occasions of life. The missionaries, who adapt the European characters, as well as they can, to the expression of Chinese words, have devised eleven different, and some of them very compounded, marks and aspirations, to signify the various modulations, elevations, and depressions of the voice, which distinguish the several meanings of the same monosyllable. The Chinese oral language being thus barren and contracted, their literature is comprised in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous: according to some writers they amount to twenty-five thousand; to thirty or forty thousand, according to others; but the latest accounts say they amount to eighty thousand, though he is reckoned a very learned man, who is master of fifteen or twenty thousand. This language being wholly addressed to the eye, and having no affinity with the oral, the latter hath still continued in its original uncultivated state, while the former has received all possible improvements.

The Chinese characters, Mr. Asple observes, which are by length of time become symbolic, were originally imitative; they still partake so much of their original hieroglyphic nature, that they do not combine into words like letters or marks for sounds; but we find one mark for a man, another for a horse, a third for a dog, and in short a separate and distinct mark for each thing which has a corporeal form. The Chinese also use a great number of marks entirely of a symbolic nature, to impress on the eye the conceptions of the mind, which have no corporeal forms, though they do not combine these last marks into words, like marks for sounds or letters; but a separate mark is made to represent or stand for each idea, and they use them in the same manner as they do their abridged picture-characters, which were originally imitative or hieroglyphic.

The Chinese books begin from the right hand; their letters are placed in perpendicular columns, of which there are generally ten in a page. They are read downwards, beginning from the right hand side of the paper. Sometimes a title is placed horizontally, and this likewise read from the right hand.

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**GENIUS AND LEARNING.]** The genius of the Chinese is peculiar to themselves. They have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting; and yet in gardening, and planning their grounds, they hit upon the true sublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickness, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had not any good apparatus for astronomical observations; and the metaphysical learning, which existed among them, was only known to their philosophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jesuits were of short duration, and lasted little longer than the reign of Cang-hi, who was contemporary with our Charles II. nor is it very probable they will ever be revived. It has been generally said, that they understood printing before the Europeans; but that can be only applied to block-printing, for the fusile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chinese, however, had almanacks, which were stamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was discovered in Europe.

The difficulty of mastering and retaining such a number of arbitrary marks and characters, as there are in what may be called the Chinese written language, greatly retards the progress of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with such honours and rewards, where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and pursue it. The literati form the only order of nobles in China. If their birth be ever so mean and low, they become mandarins of the highest rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly sink into poverty and obscurity, if they neglect those studies which raised their fathers. It has been observed, that there is no nation in the world where the first honours of the state lie so open to the lowest of the people, and where there is less of hereditary greatness. The Chinese range all their works of literature into four classes. The first is the class of *King*, or the sacred books, which contains the principles of the Chinese religion, morality, and government, and several curious and obscure records, relative to these important subjects. History forms a class apart; yet, in this first class, there are placed some historical monuments on account of their relation to religion and government, and among others the *Tekun-ikicon*, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Low, the native country of that illustrious sage. The second class is that of the *Su*, or *Che*, that is, of history and the historians. The third class, called *Tju*, *Tje*, comprehends philosophy and the philosophers, and contains all the works of the Chinese literati, the productions also of foreign sects and religions, which the Chinese consider only in the light of philosophical opinions, and all books relative to mathematics, astronomy, physic, military science, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and sciences in general. The fourth class is called *Tsie*, or *Miscellanies*, and contains all the poetical books of the Chinese, their pieces of eloquence, their songs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chinese literati, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themselves less to the study of nature, and to the researches of natural philosophy, than to moral inquiries, the practical science of life, and internal polity and manners. It is said, that it was not before the dynasty of the Song, in the 10th and 11th centuries after Christ, that the Chinese philosophers formed hypotheses concerning the system of the universe, and entered into discussions of a scholastic kind, in consequence, perhaps, of the intercourse they had long kept up with the Arabians, who studied with ardour the works of Aristotle. And since the Chinese have begun to pay some attention to natural philosophy, their progress in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder is justly claimed by the Chinese, who made use of it against Zingis Khan and Tamerlane. They seem to have known nothing of small fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their industry in their manufactures of stuffs, porcelain, japanning, and the like sedentary trades, can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in their junks and making canals, levelling mountains, raising gardens, and navigating boats.

[ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Few natural curiosities present themselves in China, that have not been comprehended under foreign articles. Some volcanoes, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire; the volcano of Lincfung is said sometimes to make so furious a discharge of fire and ashes, as to occasion a tempest in the air; and some of their lakes are said to petrify fishes when put into them. The artificial curiosities of China are stupendous. The great wall, separating China from Tartary, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars, is supposed to extend from 1200 to 1500 miles. It is carried over mountains and valleys, and reaches, according to Mr. Grosier, from the province of Shensi to the Whang-Hay, or Yellow Sea. It is in most places built of brick and mortar, which are so well tempered, and built so closely, as not to admit the least entrance for any instrument of iron, that though it has stood for 1800 years, it has suffered but little, and in such a dry climate may remain in the same condition for many ages. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, in the province of Petcheli, to the east of Peking and almost in the same latitude: it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being tarrassed and cased with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high. It is flanked with towers, two bow-shots distant one from the other, which add to its strength, and render it much easier to be defended. One third of the able bodied men in China were employed in constructing this wall, which, it is said, was begun, and completely finished in the short space of five years; and it is farther reported, that the workmen stood so close for many miles, that they could hand the materials from one to another. P. Regis, and the other gentlemen, who took a map of these provinces, often stretched a line on the top, to measure the basis of triangles, and to take distant points with an instrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or six horsemen to travel a-bread with ease.

The artificial mountains present on their tops, temples, monasteries, and other edifices. The Chinese bridges cannot be sufficiently admired. They are built sometimes upon barges strongly chained together, yet so as to be parted, and to let the vessels pass that sail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and consist only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long, and 500 high, though a single arch, and joins two mountains; and some in the interior parts of the empire are said to be still more stupendous. The triumphal arches raised in honour of their great men, form the next species of artificial curiosities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman style of architecture, yet they are superb and beautiful. They are said to be eleven hundred, in number, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their sepulchral monuments make likewise a great figure. The towers, the models of which are now so common in Europe under the name of pagodas, are vast embellishments to the face of their country. They seem to be constructed by a regular order, and most of them are finished with exquisite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nanking, which is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter, is the most admired. It is called the Porcelain Tower, because it is lined with Chinese tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the fanciful taste in which they are built, for their

capaciousness, their whimsical ornaments, and the ugliness of the idols they contain. The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which give name to one of their principal festivals. A bell of Peking weighs 120,000 pounds, but its sound is said to be disagreeable. The last curiosity I shall mention, is their fire-works, which in China, exceed those of all other nations. Their buildings, except their pagodas, being confined to no order, and susceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleasing elegance not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and present a diversity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

**CHIEF CITIES.]** The empire is said to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton. Peking, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary residence of the emperors, is situated in a very fertile plain, twenty leagues distant from the great wall. It is an oblong square, and is divided into two cities: that which contains the emperor's palace is called the Tartar city, because the houses were given to the Tartars when the present family came to the throne; and they refusing to suffer the Chinese to inhabit it, forced them to live without the walls, where they in a short time built a new city; which, by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, six leagues in compass. The walls and gates of Peking are of the surprising height of fifty cubits, so that they hide the whole city; and are so broad, that sentinels are placed upon them on horseback; for there are slopes within the city of considerable length, by which horsemen may ascend the walls; and in several places there are houses built for the guard. The gates, which are nine in number, are neither embellished with statues, nor carvings, all their beauty consisting in their prodigious height, which at a distance gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built of marble, and the rest with large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar. Most of the streets are built in a direct line; the largest are about 120 feet broad, and a league in length. The shops where they sell silks and China-ware generally take up the whole street, and afford a very agreeable prospect. Each shop-keeper places before his shop, on a small kind of pedestal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varnished, and often gilt, on which are written in large characters the names of the several commodities he sells. These, being placed on each side of the street at nearly an equal distance from each other, have a very pretty appearance; but the houses are poorly built in front, and very low, most of them having only a ground floor, and none exceeding one story above it. Of all the buildings in this great city, the most remarkable is the imperial palace, the grandeur of which does not consist so much in the nobleness and elegance of the architecture as in the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly disposed: for within the walls are not only the emperor's house, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houses of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill contrived. F. Attiret, a French Jesuit, who was indulged with a sight of the palace and gardens, says, that the palace is more than three miles in circumference, and that the front of the building shines with gilding, paint, and varnish, while the inside is set off and furnished with every thing that is most beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens of this palace are large tracts of grounds, in which are raised, at proper distances, artificial mountains, from 20 to 60 feet high, which form a number of small vallies, plentifully watered by canals, which uniting, form lakes and *mares*. Beautiful and magnificent barks sail on these pieces of water, and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are said to have any resemblance to each other, which diversity produces a very pleasing effect. Every valley has its house of pleasure,

large enough to lodge one of our greatest lords in Europe with all his retinue; many of these houses are built with cedar, brought with a vast expence the distance of 500 leagues. Of these palaces, or houses of pleasure, there are more than 200 in this vast enclosure. In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky island, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent structure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly such as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with rustic pieces of rock, disposed with such art, as exactly to resemble the wildness of nature.

The city of Peking is computed to contain two millions of inhabitants; the streets are not paved; the longest are about six miles, crossing each other at right angles, as in Philadelphia, and from 90 to 130 feet in breadth. The houses are only one story high. The walls of the city are of an immense height, and the principal streets terminate at the gates, which are very magnificent. Nanking also is said to be every large both in extent and populousness. Pienin is situated at the confluence of three large rivers, and is a place of extensive commerce. Its population (from the accounts of the late embassy) is not to be reckoned by thousands but by millions, the burying-ground only, an immense plain, extends farther than the eye can reach, and appears only bounded by the horizon. Other circumstances relating to this place would appear incredible were they recorded here.

The greatest port in China, and the only one much frequented by Europeans, is Canton. The city wall is about five miles in circumference, with very pleasant walks around it. From the top of some adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine prospect of the country. It is beautifully interspersed with mountains, little hills and vallies, all green; and these again pleasantly diversified with small towns, villages, high towers, temples, the seats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and small branches from the river Ta; on which are numberless boats and junks, sailing different ways through the most fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by seven iron gates, and within side of each there is a guard-house. The streets of Canton are very straight, but generally narrow, and paved with flag-stones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples replete with images. The streets of Canton are so crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet women of any fashion are seldom to be seen, unless by chance, when coming out of their chairs. There are great numbers of market-places for fish, flesh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of provisions, which are sold very cheap. There are many private walks about the skirts of the town, where those of the better sort have their houses, which are very little frequented by Europeans, whose business lies chiefly in the trading parts of the city, where there are only shops and warehouses. Few of the Chinese traders of any substance keep their families in the house where they do business, but either in the city, in the more remote suburbs, or farther up in the country. They have all such a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the streets, but in shops and places of public business; nor do any of their windows look towards those of their neighbours. The shops of those that deal in silk are very neat, make a fine show, and are all in one place: for tradesmen, or dealers in one kind of goods, herd together in the same street. It is computed that there are in this city, and its suburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5000 trading vessels lying in its harbour.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is so happily situated, and produces such a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be said to be the native land

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of industry; but it is an industry without taste or elegance, though carried on with vast art and neatness. They make paper of the bark of bamboo, and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable, for records or printing, to the European. Their ink, for the use of drawing, is well known in England, and is said to be made of oil and lamp-black. The antiquity of their printing, which they perform, by cutting their characters on blocks of wood, has already been mentioned. The manufacture of that earthen ware, generally known by the name of China, was long a secret in Europe, and carried immense sums from thence. Though the Chinese affect to keep that manufacture still a secret, yet it is well known that the principal material is a prepared pulverized earth, and that several European countries far exceed the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity\*. The Chinese silks are generally plain and flowered gauzes, and they are said to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing silk-worms was first discovered. They manufacture silks likewise of a more durable kind, and their cotton, and other cloths, are famous for furnishing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for such is the pride and avarice of the Chinese, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain that since the discovery of the porcelain manufactures, and the vast improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chinese commerce has been on the decline.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The original plan of the Chinese government was patriarchal, almost in the strictest sense of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the most rigorous manner; but, at the same time, the emperor was considered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of state, were looked upon as his substitutes; and the degrees of submission which were due from the inferior ranks to the superior, were settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision, and in a manner that to us seems highly ridiculous. This simple claim of obedience required great address and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual; and the Chinese legislators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their maxims in a number of mystical appearances, so as to strike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins had modes of speaking and writing different from those of other subjects, and the people were taught to believe that their princes partook of divinity, so that they were seldom seen, and more seldom approached.

Though this system preserved the public tranquillity for a great number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect that often convulsed, and at last proved fatal to the state, because the same attention was not paid to the military as to the civil duties. The Chinese had passions like other men, and sometimes a weak or wicked administration drove them into arms, and a revolution easily succeeded, which they justified by saying, that their sovereign had ceased to be their father. During those commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours the Tartars to their assistance, who, possessing great sagacity, became acquainted with the weak side of their constitution, invaded and conquered the empire, but gradually conformed to the Chinese institutions.

Besides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chinese had sumptuary

\* The English in particular have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commissions which have been received late from several princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture, so generally useful, will meet with encouragement from every true patriot among ourselves.

laws and regulations for the expences of all degrees of subjects; which were very useful in preserving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their institutions likewise the mandarins might remonstrate to the emperor, but in the most submissive manner, upon the errors of his government; and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the most salutary effects. No country in the world is so well provided with magistrates for the discharge of justice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China; but they are often ineffectual, through want of public virtue in the execution. The emperor is styled, "*Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.*"

**RELIGION.]** This article is nearly connected with the preceding. Though the ancient Chinese worshipped idols, yet their philosophers and legislators had juster notions of the Deity, and indulged the people in the worship of sensible objects, only to make them more submissive to government. The Jesuits made little opposition to this, when they attempted to convert the Chinese; and suffered their profelytes to worship Tien, pretending that it was no other than the name of God. The truth is, Confucius, and the Chinese legislators, introduced a most excellent system of morals among the people, and endeavoured to supply the want of just ideas of a future state, by prescribing to them the worship of inferior deities. Their morality approximates to that of Christianity; but as we know little of their religion, only through the Jesuits, we cannot adopt for truth the numerous instances which they tell us of the conformity of the Chinese to the Christian religion. Those fathers, it must be owned, were men of great abilities, and made a wonderful progress above a century ago in their conversions; but they mistook the true character of the emperor, who was their patron; for he no sooner found that they were in fact aspiring to the direction of the government, than he expelled them, levelled their churches with the ground, and prohibited the exercise of their religion; since which time Christianity has made no figure in China.

**PUBLIC ROADS.]** The security of travellers, and an easy mode of conveyance for passengers and merchandize of every kind, are objects to which particular attention seems to have been paid by the government in China. The manner in which the public roads are managed greatly contributes to the former.

These roads are in general very broad; they are paved in all the southern provinces, and some of the northern. Valleys have been filled up, and passages have been cut through rocks and mountains, in order to make commodious highways, and to preserve them as nearly as possible on a level. They are generally bordered with very lofty trees, and sometimes with walls eight or ten feet in height, to prevent travellers from entering into the fields. Openings are left in them at certain intervals, which give a passage into cross roads, that conduct to different villages. On all the great roads, covered seats are erected at proper distances, where the traveller may shelter himself from the inclemency of winter, or the excessive heats of summer.

There is no want of inns on the principal highways, and over the cross roads. The former are very spacious, but they are badly supplied with provisions. People are even obliged to carry beds with them, or to sleep on a plain mat. Government requires of those who inhabit them, to give lodging only to those who ask and pay for it.

We meet with many turrets (says Mr. Bell), called post-houses, erected at certain distances one from another, with a flag-staff, on which is hoisted the imperial pendant. These places are guarded by soldiers, who run from one post to another with great speed, carrying letters which concern the emperor. The turrets are in

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fight of one another, and by signals they can convey intelligence of any remarkable event. By these means the court is informed in the speediest manner of whatever disturbance may happen in the most remote part of the empire.

**REVENUES.]** These are said by some to amount to twenty millions, or according to the abbé Grosier, to forty-one millions sterling, a year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not generally abound in China. The taxes collected for the use of government in rice, and other commodities, are certainly very great, and may be easily imposed with equality, as an account of every man's family and substance is annually enrolled; and must amount to a great sum.

**MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.]** China is, at this time, a far more powerful empire than it was before its conquest by the eastern Tartars in 1644. This is owing to the confirmate policy of Chün-tchi, the first Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tartar dress and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chinese were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the seat of his government, and the Tartars quietly submitted to a change of their country and condition which was so much in their favour.

This security, however, of the Chinese from the Tartars, takes from them all military objects; the Tartar power alone being formidable to that empire. The only danger that threatens it at present, is the disuse of arms. The troops of this empire amount to more than seven hundred thousand. This numerous army brings to our remembrance what historians tell us concerning Ninus and Semiramis, and, to descend to later times, of the forces of Xerxes and Darius. But this multitude will appear less astonishing in China, when we consider the extent of the empire, and its enormous population. Many thousands are employed in the collection of the revenue, and the preservation of the canals, the great roads, and the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. As to the marine force, it is composed chiefly of the junks, already mentioned, and other small ships, that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or which are employed to prevent sudden descents.

As to the military art, translated from the Chinese into the French language, was published at Paris in 1772, from which it appears that the Chinese are well versed in the theory of the art of war; but caution, and care, and circumspection, are much recommended to their generals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themselves.

**HISTORY.]** The Chinese pretend to an antiquity beyond all measure of credibility; and their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the scripture chronology assigns the creation of the world. Poan-Kou is said by them to have been the first man; and the interval of time betwixt him and the death of the celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Christ 479, hath been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But upon an accurate investigation of this subject it appears, that all the Chinese historical relations of events, prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived 2057 years before Christ, are entirely fabulous, composed in modern times, unsupported by authentic records, and full of contradictions. It appears also, that the origin of the Chinese empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. But even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity, and it is certain that the materials for Chinese history are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire are comprehended in 668 volumes, and consist of the pieces that have been composed by

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the tribunal, or department of history, established in China for transmitting to posterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters, and transactions of its sovereigns. It is said, that all the facts, which concern the monarchy since its foundation, have been deposited in this department, and from age to age have been arranged according to the order of time, under the inspection of government, and with all the precautions against illusion or partiality that could be suggested. These precautions have been carried so far, that the history of the reign of each imperial family has only been published after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound secret during the dynasty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is asserted, that many of the Chinese historians exposed themselves to exile, and even to death, rather than disguise the defects and vices of the sovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoangti, at whose command the great wall was built, in the year 213 before the Christian era, ordered all the historical books and records, which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government, with the medals, inscriptions, and monuments of antiquity, to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppose his authority, and resist the changes he proposed to introduce into the monarchy; and that there might remain no earlier record, date, or authority, relative to religion, science, or politics, than those of his own reign. Four hundred literati were burnt with their books; yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; several books were concealed, and escaped the general ruin. After this period, strict search was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but though much industry was employed for this purpose, it appears that the authentic historical sources of the Chinese, for the times anterior to the year 200 before Christ, are very few, and that they are still in smaller number for more remote periods. But notwithstanding the depredations that have been made upon the Chinese history, it is still immensely voluminous, and has been judged by some writers superior to that of all other nations. Of the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to 668 volumes, a copy is preserved in the library of the French nation. A chronological abridgment of this great work, in one hundred volumes, was published in the 42d year of the reign of Kang-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work is generally called Kammo, or the Abridgment. From these materials the abbé Grosier proposed to publish at Paris, in the French language, a General History of China, in 12 volumes, 4to. Some of which have been printed; and a smaller work in 12 volumes 8vo, by the late Father de Mailla, missionary at Peking, hath been lately published.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to enlarge upon so copious a subject as that of the Chinese history. The original form of government was probably monarchical; and a succession of excellent princes, and a duration of domestic tranquillity, united legislation with philosophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whose history is wrapped up in mysteries, their Li-Laokum, and above all, their Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. Their long struggle with the Tartars, which lasted several centuries, and the violence of domestic factions, produced bloody wars, and many revolutions; so that though the Chinese empire is hereditary, the imperial succession has been often interrupted. Upwards of twenty dynasties, or different lines and families of succession, are enumerated in their annals.

Neither the great Zinghis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chinese, could subdue their empire; and neither of them could preserve the conquests they made. After their invasions were over, the Chinese went to war with the Manchew Tartars, while an indolent worthless emperor, Tfontching, was upon the throne. In the mean time, a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tse, in the province of Se-tchuen,

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Se-tchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himself, as did most of his courtiers and women. Ou-san-quey, the Chinese general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refused to recognise the usurper, and made a peace with Tsfongate, or Chun-tchi, the Manchew prince, who drove the usurper from the throne, and took possession of it himself, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himself in his authority, and, as has been already mentioned, wisely incorporated his hereditary subjects with the Chinese, so that in effect Tartary became an acquisition to China. He was succeeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who was the patron of the Jesuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government. About the year 1661, the Chinese, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the island of Formosa, which the latter had taken from the Portuguese.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars belonging to the nation of the Tourgouths, left the settlements which they had under the Russian government on the banks of the Wolga and the Jaick, at a small distance from the Caspian sea, and in a vast body of fifty thousand families, they passed through the country of the Haskaks. After a march of eight months, in which they surmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontier of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily, and offered themselves as subjects to Kien-long, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty-sixth year of his reign. He received them graciously, furnished them with provisions, cloaths, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and pasturage. The year following there was a second emigration of about thirty thousand other Tartar families, who also quitted the settlements which they enjoyed under the Russian government, and submitted to the Chinese sceptre. The emperor caused the history of these emigrations to be engraven upon stone, in four different languages.

The hopes which were lately indulged of the great and manifold advantages to be derived from the embassy of lord Macartney to the court of Peking, have ended in disappointment. Never perhaps was there a character better qualified for the management of an embassy of such delicacy and importance, than lord Macartney; but, notwithstanding his lordship's adroitness, he found it utterly impossible to carry either of the two points he was so desirous to effect. Nay, indeed, so early in the train of negociation was his lordship convinced that the idea of obtaining permission for the residence of an Englishman at the capital of China, as ambassador, consul, or in any other character, was not to be accomplished, that he abandoned all hope of its success, after the second or third interview; and, in answer to the application for an exclusive settlement for the English within the Chinese dominions, even on a temporary grant, and solely for the purposes of trade, the Imperial negative was most decidedly peremptory. According to a fundamental principle in Chinese politics, innovation, of whatever kind, is held to be inevitably pregnant with mischief and ruin. And hence, while the doctrines of reform and regeneration are so fashionable in the European world, the Chinese government would consider its political existence at an end, were they to allow any encroachment, not only on their laws, but on established prejudices, which with them are held equally venerable, and possess the same force as positive ordinances. On this principle alone it is that the emperor declined to admit a foreign resident at the court of Peking, or to expand the principles on which our commercial intercourse with this country are at present regulated and confined.

The embassy arrived in the river Tien-sin, in the bottom of the Pteheli Gulph, on the 26th July 1793. At Tacao, and Tong-Chu, about 10 miles from Peking, they continued till August 21, when the ambassador and his suite set out for Peking, which

they reached about 9 o'clock that morning. They remained here till the beginning of September, when they were conducted to Jehor, one of the emperor's country residences in Tartary, distant about 40 or 50 leagues from Peking. Thither they proceeded by easy stages, and were sumptuously accommodated on the way in the emperor's palaces, of which many intervene between Peking and Jehor.

Had the emperor assented to the proposition of a British ambassador or resident at Peking, Sir George Staunton was to have remained there in that character, with an allowance of 12,000*l.* sterling, per annum. Lord Macartney is to receive 30,000*l.* for the embassy.

The presents that have been given by the emperor are immense, both in point of quantity and value; two of which are so singular, as to claim particular notice. The one is an epic poem, addressed to his Britannic majesty, the composition of the emperor himself, and in his own hand writing: it is lodged in a black, wooden, carved box, of no great value, but as an antique—to which character it has a just claim, having been 2000 years in possession of the Imperial family of China. The other present is a mass of costly agate of unequalled size and beauty. It has always been the practice with the emperor to hold this agate in his hand, and to fix his eyes upon it whenever he spoke to a mandarin or any of his ministers; as to look upon a subject is considered as not only derogatory to the Imperial dignity, but to confer too much honour on the individual addressed.

The failure in this business cannot be easily accounted for. It is, however, supposed that the want of success is chiefly to be attributed to some evil impression made upon the Chinese court by some of the native princes of India telling them to beware how they allowed the English to obtain a footing among them; and strengthening their admonition by falsely stating, that the same people had first, as friends, obtained a small settlement in India, which they afterwards increased by repeated wars, driving many of the original owners from their dominions, and establishing upon their ruin an immense empire for themselves.

## INDIA IN GENERAL.

**SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES.** } THIS vast country is situated between the 66th and 109th degrees of East longitude, and between 1 and 40 of North latitude. It is bounded on the North, by the countries of Ubech Tartary and Thibet; on the South, by the Indian Ocean; on the East, by China and the Chinese Sea; and on the West, by Persia and the Indian Sea.

**DIVISIONS.** I shall divide, as others have done, India at large into three great parts: first, the Peninsula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Farther Peninsula; secondly, the main land, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the Peninsula within or on this side the Ganges; all of them vast, populous, and extended empires. But it is necessary, in order to save many repetitions, to premise an account of some particulars common of those numerous nations, which shall be extracted from the most enlightened of our modern writers who have visited the country in the service of the East India Company.

**POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.** Mr. Orme, an excellent and an authentic historian, comprehends the two latter divisions under the title of Indostan. The Mahometans (says he), who are called Moors, of Indostan, are computed at ten millions, and the Indians at an hundred millions. Above half the empire is subject to rajahs, or kings, who derive their descent from the old princes of India, and exercise all the rights of sovereignty, only paying a tribute to the Great Mogul, and

observing the treaties by which their ancestors recognized his superiority. In other respects, the government of Indostan is full of wise checks upon the overgrowing greatness of any subject; but (as all precautions of that kind depend upon the administration) the indolence and barbarity of the moguls or emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitless.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos; or, as others call them, Hindoos, and the country Hindoostan. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legislator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he existed many thousand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was some great and good man, whose beneficence, like that of the pagan legislators, led his people and their posterity to pay him divine honours. The Bramins (for so the Gentoos priests are called) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vedam, containing his doctrines and institutions; and that though the original is lost, they are still possessed of a sacred commentary upon it, called the Shahstah, which is written in the Shanferite, now a dead language.

The foundation of Brumma's doctrine consisted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who created a regular gradation of beings, some superior, and some inferior to man; and of the immortality of the soul and its transmigration into different bodies, according to the lives led in a pre-existent state. From this it appears more than probable, that the Pythagorean metempsychosis took its rise in India. The necessity of inculcating this sublime, but otherwise complicated doctrine, into the lower ranks, induced the Bramins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourse to sensible representations of the Deity and his attributes; so that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated into idolatry, in the worship of different animals, and various images, and of the most hideous figures, delineated or carved. Wooden images are placed in all their temples, and on certain festivals are exhibited in the high-roads and in the streets of towns. The human figures with elephants' heads, which are the objects of their devotion, have many hands, and are enormously corpulent.

The Hindoos have, from time immemorial, been divided into four great tribes. The first and most noble tribe are the Bramins, who alone can officiate in the priesthood, like the Jewith tribe of Levi. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are strictly prohibited from all menial offices. The second in order is the Sitri tribe, who, according to their original institution, ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other professions. The third is the tribe of Baise or Bhyse, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and banias or shop-keepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial servants; and they are incapable of raising themselves to any superior rank. If any Gentoos should be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his posterity are for ever shut out from the society of every body in the nation, except that of the Harri cast, who are held in utter detestation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meanest and vilest offices. This circumstance renders excommunication so dreadful, that any Gentoos will suffer torture, and even death itself, rather than deviate from one article of his faith.

Besides this division into tribes, the Gentoos are also subdivided into *casts*, or smaller classes and tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of these casts, though some have supposed there was a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the casts, in a particular city or province, is generally indispitably decided. The Indian of an inferior would think himself honoured by adopting the customs of a superior cast; but this last would give battle sooner than not vindicate its prerogatives: the inferior receives the victuals prepared by a superior

rior cast with respect, but the superior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior cast. Their marriages are circumscribed by the same barriers as the rest of their intercourses: and hence, besides the national physiognomy, the members of each cast preserve an air of still greater resemblance to each other. There are some casts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarkable for their ugliness. The most striking features in the character of the Hindoos, are their superstition, and veneration for the institutions and tenets of their ancestors.

The members of each cast, says Dr. Robertson, adhere invariably to the profession of their forefathers. From generation to generation, the same families have followed, and will always continue to follow one uniform line of life. To this may be ascribed that high degree of perfection conspicuous in many of the Indian manufactures; and though veneration for the practices of their ancestors may check the spirit of invention, yet, by adhering to these, they acquire such an expertness and delicacy of hand, that Europeans, with all the advantages of superior science, and the aid of more complete instruments, have never been able to equal the exquisite execution of their workmanship. While this high improvement of their more curious manufactures excited the admiration, and attracted the commerce of other nations, the separation of professions in India, and the early distribution of the people into classes, attached to peculiar kinds of labour, secured such abundance of the more common and useful commodities, as not only supplied their own wants, but ministered to those of the countries around them.

To this early division of the people into casts, we must likewise ascribe a striking peculiarity in the state of India, the permanence of its institutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India always was there, and is still likely to continue: neither the ferocious violence and illiberal fanaticism of its Mahomedan conquerors, nor the power of its European masters, have effected any considerable alteration. The same distinctions of condition take place, the same arrangements in civil and domestic society remain, the same maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the same sciences and arts are cultivated. Hence, in all ages, the trade with India has been the same; gold and silver have uniformly been carried thither, in order to purchase the same commodities with which it now supplies all nations; and from the age of Pliny to the present times, it has always been considered and execrated as a gulf which swallows up the wealth of every other country, that flows incessantly towards it, and from which it never returns\*.

[RELIGION.] The institutions of religion, publicly established in all the extensive countries stretching from the banks of the Indus to Cape Comorin, present to view an aspect nearly similar. They form a regular and complete system of superstition, strengthened and upheld by every thing which can excite the reverence and secure the attachment of the people. The temples, consecrated to their deities, are magnificent, and adorned not only with rich offerings, but with the most exquisite works in painting and sculpture, which the artists, highest in estimation among them, were capable of executing. The rites and ceremonies of their worship are pompous and splendid, and the performance of them not only mingles in all the transactions of common life, but constitutes an essential part of them. The Bramins, who, as ministers of religion, preside in all its functions, are elevated above every other order of men, by an origin deemed not only more noble, but acknowledged to be sacred. They have established among themselves a regular hierarchy and gradation of ranks, which, by securing subordination in their own order, adds weight to their authority, and gives them a more absolute dominion in the minds of the people. This dominion they support by the command of the immense

\* Dr. Robertson's Historical Dissertation concerning India. Appendix, p. 261, 262.

revenues, with which the liberality of princes, and the zeal of pilgrims and devotees, have enriched their pagodas.

We shall not enter into any minute description of this vast and complicated system of superstition. An attempt to enumerate the multitude of deities which are the objects of adoration in India; to describe the splendour of worship in their pagodas, and the immense variety of their rites and ceremonies; to recount the various attributes and functions which the craft of priests, or the credulity of the people, have ascribed to their divinities, together with the numerous and often fanciful speculations and theories of learned men on this subject, would too much extend the limits of this work.

In the various superstitions which have prevailed in different parts of the world, the invisible beings, who are the first objects of our veneration, have every where a near resemblance. The powers of man in the more early stages of his progress are very limited. He supposes that there is a distinct cause of every remarkable effect, and ascribes to a separate power every event which attracts his attention, or excites his terror. He fancies that it is the province of one deity to point the lightning, and with an awful sound to hurl the irresistible thunderbolt at the head of the guilty; that another rides in the whirlwind, and, at his pleasure, raises or stills the tempest; that a third rules over the ocean; and that a fourth is the god of battles. We may here recognise a striking uniformity of features in the system of superstition established throughout every part of the earth; more particularly, among the Greeks in Europe, and the Indians in Asia, the two people, in those great divisions of the earth, who were most early civilised. What is supposed to be performed by the power of Jupiter, of Neptune, of Æolus, of Mars, of Venus, according to the mythology of the West, is ascribed in the East to the agency of Agnéc, the god of fire; Varoon, the god of oceans; Vayoo, the god of wind; Cama, the god of love; and a variety of other divinities.

But it is well known that in Greece, although the generality of the people entertained these gross ideas, men of reflecting minds, in proportion as science advanced, thought more justly concerning the great first cause. Accordingly, some philosophers among them discerning the wisdom, the foresight, and the goodness displayed in creating, preserving, and governing the world, perceived that the characters of the divinities which were proposed as the objects of their adoration in their temples, could not entitle them to be considered as the presiding powers in nature. They, therefore, formed ideas concerning the perfections of one Supreme Being, the Creator and Ruler of the universe; as just and rational as have ever been attained by the unassisted powers of the human mind.

If from Europe we now turn to Asia, we shall find, that from the progress which the most eminent persons of the Bramin cast made in the various branches of science, they formed such a just idea of the system of nature, and of the power, wisdom, and goodness, displayed in the formation and government of it, as elevated their minds above the popular superstition, and led them to acknowledge one Supreme Being, "the Creator of all things (to use their own expression), and from whom all things proceed."

In India, the dominion of religion extends to a thousand particulars, which in other countries are governed either by the civil laws, or by taste, custom, or fashion. Dress, food, the common intercourses of life, marriages, professions, are all under the jurisdiction of religion, which prescribes rules of conduct in all circumstances and all situations. The original government of the Hindoos was in reality an hierarchy; for among that religious people, the highest authority was possessed by the priesthood, or the Bramin cast. Nor is it in this instance only, that

we find a resemblance between the natives of India and the Jews. Not only were the governments of both nations hierarchical, but in both there was a vast variety of religious observances and ceremonies extending to many particulars, which in other countries are matters of choice or of indifference; and both entertained the most profound respect and veneration for their ancestors. All the castes acknowledge the Bramins for their priests, and from them derive their belief of the transmigration; which leads many of them to afflict themselves even at the death of a fly, although occasioned by inadvertence. But the greater number of castes are less scrupulous, and eat, although very sparingly, both of fish and flesh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. The food of the Hindoos is simple, consisting chiefly of rice, ghee, which is a kind of imperfect butter, milk, vegetables, and oriental spices of different kinds, but chiefly what is called in the East, *chilly*, and in the West, green or Cayenne pepper. The warrior cast may eat of the flesh of goats, mutton, and poultry. Other superior castes may eat poultry and fish; but the inferior castes are prohibited from eating flesh or fish of any kind. Their greatest luxury consists in the use of the richest spices and perfumes, which grow almost spontaneously in their gardens. They esteem milk the purest of foods, because they think it partakes of some of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and because they esteem the cow itself almost like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happiness consists in the solaces of domestic life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is an indispensable duty in every man, who does not entirely separate himself from the world from a principle of devotion. Their religion also permits them to have several wives; but they seldom have more than one: and it has been observed, that their wives are distinguished by a decency of demeanour, a solicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the most civilised countries. The amusements of the Hindoos consist in going to their pagodas, in assisting at religious shews, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies prescribed to them by the Bramins. Their religion forbids them to quit their own shores\*, nor do they want any thing from abroad. They might, therefore, have lived in much tranquillity and happiness, if others had looked on them with the same indifference with which they regard the rest of the world.

The soldiers are commonly called Rajah-poots, or persons descended from rajahs, and reside chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the south. These rajah-poots are a robust and brave people, and serve faithfully those who pay them well; but when the leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finished, and they run off the field without any stain upon their reputation.

CUSTOMS AND DRESS.] The custom of women burning themselves, upon the death of their husbands, still † continues to be practised among some of high cast and

\* The Gentoos are persuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kistna, and Indus, have the sacred virtue of purifying those who bathe in them, from all pollutions and sins. This religious idea seems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to restrain the natives from migrating into distant countries: for it is remarkable, that the sacred rivers are so situated, that there is not any part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of washing away their sins. The Ganges, which rises in the mountains of Thibet, with its different branches, runs through the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and

Orixa, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohilcund, Agra, Delhi, and Lahore. The Kistna divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs through the Visapore into the interior parts of the Decan. And the Indus, bounding the Guzarat provinces, separates Indostan from the dominions of Persia.

† While I was pursuing (says Mr. Hedges) my professional labours in Benares, I received information of a ceremony which was to take place on the banks of the river, and which greatly excited my curiosity. I had often read and repeatedly heard of that most horrid custom amongst, perhaps,

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and condition, though much less frequently than formerly; and it is said, that the Bramins now do not encourage it. One particular class of women are allowed to be openly prostituted: these are the famous dancing girls. Their attitudes and movements are very easy, and not ungraceful. Their persons are delicately formed, gaudily decorated, and highly perfumed. By the continuation of wanton attitudes, they

the most mild and gentle of the human race, the Hindoos; the sacrifice of the wife on the death of the husband, and that by a means from which nature seems to shrink with the utmost abhorrence, by burning. Many instances of this practice have been given by travellers; those whom I have met with, only mention it as taking place among the highest classes of society, whose vanity, united with superstitious prejudices, might have dictated the circumstance; and I confess I could not entertain any other ideas, when I observed the theatrical parade that seemed to attend it. Mr. Holwell, in his curious work, entitled *Historical Events relative to India*, thus accounts for this more than inhuman practice: "At the demise of the mortal part of the Hindoo great lawgiver and prophet, Bramah, his wives, inconsolable for his loss, resolved not to survive him, and offered themselves voluntary victims on his funeral pile. The wives of the chief rajahs, the first officers of the state, being unwilling to have it thought that they were deficient in fidelity and affection, followed the heroic example set them by the wives of Bramah. The Bramins, a tribe then newly established by their great legislator, pronounced and declared, that the spirits of those heroines immediately ceased from their transigrations, and had entered the first bosom of purification; it followed, that their wives claimed a right of making the same sacrifice of their mortal forms to God and the mans of their deceased husbands. The wives of every Hindoo caught the enthusiastic (now pious) flame. Thus the heroic acts of a few women brought about a general custom. The Bramins had given it the stamp of religion, and instituted the forms and ceremonials that were to accompany the sacrifice, subject to restrictions, which leave it a voluntary act of glory, piety, and fortitude." The author proceeds to state expressly, that he has been present at many of these sacrifices, and particularly and minutely records one that happened on the 4th of February, 1742—3, near to Cossimbuzar, of a young widow, between seventeen and eighteen years of age, leaving at so early an age three children, two boys, and a girl; the eldest he mentions as not then being four years of age. This intimated heroine was fitly urged to live, for the future care of her infants; but notwithstanding this, though the agonies of death were painted to her in the strongest and most lively terms, she, with a calm and resolved countenance, put her finger into the fire, and held it there a considerable time; she then with one hand put fire in the palm of the other, sprinkled it on it, and fumigated the Bramins. She was then given to understand, by some of her friends, that she would not be permitted to burn herself; and this intimation ap-

peared to give her deep affliction for a few moments; after which she resolutely replied, that death was in her own power, and that if she was not allowed to burn according to the principles of her cast, she would starve herself. Her friends finding her thus peremptory were obliged at last to consent to the dreadful sacrifice of this lady, who was of high rank.

The person whom I saw (observes Mr. Hodges) was of the Bhye (merchant) tribe or cast; a class of people we should naturally suppose exempt from the high and impetuous pride of rank, and in whom the natural desire to preserve life should in general predominate, undiverted from its proper course by a prospect of posthumous fame. I may add, that those motives are greatly strengthened by the exemption of this class from that infamy with which the refusal is inevitably branded in their superiors. Upon my repairing to the spot, on the banks of the river, where the ceremony was to take place, I found the body of the man on a bier, and covered with linen, already brought down and laid at the edge of the river. At this time, about ten in the morning, only a few people were assembled, who appeared destitute of feeling at the catastrophe that was to take place; I may even say that they displayed the most perfect apathy and indifference. After waiting a considerable time, the wife appeared, attended by the Bramins, and music, with some few relations. The procession was slow and solemn; the victim moved with a steady and firm step; and, apparently with a perfect composure of countenance, approached close to the body of her husband, where for some time they halted. She then addressed those who were near her, with composure, and without the least trepidation of voice or change of countenance. She held in her left hand a cocoa nut, in which was a red colour mixed up, and dipping in it the fore-finger of her right hand, she marked those near her, to whom she wished to shew the last act of attention. As at this time I stood close to her, she observed me attentively, and with the colour marked me on the forehead. She might be about twenty-four or five years of age, a time of life when the bloom of beauty has generally fled the cheek in India; but still she preserved a sufficient share to prove that she must have been handsome; her figure was small, but elegantly turned; and the form of her hands and arms was particularly beautiful. Her dress was a loose robe of white flowing drapery, that extended from her head to the feet. The place of sacrifice was higher upon the bank of the river, a hundred yards or more from the spot where we now stood. The pile was composed of dried branches, leaves and rushes, with a door on one side, and arched and covered on the top; by the side of the door stood a man with a lighted

brand.

they acquire, as they grow warm in the dance, a frantic lasciviousness, and communicate, by a natural contagion, the most voluptuous desires to the beholders.

The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniences, as the Chinese; and remarkably honest and humane: there scarcely is an instance of a robbery in all Indostan, though the diamond-merchants travel without defensive weapons. According to a late writer, the Hindoos, as well as the Persians, Tartars, and adjoining nations, who have inhabited Indostan since it was invaded by Tamerlane, though of different nations, religions, laws, and customs, possess nevertheless, in equal degrees, hospitality, politeness, and address. In refinement and ease of manners they are superior to any people to the westward of them. In politeness and address, in gracefulness of deportment, and speech, an Indian is as much superior to a Frenchman of fashion, as he is to a Dutch burgomaster of Dort. A Frenchman's ease is mixed with forward familiarity, with confidence, and self-conceit; but the good breeding of the Hindoos, especially those of the higher casts, is reserved, modest, and respectful.

The complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair is long, their persons are straight and elegant, their limbs finely proportioned, their fingers long and tapering, their countenances open and pleasant, and their features exhibit the most delicate lines of beauty in the females, and in the males a kind of manly softness.

Their walk and gait, as well as their whole deportment, is in the highest degree graceful. The dress of the men is a kind of close-bodied gown, like our women's gowns, and wide trowsers, resembling petticoats, reaching down to their slippers. Such of the women as appear in public, have shawls over their heads and shoulders, short close jackets, and tight drawers which come down to their ankles. Hence the dress of the men gives them, in the eyes of Europeans, an appearance of effeminacy; whereas that of the women appears rather masculine.

Their houses cover much ground, and have spacious galleries and accommodations of various kinds. The apartments are small, and the furniture not very elegant, if we except the rich Persian carpets. The grandeur of their palaces consists in baths, perfumes, temples, gods, and harems. The harems or zezanns, that is, the residences of the women, are removed from the front of the house, and lighted only from a square space in the centre of the whole building. The apparel of the women is inconceivably rich; they have jewels on their fingers and about

brand. From the time the woman appeared, to the taking up of the body to convey it into the pile, there elapsed the space of half an hour, which was employed in prayer with the Bramins, in attention to those who stood near her, and conversation with her relations. When the body was taken up, she followed close to it, attended by the chief Bramin; and when it was deposited in the pile, she bowed to all around her, and entered without speaking. The moment she entered, the door was closed; the fire was put to the combustibles, which instantly flamed, and immense quantities of dried wood and other matters were thrown upon it. This last part of the ceremony was accompanied with the shouts of the multitude, who now became numerous, and the whole seemed a mass of confused rejoicing. For my part, I felt myself actuated by very different sentiments: the event that I had been witness to was such, that the minutest circumstance attending it could not be erased from my memory; and when the melancholy which had overwhelmed me was somewhat abated, I made a drawing of the subject.

In other parts of India, as the Carnatic, this dreadful custom is accompanied in the execution

of it with still greater horror. It is asserted that they dig a pit, in which is deposited a large quantity of combustible matter, which is set on fire, and the body being let down, the victim throws herself into the flaming mass. In other places a pile is raised extremely high, and the body with the wife is placed upon it, and the whole is set on fire. Whatever be the means, reason and nature so revolt at the idea, that, were it not a well known and well authenticated circumstance, it would hardly obtain credit. In truth, I cannot but confess, that some degree of incredulity was mingled with curiosity on this occasion; and the desire of ascertaining so extraordinary a fact was my greatest inducement to be a spectator. See Hodges' Travels in India, during the years 1780, 1781, 1782 and 1783, p. 79—84, where the reader will find this affecting scene represented, from a painting by Mr. Hodges, in a very elegant print. —Lieut. Moor, in his Narrative of the Operations of Capt. Little's Detachment, p. 133, relates an account of another victim to this horrid superstition, in October 1791, in the camp of Purram Bhow.

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their necks, and also in their ears and nostrils, with bracelets on their wrists and arms, and around their ankles.

**PAGODAS.]** The temples or pagodas of the Gentooes are stupendous but disgusting stone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the Bramins.

To this, however, there are some exceptions; for in proportion to the progress of the different countries of India in opulence and refinement, the structure of their temples gradually improved. From plain buildings they became highly ornamented fabrics, and, both by their extent and magnificence, are monuments of the power and taste of the people by whom they were erected. In this highly finished style there are pagodas of great antiquity in different parts of Indostan, particularly in the southern provinces, which were not exposed to the destructive violence of Mahomedan zeal. In order to assist my readers in forming a proper idea of these buildings, I shall briefly describe two, of which we have the most accurate accounts. The entry to the pagoda of Chillambrum, near Porto Novo, on the Coromandel coast, held in high veneration on account of its antiquity, leads through a stately gate under a pyramid an hundred and twenty-two feet in height, built with large stones above forty feet long, and more than five feet square, and all covered with plates of copper, adorned with an immense variety of figures neatly executed. The whole structure extends one thousand three hundred and thirty-two feet in one direction, and nine hundred and thirty-six in another. Some of the ornamental parts are finished with an elegance entitled to admiration.

The pagoda of Seringham is superior in sanctity to that of Chillambrum, and surpasses it as much in grandeur. This pagoda is situated about a mile from the western extremity of the island of Seringham, formed by the division of the great river Caveri into two channels. It is composed of seven square enclosures, one within the other, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. These enclosures are three hundred and fifty feet distant from each other, and each has four large gates with a square tower, which are placed, one in the middle of each side of the enclosure, and opposite to the four cardinal points. The outward wall is near four miles in circumference, and its gateway to the south is ornamented with pillars, several of which are single stones thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter; and those which form the roof are still larger; in the inmost enclosures are the chapels. Here, as in all the other great pagodas of India, the Bramins live in a subordination which knows no resistance, and slumber in a voluptuousness which knows no wants.

There is a beautiful structure, at Triple Cane, two miles south of Madagascar. It is of considerable magnitude; and as the top of the building rises considerably above the trees, it is seen all over the country. Adjoining to the temple is a large tank, with steps descending to the bottom, filled with water. The whole is of stone, and the masonry excellent. On the surface of the temple are many basso-relievos, which probably relate to the religion of the Hindoos; but whether they are connected with the rites and worship of Bramah, or not, it is not easy to say: some of them are of the most indecent kind\*. Mr. Hodges has given a very elegant print of the great pagoda at Tanjore.

If the Bramins are masters of any uncommon art or science, they frequently turn it to the purposes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scriver says, that they know how to calculate eclipses; and that judicial astrology is to prevail among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head astrologer being always consulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewise encourage

\* Hodges' Travels in India, from 1782 to 1783. p. 100.

those superstitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo industry as belonging to themselves. The Gentoos are entirely passive under all their oppressions, having little of that resentment in their nature that animates the rest of mankind; yet they are susceptible of avarice, and sometimes bury their money, and rather than discover it, put themselves to death by poison or otherwise. This practice, which it seems is not uncommon, accounts for the great scarcity of silver that till of late prevailed in Indostan.

[INFLUENCE OF FOOD AND EARLY MARRIAGES.] The reasons above mentioned account likewise for their being less under the influence of their passions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual use of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nourishment; and their marrying early, the male before fourteen and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their persons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women begins to decay at eighteen: at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are not therefore to wonder at their being soon strangers to all personal exertion and vigour of mind; and whatever may be the cause, a recent traveller among them observes, it is certain, that death is regarded with less horror in India than in any other country in the world. The origin and the end of all things, say the philosophers of India of the present times, is a *vacuum*. A state of repose is the state of greatest perfection; and this is the state after which a wise man aspires. "It is better", say the Hindoos, "from a favourite book, to sit than to walk, to lie down than to sit, and to sleep than to wake; but death is the best of all †". According to the Gentoo laws, criminals sentenced to death are not to be strangled, suffocated, or poisoned, but to be cut off by the sword; because, without an effusion of blood, malefactors are supposed to die with all their sins about them; but the shedding of their blood, it is thought, expiates their crimes.

The Mahometans, who, in Indostan, are called Moors, are chiefly of Persian, Turkish, and Arabic extraction. They early began, in the reigns of the caliphs of Bagdad, to invade Indostan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They settled colonies in several places, whose descendants are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which still subsists. Those princes being strict Mahometans, received under their protection all that professed the same religion, and who being a brave, active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are said to have introduced the division of provinces, over which they appointed soubahs; and those provinces, each of which might be styled an empire, were subdivided into nabobships; each nabob being immediately accountable to his soubah, who in process of time became almost independent of the Great Mogul, except in paying him an annual tribute. The vast resort of Persian and Tartar tribes has likewise strengthened the Mahometan government: but it is observable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all those adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horses and their swords, degenerated into eastern indolence and sensuality.

Of all those tribes, the Mahrattas at present make the greatest figure. They are a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Indostan and Persia. They commonly serve on horseback, and, when well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold active spirits, and pay no great respect to the principles of their religion. Mr. Scrafton says, that the Mahometans or Moors are void of every principle even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hospitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking

† Reflections, Scrafton, p. 17. British India analysed, Introduction, p. 25.

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with, and embracing a friend, they will stab him to the heart. But it is probable that these representations of their moral depravity are exaggerated.

The manner of drinking among the Gentoos is remarkable. They religiously avoid touching the vessel that contains the liquor with their lips, and pour it into their mouths, holding the bottle, or other vessel, at a foot's distance. Their idea is, that they would be polluted by stagnating water: They will drink from a pump, or of any running stream, but not out of a pool.

POLITICAL CONSTITUTION AND FORM } These will afford a very striking proof  
OF GOVERNMENT. } of the early and high civilization of the people of India. "The Indians trace back the history of their own country through an immense succession of ages, and assert that all Asia, from the mouth of the Indus on the west, to the confines of China on the east, and from the mountains of Thibet on the north, to Cape Comorin on the south, formed a vast empire, subject to one mighty sovereign, under whom ruled several hereditary princes and rajahs. But their chronology, which measures the life of man in ancient times by thousands of years, and computes the length of the several periods, during which it supposes the world to have existed, by millions, is so wildly extravagant, as not to merit any serious disquisition. We must rest satisfied then, until some more certain information is obtained with respect to the ancient history of India, with taking the first accounts of that country, which can be deemed authentic, from the Greeks, who served under Alexander the Great. They found kingdoms of considerable magnitude established in that country. The territories of Porus, and of Taxiles, comprehended a great part of the Panjab\*, one of the most fertile, and best cultivated countries in India. The kingdom of the Prasi, or Gangaridae, stretched to a great extent on both sides of the Ganges. All the three, as appears from the ancient Greek writers, were powerful and populous,

"This description of the partition of India into states of such magnitude, is alone a convincing proof of its having advanced far in civilization. In whatever region of the earth there has been an opportunity of observing the progress of men in social life, they appear at first in small independent tribes or communities. Their common wants prompt them to unite; and their mutual jealousies, as well as the necessity of securing subsistence, compel them to drive to a distance every rival who might encroach on those domains which they consider as their own. Many ages elapse before they coalesce, or acquire sufficient foresight to provide for the wants, or sufficient wisdom to conduct the affairs of a numerous society. Even under the genial climate, and in the rich soil of India, more favourable perhaps to the union and increase of the human species than any other part of the globe, the formation of such extensive states, as were established in that country when first visited by Europeans, must have been a work of long time; and the members of them must have been long accustomed to exertions of useful industry.

"Though monarchical government was established in all the countries of India, to which the knowledge of the ancients extended, the sovereigns were far from possessing uncontrouled or despotic power. The monarchs of India, who are all taken from the second of the four classes formerly described, which is intrusted with the functions of government and exercise of war, behold among their subjects an order of men far superior to themselves in dignity, and so conscious of their own pre-eminence, both in rank and in sanctity, that they would deem it degradation and pollution, if they were to eat of the same food with their sovereign.

"While the sacred rites of the Bramins opposed a barrier against the encroachments of regal power on one hand, it was circumscribed on the other by the

\* This term means the country watered by the five eastern branches of the Indus.

ideas which those who occupied the highest stations in society entertained of their own dignity and privileges.—Nor were the benefits of these restraints upon the power of the sovereign confined wholly to the two superior orders in the state; they extended, in some degree, to the third class employed in agriculture \*.

**LAW AND JUDICIAL PROCEEDINGS.]** In the early and rude ages of society, the few disputes with respect to property which arise, are terminated by the interposition of the old men, or by the authority of the chiefs in every small tribe or community; their decisions are dictated by their own discretion, or founded on plain and obvious maxims of equity. But as controversies multiply, cases similar to such as have been formerly determined must recur, and the awards upon these grow gradually into precedents, which serve to regulate future judgments. Thus, long before the nature of property is defined by positive statutes, there is gradually formed, in every state, a body of customary or common law by which judicial proceedings are directed.

In this state the administration of justice seems to have been in India, when first visited by Europeans. Though the Indians, according to their account, had no written laws, but determined every controverted point, by recollecting what had been formerly decided; they assert that justice was dispensed among them with great accuracy, and that crimes were severely punished. Towards the middle of the sixteenth century, Akber the Sixth, in descent from Tamerlane, mounted the throne of Indostan. As in every province of his extensive empire the Hindoos formed the great body of his subjects, he laboured to acquire a perfect knowledge of their religion and institutions; in order to arrange every part of his government, particularly the administration of justice, in a manner the best accommodated to their own ideas. In this generous undertaking he was seconded with zeal by his vizier Abul Fazel, a minister whose understanding was not less enlightened than that of his master. By their assiduous researches, and consultation of learned men, such information was obtained as enabled Abul Fazel to publish a brief compendium of Hindoo jurisprudence, in the Ayeen Akberry, which may be considered as the first genuine communication of its principles to persons of a different religion. About two centuries afterwards, the illustrious example of Akber was imitated and surpassed by Mr. Hastings, the governor-general of the British settlements in India. By his authority, and under his inspection, the most eminent Pundits, or Bramins learned in the laws of the provinces over which he presided, were assembled at Calcutta; and, in the course of two years compiled, from their most ancient and approved authors, a full code of Hindoo laws; which is, undoubtedly, the most valuable and authentic elucidation of Indian policy and manners that has been hitherto communicated to Europe.

According to the Pundits, some of the writers upon whose authority they found the decrees which they have inserted in the code, lived several millions of years before their time. Without entering into any examination of what is so extravagant, we may conclude, that the Hindoos have in their possession treatises concerning the laws and jurisprudence of their country, of more remote antiquity than are to be found in any other nation. The truth of this depends not upon their own testimony alone, but it is put beyond doubt by one circumstance, that all these treatises are written in the Shankreet language, which has not been spoken for many ages in any part of Indostan, and is now understood by none but the most learned Bramins. That the Hindoos were a people highly civilized, at the time when their laws were composed, is most clearly established by internal evidence contained in the Code itself. Among nations beginning to emerge from barbarism, the regula-

\* Dr. Robertson's Disquisition concerning India, Appendix, p. 262—266.

tions of law are extremely simple, and applicable only to a few obvious cases of daily occurrence. Men must have been long united in a social state, their transactions must have been numerous and complex, and judges must have determined an immense variety of controversies to which these gave rise, before the system of law becomes voluminous and comprehensive. In that early age of the Roman republic, when the laws of the twelve tables were promulgated, nothing more was required than the laconic injunctions which they contain for regulating the decisions of courts of justice; but, in a later period, the body of civil law, ample as its contents are, was found hardly sufficient for that purpose. To the jejune brevity of the twelve tables, the Hindoo code has no resemblance; but with respect to the number and variety of points it considers, it will bear a comparison with the celebrated digest of Justinian; or with the systems of jurisprudence in nations most highly civilised. The articles of which the Hindoo code is composed, are arranged in natural and luminous order. They are numerous and comprehensive, and investigated with all that minute attention and discernment which are natural to a people distinguished for acuteness and subtilty of understanding, who have been long accustomed to the accuracy of judicial proceedings, and acquainted with all the refinements of legal practice. The decisions concerning every point, with a few exceptions occasioned by local prejudices and peculiar customs, are founded upon the great and immutable principles of justice which the human mind acknowledges and respects, in every age, and in all parts of the earth\*.

The Mahometan institutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that state even down to the subtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent; both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each district. The imperial demesne lands are those of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his successors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are bestowed by the crown on the great lords or *omraks*, and upon their death revert to the emperor; but the rights even of the subtenants of those lands are indefeasible.

According to the Gentoo constitution, land (houses and gardens excepted) is not private property, but belongs to the community, in the several villages; which are supplied with their respective public officers, as the headman, to execute justice; the conicopoly, to keep the accounts of the village; the corn-meter, smith, barber, doctor, astrologer, &c. The grounds are cultivated by the community, and the produce shared out in certain proportions to all. One is allotted to the pagodas and Bramins, one to the government, another to the public officers, one to the repair of tanks, or reservoirs of water, and the rest distributed among the community; but we understand that the Mahometan government, and the intrusion of Europeans, have introduced some innovations in this ancient constitution, particularly, by farming the circar, or government shares.

[LITERATURE.] The evidence which we have of the literature of the Indians is rendered more interesting by being derived from a source of knowledge which the laudable curiosity of our countrymen has opened to the people of Europe within these few years. That all the science and literature possessed by the Bramins, were contained in books written in a language understood by a few only of the most learned among them, is a fact which has long been known; and all the Europeans settled in India during three centuries, have complained that the Bramins obstinately refused to instruct any person in this language. But at length, by address, mild treatment, and a persuasion that the earnestness with which

\* Dr. Robertson's Disquisition, Appendix, p. 270—275.

instruction was solicited, proceeded not from any intention of turning their religion into derision, but from a desire of acquiring a perfect knowledge of their sciences and literature, their scruples have been overcome. Several British gentlemen are now completely masters of the Shanskrete language; and in the course of five years, the curiosity of the public has been gratified by two publications, as singular as they were unexpected. The one is a translation, by Mr. Wilkins, of an Episode from the *Mahabarat*, an epic poem, in high estimation among the Hindoos, composed, according to their account, by Kreefna Dwypayen Veias, the most eminent of their Bramins, above three thousand years before the Christian era. The other is *Sacontala*, a dramatic poem, written about a century before the birth of Christ, translated by sir William Jones.

The *Mahabarat* is a voluminous poem, consisting of upwards of four hundred thousand lines. Mr. Wilkins has translated more than a third of it; but only a short episode, entitled *Baghvat-Geeta*, is hitherto published, and from this specimen we must form an opinion with respect to the whole. The subject of the poem is a famous civil war between two branches of the royal house of Bhaurat. When the forces on each side were formed in the field, and ready to decide the contest by the sword, Arjoon, the favourite and pupil of the god Kreefna, who accompanied him in this hour of danger, requested of him to cause his chariot to advance between the two hostile armies. He looked at both armies, and beheld, on either side, none but grandfathers, uncles, cousins, tutors, sons and brothers, near relations or bosom friends: and when he had gazed for a while, and saw these prepared for the fight, he was seized with extreme pity and compunction, and uttered his sorrows in the following words:—"Having beheld, O *Kreefna*! my kindred thus waiting anxious for the fight, my members fail me, my countenance withereth, the hair standeth an end upon my body, and all my frame trembleth with horror! Even *Gandeev*, my bow, escapeth from my hand, and my skin is parched and dried up.—When I have destroyed my kindred, shall I longer look for happiness? I wish not for victory, *Kreefna*; I want not dominion; I want not pleasure; for what is dominion, and the enjoyments of life, or even life itself, when those to whom dominion, pleasure and enjoyment were to be coveted, have abandoned life and fortune, and stand here in the field ready for the battle. Tutors, sons and fathers, grandfathers and grandsons, uncles, nephews, cousins, kindred, and friends! although they would kill me, I wish not to fight them; no not even for the dominion of the three regions of the universe, much less for this little earth\*."

The drama of *Sacontala* must be deemed a great literary curiosity; but from this the nature of our present work will not permit us to give any extract. We shall therefore refer our curious readers either to the translation above mentioned, or to several quotations from it, which he will find in Dr. Robertson's elegant Appendix on the manners and institutions of the people of India; to which we shall add one remark, namely, that it is only to nations considerably advanced in refinement, that the drama is a favourite entertainment. The Greeks had been for a good time a polished people; *Alcæus* and *Sappho* had composed their odes, and *Thales* and *Anaximander* had opened their schools, before tragedy made its first rude effort in the cart of *Thespis*; and a good time elapsed before it attained to any considerable degree of excellence. From the drama of *Sacontala*, then, we must form an advantageous idea of the state of improvement in that society to whose taste it was suited.

Besides the two works that have been already mentioned, we shall enumerate some other pieces which have been translated from the Shanskrete language.—1. To

\* *Baghvat Geeta*, p. 30, 31.

Mr. Wilkins we are indebted for *Hæto-pades*, or *Amicable Instruction*, in a series of connected fables, interspersed with moral, prudential, and political maxims.—2. In the first Number of the *New Asiatic Miscellany*, we have a translation of a celebrated composition in the East, known by the title of the *Five Gems*. It consists of stanzas by five poets, who attended the court of Abisfura, king of Bengal. Some of these stanzas are simple and elegant.—3. An Ode translated from Wulli; in which that extravagance of fancy, and those far-fetched and unnatural conceits, which so often disgust Europeans with the poetical compositions of the East, abound too much.—4. Some original grants of land, of very ancient dates, translated by Mr. Wilkins. It may seem odd, that a charter of legal conveyance of property should be ranked among the literary compositions of any people. But so widely do the manners of the Hindoos differ from those of Europe, that as our lawyers multiply words and clauses, in order to render a grant complete, and to guard against every thing that may invalidate it, the *Pundits* seem to dispatch the legal part of the deed with brevity, but, in a long preamble and conclusion, make an extraordinary display of their own learning, eloquence, and powers of composition, both in prose and in verse. The preamble to one of these deeds is an encomium of the monarch who grants the land, in a bold strain of eastern exaggeration: "When his innumerable army marched, the heavens were so filled with the dust of their feet, that the birds of the air could rest upon it. His elephants moved like walking mountains, and the earth, oppressed by their weight, mouldered into dust."—5. The translation of part of the *Shaster*, published by colonel Dow, in the year 1768: taken from the mouth of a Bramin, who explained the *Shaster* in Persian, and the vulgar language of Bengal.

COMMERCE.] In every age, it has been a commerce of luxury rather than of necessity, which has been carried on between Europe and India. Its elegant manufactures, spices, and precious stones, are neither objects of desire to nations of simple manners, nor are such nations possessed of wealth sufficient to purchase them. The three great articles of general importation from India were spices and aromatics, precious stones and pearls, and silk.—1. Spices and aromatics. From the mode of religious worship in the heathen world; from the incredible number of the deities, and of the temples consecrated to them; the consumption of frankincense and other aromatics, which were used in every sacred function, must have been very great: but the vanity of men occasioned a greater consumption of these fragrant substances than their piety. It was the custom of the Romans to burn the bodies of their dead; and they deemed it a display of magnificence to cover, not only the body, but the funeral pile on which it was laid, with the most costly spices.—2. Precious stones, together with which pearls may be classed, seem to be the article next in value imported from the East.—3. Another production of India in great demand at Rome, was silk.

In two particulars, however, our importations from India differ greatly from those of the ancients. The dress, both of the Greeks and Romans, was almost entirely woollen, which, by their frequent use of the warm bath, was rendered abundantly comfortable. Their consumption of linen and cotton cloths was much inferior to that of modern times, when these are worn by persons in every rank of life. Accordingly a great branch of modern importation from that part of India with which the ancients were acquainted, consists in *piece-goods*; comprehending under that mercantile term, the immense variety of fabrics which Indian ingenuity has formed of cotton. Besides these, we import, to a considerable extent, various commodities, which are to be considered merely as the materials of our domestic manufactures. Such are the cotton-wool of Indostan, the silk of China, and the salt-petre of Bengal.

We have already given the outlines of the government by which this great empire long subsisted, without almost the semblance of virtue among its great officers, either civil or military. It was shaken, however, after the overthrow of Mahomet Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by so great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the soubahs and nabobs became absolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies and support their power; so that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-masters, were left to perish through want. To sum up the misery of the inhabitants, those soubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the Gentoos themselves, and some even of the Bramins, as the ministers of their rapaciousness and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever since the invasion of Kouli Khan, Indostan, from being a well regulated government, became a scene of mere anarchy or stratoeracy; every great man protecting himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeded the natural riches of his government. As private assassinations and other murders were here committed with impunity, the people, who knew they could not be in a worse state, concerned themselves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above causes are owing the late successes of the English in Indostan. The reader, from this representation, may perceive, that all the English have acquired in point of territory, has been gained from usurpers and robbers; and their possession of it being guaranteed by the present lawful emperor, is thus founded upon the laws and constitutions of that country.

The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES, called the  
FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000	} between { 1 and 30 north latitude.	} 741,500
Breadth 1000		

**BOUNDARIES.]** THIS peninsula is bounded by Thibet and China, on the North; by China and the Chinese sea, on the East; by the same sea and the Straits of Malacca, on the South; and by the Bay of Bengal and the Hither India, on the West. The space between Bengal and China is now called the province of Mecklus, and with other districts, is subject to the king of Ava or Burmah.

Grand Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
On the north-west	{ Achem	{ Camdara	} 180,000
	{ Ava	{ Ava	
	{ Arracan	{ Arracan	
On the south-west	{ Pegu	{ Pegu, E. lon. 97. N. lat. 17-30	} 50,000
	{ Martaban	{ Martaban	
	{ Siazl	{ Siam, E. lon. 100. 55. N. lat. 14. 18.	
On the north-east	{ Malacca	{ Malacca, E. lon. 101. N. lat. 2. 12.	} 170,000
	{ Tonquin	{ Cachao, or Keccio, E. lon. 105. N. lat. 21-30.	
	{ Laos	{ Lanchang	
On the south-east	{ Cochin China	{ Thoanoa	} 61,900
	{ Cambodia	{ Kambodia	
	{ Chiampa	{ Padram	
			} 60,200
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**NAME.]** The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was best known to the Persians. The whole of this peninsula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly so to the moderns.

**AIR AND CLIMATE.]** The air of the southern parts is hot and dry, but in some places moist and consequently unhealthy. The climate is subject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, so that the people build their houses upon high pillars to defend them from floods; and they have no other idea of seasons, but wet and dry. Easterly and Westerly *monsoons*, or trade-winds, prevail in this country.

**MOUNTAINS.]** These run from North to South almost the whole length of the country; but the lands near the sea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy season.

**RIVERS.]** The chief are Sanpoo \* or Burrampooter † Domea, Mecon, Menan and Ava, or the great river Nau Kian.

Of these the Burrampooter, called Sanpoo, in the upper part of its course, is by far the most considerable. This rival sister of the Ganges issues from the same mountains; but taking a contrary, i. e. an easterly direction through Thibet, winds to the south-west through Assam, and entering Indostan, flows to the south, assumes the name of Megna, and joins the western branch of the Ganges with an immense body of water, equal if not superior to the Ganges itself.

These two noble rivers, when they approach the sea, divide into such a multitude of channels; and receive such a number of navigable streams, that a tract of country, nearly equal to Great Britain in extent, enjoys by their means an inland navigation which gives constant employment to 30,000 boat-men. These channels are so numerous that very few places in that tract are even in the dry season 25 miles from a navigable stream; and in the season of the periodical rains, they overflow their banks to the depth of 30 feet, and form an inundation that fertilizes the soil to the extent of more than 100 miles †.

**BAYS AND STRAITS.]** The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin China. The straits of Malacca and Sineapore. The promontories of Siam and Banca.

**SOIL AND PRODUCT OF THE } DIFFERENT NATIONS. }** The soil of this peninsula is fertile, producing all the delicious fruits that are found in the countries contiguous to the Ganges. Ava affords salt-petre, and the best teek-timber, or Indian-oak, which for ship-building in warm climates is of much longer duration than any European oak. Teek ships of 40 years old are not uncommon in the Indian seas. This peninsula abounds likewise in silks, elephants, and quadrupeds, both domestic and wild, that are common in the southern kingdoms of Asia. The natives carry on a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethysts, and other precious stones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the most healthful country of all the peninsula. In some places, especially towards the north, the inhabitants have swellings in their throats, said to be owing to the badness of the water.

**INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, } AND DIVERSIONS. }** The Tonquinese are excellent mechanics and fair traders; but greatly oppressed by their king and great lords. His majesty engrosses the trade, and his factors sell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquinese are fond of lacker houses, which are unwholesome and poisonous. The people in the south are a savage race, and go almost naked; they wear large silver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or shell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin China, the two sexes are scarcely distinguish-

\* Sanpoo, in the language of Thibet, means *The River*; but it is said to be written in the Shanferit language, *Brahma-pooter*, which signifies *the son of Brahma*. Major Renael's Memoir, 255.

† The orthography of this word, as given here, is according to the common pronunciation in Ben-

gal; but it is said to be written in the Shanferit language, *Brahma-pooter*, which signifies *the son of Brahma*. Major Renael's Memoir, 255.

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} 60,200

NAME.]

able by their dress, which resembles that of the Persians. The people of quality are fond of English broad-cloth, red or green; and others wear a dark-coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is thought one of the best countries in Asia, the inhabitants prefer dogs-flesh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, because the king is sole proprietor of all the gold and silver, and other metals, found in his kingdom. They live, however, very comfortably. Almost every house-keeper has an elephant for the conveniency of his wives and women, polygamy being practised all over India.

It is unquestionable that those Indians, as well as the Chinese, had the use of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; and the invention is generally ascribed to the Azemese. The inhabitants of the southern division of this peninsula go under the name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the superstitions that prevail in this peninsula are extremely gross, yet the people believe in a future state; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and such vessels of gold and silver as they think can be of use to them in their future life. The people in this peninsula are commonly very fond of show, and often make an appearance beyond their circumstances. They are delicate in no part of their dress but in their hair, which they buckle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loathsome; for beside dogs, they eat rats, mice, serpents, and stinking fish. The people of Arracan are indelicate in their amours, and value their women most when in a state of pregnancy. Their treatment of the sick is so inhuman that when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is often exposed on the bank of some river, where he is either drowned, or devoured by birds or beasts of prey. Notwithstanding the great antiquity of most Indian nations, it is confidently asserted, that on the confines of Arracan and Pegu, there is a people (if solitary savages, roaming through woods in quest of prey, deserve the name of people) that appear to be in the very first stage of society. They go absolutely naked, without the smallest covering on any part of their bodies. They live on fruit, which grows spontaneously, in the uncultivated desert they inhabit, in great abundance; and on the flesh of animals, which they tear alive and devour raw. They sit on their hams, with their legs and arms disposed in the manner of monkeys. At the approach of men, they fly into their woods. They take care of their offspring, and live in families, but have no ideas of civil government.

The diversions common in this country are fishing and hunting, celebrating festivals, and acting comedies, by torch-light, from evening to morning.

[LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Persian, but in this peninsula it is chiefly Malayan, interspersed with other dialects.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Bramins, who are the tribe of the priesthood, descend from those Brachmans mentioned with so much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior, either as philosophers, or men of learning, to the reputation of their ancestors, their religious doctrines are still implicitly followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the source of all the knowledge which exists in Indostan. But the utmost stretch of their mathematical knowledge seems to be the calculation of eclipses. They have a good idea of logic; but it does not appear that they have any treatises on rhetoric: their ideas of music, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and in medicine they derive no assistance from the knowledge of anatomy, since dissections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Asiatics is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the diction of their historians verbose: but though the manner of eastern compositions differs from the correct taste of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Asiatic authors

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authors worthy the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow observes, that in the Shanferit, or learned language of the Bramins, which is the grand repository of the religion, philosophy, and history of the Hindoos, there are many hundred volumes in prose which treat of the ancient Indians and their history. The same writer also remarks, that the Shanferit records contain accounts of the affairs of Western Asia, probably more authentic than those given by the Arabians.

No princes in the world ever patronized men of letters with more generosity and respect than the Mahometan emperors of Indostan. A literary genius was not only the certain means to acquire a degree of wealth which must astonish Europeans, but an infallible road for rising to the first offices of the state. The character of the learned was at the same time so sacred, that tyrants, who made a pastime of embracing their hands in the blood of their other subjects, not only abstained from ordering violence to men of genius, but stood in fear of their pens.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] These vary in the different countries of this peninsula; but the chief branches have been already mentioned. The inhabitants, in some parts, are obliged to manufacture their salt out of ashes. In all handicraft trades that they understand, the people are more industrious, and better workmen than most of the Europeans; and in weaving, sewing, embroidering, and some similar employments, it is said that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are unskilful in drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineness of their linen, and the silligree work in gold and silver, are unrivalled. The commerce of India, in short, is courted by all trading nations, and probably has been so from the earliest ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their highest materials of luxury. The greatest share of it is now centered in England, though that of the Dutch is still very considerable; that of the French has for some time declined, nor is that of the Swedes and Danes of much importance.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, } This article is so extensive, that it requires  
RARIETIES, AND CITIES. } a slight review of the kingdoms that form

this peninsula. In Azen, it hath been already observed, the king is proprietor of all the gold and silver; he pays little or nothing to the Great Mogul; his capital is Ghergong or Kirganu. We know little or nothing of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was anciently subject to the kings of Arracan; and that they send to the Chinese gold and silk, for which they receive silver in return. Arracan lies to the south of Tipra, and is governed by twelve princes, subject to the chief king, who resides in his capital. His palace is very large, and contains, as we are told, seven idols each in gold of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered over with diamonds and other precious stones. Pegu is about 350 English miles in length, and nearly as much in breadth. The riches of the kingdom, when an independent state, were almost incredible; some idols, as big as life, being of massy gold and silver. The king's revenues arose from the rents of lands, of which he was sole proprietor, and from duties on merchandise; so that some thought him the richest monarch in the world, except the Chinese emperor. He was said to be able to bring a million, and on occasion a million and a half, of soldiers to the field, well clothed and armed; and to be master of 800 trained elephants, each with a castle on his back holding four soldiers. The constitution of this empire is of the feudal kind, for the prince assigns lands and towns to his nobles upon military tenures. In the year 1754, Pegu was reduced to the state of a dependent province by the king of Ava. Macao is the great mart of trade in that province.

We know little of the kingdom of Ava. Monchaboo was the residence of the king, and not Ava, in 1755. It is said, the honours the king assumes are next to China. His subjects trade chiefly in musk and jewels, rubies, and sapphires. In other particulars, the inhabitants resemble those of Pegu. In those kingdoms, and indeed

in the greatest part of this peninsula, the doctrines of the Grand Lama of Thibet prevail, as well as those of the Bramins.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos, formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay, but that is now subject to Ava; we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is said to be immensely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the gross superstitions of the east, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one sovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is absolutely despotic, and lives in inexpressible pomp and magnificence; but is of the Lama religion, and often the slave of his priests and ministers.

The kingdom of Siam is rich and flourishing, and approaches, in its government, policy, and the acuteness of its inhabitants, very nearly to the fame of China. The kingdom of Siam is surrounded by high mountains, which on the east side separate it from the kingdoms of Camboja and Laos; on the west, from Pegu; and on the north, from Ava, or, more properly, from Jangoma; on the south it is washed by the river Siam, and joins the peninsula of Malacca, the north-west part whereof is under its dominion. The extent of the country, however, is very uncertain, and it is but indifferently peopled. The inhabitants of both sexes are distinguished by their modesty. Great care is taken of the education of children. Marriages are simple, and performed by talapoins, or priests, sprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating some prayers. The government is despotic; servants must appear before their masters in a kneeling posture; and the mandarins are prostrate before the king. Siam, the capital, is represented as a large city, but scarcely a sixth part of it inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bangkok, which stands about 18 leagues to the south of Siam, and 12 miles from the sea, is the only place towards the coast that is fortified with walls, batteries, and brass cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which stands on the east side of the peninsula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninsula of Malacca is a large country, and contains several kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are said to be real masters and sovereigns of the whole peninsula, being in possession of the capital (Malacca). The inhabitants are simple, or rather gross, in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the purest of any spoken in all the Indies. We are told by the latest travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants' teeth, canes, and gums. The excellent situation of this country admits of a trade with India; so when it was first discovered by the Portuguese, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richest city in the east, next to Goa and Ormus being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade; of which the most valuable is that with the Chinese. This degeneracy of the Malaysians, who were formerly an industrious and ingenious people, is easily accounted for by the tyranny of the Dutch, whose interest it is that they should never recover from their present state of ignorance and slavery.

The English carry on a smuggling trade in their country ships, from the coast of Coromandel and the Bay of Bengal, to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council, who little regard the orders of their superiors, provided they can enrich themselves.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but, according to the best information, its greatest length, from north to south, is about 520 English miles; and its greatest breadth, from west to east, about 398. This kingdom has a spacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the country, on account of its saltry air, and the pestiferous gnats, serpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its soil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by sea and land, are much the same with those of the other kingdoms

kingdoms of this vast peninsula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour, and, as they say, an excellent remedy for all those diseases that are common to the inhabitants of the East Indies, is the highest luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peasant; but is very unpalatable and disagreeable to the Europeans. Between Cambodia and Cochin China lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which are said to have gained in civility by their commercial intercourse with the Chinese.

Cochin-China, or the western China, is situated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to some authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much less extensive in its breadth from east to west. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as some other smaller kingdoms, are tributary to Cochin-China, whose king is said to be immensely rich, his kingdom enjoying all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the East Indies; but this mighty prince, as well as the king of Tonquin, are subject to the Chinese emperor.

The government of Tonquin is particular. The Tonquinese had revolted from the Chinese, which occasioned a civil war. A compromise at last took place between the chief of the revolt, and the representative of the ancient kings, by which it was agreed that the former should have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of the Chouah; but that the Bua, or king by birth, should retain the royal titles, and enjoy customary honours within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can stir without the permission of the chouah.

The chouah resides generally in the capital, Cachao, which is situated near the centre of the kingdom. The Bua's palace is a vast structure, and has a fine arsenal. The English have a very flourishing factory on the north-side of the city.

## INDIA within the GANGES, or the Empire of the GREAT MOGUL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT; including the Peninsula west of the Ganges.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	2000	between { 7 and 40 north latitude, 66 and 92 east longitude. }	870,910.
Breadth	1500		

BOUNDARIES.] THIS empire is bounded by Usbec Tartary and Thibet, on the North; by Thibet and the Bay of Bengal, on the East; by the Indian Ocean, on the South; by the same and Persia, on the West. The main land being the Mogul empire, or Indostan, properly so called.

Grand Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The north-east division of India, containing the provinces of Bengal, on the mouths of the Ganges and those of the mountains of Naugracut,	Bengal Proper	Culcutta Fort William } English Hoogly } Dacca }
		Malda, English and Dutch
		Chatigan
		Cassumbazar
		Naugracut
		Raiaipour
		Patna
	Necbal	
	Gore	
	Rotas	

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Grand Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The north-west division on the frontiers of Persia, and on the river of Indus,	Soret - - -	Jaganal
	Jesselmere - - -	Jesselmere
	Tata, or Sinda - - -	Tata
	Bucknor - - -	Bucknor
	Moultan - - -	Moultan
	Haican - - -	Haican
	Cabul - - -	Cabul
	Candith - - -	Medipour
	Berar - - -	Berar
	Chitor - - -	Chitor
	Ratipor - - -	Ratipor
The middle division,	Navar - - -	Navar
	Gualcor - - -	Gualcor
	Agra * - - -	Agra
	Delhi - - -	DELHI, E. lon. 77-40. N. lat. 28-40.
	Lahor, or Peneah	Lahor
	Hendowns - - -	Hendowns
	Cashmere - - -	Cashmere
	Jengapour - - -	Jengapour
	Afiner, or Bando	Afiner.

The British nation possesses in full sovereignty the whole soubah of Bengal, and the greatest part of Bahar. In Orissa, or Orisa, only the districts of Midnapour. The whole of the British possessions, before the termination of the late war in India, were, according to Major Rennel †, computed to be 182,122 square miles ‡, containing nearly eleven millions of people; the total net revenue, including Benares, was about 287 lacks of Sicca rupees, which may be reckoned equal to 3,050,000l. But a considerable addition, both to the territory and revenue of the East India company, was obtained by the cession in the late treaty of peace with Tippoo Sultan, to the amount of 15,374 square miles, affording a revenue of 13,16,765 Koontary pagodas §: equal to 411,450l. ¶ With their allies and tributaries, they now occupy the whole navigable course of the Ganges, from its entry on the plains to the sea, which, by its winding course, is more than 1350 miles.

**AIR AND SEASONS.]** The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes; and in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands, and let them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable. The English, and Europeans in general, who arrive at Indostan, are commonly seized with some illness, such as flux or fever in their different appearances; but when properly treated, especially if the patients are abstemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

**MOUNTAINS.]** The most remarkable mountains are those of Caucasus and Naugraut, which divide India from Persia, Ulbec Tartary, and Thibet, and are inhabited by Mahrattas, Afghans, or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos.

\* The eastern part Agra, between the Ganges and Jumna, is called the Dakh, or country between the two rivers.

† Rennel's Memoir of his Map of Hindostan, Introduction, p. cxiii.

‡ This is 30,000 more than are contained in Great Britain and Ireland.

§ Rennel's Memoir of his Map of the Peninsula of India, p. 34.

¶ Ibid. p. 35.

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The mountains named the Ghauts, Gattes, or INDIAN APENNINE, and which extend from Cape Comorin to the Tapti, or Surat river, are also called *Balla-Ghaut*, throughout their whole extent: meaning, literally, the *higher or upper Ghauts* \*. In the peninsula within the Ganges, this term is applied in contradistinction to Paven-Ghaut, or the *lower-Ghauts*: but in the Deccan, it appears to be used only as a proper name, and not as a correlative; we having never heard of the Deccan, Puyen-Ghaut.

That vast chain of mountains is frequently in sight from the western sea at the distance of, from twenty, and less, to sixty miles: the country in general between the sea and the Ghauts is hilly: above the Ghauts it is called the table land, but must not be understood as a level flat country; on the contrary, many parts of it are very mountainous. If the table land, or upper country, is supposed to be level, it is evident there must be an abrupt descent to the eastward, proportionate to the elevation of the western range: this, however, is not the case, as the surface of the land declines to the eastward, which is proved by the rivers, with partial exceptions, all taking that direction.

Major Rennell, with happy boldness, calls the upper country an inclined plane; the inclination of the plane is, however, very trifling, and is interrupted by ranges of hills of abrupt descent, running parallel with the western range:—how many there may be, cannot, perhaps, from their irregularity, be ascertained. As the Ghauts themselves are not interrupted, major Rennell informs us (*Memoirs*, p. 276.) there is a break in their continuity opposite Paniany; so these inferior Ghauts, in some places, admit rivers to wind through them; in others they are precipitated from the upper country to the lower.

A traveller journeying, let us suppose, from Masulipatam to Goa, would have to ascend the whole way from the eastern sea to the western Ghauts; sometimes by gentle acclivities, sometimes by abrupt ranges; then to descend the Ghauts abruptly, and by a gentle declivity reach the western shore: this will be farther explained by an account of the cataract to the westward of Coceuk †.

The famous Appennine, which marks, with more precision perhaps than any other boundary whatever, the line of summer and winter, or rather of dry and wet, extends 13 degrees of latitude: that is, from Cape Comorin to Surat (with the exception of a valley or break in the continuity of the ridge of these mountains, opposite to Paniany) at unequal distances from the coast; seldom more than seventy miles, and commonly about forty; and within one short space only, it approaches within six miles. Although the altitude of these mountains is unknown, yet it is sufficiently great to prevent the great body of clouds from passing over them; and accordingly the alternate N. E. and S. W. winds (called the monsoons) occasion a rainy season on one side of the mountains only; that is, on the windward side. It would appear, however, that clouds enough do pass over, to occasion a rainy season, at a considerable distance to leeward, where those clouds descend; as we may suppose them to do, although at the time they passed over at the Ghauts, they must necessarily have been too high, and of course too light, to condense and fall in rain there. This appears from Lieut. Bwari's account of the weather at Nagpour, in the very centre of India: where the seasons differ but little from their usual course in Bengal, and on the western side of India: that is, the S. W. monsoon occasions a

\* *Gaut*, or *Ghaut*, signifies either a pass through mountains, or landing-place on the bank of a river. In the former sense, the term has been applied to the Carnatic, which is divided

by ridges of mountains abounding with passes and defiles.

† Lieut. Moor's Narrative of the Operations of Capt. Little's Detachment, p. 261.

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rainy season: but the rains are not so violent, nor of such long continuance as in those places. At the mouth of the Godaverry river and its neighbourhood, the S. W. monsoon occasions a rainy season also; and the Godaverry is then swollen and overflows: and this part is about as far to leeward of the Ghauts, as Nagpouree. We may conclude then, that the ridge of the Ghauts shelters a particular tract only; beyond which the light and elevated clouds that pass over it descend in rain. Madras is within the limits of the sheltered tract, though at least three hundred miles to leeward of the Ghauts: Rajamundry (near the mouth of the Godaverry) may be about five hundred. It would be curious to know the exact limit of wet and dry.

Until lately it was a general opinion, that the Ghauts extended from the northern (or Bootan) mountains to Cape Comorin, and occasioned a diversity of seasons, at one and the same time, throughout all India. But the truth is, that different seasons exist at the same moment, only in a part of the peninsula: for the cause ceases in the parallel of Surat; where the S. W. wind, no longer opposed by a wall of mountains, carries its supplies of moisture uninterruptedly both far and near, over the whole face of the country.

RIVERS.] These are the Indus and the Ganges, both of them known to the ancients, and held in the highest esteem, and even veneration, by the modern inhabitants. The Indus is by the natives called Sinde † or Sindoh, and is formed of about ten principal streams which descend from the Persian and Tartarian mountains on the north-east and north-west. From the city of Attock down to Moultan, it is commonly styled the River Attock; below Moultan it is often named the Soor, until it divides itself into many channels near Tatta, where the principal branch takes the name of Mehran. These channels form and intersect a large triangular island, which they fertilize by their periodical inundations. The principal rivers it receives are the Behat, or Hydaspes, and the Hyphasis, which formed the eastern boundary of the conquests of Alexander.

The Ganges ‡, one of the finest rivers of the world, issues from Kentsaile, one of the vast mountains of Thibet, and after a course of about 750 miles, through mountainous regions little known, enters Indostan at the defile of Kupele, supposed by the natives to be its source. From hence this fine river (which is revered by the Hindoos as a deity that is to wash away all their sins) flows through delightful plains, with a smooth navigable stream, from one to three miles wide, during the remainder of its course, which is about 1350 miles, to the bay of Bengal, into which it falls by two larger, and a multitude of lesser channels, that form and intersect a large triangular island, whose base at the sea is near 200 miles in extent. The entire course of the Ganges is 2100 miles, and is to that of the Thames as 9½ to 1. § The navigation of the eastern branch being dangerous, is little frequented. The western branch, called the Little Ganges, or River of Hoogly, is navigable by large ships, and

\* Major Rennell's Memoirs, p. 213, 214.

† The name of Sinde was not unknown to the Romans: *Indus in India Sindus appellatus.* Pliny, Book vi.

‡ The proper name of this river, in the language

of Hindostan (or Indostan), is *Padis*, or *Pakis*. It is also named *Batta Gange*, or the Great River; and *Ganga* the river, by way of eminence; and from this, doubtless, the European names of the River are derived. Rennell's Memoirs, 255.

§ The proportionable lengths of course, of some of the most noted rivers in the world, are shewn nearly by the following numbers:

European rivers	—	}	Thames	—	—	—	—	1
			Rhine	—	—	—	—	54
			Danube	—	—	—	—	7
			Volga	—	—	—	—	9½
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most generally resorted to. The Ganges receives 11 rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, and none inferior to the Thames.

Besides these rivers, many others water this country, as the Belut, or Thylum, (the Hydaspes of Alexander) the Jenau or the ancient Acesines, the Beyah, Setlege, Jamma, and the Rauvee, formerly the Hydraotes, on the south bank of which stands the city of Labor.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] These are the Indian Ocean; the Bay of Bengal, the gulf of Cambaya; the straits of Ramanakool; Capes Comorin and Diu.

INHABITANTS.] To what was said of their religion and sects, in the general review of this great empire, we may add, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahometan mendicants or beggars, who travel about, practising the greatest austerities; but many of them are impostors. Their number is said to be 800,000. Another set of mendicants are the jughis, who are idolaters, and much more numerous, but most of them are vagabonds and impostors, who live by amusing the credulous Gentoo with foolish fictions. The Banians, who are so called from their innocence of life, serve as brokers, and profess the Gentoo religion.

The Parsees are the principal native inhabitants of the island of Bombay, in regard to wealth and numbers; not only the most valuable estates, but a very considerable part of the shipping of the port, belong to them; and no merchants transport their goods in finer ships than the Bombay merchants, not excepting even the honourable East India Company. The reader will have an idea of the commercial opulence of this little island, when he learns, that besides the great number of ships from Europe and America, that yearly clear from the custom house, there are, in carpenters' measurement, belonging to the port and island, 27,500 \* tons of shipping constantly employed trading to every part of Asia, navigated by English officers. Besides this, there are country ships, vessels and boats, to an immense amount in tonnage, going to and fro, between Bombay and the Red Sea, Persian Gulf, &c. &c.

To return to the Parsees—we have observed them as the favourites of fortune; let us add, they are deservedly so, for we find them doing very extensive acts of charity and benevolence. In the Bombay Herald of the 4th October 1790, we read the following paragraph: "We are happy in the opportunity of pointing out the liberality of Soorahjee Muncherjee, whose conduct does honour to humanity: during the present scarcity of provisions, he daily feeds upwards of two thousand people of different casts, at his own expence." Other public instances might be given.

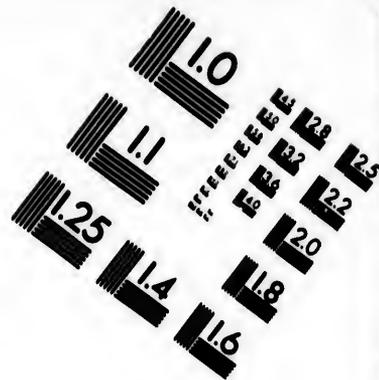
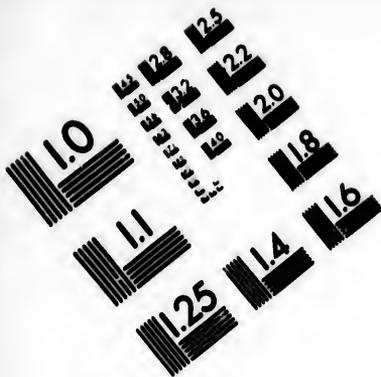
Some of them also have poor Europeans on their pension list, to whom are given a weekly allowance, and food and cloathing. To their private charity and benevolence, they add all the public show and expence necessary to give dignity to their riches. Some of them have two or three country houses furnished in all the ex-

		{ Indus (probably)	—	—	—	6½
		{ Euphrates	—	—	—	8½
		{ Ganges	—	—	—	9½
		{ Burraampooter	—	—	—	9½
		{ Nou Kian, or Ava River	—	—	—	9½
Azatic rivers	—	{ Jenniffa	—	—	—	10
		{ Oby	—	—	—	12½
		{ Amoor	—	—	—	11
		{ Lena	—	—	—	11½
		{ Hoandio (of Givint)	—	—	—	11½
		{ Kian Keu (of ditto)	—	—	—	15½
African rivers	—	{ Nile	—	—	—	12½
American rivers	—	{ Mississippi	—	—	—	8
		{ Amazon	—	—	—	15½

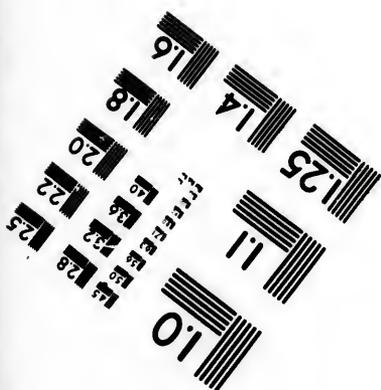
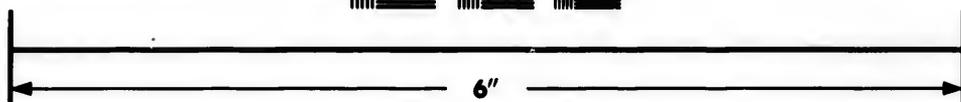
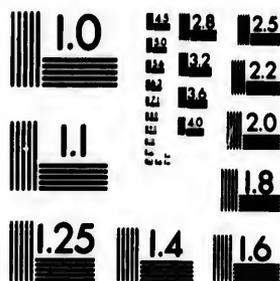
Kennell's Memoir, p. 254.

The tonnage of the port of London is about 178,000 ton } of the merchant ships of Great Britain.  
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travagance of European taste; with elegant and extensive gardens, where European gentlemen are frequently invited; and where they are always welcome to entertain their own private parties, and retire to enjoy the rural pleasures of the country, free from the noise and bustle of a busy dirty town. Parsee merchants give balls, suppers, and entertainments to whole settlements; and some of them ride in English chariots, such as a nobleman in England need not be ashamed to own, drawn by beautiful animals, that every nobleman cannot equal in his stud. The Parsees have been often known to behave to English gentlemen, respecting pecuniary concerns, in a manner highly liberal; and although instances might be given to the contrary, and instances might also be given, where individuals, elated by their riches, have forgotten the respect due to the English, still they are but instances, and are not more reprobated by any than themselves.

A Parsee beggar was never known; and their women, who are as fair as Europeans, are proverbially chaste; so that a harlot is as rare as a beggar. Upon the whole, they are a very handsome race of people.

An inquiry into the history and customs of the Parsees would we think be curious. Their history commences at the period of the troubles caused by the Saracen conquerors of Persia; when, persecuted for their religious opinions, a few Persians took refuge in the isle of Ormus, whence, some time after, they sailed for India, and landed in Gudjraat, where they found an asylum, on condition, that they should reveal the mysteries of their creed, should renounce their own language and dress, that their women should go abroad unveiled, and their nuptials be celebrated in the evening. These restrictions were all complied with, and the Parsees' dress is nearly the same with that of the Hindoos, and they use the nagri character. So far is their own language forgotten, that perhaps there are not ten Parsees, we know not of one on the Island of Bombay, that can speak it.

Tavernier in his *Persian Travels*, p. 163, gives a long account of the Guars, by whom he evidently means this people; but he is so unfortunate as to err notoriously in a number of particulars\*.

**WORSHIP AND FUNERALS OF THE PARSEES.]** They never intermarry, nor have they any public places of prayer; like their progenitors, the puritans of the east, they do not think temples, as places of worship, at all necessary, merely as such: they pray in the open air, and make their protestations to the sun, as the grandest emblem in nature of the Deity, whose temple is the universe, and the all-pervading element of fire, his only symbol.

Most of their original customs are, however, somewhat altered. No one, perhaps, is so singularly curious as their method of sepulture.

The defunct, after lying a proper time in his own house, for the purposes of mourning, is carried, followed by his relations and friends, the females chaunting a requiem, and deposited in a tomb of the following construction. It is a circular building, open at top, about fifty-five feet diameter, and twenty-five in height, filled to within five feet of the top, excepting a well of fifteen feet diameter in the centre. The part so filled, is terraced with a slight declivity toward the well. Two circular grooves, three inches deep, are raised round the well, the first at the distance of four, the second at ten feet from the well. Grooves of the like depth, or height, and four feet distant from each other, at the outer part of the outer circle, are carried straight from the wall to the well, communicating with the circular ones, for the purpose of carrying off the water, &c. The tomb, by this means, is divided into three circles of partitions: the outer about seven feet by four; the middle, six by three; the inner, four by two: the outer for the men, the middle for the women, the inner for the children; in which the bodies are respectively placed, wrapped

\* Lieut. Moor's Narrative of the Operations of Capt. Little's Detachment, p. 383.

loosely in a piece of cloth, and left to be devoured by the vultures; which is very soon done, as numbers of those animals are always seen hovering and watching about these charnel-houses, in expectation of their prey. The friends of the deceased, or the persons who have charge of the tomb, come at the proper time, and throw the bones into their receptacle, the well in the centre; for which purpose iron rakes and tongs are deposited in the tomb. The entrance is closed by an iron door, four feet square, on the eastern side, as high up as the terrace, to which a road is raised. Upon the wall, above the door, an additional wall is raised, to prevent people from looking into the tomb, which the Parsees are particularly careful to prevent. A Persian inscription is on a stone inserted over the door, which we once copied, but have forgotten its tenor. From the bottom of the wall, subterranean passages lead, to receive the bones, &c. and to prevent the well from filling.

Men of great property sometimes do not chuse to be deposited in these indiscriminate receptacles, and cause a small one to be built for their own families. Soorabjee, a rich merchant formerly of Bombay, is laid in a private one in the garden to his house on Malabar Hill; and we understand his tomb is grated over; if so, it is the only one on the island so covered. The public tombs are, we think, five in number, but not now all in use, situated about three miles north-westerly from Bombay fort: the largest (for they are of different sizes) is that here described. We have seen accounts of this custom of the Parsees, and descriptions of their tombs, but never any correct\*.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the sports of the field. They love shady walks and cool fountains, like other people in hot countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous music, both on wind and stringed instruments, and play at cards in their private parties. Their houses are mean, and generally thatched, which renders them subject to fire; but the inside of houses belonging to the principal persons are commonly neat, commodious, and some magnificent.

COMMERCE OF INDOSTAN.] To what has been already given on this article, and the manufactures of India, it may be added, that the Mahometan merchants carry on, in a particular species of vessels called junks, a trade with Mecca, in Arabia, from the western parts of this empire, up the Red Sea. The largest of these junks, besides the cargoes, will carry 1700 Mahometan pilgrims to visit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyssinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they dispose of their cargoes for gold and silver; so that a Mahometan junk returning from this voyage is often worth 200,000.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER } The province of Agra is the largest in all } BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Indostan, containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greatest city, and its castle the largest fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the English have none.

The city of Delhi, which is the capital of that province, is likewise the capital of Indostan. It is described as a fine city, and contains the imperial palace, which is adorned with the usual magnificence of the East. Its stables formerly contained 12,000 horses, brought from Arabia, Persia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the season, these horses are said to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and sugar, and in the evening with rice-milk properly prepared.

Latta, the capital of Sindy, is a large city, in which a plague in 1699 carried off above 80,000 of its manufacturers in silk and cotton. It is still famous for the manufacture of palanquins, a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men

\* Lieut. Moor's Narrative, p. 384.

all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repose when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, 40 miles a day; 10 being usually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at first cost, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten shillings a month each, out of which they maintain themselves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Though the province of Moultan is not very fruitful, yet it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their situation, are enabled to deal with the Persians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horses. The capital is Moultan, about 800 miles, by the course of the river, from the sea.

The province of Cashimere, being surrounded with mountains, is difficult of access, but when entered, it appears to be the paradise of the Indies. It is said to contain 100,000 villages, to be stored with cattle and game, without any beasts of prey. The capital (Cashimere) stands by a large lake; and both sexes, the women especially, are almost as fair as the Europeans; and are said to be witty, dexterous, and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor formerly made a great figure in the Indian history, and is still one of the largest and finest in the Indies, producing the best sugars of any in Indostan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little of the provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, and Hallabas, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who seem never to have been conquered; and though they submit to the Moguls, live in an easy, independent state. In some of those provinces many of the European fruits, plants, and flowers, thrive, as in their native soil.

**BRITISH POWER IN INDIA.]** The relation subsisting between Great Britain and its Asiatic dominions, has been explained under the article of the East India Company of England.

In ancient times, the commerce between Europe and Asia was carried on, partly by land, partly by the course of great rivers and a clogged coasting navigation. The Eastern silks, spices, aromatics, and precious stones, were in the highest estimation among all the nations of antiquity; but the conquests even of Alexander, in India, were limited to the Panjab, while those of the Romans never led their legions beyond the banks of the Euphrates.

At the time when the modern Europeans began to assume a civilized character, they also imbibed a taste for the luxuries of Asia. The ships of the Italian free states, for this end, took up the Indian goods, which by means of caravans and the navigation of rivers had reached the shores of the Mediterranean, and diffused them over the northern kingdoms of Europe.

Towards the close of the sixteenth century, the minds of the Europeans, in general, began to take an adventurous turn. This bias was strengthened by the discoveries which had been made in those natural sciences that are subservient to the useful arts, and it terminated in exciting a general desire to make discoveries and to encourage trade.

In this new and bold career, Spain and Portugal unexpectedly took the lead: both courts patronized schemes for exploring, not only those parts of the world which hitherto had been concealed from the Europeans, but for finding out tracts, which should be better suited to the purposes of trade, than those which had hitherto been pursued.

Under this impression, Columbus sought a new route to the East-Indies; but, by an accident, was driven to the continent of America, there to rear a new pillar of the world, on which the crown of Spain was to lean.

Vasco de Gama, soon afterwards, on the original plan of Columbus, of finding a passage

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a passage to the countries in the East which had been described by Marco Polo, doubled the Cape of Good-Hope; sailed along the coast of Africa, and reached the great peninsula of Asia. Gama, by this discovery, gave to Portugal a trade, more valuable than that which Columbus had conferred on Spain, though he could not annex to his country, either territories so extensive, or a trade so immediately productive.

The Dutch had already thrown off their dependence on the crown of Spain, and were struggling to establish their civil and religious freedom. These new republicans had motives to industry of every kind; they possessed a country which did not afford provisions for a third part of its inhabitants, and they had no other resource, but in their industry and maritime skill. Patient in their tempers and persevering in their purposes, trained too in a country, where navigation, if not the only, was certainly the principal pursuit; they caught, at once, the spirit of enterprize, because it promised them, at the same time, power and ample gain. For these purposes they sent their armed ships to the east, established factories, became the rivals and supplanters of the power and influence of the Portuguese, and, at last, erected their several, but connected, East India companies.

The English nation had, during these events, neither been insensible to the value of this commercial object, nor slow in its efforts to extend its trade and navigation; possessed of more national ardour, and yet equally persevering with the Dutch; emerging too from civil and religious thralldom, it determined to participate with the Portuguese and Dutch commercial adventurers, in the profits of the trade to the East Indies. In consequence of the wise measures adopted by those who governed the affairs of India, the administration of our possessions and trade there has become regular and efficient; the credit of our East India Company has increased; the price of India stock risen higher than the most sanguine of the proprietors could have expected; the trade of the Company has been almost doubled; tranquillity for a course of years maintained; and a war, not less necessary than politic, supported with dignity, and happily terminated with success and honour.

As Mr. Dundas's late bill is to be henceforth the great regulator of our Indian concerns (see page 248), the reader will be pleased to find the following abridgement of that most beneficial act:

[THE CONTROUL AT HOME.] The act provides for the continuation of the board of controul for the affairs of India in all its parts, except that, instead of the secretary of state being the president, the person first named in the king's commission is to be the president; and, instead of the commission being limited to six privy counsellors, the number is indefinite, resting on the king's pleasure; of which, however, the two principal secretaries of state and the chancellor of the exchequer are to be three: and his majesty may, if he pleases, add to the list two commissioners, who are not of his privy council.

By the former act, no salaries were given to the commissioners for India; and those of their secretary and other officers were to be paid out of the civil list. By the new act, the king may give 5,000*l.* a year amongst such of the commissioners as he pleases; which, together with the salaries of the secretary and officers, and other expences of the board, are to be paid by the India company, and not by the civil list. The whole is not to exceed 16,000*l.* a year, the commissioners' salaries included.

[THE GOVERNMENTS ABROAD.] The present forms of government over the presidencies of Bengal, Fort St. George, and Madras, are continued in all their essential parts. For Bengal, by a governor general and three members of council. For each of the others, a governor and three members. These latter, in respect to treaties with the native powers of India, levying war, making peace, collecting

and

and applying revenues, levying and employing forces, or other matters of civil or military government, are to be under the controul of the *government general* of Bengal; and are, in all cases whatever, to obey its orders, unless the directors shall have sent to those settlements any orders repugnant thereto, not known to the *government general*; of which, in that case, they are to give the *government general* immediate advice.

The court of directors are to appoint to these several governments; namely, the *governor general*, the two other *governors*, and the members of all the councils, and likewise the *commander in chief* of all the forces, and the three provincial *commanders in chief*. None of the *commanders in chief* are, *ex officio*, to be of the council; but they are not disqualified from being so if the directors shall think fit to appoint them, and, when they are members of the council, they are to have precedence of the other counsellors. The civil members of council are to be appointed from the list of civil servants, who have resided twelve years in the service in India.

[PATRONAGE AND RULE OF PROMOTION.] The directors are to appoint to many cadets and writers only, as to supply vacancies according to returns from abroad. Their ages shall not be under fifteen, nor exceed twenty-two, unless any cadet shall have been one year in the king's service, and then his age is not to exceed twenty-five years. All shall have promotion by seniority of service only. Three years service qualifies a civil servant for a place of 500l. a year; six years for one of 1,500l. nine years, 3000l. twelve years, 4000l. a year or upwards. None to take two offices, where the joint emoluments shall exceed this rule. All collectors of the revenue are to take the oath prescribed in the act against the acceptance of presents, and for faithfully rendering to the company all they shall receive.

[THE TRADE.] The company's term is extended for 20 years, from the 1st of March 1794; subject to be determined at, or after that period, on three years previous notice by parliament, signified by the speaker of the house of commons; subject, however, as to the trade to and from *India*, to the following limitations in favour of such private merchants as may choose to trade thither. In other respects, and to and from *China* and other places beyond the Cape of Good Hope, the former restrictions against private traders are continued in force; and if the exclusive trade thus limited, shall be hereafter discontinued, the company are still to retain their corporate capacity, with power to trade with a joint stock in common with other people. If, however, any new settlement shall be obtained from the Chinese government separate from the continent of Asia, an export trade thither is reserved to private merchants, under certain conditions and regulations; and there is also a clause to preserve the southern whalers in the benefit of their carrying trade into the Pacific Ocean, by the way of Cape Horn, to the northward of the equator, limited to 180 degrees west longitude from London; and ships from Nootka Sound are to be licensed to trade from thence with Japan and China, but are not to bring any goods of the produce or manufacture of those countries to Great Britain.

[LIMITATIONS ON THE EXCLUSIVE TRADE TO AND FROM INDIA.] All persons may export and import goods to and from India in the company's ships, except that they shall not export military stores ammunition, masts, spars, cordage, anchors, pitch, tar, or copper; nor import India calicoes dimities, mullins, or other piece goods, made or manufactured with silk or cotton, or with silk or cotton mixed, or with other mixed materials, unless it be done by leave of the company. If the market shall not be sufficiently supplied with the excepted articles of import or export, with an exception of military stores and copper, the board of controul may

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open that trade also to individuals. If the company should not export 1500 tons of copper annually, private traders may export copper in the company's ships, to the amount of the deficiency.

The company are to furnish private traders, till 1796, with 3000 tons of shipping yearly, computed on the same principle as the company's own tonnage is computed. The quantity may be increased by order of the board of controul, to meet the demands of the private traders; and if the board order more than the company approve, they may appeal from the order to the king in council. And the company are restricted from charging any higher freight than 5l. per ton outwards, and 15l. per ton inwards, except in time of war, or in circumstances incidental to war, or preparations for war, when they may charge an increased rate of freight, in a due proportion to the rates at which they shall take up their own shipping, but the proposed increase can only be made by the consent of the India board, before whom the directors are also required, in 1794, and in every third year afterwards, to lay a statement of the affairs of shipping, and to abide by their order, touching any continuance, increase, or abatement of the rate of freight on private trade.

Private traders are required to notify to the company's secretary at home, and to the proper officers in India, at a time limited, the quantity of tonnage wanted by them for the ensuing season, with the place of destination, and the time when the goods will be ready for shipping. At home, this notice is to be given before the 31st August for the ships of the ensuing season; and before the 15th September, they are to deposit the sum for the tonnage, or give security to the directors for payment of it. Before the 30th of October, they are to deliver a list of the sorts and quantities of the goods intended to be sent. In failure of having them ready by the day specified in the notice, they are to forfeit their deposit, or the security, and also their tonnage for that turn. Similar rules are prescribed for shipping, &c. goods in India; but it is left to the governments there to fix the times, and to name the officers, to whom notices are to be given. The company is to have the benefit of all forfeited and vacant tonnage, and if more is demanded for private trade than the quantity limited, every person is to have his due proportion; and notice is to be given him thereof, seven days before the day for making the deposits. All private trade is to be registered in the company's books, and in default of being registered, it is to be considered as illicit trade, and punishable accordingly.

APPROPRIATIONS.] First, *in India*. The territorial revenues are to be applied, in the first place, in defraying all charges of a military nature. Secondly; in payment of the interest of the debts there already, or hereafter to be incurred. Thirdly; in payment of the civil and commercial establishments. Fourthly; in payments of not less than one million per annum for the company's investments of goods to Europe, and remittances and investments to China; and the surplus, if any shall remain, is to be applied in the discharge of debts, or such other purposes as shall be directed from home.

Secondly, *at Home*. The net produce of the company's funds at home, after payment of current charges, are thus appropriated: First; in payment of a ten per cent. annual dividend, on the present or any increased amount of the capital stock of the company. Secondly; of 500,000l. per annum to be set apart on the first March and the first September, half yearly; and applied in the discharge of the before-mentioned bills of exchange, for the aforesaid reduction of the India debt. Thirdly; of a like annual sum of 500,000l to the exchequer, to be applied by parliament for the use of the public, and to be paid on the 1st of January

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ary and first of July, half yearly, by equal instalments. And, lastly, the surplus may be applied in the more speedy reduction of the India debt, till reduced to two millions; or in discharging debts at home, so as not to diminish the bond debt below 1,500,000l.

Bengal of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the most interesting to an English reader. Its natural situation, (as described by Major Rennel, late surveyor general in Bengal) is singularly happy with respect to security from the attack of foreign enemies. On the north and east it hath no warlike neighbours, and hath moreover a formidable barrier of mountains, rivers, or extensive wastes towards those quarters, should an enemy start up. On the south is a sea-coast guarded by shallows and impenetrable woods, and with only one port, which is of difficult access, in an extent of 300 miles. Only on the west can an enemy be apprehended: but there the natural barrier is strong; and with its population and resources, and the usual proportion of British troops, Bengal might bid defiance to any power of Indostan. It is the store-house of the East Indies, and, in fertility, exceeds Egypt. The produce of its soil consists of rice, sugar-canes, corn, sesamum, small mulberry and other trees; besides callicoes, silk, salt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, are sent to the most distant countries. Provisions are incredibly cheap, especially pullets, ducks, and geese. The country is intersected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce; and extends near 100 leagues on both sides that noble river, full of cities, towns, villages, and castles.

In Bengal, the worship of the Gentoos is practised in its greatest purity; and their sacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with magnificent pagodas or temples.

Generally speaking, the description of one Indian city is a description of all; being all built on one plan, with exceeding narrow, confined, and crooked streets; with an incredible number of reservoirs, ponds, and gardens. A few of the streets are paved with brick. The houses are variously built: some of brick, others with mud, and a still greater proportion with bamboos, and mats: which standing intermixed with each other, form a motley appearance. The bamboo houses are invariably of one story, and covered with thatch. Those of brick seldom exceed two floors, and have flat, terraced roofs, but are often so thinly scattered, that fires, which often happen, do not sometimes meet with the obstruction of a brick house through a whole street.

Calcutta is in part an exception to this rule of building, the quarter inhabited by the English being composed entirely of brick-buildings, many of which have more the appearance of palaces than of private houses; but the remainder of the city, and by much the greatest part, is built according to the general description of Indian cities. Within 20 or 25 years, Calcutta has been wonderfully improved, both in appearance and in the salubrity of its air; for the streets have been properly drained, and the ponds filled up; thereby removing a vast surface of stagnant water, the exhalations from which were particularly hurtful. Calcutta is well known to be the emporium of Bengal, and the seat of the governor-general of India. It is supposed at present to contain, at least, 500,000 inhabitants. Its local situation is not fortunate; for it has some extensive muddy lakes, and a vast forest, close to it. It is a modern city, having risen on the site of the village of Govind-pour, about 90 years ago\*.

It is about 100 miles from the sea, situate on the western branch of the Ganges, which is navigable up to the town, for the largest ships that visit India.

The city of CALCUTTA extends from the western point of Fort William, along

\* Rennel's Memoir of his Map of Indostan, p. 58, 59.

the banks of the river, almost to the village of Cossipoor: that is about four and a half English miles. The breadth in many parts is inconsiderable. The streets are broad; the line of buildings, surrounding two sides of the esplanade of the fort, is magnificent; and it adds greatly to the superb appearance, that the houses are detached from each other, and insulated in a great space. The buildings are all on a large scale, from the necessity of having a free circulation of air, in a climate, the heat of which is extreme. The general approach to the houses is by a flight of steps, with great projecting porticoes, or surrounded by colonnades or arcades, which give them the appearance of Grecian temples; and indeed every house may be considered as a temple dedicated to hospitality.

CALCUTTA, from a small and inconsiderable fort, which yet remains (and in which is the famous black-hole, so fatal to many of our countrymen in 1756), and a few warehouses, was soon raised to a great and opulent city, when the government of the kingdom of Bengal fell into the hands of the English. For its magnificence, however, it is indebted solely to the liberal spirit and excellent taste of the late governor general; and it must be confessed, that the first house was raised by Mr. Hastings which deserves the name of a piece of architecture: in fact it is even in a purer style than any that has been built since, although it is on a smaller scale than many others.

The mixture of European and Asiatic manners, which may be observed in Calcutta, is curious—conches, phaetons, single-horse chaises, with the pallankeens and hackeries of the natives—the passing ceremonies of the Hindoos—the different appearances of the fakirs—form a sight perhaps more novel and extraordinary than any city in the world can present to a stranger\*.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta. The nabob or soubah quarrelled with the company, and invested Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor, and some of the principal persons of the place, threw themselves, with their chief effects, on board the ships in the river: they who remained, for some hours, bravely defended the place; but their ammunition being expended, they surrendered upon terms. The soubah, a capricious tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governor's chief servant, and 145 British subjects, into a little but secure prison, called the Black-hole, a place about eighteen feet square, and shut up from almost all communication of free air. Their miseries during the night were inexpressible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrensy. Among those saved, was Mr. Holwell himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe. The insensible nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had rooted the English out of his dominions; but the seasonable arrival of admiral Watson, and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with some difficulty, in possession of the place; and the war was soon concluded by the battle of Plassy, gained by the colonel, and the death of the nabob Suraja Dowla, in whose place Mht. Jasseir, one of his generals, was advanced to the soubahship.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Muxadabad, or Moorhedabad. Benares, lying in the same province, is the Gentoo university, and celebrated for its sanctity. This zemindary, which includes also the circars of Gazy-pour and Chunar, constituted a part of the dominions of Oude till 1774, when its tribute or quit-rent of 24 lacs was transferred to the English.

Dacca is situated in the eastern quarter of Bengal, and beyond one principal stream of the Ganges, while another runs to the east of it. Few situations are

\* Hodges' Travels in India, from 1780 to 1783, p. 15.

better calculated for an inland emporium of trade, than this, as the Dacca river communicates with all the other inland navigations; and that not by a circuitous, but by a direct communication. It is the third city of Bengal in point of extent and population, and has a vast trade in mullins, and in those manufactures of the most delicate kinds, which are so much sought after in Europe. The cotton is produced within the province. Dacca has in its turn been the capital of Bengal, and that within the present century. There are the remains of a very strong fortress in it; and, within these few years, there was near it a cannon of extraordinary weight and dimensions\*; but it has since fallen into the river, together with the bank on which it rested.

The city of Agra is situated on the south side of the river Jumna, which at this place is not fordable. It is supposed to be a place of high antiquity. The present city, however, was raised by the emperor Achar, about 1566, and named from him Acharabad, and was the principal seat of his government.

To the south-east of the city of Agra is a beautiful monument, raised by the emperor Shah Jehan, for his beloved wife Taje Mahel, whose name it bears, and is called, by way of eminence, the Taje Mahel. When this building is viewed from the opposite side of the river, it possesses a degree of beauty from the perfection of the materials and from the excellence of the workmanship, which is only surpassed by its grandeur, extent, and general magnificence. The basest material that enters into the central part of it is white marble, and the ornaments are of various coloured marbles, in which there is no glitter: the whole together appears like a most perfect pearl on an azure ground. The effect is such, as I confess (says Mr. Hodges) I never experienced from any work of art. The fine materials, the beautiful form, and the symmetry of the whole, with the judicious choice of situation, far surpasses any thing I ever beheld †.

The city of Lucknow is extensive but meanly built: the houses are chiefly mud walls, covered with thatch, and many consist entirely of mats and bamboos, and are thatched with leaves of the cocoa nut, palm tree, and sometimes with straw. Very few, indeed, of the houses of the natives are built with brick: the streets are crooked, narrow, and the worst our traveller, Mr. Hodges, saw in India. In the dry season, the dust and heat are intolerable; in the rainy season, the mire is so deep, as to be scarcely passable; and there are a great number of elephants, belonging to the nabob and the great men of his court, which are continually passing the streets, either to the palace, or to the river, to the great danger and annoyance of the foot passenger, as well as the inferior class of shopkeepers.

The palace of the nabob is on a high bank, near to the river, and commanding an extensive view both of the Goomty and the country on the eastern side. A small part of it was raised by the late Nabob Sujah ul Dowlah, the father of Asoph ul Dowlah. It has however been greatly extended by the present prince, who has erected large courts within the walls, and a darbar, where he receives publicly all persons that are presented. This darbar is a range of three arcades, parallel to

\* Major Rennell gives the dimensions of this gun. The measures were taken by himself very carefully throughout. It was made of hammered iron; it being an immense tube formed of 14 bars, with rings of 2 or 3 inches wide driven over them, and hammered down into a smooth surface; so that its appearance was equal to the best executed piece of brass ordnance, although its proportions were faulty.

Whole length . . . 22 feet 10 $\frac{1}{2}$  inches.  
Diameter of the breech . . . 3 . . . 3

Diameter 4 feet from the muzzle 2 feet 10 . . . inches.  
— of the muzzle . . . 2 . . . 2 $\frac{1}{2}$   
— of the bore . . . 1 . . . 3 $\frac{1}{2}$

The gun contained 234,413 cubic inches of wrought iron; and consequently weighed 64,814 pounds avoirdupois, or about the weight of eleven 32 pounders. Weight of an iron shot for the gun, 46 $\frac{1}{2}$  pounds.

† Hodges' Travels in India, p. 117.

‡ Ibid. p. 126.

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each other, and supported by columns in the Moorish style; the ceiling, and the whole of this, is beautifully gilt, and painted with ornaments and flowers. It is ascended by steps from a flower garden laid out in the same manner as we see in Indian paintings, which are all in square plats, in which are planted flowers of the strongest scent; so strong, indeed, as to be offensive at first to the nerves of an European. The exterior of the building is not to be commended; being similar to what might be the style of a baron's castle in Europe, about the twelfth century\*.

The city of Fyzabad is of considerable extent, and appears to contain a great number of people, chiefly of the lowest class; for the court being removed to Lucknow, drew after it the great men, and the most eminent of the merchants, bankers, and shroffs, or money changers. These last are persons in all the towns, and even villages, who make large sums by their knowledge of the exchange, which in India is in a state of constant fluctuation, to the great injury of the poor and the industrious.

The remains of the palace built by the late nabob Sujah ul Dowlah is a vast building, covering a great extent of ground, having several areas or courts, and many separate buildings in them. In the inner court are the remains of the durbar, or hall of public audience; an elegant building on the same plan as that already mentioned in the palace at Lucknow, but much richer; the painting and gilding greatly gone to decay. There are many other buildings designed for offices, or other accommodations. Within an interior court is a large extent of building, the principal front of which is on the banks of the river; and, when it was first raised, must have been very handsome. This was the part designed for the domestic habitation of the nabob. Adjoining are other buildings, designed for the Zenanah, or seraglio, and in which are the remnants of the gardens. The grand entrance to the palace is through a large and handsome gate, the superstructure of which was a place of arms, and there is still a guard kept in it. On the top of the gate was the situation of the nobut (a great drum), which is an appendage of royalty in India, and, when beaten, is heard over a great city. The nobut is usually beaten at sun-rise and sun-set. Nearly adjoining Fyzabad are the remains of the very ancient city of Oud, which is said to have been the first imperial city of Hindoostan, and to have been built by their hero Krishen. In colonel Dowe's translation of Ferishta's history, it is mentioned as the capital of a great kingdom, one thousand two hundred and nine years previous to the christian era; and it is frequently mentioned in the famous Hindoo work in Shanferite (the learned language of the Bramins) the Mahabheret, under the name of Adjudea. Whatever may have been said of its former elegance and magnificence, no traces of them are now left †.

Chandenagore is the principal place possessed by the French in Bengal: it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But, though strongly fortified, furnished with a garrison of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the English admirals Watson and Pococke, and colonel Clive, and also was obliged to surrender in the last war, but restored by the peace. Hoogley, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richest Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well-fortified factory. The search for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hoogley, for about fifty miles farther. The other chief towns are Cassimbazar, Chinchura, Barnagua, and Maldo; besides a number of other places of less note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

\* Hodges' Travels in India, p. 100.

† Ibid. p. 105.

We know little concerning the province or foubah of Malva, which lies to the west of Bengal, of which Sindia and Holkar divide the largest part; but that it is as fertile as the other provinces, and that its chief cities are Ratipor, Ougein, and Indoor. The province of Candeish includes that of Berar and part of Orissa, whose capital is Brampur, or Burhampoor, a flourishing city, which carries on a vast trade in chintzes, callicoes, and embroidered stuffs. Cattaek is the capital of Orissa, and lies in the only road between Bengal and the Northern circars, and belongs to the Berar Rajah Moodajee Boolla, whose dominions are very extensive. Of the five Northern circars \*, Ciencole, Rajamundry, Ellore, and Condapilly are in possession of the English, and Guntor is in the hands of the Nizam. The four first occupy the sea-coast from the Chilka lake on the confines of Cattaek, to the northern bank of the Kistna river; forming, comparatively, a long, narrow slip of country, 350 miles long, and from 20 to 75 wide †.

The above are the provinces belonging to the Mogul's empire to the north of what is properly called the Peninsula within the Ganges. Those that lie to the southward fall into the description of the peninsula itself.

**HISTORY.]** The first invader of India whose expedition is authentically recorded was the famous Alexander of Macedon; and where the fortrefs of Rotas now stands on the banks of the Behar, he is supposed to have put in execution his stratagem for crossing the river, whilst the opposite shore was possessed by Porus. Zinghis Khan also directed his force there in the year 1221, and made the emperor forsake his capital. The seat of government was, indeed, often changed, as from Gazna to Delhi, to Lahore, to Agra, and to Canage. This last place was, in the reign of Porus, and long afterwards, the capital of Indostan, but is now reduced to a middling town, though the ruins are of great extent ‡.

Tamerlane crossed the Indus nearly at the same place with Alexander: but, long before Tamerlane, Mahomedan princes had entered, made conquests, and planted colonies. Valid, the sixth of the caliphs, named Ommiades, who ascended the throne in the 708th year of the Christian era, and in the 90th of the Hegira, made conquests in India: so that the Koran was introduced very early into this country. Mahmoud, son of Sebegtechin, prince of Gazna, the capital of a province separated by mountains from the north-west parts of India, and situated near Kandahar, carried the Koran with the sword into Indostan in the year 1000 or 1002 of the Christian era. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treasures, demolishing temples, and murdering idolaters. The wealth found by him in Indostan is represented as immense. The successors of this Mahmud are called the dynasty of the Gaznavides, and maintained themselves in a great part of the countries which he had conquered in India until the year 1155, or 1157, when Kofrou Schah, the 13th and last prince of the Gaznavide race, was deposed by Kustain Gauri, who founded the dynasty of the Gaurides, which furnished five princes, who possessed nearly the same dominions as their predecessors the Gaznavides. Scheabbedin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predecessor Gaiatheddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moul-tan and Delhi, and drew from thence prodigious treasures. But an Indian, who had been rendered desperate by the pollutions and insults to which he saw his gods

\* These circars, or provinces, were originally denominated from their position in respect to Madras, on which they depend; and the term *circars* has at length been adopted by the English in general. Major Rennell's Introduction to his Memoir, p. 134.

† Ibid.

‡ Supposed to be the Paliobothra of the ancients. In the sixth century it contained 30,000 shops, in which betel-nut was sold, and there were also 60,000 musicians and singers, who paid a tax to government.

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and temples exposed, made a vow to assassinate Scheabbedin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides ended in the year 1213, in the person of Mahmood, successor and nephew to Scheabbedin, who was also cut off by assassins. Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, whose troops entered India at the end of the year 1398, descending, more terrible than all its former inundations, from the centre of the Indian Caucasus. This invincible barbarian met with no resistance sufficient to justify, even by the military maxims of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But, after an immense slaughter, he at length rendered himself lord of an empire which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the Ganges.

The successors of Tamerlane, who reigned over Indostan with little interruption more than 350 years, were magnificent and despotic princes, and committed their provinces, as has been already observed, to rapacious governors, or to their own sons, by which their empire was often miserably torn to pieces. The provinces of Indostan have seldom continued under one head during a period of twenty years, from the earliest history down to the reign of Achar in the 16th century. Bengal, Guzerat, and other provinces, were in turn independent, and sometimes the empire of Indostan was confined within the proper limits of the province itself; the history of which furnishes an excellent lesson to princes not to grasp at too extensive dominion\*. At length, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1657, though the youngest among many sons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brethren, mounted the throne of Indostan, and may be considered as the real founder and legislator of the empire. He was a great and politic prince, and the first who extended his dominion over the Peninsula within the Ganges. He lived so late as the year 1707; and it is said that some of his great officers of state were alive in the year 1750.

In 1713, four of his grandsons disputed the empire, which, after a bloody struggle, fell to the eldest, Mauzoldin, who took the name of Jehander Shah. This prince was a slave to his pleasures, and was governed by his mistress, so absolutely, that his great Omrahs conspired against him, and raised to the throne one of his nephews who struck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whose name was Furrukhsir, was governed, and at last enslaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who usurped his power so absolutely, that, being afraid to punish them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately assassinated. Discovering his intention, they dethroned the emperor, in whose place they raised a grandson of Aurengzebe, by his daughter, a youth of seventeen years of age, after imprisoning and strangling Furrukhsir. The young emperor proved disagreeable to the brothers, and being soon poisoned, they raised to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Indostan, whose ancestors had entered into stipulations, or what may be called *passa conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field against the two brothers; but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil possession of the empire, and died in 1719. He was succeeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mahomed Shah, and entered into private measures with his great rajahs for destroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies by Nizam al Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is said, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himself against the brothers, and to proclaim himself soubah of Deccan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was assassinated by the emperor's order. The

\* Some parts of the empire were 1000 miles distant from the seat of government. The English conquests in India met those of Tamerlane in a point equidistant from the mouths of the Ganges

and Indus, in the year 1774; for they closed their campaign that year at Loldong, 1100 miles from Calcutta.

younger Seyd no sooner understood what had happened, than he proclaimed the sultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle ensued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious, and is said to have used his conquest with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the prison from whence he had been taken; and Seyd being likewise a prisoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement; but the emperor took possession of his vast riches. Seyd did not long survive his confinement; and upon his death the emperor abandoned himself to the same course of pleasures that had been so fatal to his predecessors. As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed against the Mahrattas, whom he defeated, when they had almost made themselves masters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his soubahship, and was considered as the first subject in the empire. Authors are divided as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shah, otherwise Kouli Khan, the Persian monarch, to invade Indostan. It is thought that he had intelligence of a strong party formed against him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have success, and at first wanted to make himself useful by opposing him. The success of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immense treasures which he carried from Indostan in 1739. Besides those treasures, he obliged the Mogul to surrender to him all the lands to the west of the rivers Attock and Sind, comprehending the provinces of Peyshor, Cabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities.

This invasion cost the Gentoos 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, some accounts, and those strongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible sum of two hundred and thirty-one millions sterling. The most moderate say that Nadir's own share amounted to considerably above seventy millions. Be that as it will, the invasion of Nadir Shah may be considered as putting a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire. Nadir, however, having raised all the money he could in Delhi, reinstated the Mogul, Mahommed Shah, in the sovereignty, and returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces soon after ensued; none being willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces to the north-west of the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shah, who being assassinated in 1747, Achmet Abdalla, his treasurer, an unprincipled man, but possessed of great intrepidity, found means, in the general confusion occasioned by the tyrant's death, to carry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby he was enabled to put himself at the head of an army, and march against Delhi with fifty thousand horse. Thus was the wealth drawn from Delhi, made the means of continuing those miseries of war which it had at first occasioned. In this extremity, prince Ahmed Shah, the Mogul's eldest son, and the vizier, with other leading men, took the field, with eighty thousand horse, to oppose the invader. The war was carried on with various success, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination. His son, Ahmed Shah, then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi; but the empire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which Candahar is the capital.

The Mahrattas, a warlike nation, possessing the north-western peninsula of India\*, had, before the invasion of Nadir Shah, exacted a chout, or tribute from the em-

\* Malwa, Berar, Orissa, Candeish, and Vissapur, the principal part of Amednagar or Dowlatabad, half of Guzerat, and a small part of Aginere, Agra, and Allahabad, are comprized within their empire, which extends from sea to sea across the widest part of the peninsula, and from the confines of Agra northward, to

the Kistna southward, forming a tract of about 1000 miles long, and 700 wide. This extensive country is divided among a number of chiefs, whose obedience to the Paithwah, or Head, is merely nominal, and they are often at war among themselves, and also with their head. Their power hath been on the decline for the last twenty years.

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pire, arising out of the revenues of the province of Bengal, which being withheld in consequence of the enfeebled state of the empire, the Mahrattas became clamorous. The empire began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claim to Jaghires \* and to districts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every species of domestic confusion. Ahmed Shah reigned only seven years, after which much more disorder and confusion prevailed in this country, and the people suffered great calamities. At present, the imperial dignity of Indostan is vested in Shah Allum or Zadah, who is universally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but the city of Delhi, and a small territory round it, is all that is left remaining to the house and heir of Tamerlane, who depends upon the protection of the English, whose interest it is to support him, as his grant to the company is the best legal guarantee of their possessions.

We shall now conclude the history of Indostan with some account of the British transactions in that part of the world, since 1765, when they were quietly settled in the possession of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa; not indeed as absolute sovereigns, but as tributaries to the emperor. This state of tranquillity, however, did not long continue; for in 1767 they found themselves engaged in a very dangerous war with Hyder Ally, the sovereign of Mysore. This man had originally been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of war in the French camp; and, in the year 1753, had distinguished himself in their service. In 1763, having been advanced to the command of the army of Mysore, he deposed his sovereign, and usurped the supreme authority under the title of regent. In a short time he extended his dominions on all sides, except the Carnatic, until at last his dominions equalled the island of Great Britain in extent, with a revenue of not less than four millions sterling annually. The discords which took place in various parts of Indostan, particularly among the Mahrattas, enabled him to aggrandise his power, but rendered him an object of jealousy to his neighbours; and in 1767, he found himself in danger of being attacked on one side by the Mahrattas, and on the other by the British. The former were bought off with a sum of money, and the latter were in consequence obliged to retire. Having soon, however, assembled all their forces, several obstinate engagements took place; and the British now, for the first time, found a steady opposition from an Indian prince. The war continued with various success during the years 1767, 1768, and part of 1769, when Hyder, with a strong detachment of his army, passing by that of the British, advanced within a little distance of Madras, where he intimidated the government into a peace upon his own terms. The advantages gained by this peace, however, were quickly lost by an unfortunate war with the Mahrattas, from whom, in the year 1771, he received a most dreadful defeat, almost his whole army being killed or taken. Hyder was now reduced to the necessity of allowing his enemies to desolate the country, till they retired of their own accord; after which he retrieved his affairs with incredible perseverance and diligence, so that in a few years he became more formidable than ever. In 1772, the Mahrattas made various attempts to get possession of the provinces of Corah and some others, but were opposed by the British, who, next year, defeated and drove them across the river Ganges, when they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occasion the latter had acted only as the allies of Sujah Dowlah, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promised to pay 40 lacks of rupees for the protection afforded them; but when the money came to be paid, it was under various pretences refused; the consequence of which

\* Jaghire means a grant of land from a sovereign to a subject, revocable indeed at pleasure, but generally held for life.

was, that the Rohilla country was next year (1774) invaded and conquered by the British, as well as several other large tracts of territory; by which means the boundary of Oude was advanced to the westward, within 25 miles of Agra; north-westward to the upper part of the navigable course of the Ganges; and south-westward to the Jumna river.

In 1778, a new war commenced with the Mahrattas; on which occasion a brigade, consisting of 7000 Indian troops, commanded by British officers, traversed the whole empire of the Mahrattas, from the river Jumna to the western ocean. About this time the war with France broke out, and Hyder Ally, probably expecting assistance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of 100,000 men. For some time he carried every thing before him, and, having the good fortune to defeat, or rather destroy a detachment of the British army under colonel Baillie, it was generally imagined that the power of Britain in that part of the world would soon be annihilated. By the happy exertions of sir Eyre Cooté, however, to whom the management of affairs was now committed, the progress of this formidable adversary was stopped, and he soon became weary of a war, which was attended with incredible expence to himself, without any reasonable prospect of success. By the year 1782, therefore, Hyder Ally was sincerely desirous of peace, but died before it could be brought to a conclusion; and his rival, sir Eyre Cooté, did not survive him above five months; a very remarkable circumstance, that the commanders in chief of two armies, opposed to each other, should both die natural deaths, within so short a space of time.

To Hyder Ally succeeded his son Tippoo Sultan, whose military prowess is well known. Of all the native princes of India, Tippoo was the most formidable to the British government, and the most hostile to its authority. The peace of Mangalore in 1784 had, it was supposed, secured his fidelity by very feeble ties; and the splendid embassy which, not long after that event, he dispatched to France, afforded much reason to apprehend that some plan was concerted between the old government of that country and the tyrant of Mysore, for the annoyance of Great Britain in its Indian possessions; but this plan was happily defeated by the French revolution.

The increasing power of Tippoo was not less formidable to the Dutch; and the vicinity of Cochin, their most flourishing settlement on the continent of India, to the territories of that aspiring monarch, made them tremble for its safety. That sagacious people, however, have seldom been without their resources. Besides Cochin, the Dutch were possessed of two other forts, which were situated between Mysore and their favourite settlement; and one of them, Cranganore, had been taken by Hyder Ally in 1779, or 1780. When the war broke out in 1780 between Hyder and the English, he was obliged to evacuate his garrisons on the Malabar coast to employ his force in the Carnatic; and Holland and France being soon after united with Hyder against the English, the Dutch embraced the opportunity of clandestinely taking possession, and regarrisoning the fort; a measure which greatly offended Hyder, and of which he loudly complained. By the mediation, however, of France, a compromise took place, but upon what terms, is uncertain.

From the vicinity of Cranganore and Acottah to his boundary, and their situation within the territory of an acknowledged tributary to Mysore (the rajah of Cochin), the possession of them was a most desirable object with Tippoo. In the month of June 1789, he marched a formidable force towards Cranganore, with a professed intention of making himself master of it, upon a claim chiefly founded upon the transactions we have just related. Unable therefore to retain the possession of the forts themselves, and fearing for a settlement of much superior value, the Dutch readily entered into a negociation with the rajah of Travancore for the

purchase of them. That politic people easily saw, that, by placing them in his hands, they erected a most powerful barrier, no less than the whole force of Great Britain (who was bound by treaty to assist him) against the encroachments of their ambitious neighbour upon their settlement at Cochin. The imprudence of the rajah, in entering upon such a purchase while the title was disputed, drew down upon him the heaviest censures from the government at Madras; and he was repeatedly cautioned, both by sir Archibald Campbell, and Mr. Holland his successor in the government, not to proceed in the negotiation. Such however was the ardour and temerity of the rajah in making this acquisition, that he not only concluded the purchase with the Dutch, but even treated with the rajah of Cochin, without the privity of Tippoo, though he was the acknowledged tributary of that prince, for some adjacent territory. The bargain was concluded in July 1789, though it was not till the 4th of August that the rajah informed the Madras government through their resident Mr. Powney, that he was on the point of making the purchase.

It was not probable that Tippoo would remain an indifferent spectator of these transactions. He insisted on the claim which he retained over these forts, in consequence of their being conquered by his father, and in consequence of the subsequent compromise. He asserted, that, according to the feudal laws, no transfer of them could take place without his consent, as sovereign of Mysore; and on the 29th of December, he made with a considerable force a direct attack upon the lines of Travancore. On receiving a remonstrance from the British government of Fort St. George, he desisted and even apologized. From the 29th of December to the 1st of March, Tippoo sultan remained perfectly quiet, still asserting his claims to the feudal sovereignty of the forts, but (it is confidently affirmed) offering to submit the dispute to any impartial arbitration.

On the 1st of March 1790, the rajah's troops made an offensive attack upon Tippoo, who had continued quiet within his lines from the 29th of December. An engagement took place; and the British government conceived themselves bound to take an active part. No period appeared more favourable to humble Tippoo, if that was the object of the British administration. With all the other powers of India we were not only at peace, but treaties of alliance existed between Great Britain, and the two most powerful states of India, the Nizam and the Mahrattas; and both declared themselves in perfect readiness to exert their utmost force to crush the rising power of Mysore.

Events of such magnitude as the close of this war in India, by which the British power is more than ever established on the continent of Asia, naturally excite an eager curiosity in all the subjects of the crown of Great Britain. We wish to be minutely informed by what steps so great advantages were secured, what obstacles were surmounted, and by what means; how far the glory of our country is increased by the manner, as well as her interest promoted by the nature, of the conquest. We are happy, therefore, from a narrative drawn up by major Dillon from journals and authentic documents, to lay before our readers the most satisfactory information upon these subjects.

It should be remembered, that the campaign here recorded was the third of our war with Tippoo sultan. The *first* commenced in June 1790, and concluded with that year. It was carried on below the Ghauts. The *second campaign* contained the capture of Bangalore, which fixed the seat of war in the enemy's country, and concluded with the retreat of lord Cornwallis from Seringapatam, towards the end of May 1791. The third commences almost from that point, and terminates in March 1792. Observing, however, as the author very properly states, that, in

the fine climate of Myfore, campaigns are regulated rather by plans of operations, than by seasons.

The narrative commences with unfavourable circumstances; the retreat of the two armies under general Abercromby and lord Cornwallis; the loss of cannon in both; an epidemic disorder among the cattle; and a dreadful scarcity of grain. These evils, however, vanish by degrees; the junction of the Mahrattas affords a supply of necessaries, arrangements are made for obtaining in future the most ample and regular provision of bullocks and grain, and for replacing the battering guns. On the return of the army to the vicinity of Bangalore, the operations began, which were to secure the communication with the Carnatic, and reduce the power of the enemy in those parts. The British force was immediately and successfully employed to reduce Ousoor, Rayacotta, and the other hill-forts commanding the Policode Pass. The next object was the forts to the north-east of Bangalore, which interrupted the communication with the Nizam's army and with the Carnatic, by that route. These being soon reduced, Nundydroog, built on the summit of a mountain about one thousand seven hundred feet in height, a place of greater magnitude and strength, was attacked, and, after being besieged from Sept. 22d, was carried by assault, on the 18th of October, in spite of obstacles which might reasonably have been deemed insurmountable.

By means of dispositions made for that purpose, supplies of all kinds now came in from the Carnatic. Penagra was taken at the end of October; and Kistnageri attacked on the 7th of November: this was almost the only enterprise that was not completely successful: the lower fort and pettah were taken; but the upper fort maintained its defence, and the attack was relinquished. It seems that it could only have been carried by a *coup de main*, which unluckily failed. On the 2d of the same month another instance of ill success happened to us: the relief of Coimbatore having been prevented, that garrison was obliged to capitulate to Cummer-ud-Deen Cawn, on terms which Tippoo did not afterwards fulfil.

Savendroog, or the rock of death, bore witness, in the month of December, to the ardour and perseverance of the British troops. This fortress, standing in the way between Bangalore and Seringapatam, is thus described: It is "a vast mountain of rock, and is reckoned to rise above half a mile in perpendicular height, from a base of eight or ten miles in circumference. Embraced by walls on every side, and defended by cross walls and barriers, wherever it was deemed accessible, this huge mountain had the farther advantage of being divided above by a chafin which separates the upper part into two hills, which, having each their defences, form two citadels capable of being maintained independent of the lower works; and, affording a secure retreat, should encourage the garrison to hold out to the last extremity;" p. 67. It is no less famed for its noxious atmosphere, occasioned by the surrounding hills and woods, than for its wonderful size and strength. Hence it derives its formidable name.

The sultan is said to have flattered himself, that before this place "half the Europeans would die of sickness, the other half be killed in the attack." He was, however, mistaken. The garrison, fortunately for us, trusted more to the strength of the place than to their own exertions, and on the 21st of December, only the 11th day of the siege, this fortress, hitherto deemed impregnable, was taken by assault in less than an hour, in open day, without the loss of a man, only one private soldier having been wounded.

Outredroog and other forts fell successively after this brilliant success. The forces of the allies were not equally fortunate during the same interval. The army of the Nizam, after a long siege of Gurraccondah, drew off to join our forces, and only left the place blockaded. To make amends for this failure, the Mahratta

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army under Purferam Bhow, assisted by our engineers, took Hooly Onore, Bankapur, Simoga, and other places. By the latter end of January 1792, the whole allied force, excepting the Bombay army, was assembled in the vicinity of Hooleadrog.

We come now to the operations against Seringapatam. On the 1st of February 1792, the allies began their march, and by two o'clock on the 5th, were encamped across the valley of Milgotah, only six miles from the position of Tippoo before Seringapatam. It could not well be expected by the sultan, that he should receive so early an attack as lord Cornwallis destined for him. His camp was strongly situated and fortified by a bound hedge\* and several redoubts. Nevertheless, after causing his position to be reconnoitred in the morning of the 6th, the commander in chief issued orders for the attack that very evening. The army was to march at night in three divisions, and without cannon. "The plan of attack, says major Dirom, was indeed bold beyond the expectation of our army; but, like a discovery in science, which excites admiration when disclosed, it had only to be known, to meet with general applause." The outlines of this great enterprize are generally known; the particulars cannot be detailed in this place, but are related with great clearness by the historian, and so illustrated by the attendant plans, that the circumstances cannot be mistaken.

The result of this operation was, that Tippoo was driven from his camp into Seringapatam, all his redoubts taken, and a lodgement established in the island, in a strong position, where lieut. Stuart remained posted. All possible preparations were made, from this time, for taking the capital by assault: and they were such as probably would have been crowned with full success. On the 16th of February, the Bombay army, under general Abercromby, after overcoming various obstacles, joined the main army, and remained posted to the north-west of the city. On the 19th it was stationed on the south side of the Cavery, in a situation that seemed to give the sultan much uneasiness. However, after attacking the advanced post of this army on the night of the 21st, Tippoo made no farther effort; and on the 24th, when the preparations for the general assault were in great forwardness, it was announced that preliminaries of peace were settled. The conferences for this purpose had begun on the 15th; but the operations on both sides continued till the 24th. After the cessation of arms which then took place, the conduct of Tippoo Sultan was so equivocal and suspicious, as to make it necessary, on our part, to renew the preparations for the siege. Overawed, at length, by the firmness and decision of lord Cornwallis, and probably alarmed by the discontent of his own people, the reluctant sultan submitted to all the terms proposed; and on the 19th of March, the copies of the definitive treaty were delivered in form, by his sons, to lord Cornwallis, and the agents of the allied princes. The Nizam's son, prince Secunder Jah, and the Mahratta plenipotentiary Hurry Punt, thought it beneath their dignity to be present on this occasion in person, and were represented by their vakeels.

The substance of the treaty was, 1st, That Tippoo was to cede one half of his dominions to the allied powers: 2d, That he was to pay three crores and thirty lacks of rupees: 3d, That all prisoners were to be restored: 4th, That two of the sultan's three eldest sons were to become hostages for the due performance of the treaty.

\* A bound hedge is a broad strong belt of planting, chiefly the bamboo tree, the prickly pear, and such other trees and shrubs as form the closest fence. Most of the forts and villages are surrounded with such a hedge; and the large forts

have a bound hedge that incloses a circuit of several miles, as a place of refuge to the inhabitants of the adjoining country against the incursions of horse.

Major Dirom's and Lieut. Moor's Glossaries.

Tippoo is said to have been prevailed upon with infinite difficulty to subscribe to the terms of peace; and now that all was settled, the uneasiness in the seraglio became extreme in parting with the boys, who were to be sent out as hostages. The sultan was again intreated to request they might be allowed to stay another day, in order to make suitable preparations for their departure, and lord Cornwallis, who had dispensed with their coming at the time the treaty was sent, had again the goodness to grant his request.

When the princes left the fort, which appeared to be manned as they went out, and every where crowded with people, who, from curiosity or affection, had come to see them depart, the sultan himself was on the rampart above the gateway. They were saluted by the fort on leaving it, and with twenty-one guns from the park as they approached our camp, where the part of the line they passed was turned out to meet them. The vakeels conducted them to the tents, which had been sent from the fort for their accommodation, where they were met by sir John Kennaway, the Mahratta and Nizam's vakeels, and from thence accompanied by them to head quarters.

The princes were each mounted on an elephant richly caparisoned, and seated in a silver howder, [a canopied seat] and were attended by their father's vakeels, and the persons already mentioned, also on elephants. The procession was led by several camel harraccars, [messengers] and seven standard-bearers, carrying small green flags suspended from rockets \*, followed by one hundred pikemen, with spears inlaid with silver. Their guard of two hundred sepoy, and a party of horse, brought up the rear. In this order they approached head quarters, where the battalion of Bengal sepoy, commanded by captain Welch, appointed for their guard, formed a street to receive them.

Lord Cornwallis, attended by his staff, and some of the principal officers of the army, met the princes at the door of his large tent, as they dismounted from the elephants; and, after embracing them, led them in, one in each hand, to the tent. The eldest, Abdul Kalick, was about ten, the youngest, Mooza-ud-Deen, about eight years of age. When they were seated on each side of lord Cornwallis, Gulam Ally, the head vakeel, addressed his lordship as follows: "These children were this morning the sons of the sultan my master; their situation is now changed, and they must look up to your lordship as their father."

Lord Cornwallis, who had received the boys as if they had been his own sons, anxiously assured the vakeel and the young princes themselves, that every attention possible would be shewn to them, and the greatest care taken of their persons. Their little faces brightened up; the scene became highly interesting; and not only their attendants, but all the spectators were delighted to see that any fears they might have harboured were removed, and that they would soon be reconciled to their change of situation, and to their new friends.

The princes were dressed in long white muslin gowns, and red turbans. They had several rows of large pearls round their necks, from which was suspended an ornament consisting of a ruby and an emerald of considerable size, surrounded by large brilliants; and in their turbans, each had a sprig of rich pearls. Bred up from their infancy with infinite care, and instructed in their manners to imitate the reserve and politeness of age, it astonished all present to see the correctness and propriety of their conduct.

The operations of the Mahratta army commanded by Purseram Bhow, and the Bombay brigade of three native battalions, which acted with it, commanded by

\* *Rockets* is a missile weapon, consisting of an iron tube of about a foot long, and an inch in diameter, fixed to a bamboo rod of ten or twelve feet long.

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capt. Little, are related in a very judicious narrative by lieut. Moore; which is not to be estimated from the inferior importance of the facts it contains, when brought into comparison with the operations of the grand army, under lord Cornwallis, so ably detailed by major Dirom; but it is a recital at once curious and instructive, containing a variety of matter well digested, and geographical information of high importance, if ever the arms of Britain should again be summoned to act above the Ghauts.

The Mahratta chief, Purseram Bhow, in consequence of a treaty formed with lord Cornwallis, for the purpose of humbling Tippoo sultan, moved from Poonah at the head of 20,000 horse and 10,000 foot, with the design of invading Tippoo's dominions on the North, while lord Cornwallis advanced from the East: both armies were to meet at Seringapatam. A detachment from Bombay was to join the Bhow on his march. This detachment consisted of 1600 Sepoys, commanded by British officers, one company of native artillery, and one of British. It joined the Mahratta army at Durwar, and was afterwards increased by the 2d regiment on the Bombay establishment, and a battalion of the 9th; the whole under the command of col. Frederick. Upon the death of col. Frederick the command devolved upon capt. Little, who at the head of this small force contributed essentially to the reduction of Darwar, a fortress of importance, bravely defended for six months; and in December 1791, defeated one of the largest armies Tippoo had in the field at Gadjnoor, inducing a loss which the sultan never recovered.

The army of Purseram Bhow, it is well known, did not reach lord Cornwallis till after his retreat from Seringapatam in 1791; but it saved his army, by the supplies it afforded. During the Monsoon, while lord Cornwallis continued at Bangalore, the Mahrattas returned to the North, and never joined him again, till the negociation with Tippoo was approaching to its conclusion.

Thus ended a war, which, as the author sums it up in his conclusion, "vindicated the honour of the nation, has given the additional possessions and security to the settlements in India, which they required; has effected the wished for balance amongst the native powers on the peninsula; has, beyond all former example, raised the character of the British arms in India; and has afforded an instance of good faith in alliance, and moderation in conquest, so eminent, as ought to constitute the English arbiters of power worthy of holding the sword and scales of justice in the East."

The general view of advantages gained by us in this war, may be briefly stated thus:—1. Our most formidable enemy is so reduced by it, as to render our possessions in India both profitable and secure.—2. Madras is secured from invasion by possession of the passes, and covered by a territory defended by strong forts.—3. The value of Bombay is greatly enhanced by possessions gained on the Malabar coast, protected by Poligautcherry and the frontier of the Coorga Rajah. These advantages, it may be presumed, will far overbalance the expences of the war. By a statement of major Dirom, it appears that Tippoo lost in this war 67 forts, 601 cannons, and 49,340 men.

It is utterly impossible, says major Rennell, in the present imperfect state of our knowledge of the geography of the northern part of the peninsula (notwithstanding the present improvements), to describe, with any degree of accuracy, the boundaries of the new cessions to the Mahrattas and Nizam; or even the positions of all the principal places situated within them. A very good *general idea* may, however, be collected from the map, on which the countries ceded will be particularly marked.

It would however be unjust to withhold our approbation from lord Cornwallis, in every thing that respects the conduct of the concluding campaign. Nothing that sound judgment could devise, or activity effect, appears to have been omitted. The

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humanity and goodness of his lordship were conspicuous during the whole of the enterprize; and his moderation and sound policy in the concluding scenes cannot be too highly extolled.

By a letter from lord Cornwallis, the British ministry were informed that Mr. Baldwin, his majesty's consul at Alexandria, sent intelligence to Fort St. George of the war with France, which reached that place on the second of June 1793, and declared himself responsible in his public character for the truth of the information. His lordship adds, that upon the receipt of this intelligence all the small factories belonging to the French on the continent of India, as well as their ships in the ports belonging to the English, were taken possession of for his majesty of Great Britain. Soon afterwards, the government of Fort St. George proceeded to make preparations for the attack of the important fortrefs of Pondicherry. Lord Cornwallis being desirous of giving his personal assistance in carrying on the last piece of service that was likely to occur during his stay in India, set sail for the scene of action; but a few days before his arrival, the mutinous and dastardly conduct of the French garrison in Pondicherry had obliged the governor to surrender the forts to the British colonel Braithwaite, with all the troops and stores in the garrison of Pondicherry.

This intelligence reached England in the month of February 1794, soon after which his lordship arrived in person to receive the congratulations of the nation for the eminent services he had rendered his country.

The emperor of Indostan, or Great Mogul (so called from being descended from Tamerlane the Mongul, or Mogul Tartar), on his advancement, to the throne, assumes some grand title; as, "*The Conqueror of the World, the Ornament of the Throne, &c.*" but he is never crowned.

## THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.

Grand divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.	
The south-east coast of India, situate on the Bay of Bengal, usually called the coast of Coromandel.	Madura	Madura	16,400	
	Tanjore	Tanjore		
	East side of Bisnagar, or Carnatic		Tranquebar, Danes	33,550
			Negapatam, English	
			Bisnagar	
			Porta-nova, Dutch	
			Fort St. David, English	
	Golconda		Pondicherry, } French	
			Conymere, }	
			Coblon	
Orissa		Sadraspatan, Dutch	62,100	
		St. Thomas, Portuguese		
		Fort St. George, or Madras, E. lon. 80. 25 N. lat. 13. 5. English		
		Pullicate, Dutch		
		Golconda		
Orissa		Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines	Grand	
		Masulipatam, English and Dutch		
		Vifagapatam, English		
		Bimlipatam, Dutch		
		Cattack		
		Balafore, English		

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THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES. 739

Grand Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	
The fourth-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar.	West side of Bifnagar, or Carnatic	Tegapatan, Dutch Anjengo, English Cochin, Dutch Callicut, } English Tellichery, } Cannonore, Dutch Mangalore, } Dutch and Barcelore, } Portuguese Raolconda, diamond mine Cawar, English Goa, Portuguese Rajapore, French Dabul, English	83,050
	Deccan, or Vifiapour	Dundee } Portuguese Shoule, } Bombay, isle and town, English, 18-58. N. lat. 72-40 E. lon. Basseen, Portuguese Salfette, English Damon, Portuguese Surat, E. lon. 72-50 N. lat. 21-11	
	Cambaya, or Guzerat	Swalley Barak, English and Dutch Amedabad Cambaya Diu, Portuguese	

RIVERS.] The Cattack, or Mahanada, the mouths of which have never been traced; the Soane and Nerbudda; the Puddai and Godavery, which last is esteemed a sacred river; and the famous Kistna, a principal branch of which passes within 30 miles east of Poonah, where it is named Beurah, and also esteemed a sacred river.

33,550  
62,100  
CATARACT OF THE GUTPURBA RIVER.] A mile westward of Gocauk, the Heron Casley river, from a south-westerly direction, falls into the Gutpurba: a mile farther westward (the road ascending) commences a steep winding pass up a hill, and although assisted by pretty good steps, it is a very laborious walk. Soon after gaining the summit, a most striking scene presents itself of the whole Gutpurba river, perpendicularly rolling from the upper to the lower country. From the extent of the rocky bed, and pieces of weeds and the like, left on its bushy sides, this river, in the rains, we found to be one hundred and sixty nine yards broad, which volume of water is precipitated perpendicularly one hundred and seventy four feet two inches\*.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND PRODUCE.] The chain of mountains already men-

\* Niagara, the famous cataract in Canada, between the lakes Erie and Ontario, on the river Saint Laurence, falls one hundred and sixty two feet; it is affected that the mill arising from it forms a beautiful appearance like a rainbow, and may be seen at the distance of sixteen miles. Lieut. Moor's Narrative of the Operations of Capt Little's Detachment, p. 262.

† Other accounts make the falls of Niagara to be 150 feet perpendicular.

tioned,

Grand

tioned, running from north to south, renders it winter on one side of this peninsula, while it is summer on the other. About the end of June, a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which, with continual rains, lasts four months, during which time all is serene upon the coast of Coromandel (the western and eastern coasts being so denominated). Towards the end of October, the rainy season, and the change of the monsoon, begins on the Coromandel coast, which being destitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ships to remain there, during that time; and necessarily occasions the periodical returns of the English shipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coast. The air is naturally hot in this peninsula, but is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the sea, which last proves a great refreshment to the inhabitants of the coast. The produce of the soil is the same with that of the other parts of the East Indies. The like may be said of their quadrupeds, fish, fowl, and noxious creatures and insects.

The Teek forests, (observes major Rennell, in his Memoir, p. 180, 181.) from whence the marine yard at Bombay is furnished with that excellent species of ship-timber, lie along the western side of the Ghaut mountains, and other contiguous ridges of hills, on the north and north-east of Bassen: the numerous rivulets that descend from them, affording water-carriage for the timber. We cannot help remarking the unpardonable negligence we are guilty of, in delaying to build teek ships of war for the use of the Indian seas. They might be freighted home, without the ceremony of regular equipment, as to masts, sails, and furniture; which might be calculated just to answer the purpose of the home passage, at the best seasons; and crews could be provided in India. The letter subjoined in a note, and which was written with the best intentions nine or ten years ago, will explain the circumstances of the case. Teek ships of forty years old and upwards, are no uncommon objects in the Indian seas, while an European built ship is ruined there in five years. The ships built at Bombay are the best, both in point of workmanship and materials, of any that are constructed in India: and although 4th rates only are mentioned in the letter, there is no doubt but that 3d rates may be constructed, as there is a choice of timber. The Spaniards build capital ships in their foreign settlements. The East India company have a Teek ship on her fourth voyage at present; which ship has wintered in England: therefore any objection founded on the effects of frost, on the Teek timber, is done away †."

Bilfish, which is almost in the heart of India, affords tobacco of the most delicate kind, throughout the whole region ‡.

\* "Frequent have been the opportunities I have had, of observing how very rapid the decay of ships built of European timber is, in the East Indies: and, on the contrary, how durable the ships are that are built of the wood of that country, namely, the TEER, which may not improperly be styled INDIAN-OAK. The number of ships of war that were ruined in those seas, during the late war (1757 to 1762) may be admitted as a proof of the former remark; and the great age of the ships built in India, may serve to prove the latter. What I mean to infer from this, for your lordship's use, is, that ships of war, under third rates, may be constructed in India; and, with moderate repairs, last for ages; whereas, a ship of European construction can remain there but a very few years; to which disadvantage may be added, that of losing, in the mean time, the services of the ships that are sent to relieve the worn-out ones.

† Bengal produces iron and hemp; and the neighbouring forests, pine masts: nothing is wanted to bring all these into use, but a fit opportunity, and proper encouragement.

"August 20, 1788."

‡ The major, in a note, adds, that the ship was then (when the second edition of the Memoir was printed in 1791) on her sixth voyage. Memoir, p. 260.

§ A difference of opinion seems to have arisen among the learned, whether tobacco came originally from Asia or America. It was possibly indigenous to both continents. It is universally disseminated over Indostan, and China; and appears to have been in use so long, in the former, that it is not regarded as a new plant. It is there named *Tamba pusa*; that is, the copper, or copper-coloured leaf.

In times of peace this country abounds in oxen and sheep, the latter for food, the former for the purpose of labour, for the Canareese eat no beef or swine flesh. Grain and fowls are also in abundance; but no geese, turkeys, or tame ducks. The jungles and hills are inhabited by tigers, bears, and other carnivorous animals: of the cat kind as well as the tiger, here are leopards, cheetas, and we believe, the lynx is sometimes seen, but no lions. Of the canine species, wolves, hyænas, jackals, and foxes are on every hill, and afford good sport in chase; the antelope and several other kinds of deer, in an open country, are seen every day in herds; some of them are very large and beautiful, having long branching antlers, and black skins spotted white: they are so fleet it is in vain giving chase; and withal so shy, and keeping mostly in a clear country, it is difficult to shoot them. Elks are said to be in this country, but we never saw any; and a species of deer not unlike the elk, called in India the sambá.

For the gun here are peacocks, partridges, quails, snipes, doves, plover, and other delicate birds: the pheasant is not eatable, and has not the beautiful plumage of the English or Chinese pheasant; but the jungle cock is, in every respect, but little inferior. The kurmoa, or korakin, is highly esteemed; and here is another bird, whose name we cannot recollect, larger than the turkey, and for the spit equally good: it flies slowly and heavily, and being shy, and lighting only in clear open places, is difficult to shoot. Hares are in plenty, but no rabbits. The tanks abound in ducks, teal, and widgeon, of the first variety, and some very large. Fishing affords but indifferent sport; for although the rivers and tanks seem to have plenty of fish, they will not take bait.

In times of plenty, the ordinary price of provisions is in this proportion: a bullock load of jowary (guinea corn) for a rupee, or four sheep, or twenty fowls: sheep are frequently at half a rupee each. A bullock load is eighty pukka seer, which, at a liberal allowance, will serve a family of six persons a month.

Fruit and vegetables are neither in such variety or quality as might be expected, where they form so considerable an article in the diet of the people: plantains should, from their utility, and perhaps flavour, rank first on the list of fruits; mangoes are in abundance, but very inferior to many kinds of that exquisite fruit in Bombay, Goa, and other places on the Malabar coast. Mangoes when green give a relish to the simple food of the natives; they are also salted and used as an acid, the only one indeed the Canareese have, excepting tamarinds; for they make no vinegar, although it might be so easily procured, as it is in most parts of India, by suffering the juice that exudes from the cocoa-nut, or date-tree, to ferment a few days in the sun, with a little coarse sugar mixed in it. This liquor, called by natives in different parts of India, tarree, neera, or sindee; by the English toddy, is procured by hanging an earthen pot on a stem whence the embryo fruit has been cut: when drank before sun-rise it is sweet, of delicious flavour, and of medicinal properties; keeping the body cool and soluble. In a few hours, by violent fermentation, it becomes intoxicating, and is drank to excess by the lower classes of people in most parts of Hindoostan: a spirit is also extracted from it by distillation. The liquor is gathered twice a day, in the quantity of half a pint, about the time of sun-rising or setting.

The other fruits are musk and water-melons, pomegranates, grapes, pine-apples, pines, cuttard-apples, jacks, guavas, and a few other inferior kinds common throughout India: grapes and pines seldom come to market. Cocoa-nuts and dates are in great abundance, and are sent to the coast as an article of merchandise. Heretofore it has been a received opinion, that the cocoa-nut tree would not

\* Lieut. Moor's Narrative, &c. p. 278.

fourth but near the sea; there are however very extensive groves, or rather forests, of them, about the centre of the peninsula a hundred and fifty miles from the seas, in as fine order as any on the coast.

The vegetables are bendys, brinjals, purslain, cucumbers, radishes, carrots, yams, sweet potatoes, &c. &c.

There is not perhaps on record an instance of any tree, or natural production of any kind, that can be, and is applied to so many useful purposes, as the cocoa-nut tree. Not having particularly considered the subject, we are not likely to enumerate half the purposes for which it is rendered serviceable.

The trunk of the tree is used in building, being, after some years seasoning, a solid timber, very hard and durable, although in a green state not very fit for that purpose from being principally composed of pith and brittle fibres. With the leaves the greater part of the houses in India are covered: they grow to six or seven feet long, and are formed proper for use, by plaiting the narrow slips that compose the leaf, which project a foot or two on each side the centre stem. Not only the houses of the poorer people are thus covered, but also the country houses of gentlemen, who prefer a kadjan roof, as being cooler than any other. It requires being renewed every year before the periodical rains, which, although so severe, do not penetrate a roof composed solely of these leaves. Two leaves plaited together frequently serve to sleep upon, and are very cooling and refreshing in hot weather: they are also formed to serve as a defence against rain. The variety of uses to which the fruit is applied, is indeed great: the outside husk is a considerable time soaked in water, when fibrous shreds are drawn from it, of which rope of every kind is made, from the size of a packthread, to a sheet cable for a seventy-four. The standing and running-rigging of the country ships is chiefly of koiar, which is its general name, but in what language we know not. The best koiar cables are made on the Malabar coast, at Anjenga and Cochin, of the Laekadevy nut, from which islands they are an article of extensive trade. The shell of the cocoa-nut is well known in England: in India it is, as may be supposed, made subservient to numberless uses. Two thirds of a shell makes a cup, the remaining third, with a piece of stick, a ladle, &c. &c. The kernel of the fruit is an article of subsistence among the natives, and the water it contains gives the finishing zest to the repast. While the nut is green, nearly a pint of milk, then clear as water, is contained in the young sweet pulp, and is, in a hot day, a most delicious and luxurious draught. A dish well known in the East and West Indies, called the curry, a favourite among Europeans, and in universal esteem with the natives, cannot be prepared without the cocoa-nut, which is also dried and used for various culinary purposes. The oil universally burned, the best and clearest in India, is extracted from the kernel of the cocoa-nut by exprellion: nor is the remaining *caput mortuum*, if it may be so called, useless; for it is fine food for fattening poultry, or beasts, and is sometimes, in scarcities, eaten by the poorer people. Cocoa-nut oil, as well as for the lamp, is medicinally esteemed, and to that it is that the females of Asia owe their celebrity for hair, unequalled in blackness and beauty. In its natural state however the oil is ill scented, which causes the more delicate to mix grateful and stimulating perfumes with it, before applying it to their persons. Among the inferior classes, this is not much attended to, and is doubtless a just cause of complaint against their sweetness, especially by those who have nice nasal nerves.

The embryo fruit being cut from its stem, a sweet pleasant liquor exudes, which is noticed by the name of tarree, or toddy: this when gathered and drank, before

\* Lieut. Moor's Narrative, &c. p. 279.

sun-riſe, is highly ſalutary and grateful; and a perſon of ordinary habit, who would live moderately regular, and drink half a pint of it twice a week, would in this climate have but little cauſe for a phyſician. Trees, whence tarree is drawn, produce no fruit, the juices being of courſe exhauſted that ſhould nourish the kernel. The only leaven uſed by the bakers in India is the tarree.

Indeed to ſuch a variety of purpoſes is every part of this tree applied, that it would be worth the pains of an intelligent perſon to make particular enquiries into its hiſtory. It is very long-lived, and does not come to perfection (by which criterion every thing animal or vegetable may be ſafely judged as to its longevity) for a conſiderable number of years, ten or twelve at leaſt. A cocoa-nut being put two feet in the ground, will in a year or two put forth the leaves to their full length, before any of the trunk makes its appearance, which comes up at its uſual diameter, and continues increaſing in height only, until the time of its maturity, when the tree is fifty or ſixty feet high; and, if uninterrupted, is perfectly ſtraight, without any excreeſence, except at the top, where the leaves are fifteen or twenty in number, and the fruit, which grows on a ſtem, as thick and long as a man's arm\*.

Amongſt the trees in India, the moſt famous is that called kuhlbeer-burr, by the Engliſh the *banyan-tree*. That deſcribed by Mr. Wales's print, is on an iſland in the river Nurbudda, ten miles from the city of Baroach, in the province of Gujraat, ceded to Madajie Scindia by the government of Bengal, at a treaty of peace concluded with the Mahrattas in 1783. The tree is ſuppoſed to be the largeſt, and moſt extraordinary in exiſtence; and is aſſuredly a moſt ſtupendous production.

From Mr. Maurice's third volume of Indian Antiquities, page 493, the following account of the banyan tree is taken. "The banyan, or Indian fig-tree, is perhaps the moſt beautiful and ſurpriſing production of nature in the vegetable kingdom. Some of theſe trees are of an amazing ſize, and as they are always increaſing, they may in ſome meaſure be ſaid to be exempt from decay. Every branch proceeding from the trunk throws out its own roots; firſt in ſmall fibres, at the diſtance of ſeveral yards from the ground; theſe continually becoming thicker when they approach the earth, take root, and ſhoot out new branches, which in time bend downwards, take root in the like manner, and produce other branches, which continue in this ſtate of progreſſion as long as they find ſoil to nourish them.

"This tree, called in India *Cabeer Burr*, in honour of a famous ſaint, was much larger than it is at preſent; for high floods have at different times carried away the banks of the iſland where it grows, and along with them ſuch parts of the tree as had extended their roots thus far; yet what ſtill remains is about two thouſand feet in circumference, meaſuring round the principal ſtems; but the hanging branches, the roots of which have not reached the ground, cover a much larger extent. The chief trunks of this ſingle tree amount to three hundred and ſixty, all ſuperior in ſize to the generality of our Engliſh oaks and elms; the ſmalleſt ſtems, forming into ſtronger ſupporters, are more than three thouſand; and from each of theſe new branches, hanging roots are proceeding, which in time will form trunks, and become parents to a future progeny.

"*Cabeer Burr* is famed throughout Hindooſtan for its prodigious extent, antiquity, and great beauty. The Indian armies often encamp round it; and at certain ſeaſons, ſolemn Jattras, or Hindoo feſtivals, are held here, to which thouſands of votaries repair from various parts of the Mogul empire. Seven thouſand perſons, it is ſaid, may eaſily reſt under its ſhade. There is a tradition among the natives, that this tree is three thouſand years old; and that this is the amazing tree

\* Lieut. Moor's Narrative, &c. p. 402.



ers; but these measures tended to create desertion, and increase distress. In short no man will carry his family to camp who does not find his convenience and advantage in doing so; no person will pay for servants he does not want, nor will followers attend on an army without pay who do not earn a living, which they can do only by contributing to its support. There are no towns to be depended on for supplies, and an army in India not only carries with it most of the means of subsistence for several months, but also a variety of necessaries, which are exposed daily in the bazars, like merchandize in a fair; a scene altogether resembling more the emigration of a nation guarded by its troops, than the march of an army fitted out merely with the intention to subdue an enemy."—The major's idea of likening a country army to the emigration of a nation, guarded by its troops, is very happy.

Speaking of the Bhow's army (in page 10) the major says, "The Mahratta camp was at the distance of about six miles from ours, and, on approaching it, had the appearance of a large irregular town; for the chiefs pitch their standards and take up their ground around their general without order; and their tents being of all sizes, and of many different colours, at a distance resemble houses more than canvass.—The streets too of their camp crossing and winding in every direction, display a variety of merchandize as in a great fair. There are shoofs, (bankers) jewellers, smiths, mechanics, and people of every trade and description, as busily employed in their occupations, and attending as minutely to their interests, as if they were at Poonah and at peace."

Orme, in his "History of the Military Transactions of the British Nations in Hindostan," a work which we sincerely wish may be continued, notices the number of women and followers to an eastern army: he says every "common soldier in an Indian army is accompanied either by a wife or a concubine; the officers have several, and the generals whole seraglios: besides these, the army is encumbered by a number of attendants and servants, exceeding that of the fighting men; and to supply the various wants of the enervated multitude, dealers, pedlars, and retailers of all sorts, follow the army, to whom a separate quarter is allotted, in which they daily expose their different commodities in greater quantities, and with more regularity, than in any fair in Europe\*."

[SINGULAR CUSTOMS.] The beetel is in universal use throughout all India, perhaps throughout Asia, from the pauper to the prince. The proper name of this compounded quid is, from the ingredients of which it is compounded, called paan-sooparee, or a beeree. It is an article at all entertainments and visits: at the latter, a beeree being presented, is equivalent to a licence, or what in England we should call a hint for taking leave. The beeree is composed of the sooparee, commonly called beetel, cut by an instrument for the purpose into thin slices, two or three of which, with a cardanom, and a very small quantity of chuna, is inclosed in a paan, or leaf, and fastened by a clove in a triangular form.

Although the beeree is at first unpleasent to Europeans, a little intercourse with country people will soon familiarise it so as not only to be tolerated, but desirable and grateful. On ceremonious visits the beeree, as before noticed, are distributed, ready made, previously to the guest's departure; but on familiar occasions, the paardan, leaf-holder is early brought into company, and each person helps himself; or should ladies be introduced, the luxury is enhanced by their preparing the beeree.

There are, perhaps, few practices in any part of the world more extensive than this of chewing beetel in India, and in many parts it is done to a degree bordering

\* Lieut. Moor's Narrative of the Operations of Capt. Little's Detachment, p. 84.

on disgust. Many of the inhabitants of the peninsula are guilty of this excess, particularly on the Malabar coast. The Malays, and inhabitants of the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal, the Sumatrans, and all the people in the Streights of Malacca, the island of Borneo, Madagascar, and others in Africa, it is said, abuse it to a shameful degree; and mixing too much chuna, or some other corroding ingredient, their teeth decay, and their mouths are extremely filthy. What few people our traveller saw on the island of Sumatra were so without exception\*.

Tobacco is not so much used by the Canareese as by most eastern nations; in those parts, however, where it is used to excess, so much attention is paid to cleanliness, that it is less disagreeable than the smaller quantity more grossly used by the Canareese. The women seldom smoke, but the inferior people chew a small quantity of tobacco with their betel. It must be observed, that the ladies, or females above the common classes, of India, although accustomed to both smoking tobacco, and chewing betel, do them with so much attention to cleanliness, as not to offend the most punctilious nicety. The extreme elegance of the smoking apparatus not leaving the smallest indelicacy in the breath, and the beeri or betel, in moderation, is highly esteemed as a sweetener of it. Nothing indeed can be a greater proof of their utility, and agreeable effects, than being grateful to the ladies of Indostan; for no females on earth can be more attentive to their personal attractions, nor readier to reject anything that might have the most minute tendency to lessen them. To an Englishman, it may possibly be a stronger argument, informing him that his own countrywomen, so famed for delicacy and sweetness, do not scruple to partake of the refined luxury of inhaling tobacco in the eastern stile; nor do they despise the beeri, although, perhaps, it is not in so much, nor so deserved, estimation as the hoykah †.

[ADHERENCE TO ANCIENT USAGE.] The bigotry with which all sects of Hindoos adhere to their own customs is well known; still when these customs are strikingly injudicious, and totally abstracted from religious prejudices, perseverance degenerates into obstinacy, and simplicity into ignorance.

The farriers travel about the camp, and, wherever they are wanted, do the business on the spot; as they carry a dozen ready made shoes, with nails, and all their implements in a bag. The anvil weighs five or six pounds, and is driven into the ground; a hammer or two, a pair of pincers, and a clumsy knife to pare the hoof are all their tools ‡. They use no rasp, but pare the hoof to fit the shoe.

[LANGUAGES SPOKEN IN THE PENINSULA.] On considering the advantages that a traveller conversant in the languages of the countries in which he

\* Lieut. Moor's Narrative, &c. p. 375.

† Ibid. p. 207.

‡ The same small number of tools used by all the mechanics in India is remarkable. A carpenter carries his whole stock about with him, and it is indifferent to him where he works: he has no work-shop or bench, but squats on the ground wherever his job calls him. A couple of hammers, as many chisels, a plane, a saw, a drill, used as a gimblet, and a tool with a short handle, otherwise not unlike an adze, its head serving as a hammer, are his whole store. With these the carpenters work very well, and neatly.

A goldsmith is in the same stile: his furnace is a broken earthen pot, containing two or three pounds of charcoal; his bellows are his own cheeks, and a piece of musquet barrel, or a bamboo tube, which he holds in one hand, while he

stirs the metal in the crucible with a pair of pincers in the other: his crucible is of earth baked in the sun, and resists the heat these simple furnaces are capable of affording; his anvil is knocked in the ground, and a little water, in a cocoa nut shell, serves to cool his metal. His tools are not more numerous than the carpenter's, a hammer or two, as many files and polishing instruments, and a plate for drawing wire, are all with which these people work so neatly. The goldsmith too is indifferent where he works; he is ready to work in his employer's house, where, by knocking his anvil into the ground, his apparatus is prepared. At home they generally work in open verandas, and remove their tools into the house at night. We are not now speaking of camp particularly; it is thus in Bombay, Poona, Tellicherry, and every where in India. Lieut. Moor's Narrative, p. 93.

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travels, has over his uninformed companion, we are induced to give our opinion on the subject of the languages spoken in the peninsula, and which of them will be of most utility to a person in his peregrinations there. That which is commonly, but incorrectly called Moors, is the first that a person visiting India will, in most parts, observe to be in practice; but if he has occasion to go about the centre of the peninsula, he will frequently be in situations where that language will avail him but little. Northward of the Krishna, and between the 74th and 79th degrees of longitude, the Mahratta tongue is generally spoken. From the Krishna southward, to perhaps Cape Comorin, the Canarese prevails, with the exceptions of the Malabars between the Ghauts and the western shore, and the Tamulic, generally also called Malabars, spoken by the inhabitants of the eastern coast of the peninsula: both these languages, however, as we have noticed in another place, bear strong internal evidence of having originally been the same with the Canarese. In the low country north of the Krishna's latitude, on the western side, a corrupt jargon is in use called Koonknee, or Kooknee, composed of Moors and Mahrattas. The situation in which a resident may be placed, will of course, in a great measure, regulate his application to languages; but in almost every place where Europeans are likely to be called, the Hindoi, the tongue just called Moors, is first to be recommended, and farther his situation and inclination must determine. In the European settlements on the Malabar coasts, particularly in Tellicherry, Cochin Anjenga, &c. the Portuguese is a good deal spoken, sadly corrupted.

On the subject of Persian, we speak with the diffidence which but a confined knowledge in that beautiful dialect renders becoming; and from that knowledge in the practical part being so confined, we draw the conclusion that it is very little known in the peninsula; for in journeys of several thousand miles, I rarely, says Mr. Moor, although they were sought, met with opportunities of conversing in it. Its study is, nevertheless, strongly to be recommended; and should the student have no other inducements but gratifying his curiosity and taste for polite literature, that gratification he will find very satisfactory: if his avocations or amusements call him to courts, he will, if ignorant, be unpleasantly situated, there being no other language used where we have connections, at any court in India, Poona excepted: (we do not mean to include the petty sovereignties on the Malabar coast, &c.) indeed among the Mahometans, Persian is reckoned necessary to a genteel education, bearing precisely the same analogy to their other languages, as French does in Europe\*.

CHARACTERS AND MATERIALS } The characters used in writing by the Canarese and Malabars, appear, as well as their dialect, to be derived from the same source: they write from the left, as we do; the Malabars, with an iron skewer, on leaves of a species of the palmyra, commonly called the brab-tree: the leaf is about two inches broad, has many folds, strung loosely by a loop at the end, and is held in the left hand, the thumb-nail of which, in those who profess writing, has a nick in it to receive and direct the skewer: the writing is performed with inconceivable quickness, and not only trifling occurrences, but public records of disbursements and events are thus written and preserved.

On public or important matters, the Canarese, we believe, write on common paper; but their ordinary accounts and writings are done with a white pencil on black paper, or rather a cloth, which is prepared something like our slate paper, and the pencil is a fossil very similar to French chalk. A large book has but one piece of this paper, which is folded backward and forward, and will open out to

\* Lieut. Moor's Narrative, p. 426.

ten or twelve yards in length. We are not certain, says Mr. Moor, if their records are written on common paper, for in a pagoda at Dooridroog, and in other places, we saw a quantity, perhaps a waggon load, of the manuscript books; two or three small ones we brought away, but they contained little else than accounts of sums expended for the services of the pagoda; the whole, however, could hardly be on the same subject\*.

[THE METHOD OF RECKONING TIME.] This is the same as in other parts of India, by p'hours and gurries; but the manner of measuring it in Chittledroog and other sorts, is somewhat curious. It may be called a hydrostatic measure, being a small cup with a hole in its bottom, floated in a vessel of water, and when a certain quantity of water is received into the cup, from its gravity it sinks, and points out the expiration of a particular portion of time. The water being kept quite unruffled, this may perhaps be a very accurate method of measuring time, as it is evident no other nicety is required but exactness in the hole of the cup, which may be easily determined. At each gurry, or half hour, the cup sinks, and the centinel who has charge of the time measurer, strikes the number upon a gong, and emptying the cup, immediately sets it afloat. After the p'hours, that is to say, at three, six, nine, and twelve o'clock, he makes a clattering on the gong, and begins gurries again, similar to the bells on shipboard. A gong is a circular piece of brass, or sonorous metal, plane on both sides, three or four feet in diameter, and a quarter of an inch thick; it is hung up by a thong, and being struck with a piece of hard wood, is heard to a great distance †.

[MAUSOLEUM.] Besides many other elegant buildings in the city of Bejapoor, Mr. Moor gives a very curious description of the mausoleum of Ibrahim Padshah, in the following terms: "fronting the mosque, at the distance of forty yards, having a piece of water and a fountain between, stands the stately mausoleum of the king (Ibrahim Padshah) and his family. It is a room of 57 feet square, inclosed by two virandas; the inner 13 feet broad, and 22 feet high, the outer 20 feet broad by 30, supported by seven arches in each face: the interstices of the stones at top are filled with lead, and clamped together by ponderous bars of iron, some of which have been wrenched from their holds by the destructive Mahrattas, supposing, perhaps, that they were of a metal more precious. The stones are so neatly joined as to appear all of one piece in the inside, where the tops of the virandas are ornamented with beautiful sculptures, chiefly passages from the Koran; but the sides of the room are in the most elaborate style: it is indeed wonderfully so. A black stone, but not we believe marble, is the chief material, on which chapters of the Koran are raised in manner of basso relievo, and polished equal to a mirror. The part cut out to give a due degree of prominence to the letters, has on the northern side been beautifully gilt, and adorned with flowers on a blue ground, in imitation of enamel. The doors, which are the only pieces of wood in the building, are handsome, and studded with gilt knobs; around the door-ways in each face, are a variety of ornaments exquisitely executed. There is a window on each side of the four doors, and over them arches of open work, so contrived, that what is not cut out expresses passages from the Koran. Around the southern door is a tetraëch, containing an account of the expenses of this building; by

\* Orme, in the xxvth note to his fragments, on the authority of M. Anquetil da Perron, says, the Mahrattas and Canarese "Morattos and Canarins," use the same character, and regulate their chronology by the same cycle. As to their chronological regulations we cannot speak; but their cha-

raacters, to us, appear to differ materially; that used by the Mahrattas seems very similar to the Nagri, the ordinary character common to Hindoos. Lieut Moor's Narrative. &c. p. 277.

† Ibid. p. 136.

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which it appears to have cost fourteen lacs, and thirty-one thousand pagodas: it is not thus expressed, but in a mytic manner, to bring in as often as possible the number NINE, which is of virtue in astrological calculations; the lines concluded thus:—one hundred and fifty-nine thousand pagodas nine times told. Estimating the pagoda at its highest value, the amount is nearly seven hundred thousand pounds sterling, which sum we were informed was expended on the tomb alone; but we apprehend it includes the mosque and adjacent buildings, and even then is an enormous sum in a country where labour is so cheap. Six thousand five hundred and thirty-three workmen were employed on this elegant structure, thirty-six years, eleven months, and eleven days." Page 312.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } From what has been said above, this peninsula is rather to be divided into great governments, or soubahships, than into provinces. One soubah often engrosses several provinces, and fixes the seat of his government according to his own conveniency. I shall speak of those provinces as belonging to the Malabar, or Coromandel coast, the two great objects of English commerce in that country; and first, of the eastern, or Coromandel coast.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the southernmost point of the peninsula. It is about the bigness of the kingdom of Portugal, and is said to have been governed by a sovereign king, who had under him seventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax; now, the case is much altered, the prince of the country being scarcely able to protect himself and his people from the depredations of his neighbours, but by a tribute to buy them off: the capital is Tritchinopoli. The chief value of this kingdom seems to consist in a pearl fishery upon its coast. Tanjore is a little kingdom, lying to the east of Madura. The soil is fertile, and its prince rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and some British subjects connected with him. Within it, lies the Danish East India settlement of Tranquebar, and the fortress of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch the war before the last, and confirmed to the English by the succeeding treaty of peace. The capital city is Tanjore, governed by a rajah under the English protection.

The Carnatic is bounded on the east by the bay of Bengal, on the north by the river Kistna, which divides it from Golconda; on the west by Visapur, or Vissipour; and on the south by the kingdoms of Messaur and Tanjore; being in length, from south to north, about 345 miles. If Tanjore, Marrawar, Tritchinopoli, Madura, and Tinivelly be included, and they are all appendages of the Carnatic, the length thereof, from north to south, is 570 miles, but no where more than 110 wide, and chiefly no more than 80. The capital of the Carnatic is Bisnagar, belonging to the nabob of Arcot, whose dominions commence on the south of the Guntoo circar, and extend along the whole coast of Coromandel to Cape Comorin. The country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lies Fort St. David's, or Cuddalore, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, the emporium of the French in the East Indies, which hath been repeatedly taken by the English, and as often restored by the treaties of peace; but has again lately surrendered to the British arms.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the English East India Company's dominions in that part of the East Indies, and is distant eastward from London about 4800 miles.

The English town, rising from within Fort St. George, has from the sea a rich and beautiful appearance; the houses being covered with a stucco called chunam,

which in itself is nearly as compact as the finest marble, and, as it bears as high a polish, is equally splendid with that elegant material. The style of the buildings is in general handsome. They consist of long colonnades, with open porticoes, and flat roofs, and offer to the eye an appearance similar to what we may conceive of a Grecian city in the age of Alexander. The clear, blue, cloudless sky, the polished white buildings, the bright sandy beach, and the dark green sea, present a combination totally new to the eye of an Englishman, just arrived from London, who, accustomed to the sight of rolling masses of clouds floating in a damp atmosphere, cannot but contemplate the difference with delight: and the eye being thus gratified, the mind soon assumes a gay and tranquil habit, analogous to the pleasing objects with which it is surrounded.

Some time before the ship arrives at her anchoring ground, she is hailed by the boats of the country filled with people of business, who come in crowds on board. This is the moment in which an European feels the greatest distinction between Asia and his own country. The rustling of fine linen, and the general hum of unusual conversation, presents to his mind for a moment the idea of an assembly of females. When he ascends upon the deck, he is struck with the long muslin dresses, and black faces adorned with very large gold ear-rings and white turbans. The first salutation he receives from these strangers is by bending their bodies very low, touching the deck with the back of the hand and the forehead three times.

The settlement of Madras was formed by the English at or about the middle of the last century, and was a place of no real consequence but for its trade, until the war so ably carried on by general Stringer Laurence, from the year 1748 to 1752; and which originated from the claims of Chunda Saib, in opposition to our ally, Mahomed Ally Cawn, the present nabob of Arcot; from which period the English may be considered as sovereigns. In the school of this able officer the late lord Clive received his military education.

In Fort St. George are many handsome and spacious streets. The houses may be considered as elegant, and particularly so from the beautiful material with which they are finished, the chunan. The inner apartments are not highly decorated, presenting to the eye only white walls; which however, from the marble-like appearance of the stucco, give a freshness grateful in so hot a country. Ceilings are very uncommon in the rooms. Indeed it is impossible to find any which will resist the ravages of that destructive insect, the white ant. These animals are chiefly formidable from the immensity of their numbers, which are such as to destroy, in one night's time, a ceiling of any dimensions. I saw, observes Mr. Hodges, an instance in the ceiling to the portico of the admiralty, or governor's house, which fell in flakes of twenty feet square. It is the wood-work which serves for the bases of ceilings, such as the laths, beams, &c. that these insects attack; and this will serve to explain the circumstance just mentioned.

The houses on Choultry Plain are many of them beautiful pieces of architecture, the apartments spacious and magnificent. I know not, says Mr. Hodges, that I ever felt more delight, than in going on a visit to a family on Choultry Plain, soon after my arrival at Madras, in the cool of the evening after a very hot day. The moon shone in its fullest lustre, not a cloud overcast the sky, and every house on the plain was illuminated. Each family, with their friends, were in the open porticoes, enjoying the breeze. Such a scene appears more like a tale of enchantment than a reality to the imagination of a stranger just arrived\*.

The fort protects two towns, called, from the complexions of their several inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an English

\* Hodges' Travels in India, in the years 1780, 1781, 1782, and 1783, pages 1, 8, and 9.

corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to mend the natural badness of its situation, which seems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, that are but a week's journey distant. These mines are under the direction of a mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasurement, enclosing the contents by pallisadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The district belonging to Madras doth not extend much more than forty miles round, and is of little value for its product. Eighty thousand inhabitants of various nations are said to be dependent upon Madras; but its safety consists in the superiority of the English by sea. It carries on a considerable trade with China, Persia, and Mocha.

Immense fortunes have been gained by the English upon this coast within thirty years; and the English East India Company, through the distractions of the Mogul empire, the enterprising spirit of their military officers, and the assistance of the English navy, acquired an income in this peninsula, and in Indostan, that is superior to the revenues of many crowned heads. The right hon. Henry Dundas, in his speech before the house of commons, Feb. 23, 1793, has proved from an average of three years, 1787-8 to 1789-90, that the net revenue of the company is 1,614,013 l to which is to be added the income arising from the countries ceded by Tippoo at the termination of the war, of about 400,000 l. from which the expences attending it must be deducted. But he estimates the future revenues at 1,971,050 l.\*

The kingdom of Golconda, besides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapness of its provisions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January. It is subject to a prince, called the Nizam or soubah of the Deccan, who is rich, and can raise 100,000 men. The famous diamond mine, Raolconda, is in this province. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagar, or Hydrabad; but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda, and comprizes the eastern part of Dowletabad. East-south-east of Golconda lies Masulipatam, where the English and Dutch have factories. The English have also factories at Ganjam and Visagapatam, on this coast; and the Dutch at Narisnore. The province of Orissa, from whence the English company draw some part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from east to west about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed chiefly by Moodajee Booslah, and his brother Bembajee, allies to the Mahrattas. In this province stands the idolatrous temple of Jagernaut, which they say is attended by 500 priests. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black stone, of about 4 or 500 lb. weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to represent eyes, and the nose and mouth painted with vermilion.

Major Rennell observes, that there is a void space between the known parts of Berar, Golconda, Orissa, and the northern circars, of near 300 miles in length, and 250 in breadth, and that it is not likely to be filled up unless a great change takes place in European politics in India. Our possessions in the northern circars extend only 70 miles inland, and in some places not more than 30, which forms a slip of 350 miles in length, bounded towards the continent by a ridge of mountains. Within these, and towards Berar, is an extensive tract of woody and mountainous country, with which the adjacent provinces appear to have scarcely any communication. Though surrounded by people highly civilized, and who abound in useful manufactures, it is said that the few specimens of the miserable inhabitants of this tract who have appeared in the circars, use no covering but a wisp of straw. This wild country extends about 160 miles, and the first civilized people beyond them are the Berar Mahrattas.

\* See the Heads of Mr. Dundas's Speech.

The origin and signification of the word **MARRATTA** (or **MORATTOE**) has of late, observes major Rennell \*, been very much the subject of inquiry and discussion in India; and various fanciful conjectures have been made concerning it. We learn however, from Ferishta †, that **MARHAT** was the name of a province in the Deccan; and that it comprehended Baglana or (Bogilana) and other districts, which at present form the most central part of the **Mahratta** dominions. The original meaning of the term **Marhat**, like that of most other proper names, is unknown; but that the name of the nation in question is a derivative from it, cannot be doubted: for the testimony of Ferishta may be received without the smallest suspicion of error, or of design to establish a favourite opinion, when it is considered that he wrote at a period, when the inhabitants of the province of **MARHAT** did not exist as an independent nation; but were blended with the other subjected **Hindoos** of the Deccan. Besides the testimony of Ferishta, there is that also of **Nizam-ul-Deen** ‡, an author who wrote at an earlier period; and who relates in his general history of **Hindoostan**, that one of the kings of **Delhi** made an excursion from **Deegur** (**Dowlatabad**) into the neighbouring province of **MARHAT** §.

The country of the Deccan ¶ comprehends several large provinces, and some kingdoms; particularly those of **Baglana**, **Balagate**, **Telenga**, and the kingdom of **Viliapour**. Modern geographers are not agreed upon the exact situation and extent of those countries: but by the assistance of major Rennell's late Memoirs of a map of **Indoostan**, and his new drawings, we have gratified our readers with a new map, which we hope will be found clear and accurate. The principal towns are **Aurangabad**, and **Doltabad** or **Dowlatabad**. The latter is the strongest place in all **Indoostan**. Near it stands the famous pagod of **Elorá**, in a plain of about two leagues square. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thousand figures that surround it, are said to be cut out of the natural rock, and to surpass all the other efforts of human art. **Telenga** lies on the east of **Golconda**, and its capital, **Beder**, contains a garrison of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province speak a language peculiar to themselves.

**Guzerat** is a maritime province on the gulf of **Cambaya**, and one of the finest in **India**, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people. It is said to contain 35 cities. **Amedabab** is the capital of the province, where there is an English factory, and is

\* Introduction of his Memoirs, p. lxxix.

† Ferishta's History of the Deccan, &c. opens to our view the knowledge of an empire that has scarcely been heard of in Europe. Its emperors of the **BADISHAH** dynasty (which commenced with **Hassan** CAIC, A. D. 1347) appear to have exceeded in power and splendour, those of **Delhi**, even at the most flourishing periods of their history. The seat of government was at **Calberga** (See **Orme's Historical Fragments**, p. cxxvii.) which was central to the great body of the empire; and is at this day a considerable city. Like other overgrown empires, it fell to pieces with its own weight: and out of it were formed four potent kingdoms, under the names of **Viliapour** (properly **Belapour**), **Golconda**, **Berar**, and **Amednagur**; whose particular limits and interior members we are not well informed of. Each of these subsisted with a considerable degree of power, until the **Mogul** conquest; and the two first preserved their independency until the time of **Aurengzebe**. It is worthy of remark, that the four monarchs of these kingdoms, like the **Cæsars** and **Ptolemies**, had each

of them a name or title, common to the dynasty to which he belonged; and which were derived from the respective founders. Thus the kings of **Viliapour**, were styled **Audil** (or **Adil**) **Shah**; those of **Golconda**, **Cuttub** **Shah**; and those of **Berar** and **Amednagur**, **Nizam** **Shah**, and **Emud** **Shah**.

‡ **Nizam-ul-Deen** was an officer in the court of **Arbar**; and wrote a general history of **Hindoostan**, which he brought down to the 40th year of that emperor.

§ This also occurs in **Ferishta's History of Hindoostan**. It was in the reign of **Alla I. A. D. 1312**. See also p. lii. of the introduction.

¶ The name **DECCAN** signifies the SOUTH, and in its most extensive signification, includes the whole peninsula south of **Indoostan** Proper. However, in its ordinary acceptation, it means only the countries situated between **Indoostan** Proper, the **Carnatic**, and **Orissa**; that is, the provinces of **Candish**, **Amednagur**, **Viliapour**, **Golconda**, and the western part of **Berar**. **Rennell's Introduction** to his **Memoir of his Map of Indoostan**, p. cxii.

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said, in wealth, to vie with the richest towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues distant lies Surut, where the English have a flourishing factory.

Vissapour is a large province: the western part is called Konkan, which is intermingled with the Portuguese possessions. The rajah of Vissapour is said to have had a yearly revenue of six millions sterling, and to have brought into the field 150,000 soldiers. The capital is of the same name, and the country very fruitful. The principal places on this coast are Damau, Bassaim, Trapour, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahpur, Dabul-Rajahpur, Gheriah, and Vingorla. The Portuguese have lost several valuable possessions on this coast; and those which remain are on the decline.

Among the islands lying upon the same coast is that of Bombay, belonging to the English East India Company. Its harbour can conveniently contain 1000 ships at anchor. The island itself is about seven miles in length, and twenty in circumference; but its situation and harbour are its chief recommendations, being destitute of almost all the conveniences of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to English constitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance, taught them preservatives against its unwholesomeness. The best water there is preserved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy seasons.

The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of stone. Many black merchants reside here. This island was part of the portion paid with the infants of Portugal to Charles II. who gave it to the East India Company; and the island is still divided into three Roman-catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and what are called popish Mestizos and Canarins; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese; and the other, aborigines of the country. The English have fallen upon methods to render this island and town, under all their disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable residence. The governor and council of Bombay have lucrative posts, as well as the officers under them. The native troops or sepoys on the island are commanded by English officers. The inhabitants of the island amount to near 60,000 of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmolested. Here, besides Europeans of all countries, you meet with Turks, Persians, Arabians, Armenians, a mixed race, the vilest of their species, descended from the Portuguese, and the outcasts from the Gentoo religion, &c. and also captives that are slaves to every other tribe. The Turks that resort to this place on account of trade, are, like the rest of their countrymen, stately, grave, and reserved. The Persians are more gay, lively, and conversible, but less honest in matters of trade, than the saturnine Turks. The Arabians are all life and fire, and when they treat with you on any subject, will make you a fine oration in flowing numbers, and a musical cadence; but they are the most dishonest of all. The Armenians are generally handsome in their features, mild in their tempers, kind and beneficent, and profess the Christian religion.

Near Bombay are several other islands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the most inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural size, cut coarsely in stone, presents itself on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain. An easy slope then leads to a stupendous temple, hewn out of the solid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantic figures, which have been mutilated by the blind zeal of the Portuguese. Besides the temple, are various images, and groups on each hand, cut in the stone: one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance of the judgment of Solomon; also a colonnade, with a door

of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of resemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The island and city of Goa, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in the East Indies, lies about thirty miles south of Vingorla. The island is about twenty-seven miles in compass. It has one of the finest and best fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a most superb settlement, surpassed in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is the residence of a captain general sent from Portugal, who lives in great splendour. The city stands upon the banks of a river of the same name, about twelve miles distant from the entrance of the harbour: the view up this river is truly delightful, the banks on either side being adorned with churches and country seats of the Portuguese, interspersed with groves and vallies. The hills behind rise to an amazing height, and add grandeur to the prospect. The city of Goa itself is adorned with many fine churches, magnificently decorated; and has several handsome convents; the church of St. Augustine is a noble structure, and is adorned in the inside by many fine pictures. It stands on the top of a hill, which commands an extensive view of the city and adjacent country: it is a circumstance that has always been observed, and very justly, that the Portuguese have ever chosen the spots for their convents and churches in the most delightful situations. The church has a convent adjoining to it, in which live a set of religious monks, of the order of St. Augustine: some of the brothers of this convent have given popes and cardinals to the Roman see, as appears by their portraits which are hung up in a neat chapel.

Goa, as well as the rest of the Portuguese possessions on this coast, is under a viceroy, who will not suffer any Mussulman or Gentoo to live within the precincts of the city. The Portuguese dominions have dwindled almost to nothing through this bigotry and oppression; yet the court cannot be prevailed upon to alter its measures, although the flourishing situation of the English and other European settlements (and of which one cause is certainly the mild and tolerant principles exercised in points of religion, provided it interferes not with government) is continually before their eyes. Tippoo Sultan lately shewed an inclination to attack them, but was suddenly called off by the Mahrattas. There was formerly an acquisition at this place, but it is now abolished; the building still remains, and, by its black outside, appears a fit emblem of the cruel and bloody transactions that passed within its walls! The rich peninsula of Salvett is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies south of the Portuguese territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the Mogul.

Canara lies about forty miles to the south of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its soil is famous for rice, that supplies many parts of Europe, and some of the Indies. The Canarese are said generally to be governed by a lady, whose son has the title of rajah; and her subjects are accounted the bravest and most civilized of any in that peninsula, and remarkably given to commerce.

The celebrated Hyder Ally is said to have been a native of Mysore, which lies to the south-west of the Carnatic. He was a very active and powerful prince; but upon his death in 1783, his dominions descended to his son Tippoo Sultan. They have been diminished nearly one half in consequence of the late war; at the termination of which, and as the price of peace, Tippoo was obliged to cede some very extensive and profitable districts to the British, to the Mahrattas, and to the Nizam. The territories that still remain in his possession will be fully stated at the end of this account of India.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole south-west coast of the peninsula, yet it is confined at present to the country so called, lying on the west of Cape Comorin, and called the dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however,

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is common in the Carnatic; and the country itself is rich and fertile; but pestered with green adders, whose poison is incurable. The most remarkable places in Malabar are Cranganore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; and Tellicherry, where the English have a small settlement, keeping a constant garrison of one battalion of sepoy, a company of artillery, and sometimes a company of European infantry; they are also able to raise about three thousand native militia. The view of the country round Tellicherry is very pleasant, consisting of irregular hills and vallies. The boundaries of the English are terminated by the opposite side of the river, and at a very little distance is a strong fortress of Tippoo. Tellicherry is esteemed by all who reside there one of the healthiest places in India. It is much resorted to by convalescents. I observed, (says Mr. Franklin) in the company's garden, the pepper-vine, which grows in a curious manner, and something similar to the grape. The pepper on it, when fit to gather, appears in small bunches; it is in size something larger than the head of a small pea; the pepper, however, for the company's ships' cargoes, is brought from some distance in the country. Tellicherry produces the coffee-tree. Calicut also deserves to be mentioned, where the French and Portuguese have small factories, besides various other distinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the southernmost part of this peninsula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the same garden the two seasons of the year; the trees being loaded with blossoms and fruit on the one side, while on the other side they are stripped of all their leaves. This surprising phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains so often mentioned, which traverse the peninsula from south to north. On the opposite sides of the Cape, the winds are constantly at variance, blowing from the west on the west side, and from the east on the eastern side.

In the district of Cochin, within Malabar, are to be found some thousands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manasseh, and to have records engraven on copper plates in Hebrew characters. They are said to be so poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. Discoveries of Jews and their records have likewise been made in China, and other places of Asia, which have occasioned various speculations among the learned.

CURIOUS INSTANCE OF ORIENTAL ALLEGORY.] Few courts in India, perhaps, afford so many instances of folly and ostentatious adulation as that of Hyderabad. During the war, the nizam, it seems, was determined to take the field in person, as it was clearly proved at court that nothing decisive could be effected against Tippoo, without the influence of his highness's presence and wisdom; and he actually moved with his court to Paungul on his way to the armies. One of his courtiers, setting forth the inadequacy of the object to the inconvenience it must necessarily subject his highness to, concluded his oration by saying, "that, so far from his presence being necessary, were one of his highness's royal slippers hurled against the gates of Seringapatam, it would wrench them from their holds." What can more fully shew the hyperbolical adulation of courtiers than this harangue addressed to one whose impotency in the field and imbecility in the cabinet are equally notorious? Tippoo would with as much contempt see the united force of the Nizamites really at his gates, as he would the romantic experiment of "his highness's royal slipper." The full force of this courtier-like rhapsody does not appear in a translation; in the East, being struck with a shoe or slipper, conveys an idea of the most degrading kind.

## FENERAL

\* The East is certainly the seat of allegory and figurative epithets, which being peculiarly suited to the genius of the languages, are sometimes happily conceived and elegantly applied. For the tender

**FUNERAL CEREMONIES IN CANARA.]** We had an opportunity (says lieutenant Moor) of attending the funeral of a Canarise, which was performed much in the same manner as we had before observed north of the Kishna, where we saw an old woman buried, whom they brought in a sort of litter to a hole dug about four feet square and deep, in which, with great care, she was preserved in a sitting posture, with her face to the east. Being supported in this position with clods of clay, and some plantains and beetel put in her lap, she was covered with dirt, all but her head, when a mangoe leaf was put in her mouth, and a little water poured upon it; one of the attendants bawling and striking his mouth during this part of the ceremony. The grave was then immediately filled, and each of the attendants taking a handful of mangoe leaves, continued attentive while one pronounced a short oration, when they flung them on the grave, cried *hara!* thrice, and departed. There were not more than eight attendants, and in none of them could be observed any signs of grief, rather of unconcern and indifference:—perhaps they were not relations.

At Tarrakeera, the deceased was a young man, who was attended to his grave by his father, mother, widow, and half a dozen other relations, most of them making hideous noises; all which appeared to be mechanical, and not the genuine effusions of sorrow: the father placed the deceased in his grave, and appeared much affected—he was silent; the mother was most vociferous, and felt the least; the widow, a very handsome young girl, came unadorned, with dishevelled hair, and all the external signs of woe; but she performed her part of the ceremony, of presenting plantains, beetel, &c. to her husband's remains, with so much studied and attentive grace, and her lamentations were so elegantly modulated, that she seemed winning a lover to her arms, rather than bewailing the loss she had so recently sustained.—This funeral was attended by music\*.

Before we close our account of Indostan, it may be proper to describe its present division according to the different powers among whom it is shared; and this is the more necessary, as it may serve to give the reader a clearer idea of these extensive regions, and at the same time shew him how very considerable a portion belongs to the British and their allies.

tender effusions of an enamoured heart, the Persian is perhaps unrivalled; and for the bolder flights of fancy, in energy is inferior to few. The following *jeu d'esprit* was communicated by a Bramin, and is added as an instance of the fanciful turn sometimes given by flowery Orientals. The names of the courts were perhaps applied by the Bramin, and the anecdote is not, we apprehend, a new one: it will lose much by the translation, more by the translator. A vakeel from Tippoo to the court of Hyderabad, after stating the magnificence and power of his master, admitted in answer to one of the courtiers, that Tippoo comparatively was but the new moon, whereas his highness was the full-orbed planet, in the plenitude of its splendour. Such a flattering confession, conveyed in so elegant a compliment to the Nizam's country, gained the ambassador the entire confidence of the court; and the success of the embassy gained his superior address. Jealous of their sovereign's favour, envious persons at Serinaganstam procured the recal and impeachment of the vakeel, who honourably acquitted himself of every article preferred against him; when his ene-

mies, as their last resource, charged him with the speech that had been so grateful to the Nizamites, declaring that a confidential servant, who could so far forget his diplomatic character, as to evilt the vanity of a foreign prince by so humiliating and debasing his own, merited the most exemplary punishment.

The ambassador, by acknowledging the expression he was charged with having uttered, said it was an exposition of the impotence and ignorance of his enemies. "The full moon," said he, "to which I likened the Nizam, admits no increase in size, or augmentation of splendour: the new moon, the symbol of my royal master, is daily adding to its lustre, and beams on the admiring world in continual accumulation, evidently emblematic of his extending government."

The envious courtiers were confounded, the wavering monarch confirmed in his servant's integrity, who, in the favour of his sovereign, was amply rewarded for his address and ingenuity. *Lieut. Moor's Narrative of the Operations of Capt. Little's Detachment*, p. 119.

\* *Ibid.* p. 211.

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The celebrated Persian usurper, Thomas Kouli Khan, having in the year 1738 defeated the emperor Mahomed Shaw, plundered Delhi, and pillaged the empire of treasure to the amount of more than 70 millions sterling, restored to the unhappy prince his eastern dominions, but annexed to Persia all the countries westward of the Indus.

This dreadful incursion so weakened the authority of the emperor, that the viceroys of the different provinces either threw off their allegiance, or acknowledged a very precarious dependence; and engaging in wars with each other, called in as allies the East-India companies of France and England, who had been originally permitted, as traders, to form establishments on the coasts. These companies, owing to the great superiority of European discipline, from allies became in a short time principals in an obstinate contest, that at length terminated in the expulsion of the French from Indostan; and thus a company of British merchants have acquired, partly by cessions from the country powers, and partly by conquest, territories equal in extent, and superior in wealth and population, to most of the kingdoms of Europe.

The Mahrattas originally possessed several provinces of Indostan, from whence they were driven by the arms of the Mogul conquerors; they were never wholly subdued, but retiring to the northern part of the Ghauts, made frequent incursions from these inaccessible mountains; taking advantage of the anarchy of the empire, they have extended their frontiers, and are at present possessed of a tract of country 1000 British miles long, by 700 wide, besides the territories they acquired by the late partition treaty signed by Tippoo Sultan, in March 1792.

Hyder Ally, a soldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war from the Europeans, having possessed himself of that part of the ancient Carnatic, called the kingdom of Mysore, within a few years gained, by continual conquests, a considerable portion of the southern part of the peninsula. This able and active prince, the most formidable enemy that the English ever experienced in Indostan, dying in 1783, left to his son Tippoo Saib the peaceful possession of his dominions, superior in extent to the kingdom of England.

These extraordinary revolutions, with others of less importance, render the following account of the present division of property in these immense regions absolutely necessary, in order to understand their modern history.

#### PRESENT DIVISION OF INDOSTAN.

Such is the instability of human greatness, that the present Mogul, Shaw Allum, the descendant of the great Famerlane, is merely a nominal prince, of no importance in the politics of Indostan: he is permitted, as we before observed, to reside

• The character of the late Hyder Ally appearing to me (says major Kennell) to be but little understood in this part of the world, I have ventured to attempt an outline of it. His military success, founded on the improvement of discipline; attention to merit of every kind; conciliation of the different tribes that served under his banners; contempt of state and ceremony, except what naturally arise from the dignity of his character; and the consequent economy in personal expences the different habits of which form the great distinction of what is called character among oriental princes) together with his minute attention to

matters of finance, and the regular payment of his army; all these together raised Hyder as far above the princes of Indostan, as the great qualities of the late Prussian monarch raised him above the generality of European princes; hence I have ever considered Hyder as the Famerlane of the East. Cruelty was the vice of Hyder; but we are to consider that Hyder's ideas of mercy were regulated by an Asiatic standard; and it is not improbable that he might rate his own character for moderation and clemency, as far above those of Famerlane, Nadir Shah, and Abdallah, as he rated his discipline above theirs.

at Delhi, which, with a small adjacent territory, is all that remains to him of that vast empire which his ancestors governed for more than 350 years.

The principal divisions of this country, according to the treaty signed at Seringapatam, are as follow, viz. The British possessions; states in alliance with Britain; Mahratta states and their tributaries; the territories of the foubah of the Deccan; and the dominions of Tippoo Sultan.

## BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

The British possessions contain about 197,496 square British miles, (which is 90,327 more than is contained in Great Britain and Ireland) and about 10 millions of inhabitants. They consist of three distinct governments, viz.

Government of Calcutta or Bengal,	{ Bengal Soubah * Bahar Soubah Benares Soubah Northern Circars	{ On the Ganges. On the coast of Orissa.
Government of Madras	{ The Jaghire Territory of Cuddalore ——— of Devicotta ——— of Nagapatam	{ On the coast of Coromandel.
Government of Bombay		On the Gulf of Cambay.

DISTRICTS CEDED BY TIPPOO SULTAN in his late treaty, signed at Seringapatam, on the 18th of March 1792, viz.

	Koontearly pagodas
Calicut and Palicaudcherry, yielding a revenue of	936,765
Dindigul, Pyalny, and Verapachry	90,000
Salem, Koofh, Namcool, and Sunkagherry	88,000
Ahtoor, Purmutty, Shadmungul and Valoor	68,000
Barra-Mahal, Raycotta, Darampoory, &c.	134,000
	1,316,765

At the rate of three rupees to each pagoda, and the rupees reckoned at 2s. 1d. each, the annual value of the late British acquisitions will be 411,450l. according to major Rennell in his Memoir of a Map of the Peninsula of India, p. 33. For the revenue of the other British possessions, see before p. 734.

GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.] This government is rich, flourishing, and populous. It is finely watered by the Ganges and Burrampooter with their numerous navigable channels, and the several navigable rivers they receive; it is fertilized by their periodical inundations; and by its natural situation is well secured against

\* As the terms SOUBAH, CIRCAR, and PURGUNNAH frequently occur in writings and speeches upon India concerns, it may be useful to explain them. During the long reign of Acbar in the 16th century, the internal regulation of the empire of India was much attended to. Acbar began by dividing HINDOOSTAN PROPER into eleven *foubahs* or provinces, some of which were in extent equal

to large European kingdoms. The *foubahs* were again divided into *circars*, and these subdivided into *purgunnahs*. If English names were to be applied to these divisions, they might be styled kingdoms, (or viceroalties), counties §, and hundreds. Rennell's Introduction to his Memoir of a Map of Hindostan, p. cx.

§ Few circars are of less extent than the largest English counties.

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foreign enemies. But for a more particular description of this province, we refer our readers to the account we have already given of it.

GOVERNMENT OF MADRAS.] The great defect of this government is not only the want of connection between its parts, which are scattered along an extensive coast, and separated from each other by states frequently hostile, but that it is totally devoid of good harbours: hopes however have been entertained of supplying this last defect, by removing the bar as the mouth of that branch of the Caveri called Coleroon, which falls into the sea at Devicotta. The capital and seat of government is MADRAS in the Jnghire, called also Fort St. George. It is ill-situated, without a harbour, and badly fortified, yet contains upwards of 200,000 inhabitants.—Fort St. DAVID in the territory of Cuddalore is rich, flourishing, and contains 60,000 inhabitants.—MASULIPATAM, in the northern Circars, at one of the mouths of the Kistna, was formerly the most flourishing and commercial city on this coast, and, though much declined, is still considerable.

The northern Circars, which are denominated from the towns of Cicacole, Rajamundry, Elore, and Condapil, are defended inland by a strong barrier of mountains and extensive forests, beyond which the country is totally unknown for a considerable space.

GOVERNMENT OF BOMBAY.] This government is watered by the Tapee and Nerbudda. Its capital and seat of government is BOMBAY, in a small island and an unhealthy situation; but it is well-fortified, and has a fine harbour.—SURAT on the Tapee, which forms an indifferent port, is one of the most rich and commercial cities in Indostan. TELLICHERY, on the Malabar coast, is dependent on Bombay.

ALLIES OF THE BRITISH.

Dominions of the Nabob of Oude,

Fyzabad.  
Lucknow.  
Arcot on the Paliar is the capital, though the nabob usually resides at Madras.  
Gingee, the strongest Indian fortrefs in the Carnatic.  
Trichinopoly near the Caveri, well fortified in the Indian manner, was rich and populous, containing near 400,000 inhabitants, now almost ruined by the numerous sieges it has sustained.

Dominions of the Nabob of Arcot, comprehending the eastern part only of the Ancient Carnatic,

Seringham Pagoda, in an island of the Caveri, is famous throughout Indostan for its sanctity, and has no less than 40,000 priests, who constantly reside here in voluptuous indolence.  
Chandegeri, the ancient capital of the empire of Narsinga, formerly rich, powerful, and populous; near it is the famous pagoda of Tripetti, the Loretto of Indian: the offerings of the numerous pilgrims who resort hither, bring in an immense revenue.  
Tanjore, Madura, and Tinivelly, are the capitals of small states of the same name, which, with Marawar, are dependent on the nabob of Arcot.

Territory of Futty Sing Guicker, in the Soubah of Guzerat,

Amedabat.  
Cambay.

Territory of the Rajah of Ghod,

Gwalior, a celebrated fortrefs.

## MAHRATTA STATES AND THEIR TRIBUTARIES.

This extensive country is divided among a number of chiefs or princes, who have one common head called the Parishwa, or Nana, to whom however their obedience is merely nominal, as they often go to war against each other, and are seldom confederated except for mutual defence.

Southern Poonah Mahrattas, or the territories of Paithwa, are naturally strong, being intersected by the various branches of the Ghauts. { Satara, the nominal capital of the Mahratta states; the Parishwa at present resides at Poonah. Aurangabad, Amednagur, and Viliapour, are in his territories.

The Concan, or tract between the Ghauts and the sea, is sometimes called the Pirate Coast, as it was subject to the celebrated pirate Angria, and his successors, whose capital was the strong fortress of Gheria, taken by the English and Mahrattas in 1755. By the acquisition of this coast the Mahrattas have become a maritime power, and dangerous enemies to the government of Bombay.

By the treaty of peace, Tippoo sultan ceded to the Mahrattas

In the Doab, being the circar of Bancapour, with part of Moodgul, &c. affording a revenue of	Koontcary pagodas.
In Gooty, the district of Sundoor,	1,306,666
	10,000
	<u>1,316,666</u>

## TERRITORIES of the NIZAM, or SOUBAH of the DECCAN, an Ally to the BRITISH.

The possessions of the Nizam or Soubah of the Deccan (a younger son of the famous Nizam-al-Muluck), comprize the province of Golconda, that is, the ancient province of Tellingana, or Tilling, situated between the lower parts of the Kistna and Godavery rivers, and the principal part of Dowlatabad; together with the western part of Berar, subject to a tribute of a chout, or fourth part of its net revenue, to the Berar Mahratta. The Nizam has the Paithwa, or Poonah Mahratta, on the west and north-west; the Berar Mahratta on the north; the northern circars on the east; and the Carnatic and Tippoo sultan on the south. I am not perfectly clear, says major Rennell, in my idea of his western boundary, which, during his wars with the Mahrattas, was subject to continual fluctuation; but I understand generally that it extends more than 40 miles beyond the city of Aurungabad, westwards; and comes within 80 miles of the city of Poonah.— His capital is Hyderabad, or Bagnagur, situated on the Mouli river, near the famous fortresses of Golconda.

The districts of Adoni and Rachore, which were in the hands of Bazalet Jung (brother to the Nizam) during his life time, are now in the hands of the Nizam. The Sourapour, or Sollapoor rajah, on the west of the Beenah river, together with some other rajahs, are his tributaries. The Guntoor circar also belongs to him. Probably, says the major, these dominions, including his tributaries and feudataries, are no less than 430 miles in length, from N W to S E, by 300 wide.

To the above we have now to add those which Tippo sultan ceded to him in the treaty of peace, signed March 18, 1792, viz.

	Koonteary pagodas
Kerpah (or Cuddapah), Cummun, Ganjecotta, and Canoul, affording a revenue of	} 971,390
In Gooty	51,782
In Adoni (Mooka)	12,162
In the Doob, being parts of Rachore, and Moolgul	281,332
	1,316,666

**BERAR MAHRATTAS.**

This country is very little known to Europeans. { Nagpour is the capital. Balallore has considerable trade. Cuttack on the Mahanada, an important post, which renders this nation a formidable enemy to the British, as it cuts off the communication between the governments of Bengal and Madras.

**NORTHERN POONAH MAHRATTAS.**

They are governed at present by Sindia, Holkar, and some other less considerable princes. { Ougein, the residence of Sindia. Indoor, the residence of Holkar. Calpy, the residence of Gungdar Punt. Sagur, the residence of Ballagec.

**TIPPOO SULTAN'S TERRITORIES.**

Have been greatly diminished in consequence of the late treaty of peace, in which he consented to resign half his dominions to the British, the Mahrattas, and the Nizam. His remaining dominions are

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Kingdom of Myfore	Seringapatam on the Caveri.
Bednore	Bednore, or Hyder Nuggar.
Canara	Mangalore.

Chitteldroog, Harponnelly, Roydroog, &c. are the capitals of territories of the same name.

Country of the Abdalli. This government, which includes the foubah of Cabul and the neighbouring parts of Persia, was formed by Abdalla, one of the generals of Thomas Kouli Khan, when on the death of that usurper his empire was dismembered: its capital is Candahar in Persia.

Country of the Seiks: they are said to consist of a number of small states independent of each other, but united by a federal union.

Country of the Jats or Getes, very little known to Europeans.

Country of Zabda Cawn, an Afghan Rohilla.

Territory of Agra on the Jumna.

Ferrukabad,

To

Ferrukabad, or country of the Patan Rohillas, on the Ganges, surrounded by the dominions of Oude.

Bundelcund.

Travancore, near Cape Comorin.

## P E R S I A.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1300 } Breadth 1100 }	between { 44 and 70 east longitude. { 25 and 44 north longitude.	{ 800,000

**BOUNDARIES.]** MODERN Persia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghistan, which divide it from Circassian Tartary, on the North-West; by the Caspian Sea, which divides it from Russia, on the North; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Ubec Tartary, on the North-east; by India, on the East; by the Indian ocean, and the gulfs of Persia and Ormus, on the South; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the West.

This kingdom is divided into the following provinces: on the frontiers of India, are Chorasan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Eslerabad; Sablufan, including the ancient Bactriana and Candahor; and Sigistan, the ancient Drangiana. The southern division contains Mazeran, Kerman, the ancient Gedrosia, and Partisan, the ancient Persia. The south-west division, on the frontiers of Turkey, contains the provinces of Chusistan, the ancient Susiana, and Irac-Ageni, the ancient Parthia. The north-west division, lying between the Caspian Sea and the frontiers of Turkey in Asia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media; Gangea, Daghistan, part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan, and Mazanderan.

**NAME.]** Persia, according to the poets, derived its name from Perseus, the son of Jupiter and Danaë. Less fabulous authors suppose it derived from Paras, which signifies a horseman, the Persians being always celebrated for their skill in horsemanship.

**AIR.]** Those parts which border upon Caucasus and Daghistan, and the mountains near the Caspian sea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of those mountains which are commonly covered with snow. The air, in the midland provinces of Persia, is serene, pure, and exhilarating; but in the southern it is hot, and sometimes communicates noxious blasts to the midland parts, which are so often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

**SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.]** The soil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caspian Sea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of mount Taurus, the country abounds in corn, fruits, wine, and other luxuries of life; with oil, fena, rhubarb, and the finest drugs. The fruits are delicious, especially dates, oranges, pistachio nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden-vegetables. Silk is also the production of this country; and the gulf of Bassora formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts near Isfahan produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, the roses especially, they extract waters of a salubrious and odorous kind, which form a valuable article in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia, are

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of a most exalted flavour; and, had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as some nations in Europe, by transplanting, engrafting, and other improvements, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian assa-fœtida flows from a plant called hiltot, and turns into a gum. It is either white or black; and the white is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauce of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

No place in the world produces the necessaries of life in greater abundance and perfection than Shirauz; nor is there a more delightful spot in nature than the vale in which it is situated, either for the salubrity of the air, or for the profusion of every thing necessary to render life comfortable. The fields yield plenty of rice, wheat, and barley, which are reaped in the month of May, and by the middle of July the harvest is completed. Most of the European fruits are produced here, and many of them of peculiar size and flavour, particularly the apricot and grape. Of the grape of Shirauz there are several sorts; the large white grape, which is extremely agreeable to the taste; the small white grape, as sweet as sugar; and the black grape, of which the celebrated wine of Shirauz is made. This grape is pressed by the Armenians and Jews in the months of October and November, and a vast deal is exported annually to Abu Shehr, and other parts in the Persian gulph, for the supply of the Indian market. The pomegranate is good to a proverb; the Persians call it the fruit of Paradise.

The breed of horses in the province of Fars is at present very indifferent, owing to the ruinous state of the country; but in the province of Dushtistaan, lying to the south-west, it is remarkably good. The sheep are of a superior flavour, owing to the excellence of the pasturage in the neighbourhood of Shirauz, and are also celebrated for the fineness of their fleeces: they have tails of an extraordinary size, some of which I have seen weigh (says Mr. Franklin) upwards of thirty pounds; but those which are sold in the markets do not weigh above six or seven. Their oxen are large and strong, but their flesh is seldom eaten by the natives, who confine themselves chiefly to sheep and fowls.

Provisions of all kinds are very cheap; and the neighbouring mountains affording an ample supply of snow throughout the year, the meanest artificer of Shirauz may have his water and fruits cooled with little expence. This snow being gathered on the tops of the mountains, and brought in carts to the city, is sold in the markets. The price of provisions is regulated in Shirauz by the daroga, or judge of the police, who sets a fixed price upon every article, and no shop-keeper dares to demand more, under the severe penalty of losing his nose and ears.

**MOUNTAINS.]** These are Caucasus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghistan; and the vast chain of mountains called Taurus, with its ramifications, which run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

**RIVERS.]** It has been observed, that no country, of so great an extent, has so few navigable rivers as Persia. The most considerable are the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which rises in or near the mountains of Ararat, and joining the Cyrus, falls into the Caspian Sea. Some small rivulets falling from the mountains, water the country; but are so inconsiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even with boats. The Oxus can scarcely be called a Persian river, though it divides Persia from Ubec Tartary. Persia has the river Indus on the east, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the west.

**WATER.]** The scarcity of rivers in Persia occasions a scarcity of water: but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

**METALS AND MINERALS.]** Persia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and above all, turquoise stones, which are found in Chorasan. Sulphur, salt-petre, and antimony,

antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have also been discovered near Thuris.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } It is impossible to speak with any certainty concerning the population of a country so little known as Persia. If we are to judge by the vast armies, in modern as well as ancient times, raised there, the numbers it contains must be very great. The Persians of both sexes are generally handsome; the men being fond of marrying Georgian and Circassian women. Their complexions towards the south are somewhat swarthy. The men shave their heads, but the young men suffer a lock of hair to grow on each side, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; but religious people wear long beards. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, so that they never pull off their caps or turbans out of respect even to the king. Their dress is very simple. Next to their skin they wear callico shirts, over them a veil, which reaches below the knee, girt with a sash, and over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their cloaths, however, are commonly very expensive; consisting of the richest furs, silks, mullin, cottons, and the like valuable stuffs, richly embroidered with gold and silver. They wear a kind of loose boots on their legs, and slippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expensive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their sash, and linen trowsers. The collars of their shirts and cloaths are open; so that their dress upon the whole is far better adapted for the purposes both of heat and activity than the long flowing robes of the Turks. The dress of the women, as well as that of the men, is very costly; and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and washes; particularly by rubbing their eye-brows and eye-lids with the black powder of antimony called *urma*.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent ablutions, which are the more necessary, as they seldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner upon fruits, sweatmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repasts cakes of rice, and others of wheat flour; and as they esteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of meat after it is dressed, these cakes are made thin, that they may be easily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton, or fowls, is so prepared, that they divide it with their fingers. When every thing is set in order before them, they eat quickly and without ceremony. But it is observed by a late traveller, that when the oldest man in the company speaks, though he be poor and sit at the lower end of the room, they all give a strict attention to his words. They are temperate, but use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks. They are great masters of ceremony towards their superiors, and so polite, that they accommodate Europeans who visit them, with stools, that they may not be forced to sit cross-legged. They are so immoderately fond of tobacco, which they smoke through a tube fixed in water, so as to be cool in the mouth, that when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Persians are naturally fond of poetry, moral sentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and their national revolutions, have mingled the native Persians with barbarous nations, and are said to have taught them dissimulation; but they are still pleasing and plausible in their behaviour, and in all ages have been remarkable for hospitality.

The Persians write, like the Hebrews, from the right to the left, are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuscripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible. Their great foible seems to be ostentation in their equipages and dresses; nor are they less jealous of their women than the Turks and other eastern nations. They are fond of music, and take a pleasure in conversing in large companies; but

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but their chief diversions are those of the field, hunting, hawking, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms, in all which they are very dexterous. They excel, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beasts; and privately play at games of chance.

There are places in Shirauz (Mr. Francklin observes) distinguished by the name of Zoor Khana, the house of strength or exercise, to which the Persians resort for the sake of exercising themselves. These houses consist of one room, with the floor sunk about two feet below the surface of the earth, and the light and air are admitted to the apartment by means of several small apertures made in the dome. In the centre is a large square terrace of smooth earth; and on each side are small alcoves raised about two feet above the terrace, where the musicians and spectators are seated. When all the competitors are assembled, which is on every Friday morning by day-break, they immediately strip themselves to the waist; after which each man puts on a pair of thick woollen drawers, and takes in his hands two wooden clubs of about a foot and a half in length, and cut in the shape of a pear; these they rest upon each shoulder, and the music striking up they move them backwards and forwards with great agility, stamping with their feet at the same time, and straining every nerve till they produce a very profuse perspiration. After continuing this exercise about half an hour, upon a signal given they all leave off, quit their clubs, and joining hands in a circle, begin to move their feet very briskly in unison with the music, which is all the while playing a lively tune. Having continued this for some time, they commence wrestling, in which the master of the house is always the challenger; and, being accustomed to the exercise, generally proves conqueror. The spectators pay each a shahce in money, equal to three-pence English, for which they are refreshed with a caléan to smoke, and coffee. This mode of exercise must contribute to health, as well as add strength, vigour, and a manly appearance to the frame. The Persians, with respect to outward behaviour, are certainly the most polished people of the East. Whilst a rude and insolent demeanour peculiarly marks the character of the Turks towards foreigners and Christians, the behaviour of the Persians would, on the contrary, do honour to the most civilised nations: they are kind, courteous, civil and obliging to all strangers, without being guided by those religious prejudices so very prevalent in every other Mahomedan nation; they are fond of enquiring after the manners and customs of Europe; and in return very readily afford any information in respect to their own country. The practice of hospitality is with them so grand a point, that a man thinks himself highly honoured if you will enter his house and partake of what the family affords; whereas going out of a house, without smoking a caléan, or taking any other refreshment, is deemed, in Persia, a high affront; they say that every meal a stranger partakes with them brings a blessing upon the house.

The Persians, in their conversation, use extravagant and hyperbolical compliments on the most trilling occasions: this mode of address (which in fact means nothing) is observed not only by those of a higher rank, but even amongst the meanest artificers, the lowest of whom will make no scruple, on your arrival, of offering you the city of Shirauz, and all its appurtenances, as a peishkush or present. Freedom of conversation is a thing totally unknown in Persia, and that *walls have ears* is proverbially in the mouth of every one. The fear of chains, which bind their bodies, has also enslaved their minds; and their conversation, to men of superior rank to themselves, is marked with signs of the most abject and slavish submission; while, on the contrary, they are as haughty and overbearing to their inferiors.

In their conversation, the Persians aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating verses and passages from the works of their most favourite poets, Hafez,

Sadi, and Jami; a practice universally prevalent from the highest to the lowest; because those who have not the advantages of reading and writing, or the other benefits arising from education, yet by the help of their memories, which are very retentive of whatever they have heard, are always ready to bear their part in conversation. They also delight much in jokes and quaint expressions, and are fond of playing upon each other, which they sometimes do with great elegance and irony. There is one thing much to be admired in their conversations, which is the strict attention they always pay to the person speaking, whom they never interrupt on any account.

**MARRIAGES.]** When the parents of a young man have determined upon marrying him, they go to the house where the female they intend to demand, lives. If the father of the woman approves, he immediately orders sweetmeats to be brought in, which is taken as a direct sign of compliance. After this, the usual presents on the part of the bridegroom are made, which, if the person be in middling circumstances, generally consist of two complete suits of apparel of the best sort, a ring, a looking-glass, and a small sum in ready money, of about ten or twelve to-mounds\*, which is to provide for the wife in case of divorce. There is also provided a quantity of household stuff of all sorts, such as carpets, mats, bedding, utensils for dressing viands, &c. The contract is witnessed by the cadi, or magistrate. The wedding-night being come, the bride is brought forth covered from head to foot in a veil of red silk, or painted muslin; a horse is then presented for her to mount, which is sent thither expressly by the bridegroom; and when she is mounted, a large looking-glass is held before her by one of the bride-maids, all the way to the house of her husband, as an admonition to her, that it is the last time she will look into the glass as a virgin, being now about to enter into the cares of the married state. The procession then sets forward in the following order:—first, the music and dancing-girls, after which the presents in trays borne upon men's shoulders; next come the relations and friends of the bridegroom, all shouting, and making a great noise, who are followed by the bride herself, surrounded by all her female friends and relations, one of whom leads the horse by the bridle, and several others on horseback close the procession. Rejoicings upon this occasion generally continue eight or ten days. Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Persia, as well as through all Tartary; and travellers or merchants, who intend to reside a time in any city, commonly apply to the cadi, or judge, for a wife during that short period. The cadi, for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honest, and free from diseases; and he becomes a surety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Russian embassy to Persia declares, that, among thousands, there has not been one instance of their dishonesty during the time agreed upon.

**FUNERALS.]** The funerals of the Persians resemble those of other Mahomedans. On the death of a Mussulman, the relations and friends of the deceased being assembled, make loud lamentations over the corpse; after which it is washed and laid out on a bier, and carried to the place of interment without the city-walls, attended by a mullah, or priest, who chants passages from the Koran all the way to the grave. If any Mussulman should chance to meet the corpse during the procession, he is obliged by the precepts of his religion, to run up to the bier, and offer his assistance in carrying it to the grave, crying out at the same time, *Lâ ilâh illâ Allah!* There is no God but God. After interment, the relations

\* A tomond is an imaginary money, which cannot be represented but by several other pieces (as a pound sterling, &c.) and is in value worth

3l. 6s. 8d. See the table of real and imaginary monies at the end of this work.

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of the deceased return home, and the women of the family make a mixture of wheat, honey, and spices, which they eat in memory of the deceased, sending a part of it to their friends and acquaintance, that they also may pay him a like honour. This custom seems to be derived from very great antiquity, as we read in Homer of sacrifices and libations being frequently made to the memory of departed souls.

[RELIGION.] The Persians are Mahomedans of the sect of Ali; for which reason the Turks, who follow the succession of Omar and Abu-Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if possible, in some things more fantastical and sensual than that of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with bramini superstitions. When they are taxed by the Christians with drinking strong liquors, as many of them do, they retort, "You Christians whore and get drunk, though you know you are committing sins, which is the very case with us." Having mentioned the bramins, the comparison between them and the Persian *guebres* or *gauris*, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the ancient magi, the followers of Zoroaster, might be highly worth a learned disquisition: that both of them held originally pure and simple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be easily proved; but the Indian bramins and parsecs accuse the *gauris*, who still worship the fire, of having sensualised those ideas, and introduced an evil principle into the government of the world. A considerable ground, about ten miles distant from Baku, a city in the north of Persia, is the scene of the *guebres* devotions. This ground is impregnated with inflammatory substances, and contains several old little temples, in one of which the *guebres* pretend to preserve the sacred flame of the universal fire, which rises from the end of a large hollow cone stuck in the ground, resembling a lamp burning with very pure spirits. The Mahomedans are the declared enemies of the *gauris*, who were banished out of Persia by Shuh Abbas. Their sect is said to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

Many sects are found in Persia that evidently have Christianity for the groundwork of their religion. Some of them, called Soudtees, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the moral duties. The Sabean Christians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mahometanism; and are numerous towards the Persian gulf. The Armenian and Georgian Christians are very numerous in Persia, as well as in Indostan.

The Persians observe the fast during the month of Ramazan (the 9th month of the Mahomedan year) with great strictness. About an hour before-day light, they eat a meal which is called Sehre, and from that time until the next evening at sunset, they neither eat nor drink. In the course of the day, should the smoke of a calum, or the smallest drop of water, reach their lips, the fast is deemed of no avail. From sunset until the next morning they are allowed to refresh themselves. This fast, when the month Ramazan falls in the middle of summer, as it sometimes must do (the Mahomedan year being lunar), is extremely severe, especially to those who are obliged by their occupations to go about during the day-time, and is rendered still more so, as there are also several nights during its continuance which they are enjoined to spend in prayer. The Persians particularly observe two; the one being that in which their prophet Ali died from a wound which he received from the hands of an assassin three days before; which night is the 21st of Ramazan, the day of which is called by the natives the day of murder.—The other is the night of the 23d, in which they affirm that the Koran was brought down from Heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel, and delivered to their prophet Mahomed; wherefore it is denominated the night of power.

[LANGUAGE.] The common people, especially towards the southern coasts of the Caspian sea, speak Turkish; and the Arabic probably was introduced into Persia under the caliphate, when learning flourished in those countries. Many

of the learned Persians have written in the Arabic, and people of quality have adopted it as the modish language, as we do the French. The pure Persian is said to be spoken in the southern parts, on the coast of the Persian gulf, and in Isfahan; but many of the provinces speak a barbarous mixture of the Turkish, Russian, and other languages. Their Pater-noster is of the following tenour: *Ei Padere ma kih der ofroni; pac bafked mam tu; buyayed padfchahi tu; fchwad chwad-afle tu kenzjuntankih der ofron niz derzemih; beh mara jmrouz ndu kefdf rouz mara; wadargawafar mara konahan ma zjunankihma niz mig farim ormdn mara; wador ozma-fjih mimeldzmaro; likin chalas kun mara ez efcherir.* Amen.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for learning; and their poets renowned all over the East. There is a manuscript at Oxford, containing the lives of a hundred and thirty-five of the finest Persian poets. Ferdusi and Sadi were among the most celebrated. The former comprised the history of Persia in a series of epic poems which employed him for near thirty years, and which are said by Sir William Jones, to be "a glorious monument of Eastern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Shirauz, and flourished in the thirteenth century, and wrote many fine pieces, both in prose and verse. Shemfeddin was one of the most eminent lyric poets that Asia has produced; and Nakhsheb wrote in Persian a book called the "Tales of a Parrot," not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was an elegant poet, who flourished in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whose beautiful compositions, on a great variety of subjects, are preserved at Oxford, in twenty-two volumes. Hariri composed, in a rich, elegant, and flowery style, a moral work, in fifty dissertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life.

Of Hafez, the sprightly and voluptuous bard of Shirauz, the name and character are sufficiently known to Orientalists. It may, however, excite the curiosity of the English reader, that the poet here introduced to his notice, conciliated the favour of an offended emperor, by the delicacy of his wit, and the elegance of his verses; that the most powerful monarchs of the East sought in vain to draw him from the enjoyment of literary retirement, and to purchase the praises of his Muse by all the honours and splendour of a court; and that his works were not only the admiration of the jovial and the gay, but the manual of mystic piety to the superstitious Mahomedan, the oracle which, like the *Sortes Virgilianæ*, determined the councils of the wife, and prognosticated the fate of armies and of states. Seventeen odes have already been translated into English by Mr. Nott, with which he has published the originals, for the purpose of promoting the study of the Persian language.

The tomb of this celebrated and deservedly admired poet stands about two miles distant from the walls of the city of Shirauz, on the north-east side. It is placed in a large garden, and under the shade of some cypress trees of extraordinary size and beauty; it is composed of fine white marble from Tauris, eight feet in length and four in breadth: this was built by Kerim Khan, and covers the original one: on the top and sides of the tomb are select pieces from the poet's own works, most beautifully cut in the Persian Nushleek character. During the spring and summer seasons, the inhabitants visit here, and amuse themselves with smoking, playing at chess and other games, reading also the works of Hafez, who is in greater esteem with them than any other of their poets.

At present, learning is in a low state among the Persians. Their boasted skill in astronomy is now reduced to a mere snattering in that science, and terminates in judicial astrology; so that no people in the world are more superstitious. The learned profession in greatest esteem among them is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be in the lucky hour

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fixed by the astrologer, which often defeats the ends of the prescription. Their drugs are excellent, and some of their physicians are no strangers to the works of Galen and Avicenna. The plague is but little known in this country. They are very ignorant in surgery, which is exercised by barbers, whose chief occupation is in letting blood; for they trust the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES. } The monuments of antiquity in Persia  
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } more celebrated for their magnificence, and  
expence, than their beauty or taste. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Persepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and composed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Persia, but void of that elegance and beauty which is displayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Persia are stupendous works; being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with sculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar, to be seen at Ispahan, sixty feet high, consisting of the skulls of beasts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the suppression of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect such a column of human skulls; but upon the submission of the rebels, he performed his vow by substituting those of brutes, each of the rebels furnishing one.

The baths near Gombroon are medicinal, and esteemed among the natural curiosities of Persia. The springs of the famous Naphtha near Baku, are often mentioned in natural history for their surprising qualities; but the chief of the natural curiosities in this country is the burning phenomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES.] The houses of men of quality in Persia, are in the same taste with those of the Asiatic Turks already described. They are seldom above one story high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumsy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houses being built apart. Few of them have chimneys, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly consists of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which serve them likewise as coverlids, with carpets under them.

Ispahan, or Spahawn, the capital of Persia, is seated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which supplies it with water. It is said to be twelve miles in circumference. The streets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amusement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houses, where they spend their summer evenings; different families associating together. The royal square is the third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth; and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Ispahan 160 mosques, 1800 caravan-series, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine squares, streets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to shade and better accommodate the people. This capital is said formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, so that we may easily suppose, that it has lost great part of its magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houses were inhabited.

Shirauz lies about 225 miles to the south east of Ispahan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers and fruits of which are incomparable. This town is the capital of Faristan, or Persia Proper, and hath a college for the study of eastern learning, where the arts and sciences were taught; and is the same as that mentioned.

tioned by *fr* John Chardin, who visited this city in the last century. It is now, however, decaying very fast, but there are still mullahs and religious men residing in it; at present it goes by the name of *Madrussa Khan*, or the Khan's college; but literature and the sciences have long since been neglected at Shirauz, and the present situation of the country does not seem to promise a speedy revival. This city contains an uncommon number of mosques, and is adorned by many noble buildings, but its streets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houses are inhabited. Shirauz has many good bazars and caravanferas; that distinguished by the appellation of the *Vakeel's bazar* (so called from its being built by *Kerim Khan*) is by far the handsomest. It is a long street, extending about a quarter of a mile, built entirely of brick, and roofed something in the style of the *Piazzas* in *Covent Garden*; it is lofty and well made; on each side are the shops of the tradesmen, merchants, and others, in which are expofed for sale a variety of goods of all kinds: these shops are the property of the *Khan*, and are rented to the merchants at a very easy monthly rate. Leading out of this bazar is a spacious caravanferay, of an octagon form, built of brick; the entrance through a handsome arched gate-way: in the centre is a place for the baggage and merchandise, and on the sides above and below commodious apartments for the merchants and travellers; these are also rented at a moderate monthly sum. About the centre of the above mentioned bazar, is another spacious caravanferay of a square form, the front of which is ornamented with a blue and white enamelled work, representing *China ware*, and has a pleasing effect to the eye.

The cities of *Ormus* and *Gombroon*, on the narrow part of the *Persian Gulf*, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The *English* and other *Europeans* have factories at *Gombroon*, where they trade with the *Persians*, *Arabians*, *Banyans*, *Armenians*, *Turks*, and *Tartars*, who come hither with the caravans which set out from various inland cities of *Asia*, under the convoy of guards.

**MOSQUES AND BAGNOS.]** I thought proper to place them here under a general head, as their architecture is pretty much the same all over the *Mahomedan* countries.

Mosques are religious buildings, square, and generally of stone: before the chief gate there is a square court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whose roof is supported by marble pillars. Those galleries serve for places of ablution before the *Mahomedans* go into the mosque. About every mosque there are six high towers, called *minarets*, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. These towers, as well as the mosques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence, instead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter the mosques: nor can a man with his shoes or stockings on. Near most mosques is a place of entertainment for strangers during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniences for reading the *Koran*, and praying.

The city of *Shirauz* is adorned (according to *Mr. Francklin*) with many fine mosques, particularly that built by the late *Kherim Khan*, which is a noble one. Being very well disguised, says our traveller, in my *Persian* dress, I had an opportunity of entering the building unobserved: it is of a square form; in the centre is a stone reservoir of water, made for performing the necessary ablutions: previous to prayer; on the four sides of the building are arched apartments allotted for devotion, some of the fronts of which are covered with *China tiles*; but *Kherim Khan* dying before the work was completed, the remainder has been made up with a blue and white enamelled work. Within the apartments, on the walls, on each side, are engraved various sentences from the *Koran*, in the *Nuthki* character; and at the upper end of the square is a large dome with a cupola at top, which is the particular

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particular place appropriated for the devotion of the Vakeel, or for the sovereign himself: this is lined throughout with white marble, ornamented with the curious blue and gold artificial lapis lazuli, and has three large silver lamps suspended from the roof of the dome. In the centre of the city is another mosque, which the Persians call the Musjid Noo, or the New Mosque; but its date is nearly coeval with the city itself, at least since it has been inhabited by Mahomedans: it is a square building of a noble size, and has apartments for prayer on each side; in them are many inscriptions in the old Cufick character, which of themselves denote the antiquity of the place.

The bagnios in the Mahomedan countries are wonderfully well constructed. Sometimes they are square, but oftener circular, built of white well-polished stone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the first for dressing and undressing; the second contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholesome; though to those not accustomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and stretches his limbs as if he was dislocating every bone in the body; all which exercises are, in those inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon; when all male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and upon coming out of the bath display their finest cloaths.

I might here attempt to describe the eastern seraglios or harems, the women's apartments; which, from the most credible accounts, are contrived according to the taste and conveniency of the owner, and divided into a certain number of apartments, which are seldom or never entered by strangers; and there is no country where women are so strictly guarded as among the great men in Persia.

[POLICE.] The police in Shirauz, as well as all over Persia, is very good. At sun-set the gates of the city are shut; no person whatever is permitted either to come in or go out during the night, the keys of the different gates being always sent to the Hakim or Governor, and remaining with him until morning. During the night, three tiblas or drums are beaten at three different times; the first at eight o'clock, the second at nine, and the third at half past ten. After the third tibia has sounded, all persons whatsoever found in the streets by the Daroga, or judge of the police, or by any of his people, are instantly taken up, and conveyed to a place of confinement, where they are detained until next morning, when they are carried before the Hakim; and if they cannot give a very good account of themselves, are punished, either by the bastinado, or a fine.

Civil matters are all determined by the Cazi, and ecclesiastical ones (particularly divorces) by the Sheik at Sellaum, or head of the faith, an office answering to that of Mufti in Turkey. Justice is carried on in Persia in a very summary manner; the sentence, whatever it may be, being always put into execution on the spot. Theft is generally punished with the loss of nose and ears; robbing on the road, by ripping up the belly of the criminal, in which situation he is exposed upon a gibbet in one of the most public parts of the city, and there left until he expires in torment; a dreadful punishment, but it renders robberies in Persia very uncommon.

[MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Persians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world in silk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in these join fancy, taste, and elegance, to richness, neatness, and show. Their dying excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroideries and horse furniture are univalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are unskillful, which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia. Their jewellers and goldsmiths are clumsy workmen;

workmen; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses.

The trade of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That with the English and other nations, by the gulf of Ormus at Gombroon, was the most gainful they had; but perpetual wars have ruined their commerce. The great scheme of the English, in trading with the Persians through Russia, promised vast advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto answered the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Peterburgh is not fond of suffering the English to establish themselves upon the Caspian sea, the navigation of which is now possessed by the Russians.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Both these are extremely precarious, as resting in the breast of a despot. The Persians, however, had some fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindness likewise was a disqualification for the royal succession. In other respects the king's will was a law for the people. The instances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practised by the Mahomedan kings of Persia, are almost incredible, especially during the two last centuries. The reason given to the Christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their most celebrated princes, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exercise of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the smallest disobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility. The king has been known to prefer a younger son to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

[REVENUES.] The king claims one-third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No rank or condition of Persians is exempted from severe taxations and services. The governors of provinces have particular lands assigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown-lands defray the expences of the court, king's household, and great officers of state. The water that is let into fields and gardens is subject to a tax, and foreigners, who are not Mahomedans, pay each a ducat a head. The revenues of Persia are therefore very great, but have never been ascertained with any tolerable accuracy.

[MILITARY STRENGTH.] This consisted formerly of cavalry, which, in its present state, is thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raised bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but, according to the modern histories of Persia, they are easily recruited in case of a defeat. The Persians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ships of war until Kouli Khan built a royal navy; but since his death we hear no more of their fleet.

[ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Persian monarch are a lion couchant looking at the rising sun. His title is Shah, or the *Disposer of Kingdoms*. Shah or Khan, and Sultan, which he assumes likewise, are Tartar titles. To acts of state the Persian monarch does not subscribe his name, but the grant runs in this manner, *This act is given by him whom the universe obeys*.

[HISTORY.] The Persian empire succeeded the Assyrian or Babylonian; Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Christ; and restored the Israelites, who had been captives at Babylon, to liberty. The first dynasty ended in the person of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Christ. Alexander's empire was divided among his generals, whose descendants in less than three centuries

tries were conquered by the Romans. These last, however, never fully subdued Persia, and the natives had princes of their own, from Arfaces, called Arfacide, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself; but were subdued by the famous Tamerlano, whose posterity were supplanted by a doctor of law, Cheki Adir, the ancestor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be descended from Mahomet himself. His successors, named Sophis, though some of them were valiant and politic, and enlarged the empire, rendered themselves odious by their cruelty, ignorance and indolence, which brought them into such disrepute with their subjects, barbarous as they were, that Hussein, a prince of the Sefi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himself was by Esref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the representative of the Sefi family, had escaped from the rebels, and assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At last the secret ambition of Nadir broke out, and after assuming the name of Tahmas Kouli Khan, and pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded, he rebelled against his sovereign, made him a prisoner, and, it is supposed, put him to death.

This usurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir. His expedition into Indostan, and the amazing booty he made there, have been mentioned in the description of that country. He next conquered Ubec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghestan Tartars, whose country is almost inaccessible. He beat the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to strike terror into all his subjects by the most cruel executions. His conduct became so intolerable, that it was thought his brain was touched; and he was assassinated in his own tent by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, started up; and the confusion which prevailed through the whole country, from the death of Nadir, until the settlement of Kerim Khan, prevented all attempts of literature, arts, and sciences. During this interval, the whole empire of Persia was in arms; different parties in different provinces of the kingdom struggling for power, and each endeavouring to render himself independent, torrents of blood were shed, and the most shocking crimes were committed. The whole face of the country, from Gombroon to Kullia, presents to the view thousands of instances of the misery and desolation which were occasioned by these commotions.

From the accounts we have been able to collect, the series of pretenders to the throne of Persia, from the death of Nadir Shah until the final establishment of Kerim Khan's government was no less than nine, including himself. Kerim Khan Zand was a favourite officer of Nadir Shah, and at the time of his death was in

\* The instances of wanton cruelty, and the most savage barbarity, recorded of some of the kings of Persia, are shocking to humanity, and a striking evidence of the calamities occasioned by despotic power. Shah Abbas, surnamed the Great, having three sons, caused the eyes of the two youngest to be put out, and afterwards put the eldest to death. He was succeeded by his grandson, who began his reign by depriving his only brother of his eyes. He also cut from a rack his two uncles, who had before been blinded by order of Shah

Abbas. The instances of his cruelty were innumerable; he buried alive forty-four women of his harem, though when he was not hunting, or over his cups, he used to pass his time with them. Sella, or Solenne, who ascended the throne of Persia in 1662, and was a brutal tyrant, when he was intoxicated either with wine or anger, often ordered the hands, feet, ears, and nose of those near him to be cut off, their eyes to be plucked out, or their lives to be sacrificed, as if it were his pleasure.

the southern provinces. Shirauz and other places had declared for him. He found means, at last, after various encounters with doubtful success, completely to subdue his rivals, and finally to establish himself as ruler of all Persia. He continued in power about thirty years, the latter part of which he governed Persia under the appellation of Vakeel, or regent; for he never would receive the title of Shah. He made Shirauz the chief city of his residence, in gratitude for the assistance he had received from its inhabitants. He died in the year 1779, in the eightieth year of his age, regretted by all his subjects. His character is most deservedly celebrated for the public buildings which he erected, and the excellent police which he maintained, so that during his whole reign there was not in Shirauz a single riot productive of bloodshed; besides these merits, his aversion to severe punishments, his liberality and kindness to the poor, his partiality for Europeans, and his encouragement of trade, together with his great military abilities and personal courage, rendered him not only beloved by his own subjects, but greatly respected by foreign powers.

From the death of Kerim Khan to the present time, a variety of competitors have been desirous of filling the throne of Persia. Of these we shall only mention the two principal. Akau Mahomet Khan keeps possession of the provinces of Mazanderan and Ghilan, as well as the cities of Ispahan, Hamadan, and Tauris, where he is acknowledged as sovereign. Jaafar Khan has possession of the city of Shirauz, and the provinces of Beaboon and Shuster: he also receives an annual present from the province of Carmania, and another from the city of Yezd; Abu Shehr and Lar also send him tribute.

Jaafar Khan is a middle-aged man, very corpulent, and has a cast in his right eye: he is very mild in his disposition, and just in his government. In Shirauz he keeps up a most excellent police. He is very kind and obliging to strangers in general, and to the English in particular. Of the two competitors who at present contend for the government of Persia, he is the most likely, in case of success against his opponent, to restore the country to a peaceful and happy state; but it will require a long space of time to recover it from the calamities into which the different revolutions have brought it:—a country, if an Oriental metaphor may be allowed, once blooming as the garden of Eden, fair and flourishing to the eye;—now, sad reverse! despoiled and leafless by the cruel ravages of war, and desolating contention.

Intelligence was received at Constantinople in December 1793, that Jaaffar Khan had been dethroned by his brother, Mahomed Khan, who entered into the possession of his dominions. This new Persian usurper is now threatening the Turkish dominions with a powerful invasion.

## A R A B I A.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1430 } Breadth 1200 }	between { 35 and 60 east longitude. 12 and 30 north latitude. }	700,000.

**BOUNDARIES.]** BOUNDED by Turkey on the North; by the gulfs of Persia or Bassora, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the East; by the Indian Ocean, South; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the West.

Divisions.

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Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Arabia Petraea, N.	{ — — — }	{ SUZZ, E. lon. 33-27. N. lat. 29-50.
	{ Haggiaz or Mecca - }	{ MECCA, E. lon. 43-30. N. lat. 21-20.
2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle.	{ Tehama - - }	{ Siden Medina Dhafar
	{ Mocha - - }	{ МОCHA, E. lon. 44-4. N. lat. 13-45.
	{ Hadramut - - }	{ Sibit Hadramut
3. Arabia Felix, S. E.	{ Caffeen - - }	{ Caffeen
	{ Segur - - }	{ Segur
	{ Oman or Muscat - }	{ Muscat
	{ Jamama - - }	{ Jamama
	{ Bahara - - }	{ Elealf

NAME.] It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its ancient name. The word *Arab* signifies a robber. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the desert. These names justly belong to the Arabians, for they seldom let any merchandise pass undiminished through their country.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petraea, east of the Red-sea, and those called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

RIVERS, SEAS, GULFS, AND CAPES.] There are few fountains, springs, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the north-east limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian-Ocean, the Red-Sea, the gulfs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Mussledon.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] As a considerable part of this country lies under the Torrid Zone, and the Tropic of Cancer passes over Arabia Felix, the air is excessively dry and sultry, and the country is subject to hot, noxious, and deadly winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia. The soil, in some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and sometimes form mountains by which whole caravans have been buried or lost. In these deserts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, says Dr. Shaw, are no pastures clothed with flocks, nor vallies standing thick with corn: here are no vineyards or olive-yards: but the whole is a lonesome desolate wilderness, no otherways diversified than by plains covered with sand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day-time. But the southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea-coast, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, frankincense, spikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamom, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax

in plenty, with a small quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

**ANIMALS.]** The most useful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; animals so formed, that they can throw up the liquor from their stomach into their throat, by which means they can travel the parched deserts six or eight days without water. The camels usually carry 800lb. weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey; for they naturally kneel down to rest, and in due time rise with their load. The dromedary is a small camel with two bunches on its back, and remarkably swift. It is an observation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will smell it at a distance, and set up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horses are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of the English. They are only fit for the saddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their swiftness, and high mettle. The finest breed is in the kingdom of Sennar, in which Mocha is situated.

**INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } The Arabians, like most nations of Asia, are of a  
CUSTOMS, AND DRESS. }** middle stature, thin, of a swarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are swift of foot, excellent horsemen, expert at the bow and lance, and, since they became acquainted with fire-arms, good marksmen. The inhabitants of the inland country have in all ages lived in tents, and removed from place to place with their flocks and herds.

The Arabians in general are such thieves, that travellers and pilgrims are struck with terror on approaching the desert. Those robbers, headed by a captain, traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, to assault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that so late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 persons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a Turkish army. On the sea-coast their piracies are well known, for they make prize of every vessel they can master, of whatever nation, unless they receive a subsidy either in money or commodities.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue shirt, tied about them with a white sash or girdle; and some of them have a vest of furs or sheep-skins over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them go almost naked; but the women, as in eastern countries, are so wrapped up, that nothing can be discerned but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of flesh, except that of hogs; and prefer the flesh of camels, as we prefer venison, to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and, like them, refuse such fish as have no scales. Coffee and tea, water, and sherbet made of oranges, water, and sugar, is their usual drink: they have no strong liquors.

**RELIGION.]** Many of the wild Arabs are still Pagans, but the people in general profess Mahometanism; of which the reader will find an account in the following history.

**LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.]** Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and skill in the liberal arts, there is scarcely a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language used in the three Arabias is the Arabic, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the East, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is said to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the East accounted the richest, most energetic and

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copious language in the world, is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin is among Europeans, and used by Mahometans in their worship; for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other: they look upon it to have been the language of Paradise, and think no man can be master of it without a miracle, as consisting of several millions of words. The books which treat of it, say they have no fewer than a thousand terms to express the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of *lion*.

In the temple of Mecca, or suspended on its walls and gates, are seven Arabian poems, called the *Maalakat*, a fine specimen of Oriental poetry, as to the dramatic pastoral, which has been lately translated into English by Sir William Jones. The following stanzas of one of the poems are transcribed, as they serve to gratify literary curiosity, and also display a lively and entertaining view of the Arabian customs and modes of living:

1. "Desolate are the mansions of the fair, the stations in Minia, where they rested, and those where they fixed their abodes! Wild are the hills of Gouf, and deserted is the summit of Rijaam.
2. The cunabs of Rayaan are destroyed: the remains of them are laid bare, and smoothed by the floods, like characters engraved on the solid rocks.
3. Dear ruins! many a year has been closed, many a month, holy and unhallowed, has elapsed since I exchanged tender vows with the fair inhabitants.
4. The rainy constellations of spring have made their hills green and luxuriant: The drops from the thunder-clouds have drenched them with profuse as well as with gentle showers:
5. Showers from every nightly cloud, from every cloud veiling the horizon at day-break, and from every evening cloud, responsive with hoarse murmurs.
6. Here the wild eringo plants raise their head: here the antelopes bring forth their young by the sides of the valley; and here the ostriches drop their eggs.
7. The large-eyed wild cows lie suckling their young a few days old: their young, who will soon become a herd on the plain.
8. The torrents have cleared the rubbish, and disclosed the traces of habitations, as the reeds of a writer restore effaced letters in a book:
9. Or as the black dust, sprinkled over the varied marks on a fair hand, brings to view, with a brighter tint, the blue stains of woad.
10. I stood asking news of the ruins concerning their lovely habitants; but what avail my questions to dreary rocks, who answer them only by their echo?
11. In the plains, which now are naked, a populous city once dwelled: but they decamped at early dawn, and nothing of them remains but the camels which encircled their tents, and the Thumaam-plants, with which they were repaired.
12. How were thy tender affections raised, when the damsels of the tribe departed: when they hid themselves in carriages of cotton, like antelopes in their lair: and the tents, as they were struck, gave a piercing sound!
13. They were concealed in vehicles, whose sides were well covered with awnings and carpets, with fine-spun curtains, and pictured veils.
14. A company of maidens were seated in them, with black-eyes, and graceful motions, like the wild heifers of Tuda, or the roes of Wegera, tenderly gazing on their young.
15. They hastened their camels, till the sultry vapour gradually stole them from thy sight: and they seemed to pass through a vale wild with tamarisks, and rough with large stone, like the valley of *Bejsha*."

The Pater-noster in the Arabic is as follows: *Abuna elladhi fi-samawat; jekaddas efmdc; tati malacutac; taouri mafchiatc, cama fi-sfama; kedhalec ala lardh aoting chobzena kefatna iaum beiaum; waagfor leua donubena, wachataina, cama nogfor nachna lemea aca doina; wald tadulchulna fihajarib; lakeu mejjina me nefcheriv. Amen.*

**CHIEF CITIES, CURIOSITIES, }** What is called the Desert of Sinai, is a beautiful plain near nine miles long, and above three in breadth: it lies open to the north-east, but to the southward is closed by some of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make such encroachments upon the plain as to divide it into two parts, each sufficiently capacious to receive the whole camp of the Israelites.

From Mount Sinai may be seen Mount Horeb, where Moses kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he saw the burning bush. On those mountains, are many chapels and cells, possessed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious of Jerusalem, pretend to shew the very spot where every miracle or transaction recorded in scripture happened. The chief cities in Arabia are Mocha, Aden, Muschat, Suez, and Jiddah or Gedda.

Mocha is well built, the houses lofty, and forts covered with a chinam or stucco that give a dazzling whiteness to them. The harbour is semicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are several handsome mosques in the city. Suez, the Artimee of the ancients, is surrounded by the desert, and but a mean ill-built place. The ships are forced to anchor a league from the town, to which the leading channel has only about nine feet water. Jiddah is the place of the greatest trade in the Red Sea, for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets and is interchanged, the former sending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c. and from Europe come cloths, iron, furs, and other articles, by the way of Cairo. The revenues of these, with the profits of the port, are shared by the grand-signior and the xeriff of Mecca, to whom jointly this place belongs.

Mecca, the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deserve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomed, is the most magnificent mosque or temple in the Turkish dominions: its lofty roof, raised in fashion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, are conspicuous at a great distance. The mosque hath a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with gildings and tapestry. The number of pilgrims who yearly visit this place is prodigious, because every good mussulman ought to come hither once in his life-time, or send a deputy. At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the city to which Mahomed fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a stately mosque, supported by 400 pillars, and furnished with 300 silver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the *Mosk Holy* by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomed, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue, which the bathaw of Egypt, by order of the grand-signior, renews every year. The camel which carries it, derives a sort of sanctity from this office, and is never to be used in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden crescent, curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones. Thither the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

**GOVERNMENT.]** The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are styled xeriffs or imans, including the offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the califs of the Saracens, the successors of Mahomed. These monarchs are absolute, both in spirituals and temporal; the succession is hereditary, and they have no other laws than those found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe subjection to the Turks, and

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are governed by the grand signior. The Arabians perform all their duties.

His royal highness, all others their history, that they man's hands, most ages, vincible, pre-conits of Arabia, wandering, jets of no come into of their history to enjoy. forms a very famous Mahomed, the luxurious, termed the epithet of Mahomed.

Mahomed Constantino, endowed with a degree of enterprize. He had as a factor, in Egypt. He was death he married wealth and of East, he had each other was particulars, by riches, and plenty of religion, this design he would him forsake his whom he remained monk was perfect his master, for wife have proved they purposed to homed turned a often subject to furious to conceal which he was instructed in his wild and austere life, acquaintance and n

are governed by bashaws residing among them; yet receive large gratuities from the grand-signior for protecting the pilgrims that pass through their country. The Arabians have no standing regular militia, but their kings command both the persons and the purses of their subjects, as the necessity of affairs require.

**HISTORY.]** The history of this country in some measure differs from that of all others; for as the slavery and subjection of other nations make a great part of their history, that of the Arabs is entirely composed of their conquests or independence. The Arabs are descended from Ishmael, of whose posterity it was foretold, that they should be invincible, "have their hand against every man, and every man's hand against theirs." They are at present, and have remained from the remotest ages, during the various conquests of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. Toward the north, and the sea-coasts of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the southern and inland parts acknowledge themselves subjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harass and annoy all strangers who come into their country. The conquests of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their history, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. These, as well as their religion, began with one man, whose character forms a very singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mahomed, a native of Mecca, a city of that division of Arabia, which, for the luxury of its soil, and mild temperature of its climate, has ever been esteemed the loveliest and sweetest region of the world, and is distinguished by the epithet of Happy.

Mahomed was born in the year 569, in the reign of Justinian II. emperor of Constantinople. Though descended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, he was endowed with a subtle genius, like those of the same country, and possessed a degree of enterprize and ambition peculiar to himself, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed, in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, upon whose death he married his widow, Cadiga, and by her means came to be possessed of great wealth and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the East, he had observed the vast variety of sects in religion, whose hatred against each other was strong and inveterate, while at the same time there were many particulars in which the greater part of them agreed. He carefully laid hold of these particulars, by means of which, and by addressing himself to the love of power, riches, and pleasure, passions universal among men, he expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which had hitherto been established. In this design he was assisted by a Surgian monk, whose libertine disposition had made him forsake his cloister and profession, and engage in the service of Cadiga, with whom he remained as a domestic when Mahomed was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified, by his great learning, for supplying the defects which his master, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which might otherwise have proved fatal to his design. It was necessary, however, that the religion they purposed to establish should have a divine sanction, and for this purpose Mahomed turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often subject to fits of the epilepsy, a disease which those whom it afflicts are desirous to conceal; Mahomed gave out, therefore, that these fits were trances, into which he was miraculously thrown by God Almighty, during which he was instructed in his will. By this strange story, and by leading a retired, abtemious, and austere life, he easily acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the

numbers and the enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet, sent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his system so narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthusiastic, was enlarged by travelling into distant lands, whose genius and manners he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that his religion should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the Eastern countries were at this time much adducted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jesus Christ was co-equal with God the Father, as is declared in the Athanasian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into these corners of the world from the persecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of those countries were pagans. These, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry: and, like men whose religious principle is weak, had given themselves over to pleasure and sensuality, or to the acquisition of riches, the doctrine of predestination composing the sole principle of their philosophy. Mahomed's system exactly suited these three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world, and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moses and Jesus Christ were the most eminent; but the endeavours of these having proved ineffectual, God had therefore now sent his last and greatest prophet with a commission more ample than either Moses or Christ had been entrusted with. He had commanded him not only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end to establish a kingdom upon earth which should propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had designed utter ruin and destruction to those who should refuse to submit to him; but to his faithful followers, he had given the spoils and possessions of all the earth, as a reward in this life; and had provided for them hereafter a paradise of all sensual enjoyments. These, together with the prohibition of drinking strong liquors (a restraint not very severe in warm climates), and the doctrine of predestination, were the capital articles of Mahomed's creed. They were no sooner published than a vast many of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the priest we formerly mentioned, and compose a book called the *Koran*, or Alcoran, by way of eminence, as we say the bible, which means the Book. The person of Mahomed, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca, so that the greater part of them were sufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a design to cut him off; but Mahomed, getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Tahmachi, or the city of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to custom, greatest at a distance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622 year of Christ, the fifty-fourth year of Mahomed's age, and the tenth of his ministry, his followers, the Mahomedans, compute their time, and the era is called in Arabic, Hegira, "the Flight."

Mahomed, by the assistance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom his intimation and address daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at least to an acquiescence in his doctrines. The speedy propagation of his system among the Arabians was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt and the East, who were previously disposed to it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forsook their ancient faith, and became Mahomedans. In a word, the contagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Persia; and Mahomed,

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med, from a deceitful hypocrite, became a powerful monarch. He was proclaimed king at Medina in the year 627, and, after subduing part of Arabia and Syria, he died in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both esteemed divine by their subjects. These were the caliphs of Persia and of Egypt, under the last of which Arabia was included. The former of these turned their arms to the East, and made conquests of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and, under the name of Saracens or Moors (which they obtained because they entered Europe from Mauritania in Africa, the country of the Moors) reduced most of Spain, France, Italy, and the islands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the successors of that impostor spread their religion and conquests over the greatest part of Asia, Africa, and Europe; and they still give law to a very considerable portion of mankind.

## THE INDIAN AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

**T**HE JAPAN ISLANDS, Japan or Nipham, Bongo, Tonfo, and Dezima, form together what has been called the empire of JAPAN, and are governed by a most despotic prince, who is sometimes called emperor and sometimes king. They are situated about 150 miles east of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41st degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of east longitude. The chief town is Jeddo, in the 141st degree of east longitude, and the 36th of north latitude.

The soil and productions of the country are pretty much the same with those of China: and the inhabitants are famous for their lacquer ware, known by the name of Japan. The islands themselves are very inaccessible, through their high rocks and tempestuous seas; they are subjected to earthquakes, and have some volcanos. The Japanese are the grossest of all idolaters, and so irreconcilable to Christianity, that it is commonly said the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themselves to be no Christians, and humour the Japanese in the most absurd superstitions. Notwithstanding all this compliance, the natives are very shy and rigorous in their dealings with the Dutch; and Nagasacki, in the island of Dezima, is the only place where they are suffered to trade. The complexions of the Japanese are in general yellowish, although some few, chiefly women, are almost white. Their narrow eyes, and high eye-brows, are like those of the Chinese and Tartars; and their noses are short and thick. Their hair is universally black; and such a sameness of fashion reigns throughout this whole empire, that the head-dress is the same from the emperor to the peasant. The fashion of their cloaths has also remained the same from very high antiquity. They consist of one or more loose gowns, tied about the middle with a sash. People of rank have them made of silk, but the lower class of cotton stuffs. Women generally wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or silver flowers woven into the stuff.

Their houses are built with upright posts, crossed and wattled with bamboo, plastered both without and within, and white-washed. They generally have two stories; but the uppermost is low and seldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. They have no furniture in their rooms; neither tables, chairs, stools, benches, cupboards, or

even beds. Their custom is to sit down on their heels upon the mats, which are always soft and clean. Their victuals are served up to them on a low board raised but a few inches from the floor, and one dish only at a time. Mirrors they have, but never fix them up in their houses as ornamental furniture; they are made of a compound metal, and used only at their toilets. Notwithstanding the severity of their winters, which obliges them to warm their houses from November to March, they have neither fire-places nor stoves; instead of these, they use large copper pots standing upon legs. These are lined in the inside with loam, on which ashes are laid to some depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which is prepared in such a manner that the fumes of it are not dangerous. The first compliment offered to a stranger, in their houses, is a dish of tea, and a pipe of tobacco. Fans are used by both sexes equally; and are, within or without doors, their inseparable companions. Every house, whether public or private, has a bath, of which constant and daily use is made. Obedience to parents, and respect to superiors, are the characteristics of this nation. Their salutations and conversations between equals abound also with politeness; to which children are early accustomed by the example of their parents. Their penal laws are very severe; but punishments are seldom inflicted. Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes against society are committed. Commerce and manufactures flourish here, though, as these people have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which we see in Europe. Agriculture is so well understood, that the whole country, even to the tops of the hills, is cultivated. They trade with no foreigners but the Dutch and Chinese, and in both cases with companies of privileged merchants. Besides the sugars, spices, and manufactured goods, which the Dutch send to Japan, they carry thither annually upwards of 200,000 deer skins, and more than 100,000 hides, the greatest part of which they get from Siam, where they pay for them in money. The merchandise they export from these islands, both for Bengal and Europe, consists in 9000 chests of copper, each weighing 120 pounds, and from 25 to 30,000 weight of camphor. Their profits on imports and exports are valued at 40 or 45 per cent. As the Dutch company do not pay duty in Japan, either on their exports or imports, they send an annual present to the emperor, consisting of cloth, chintz, succotas, cottons, stuffs, and trinkets.

The **LADRONE ISLANDS**, of which the chief town is said to be Guam, east longitude 140, north latitude 14: they are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pilfering qualities. We know nothing of them worth a particular mention, except that lord Anson landed upon one of them (Tinian), where he found great refreshment for himself and his crew.

**FORMOSA** is likewise an Oriental island. It is situated to the east of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, beginning at the south-coast, and ending at the north. This is a very fine island, and abounds with all the necessaries of life. That part of the island which lies to the west of the mountains belongs to the Chinese, who consider the inhabitants of the eastern parts as savages, though they are said to be a very inoffensive people. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are the same with the Chinese, already described. The Chinese have likewise made themselves masters of several other islands in those seas, of which we scarcely know the names; that of Anan is between sixty and seventy leagues long, and between fifty and sixty in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a shy, cowardly people, and live in the most unwholesome part of the island; the coast and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being possessed by the Chinese.

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The PHILIPPINES are said to be 1100 in number, lying in the Chinese sea (part of the Pacific Ocean), 200 miles south-east of China, of which Manila, or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintados or painted people, and Melles, a mixture of all these. The property of these islands belongs to the king of Spain, they having been discovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. Their situation is such, between the eastern and western continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as with all the islands and places of the East Indies. Two ships from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on the commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the necessaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Venison of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, sheep, goats, and a particular large species of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The nest of the bird fuligan affords that dissolving jelly, which is so voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive surprisngly in those islands. If a sprig of an orange or lemon tree is planted there, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; proof of the verdure and luxuriance of the soil. The tree amct supplies the natives with water; and there is also a kind of cane, which, if cut, yields fair water enough for a draught: this abounds in the mountains, where the water is most wanted.

The city of Manila contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the distance of three leagues, and defended by the castle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manila was reduced by the English under general Draper and admiral Cornish, who took it by storm, and humanely suffered the archbishop, who was the Spanish viceroy at the same time, to ransom the place for about a million sterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerously disowned by him and the court of Spain, so that great part of the ransom is still unpaid. The Spanish government is settled there, and the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other islands, particularly Mindanao, the largest next to Mauilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call sultan. The sultan of Mindanao is a Mahomedan.

Upon the whole, though these islands are enriched with all the profusion of nature, yet they are subject to most dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the soil is pestered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whose poisons kill almost instantaneously. Some of their mountains are volcanos.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the SPICE or CLOVE ISLANDS. These are not out of sight of each other, and lie all within the compass of twenty-five leagues, to the south of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of east longitude, and between one degree south, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machiam, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. These islands produce neither corn nor rice, so that the inhabitants live upon a bread made of sago. Their chief produce consists of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vast quantities; which are monopolized by the Dutch with so much jealousy, that they destroy the plants lest the natives should sell the supernumerary spices to other nations. These islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, subordinate to the Dutch. Ternate is the largest of these islands, though no more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria; and another called Fort Orange, in Machiam.

AMBOYNA. This island, taken in a large sense, is one of the most considerable of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is situated in the Archi-

pelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degrees of south latitude, and 120 leagues to the eastward of Batavia. Amboyna is about seventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garrison of 7 or 800 men, besides small forts, which protect the clove plantations. It is well known, that when the Portuguese were driven off this island, the trade of it was carried on by the English and Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter, in first torturing and then murdering the English, and thereby engrossing the whole trade, and that of Banda, can never be forgotten; but must be transmitted as a memorial of Dutch cruelty, at that period, to all posterity. This tragical event happened in 1622.

The **BANDA, or NUTMEG ISLANDS**, are situated between 127 and 128 degrees east longitude, and between four and five south latitude, comprehending the islands of Lantor (the chief town of which is Lam or), Poleron, Rolinging, Pooloway, and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch on these islands, are those of Revenge and Nassau. The nutmeg, covered with mace, grows on these islands only, and they are intirely subject to the Dutch. The great nutmeg harvest is in June and August.

The island of **CKEREES, or MACASSAR**, is situated under the equator, between the island of Borneo and the Spice islands, at the distance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. This island, notwithstanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief product is pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the study of poisons, with a variety of which nature has furnished them. The Dutch have a fortification on this island; but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom resides in the town of Macassar. In this, and indeed in almost all the Oriental islands, the inhabitants live in houses built on large posts, which are accessible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their security against venomous animals. They are said to be hospitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chinese; and if their chiefs were not perpetually at war with each other, they might easily drive the Dutch from their island. Their port of Jampoden is the most capacious of any in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewise fortified **GILOLO** and **CERAM**, two other spice islands, lying under the equator, and will sink any ships that attempt to traffic in those seas.

The **SUNDA ISLANDS**. These are situated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of east longitude, and between eight degrees north, and eight degrees south latitude, comprehending the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lambee, Banca, &c. The three first, from their great extent and importance, require to be separately described.

**BORNEO** is said to be 800 miles long, and 700 broad, and, till recent discoveries, was thought to be the largest island in the world. The inland part of the country is marthy and unhealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of rivers. The soil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ouran-outang is a native of this country; it is now found by Dr. Camper to have the intermaxillary bone, in common with other quadrupeds, besides a bone in its penis; and in many other particulars to differ from the human form, which it was long supposed to nearly resemble. The sea-coast of Borneo is governed by Mahomedan prin-

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ees; the chief port of this island is *Benjar-Masseen*, which carries on an extensive commerce.

*SUMATRA* has *Malacca* on the north, *Borneo* on the east, and *Java* on the south-east, from which it is divided by the *Straits of Sunda*; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees, and upwards, north-west of it, and five on the south-east; and is 1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This island produces so much gold, that it is thought by some to be the *Ophir* mentioned in the scriptures; but *Mr. Martden*, in his late history of the island, thinks it was unknown to the ancients. The highest mountain in *Sumatra* is called *Ophir* by the Europeans, whose summit above the level of the sea is 13,842 feet, exceeding the height the *Peak of Teneriffe* by 577 feet. The Portuguese were the first discoverers and settlers, but met with disgrace in their attempts against *Acheen*. The first English fleet that made its appearance in this part of the world, and laid the foundation of a commerce that was to eclipse that of every other European state, visited *Acheen*, in the year 1602, under captain *Lancaster*, who carried a letter from queen *Elizabeth* to the king of that place. The English East India company have two settlements here, *Beneoolen*, and *Fort-Marlborough*; from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of *Acheen* is the chief of the Mahomedan princes who possess the sea-coasts. The interior parts are governed by Pagan princes, whose governments are independent, and their languages and manners various. The natural products of *Sumatra* are much the same with those of the adjacent islands; but this island is surpassed by few in rice, pepper, and camphor, and the bountiful indulgence of nature. From the most of the castia sent to Europe is produced. The castia tree grows to fifty or sixty feet, with a stem of about two feet diameter, and a beautiful and regular spreading head. The quantity of pepper produced in the East India company's districts on *Sumatra* is annually 1200 tons; of which the greatest part comes to Europe, and the rest is sent to *China*.

Rain is very frequent here: sometimes very heavy, and almost always attended with thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon, and there are several volcanoes on the island. The people who inhabit the coast are *Malays*, who came hither from the peninsula of *Malacca*, but the interior parts are inhabited by very different people, and who have hitherto had no connection with the Europeans. Their language and character differ much from those of the *Malays*; the latter using the Arabic character, as do the *Acheenese*. The principal internal languages of the island are the *Rejang* and *Batha*, each containing characters essentially different from the other. The people between the districts of the English company, and those of the Dutch at *Palembang*, on the other side the island, write on long narrow slips of the bark of a tree, with a piece of bamboo. They begin at the bottom, and from the left hand to the right, contrary to the custom of the other eastern nations. These inhabitants of the interior parts of *Sumatra* are a free people, and live in small villages, called *doofons*, governed each by its own chief. All of them have laws, some written ones, by which they punish offenders, and terminate disputes. Most of them, particularly the women, have large swellings in their necks, like the *Goitres* of the Alps. That part of this island, which is called the *Castia* country, is well inhabited by a people called *Battas*, who differ from all the other inhabitants of *Sumatra* in language and customs. They have no king, but live in villages, independent of each other, and generally at variance. They fortify their villages very strongly with double fences of camphor plank pointed, and placed with their points projecting outwards; and between these fences they place pieces of bamboo, hardened by fire, and likewise pointed, which

are concealed by the grass, but which will run quite through a man's foot. Such of their enemies whom they take prisoners, they put to death and eat, and their skulls they hang up as trophies, in the houses where the unmarried men and boys eat and sleep. They allow of polygamy. A man may purchase as many wives as he pleases; but Mr. Marsden observes, it is extremely rare that an instance occurs of their having more than one, and that only among a few of their chiefs: but this continence is attributed to their poverty. The original clothing of the Sumatrans is the same with that of the inhabitants of the South-Sea islands, generally styled Otaheitean cloth. The buffalo (*carbow*) constitutes a principal part of their food, and is the only animal employed in their domestic labours. The Sumatran pheasant is a bird of uncommon beauty.

Within about ninety miles of Sumatra is the island of ENGANHO, which is very little known, on account of the terrible rocks and breakers that entirely surround it. It is inhabited by naked savages, who are tall and well made, and who generally appear armed with lances and clubs, and speak a different language from the inhabitants of any of the neighbouring islands.

The greatest part of JAVA belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude of six degrees south, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furnished with one of the finest harbours in the world. The town itself is built in the manner of those in Holland, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and surrounded by regular fortifications; but its suburbs are said to be ten times more populous than itself. The government here is a mixture of Eastern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attended by his guards and officers. The city is as beautiful as it is strong, and its fine canals, bridges, and avenues, render it a most agreeable residence. The description of it, its government and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the suburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almost every nation in the world. The Chinese residing in this island are computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarously massacred, without the smallest offence proved upon them, in 1740. This massacre was too unprovoked and detestable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, sent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of since. A Dutch garrison of 3000 men constantly resides at Batavia; and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the island and the neighbourhood of the city. Their government is admirably well calculated to prevent the independency either of the civil or military power.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR islands. These islands lie at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, and furnish provision, consisting of tropical fruits and other necessaries, for the ships that touch there. They are otherwise too inconsiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by an harmless, inoffensive, but idolatrous people.

CEYLON. This island, though not the largest, possesses great natural advantages. It is situated in the Indian Ocean, near Cape Comorin, the southern extremity of the Hindler Peninsula of India, being separated from the coast of Coromandel by a narrow strait, and is 250 miles long and 200 broad. It produces, besides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, silk, tobacco, ebony, crystal, salt-petre, sulphur, lead, iron, steel, copper: besides cinnamon, gold, and Silver, and all kinds of precious stones except diamonds. Fowls and fishes abound

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here. Every part of the island is well wooded and watered; and besides some curious animals peculiar to itself, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, especially if spotted; but several noxious animals, such as serpents and ants, are likewise found here. The chief commodity of the island is cinnamon, which is by far the best in all Asia. Though its trees grow in great profusion, yet the best is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the chief settlement of the Dutch, and Nangambo. The middle of the country is mountainous and woody, so that the rich and beautiful vallies are left in the possession of the Dutch, who have in a manner shut up the king in his capital city, Candy, which stands on a mountain in the middle of the island, so that he has scarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in his own dominions. The descendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinglases, idolaters, who value themselves upon maintaining their ancient laws and customs. They are, in general, a sober inoffensive people, and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portuguese, and Dutch.

It may be here proper to observe, that the cinnamon tree, which is a native of this island, has two, if not three barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the best; and the body of the tree, which when stripped is white, serves for building and other uses. In 1656, the Dutch were invited, by the natives of this delicious island, to defend them against the Portuguese, whom they expelled, and have monopolised it ever since to themselves. Indeed, in January 1782, Trincomale, the chief sea-port of the island, was taken by the English, but soon afterwards retaken by the French, and restored to the Dutch by the last treaty of peace.

The MALDIVES. These are a vast cluster of small islands, or little rocks, just above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly resorted to by the Dutch, who drive a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of small shells, which go, or rather formerly went, for money upon the coasts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity and medicine. "Of this tree (says a well-informed author) they build vessels of twenty or thirty tons; their hulls, masts, sails, rigging, anchors, cables, provisions, and firing, are all from this useful tree."

We have already mentioned BOMBAY on the Malabar coast, in speaking of India. With regard to the language of all the Oriental islands, nothing certain can be said. Each island has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chinese, Portuguese, Dutch, and Indian words, are so frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in those matters, to know the radical languages. The same may be almost said of their religion; for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahometan, Jewish, Christian, and other foreign superstitions.

The sea which separates the southern point of the peninsula of Kamtschatka from Japan contains upwards of twenty islands, in a position from north-north-east to south-south-west, which are called the KERILE ISLANDS. They are mountainous, and in several of them are volcanoes and hot springs. The principal are inhabited; but some of the little ones are entirely desert. The forests in the more northern ones are composed of laryx and pines; those to the southward produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In some of them are bears and foxes. The sea-otter appears on the coasts of all these islands, as well as whales, sea-horses, seals, and other

other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants have a great likeness to the Japanese in their manners, language, and personal appearance; others very much resemble the Kamtschadales. The northern islands acknowledge the sovereignty of the empire of Russia; but those to the south pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians discover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are cautious and hospitable; but adversity renders them timid, and prompts them to suicide. They reverence an old man whoever he be, but have an especial affection for those of their respective families. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they speak and pronounce it slowly. The men are employed in hunting, fishing for whales, &c. and catching fowls. Their canoes are made of wood that their forests produce, or that the sea casts upon their shores. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make cloaths. In the northern islands they sew, and make different cloaths of the thread nettles. The southern islanders are more refined and polished than the northern, and carry on a sort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagles' feathers to sledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japanese utensils of metal and varnished wood, skillets, sabres, different stuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, all sorts of trinkets, and small wares.

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## A F R I C A.

**A**FRICA, the third grand division of the globe, is generally represented as bearing some resemblance to the form of a pyramid, the base being the northern part of it, which runs along the shores of the Mediterranean, and the point or the top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninsula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land, about sixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, usually called the Isthmus of Suez, and its utmost length from north to south, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope in 34-7 south latitude, is 4300 miles; and the broadest part from Cape Verd, in 17-20 degrees, to Cape Guardafui, near the straits of Babel-Mandel, in 51-20 east longitude, is 3500 miles from east to west. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, which separates it from Europe; on the east by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divide it from Asia; on the south by the Southern Ocean; and on the west by the great Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America. As the equator divides this extensive country almost in the middle, and the far greater part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almost insupportable to an European; it being there increased by the reflection of the sun's rays from vast deserts of burning sands. The coasts, however, and banks of rivers, such as the Nile, are generally fertile, and most parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being so populous as Europe or Asia. From what has been said, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, snow never falls in the plains; and it seldom lies but on the tops of the high mountains. The natives, in these scorching regions, would as soon expect that marble should melt and flow in liquid streams, as that water, by freezing, should lose its fluidity, be arrested by the cold, and, ceasing to flow, become like the solid rock.

That the geography of Africa has made a slower progress towards improvement than that of every other part of the world, during the last and the present century, is to be attributed to natural causes. Formed by the Creator with a contour and surface totally unlike the other continents, its interior parts elude all nautic research; whilst the wars and commerce in which Europeans have taken part, have been confined to very circumscribed parts of its borders. To the lovers of adventure and novelty, Africa displays a most ample field; but the qualification of local manners, and in some degree of habits, must in this case be superadded to that of language; and this unquestionably renders the undertaking peculiarly arduous.

As both EUROPE, and its adjacent continent, ASIA, are spread over with inland seas, lakes, or rivers, of the most extended navigations, so as collectively to aid the transport of bulky articles of merchandise from one extreme of them to the other; and to form (like stepping-stones over a brook) a more commodious communication: so likewise the northern part of America appears to have an almost continuous inland navigation; which must prove of infinite advantage to its inhabitants, when fully peopled, and contribute meanwhile to their speedier civilization. But AFRICA stands alone in a geographical view. Penetrated by no inland seas, like the Mediterranean, Baltic, or Hudson's Bay; nor overspread with extensive lakes, like those of North America; nor having, in common with the other continents, rivers

running from the centre to the extremities; but on the contrary, its regions separated from each other by the least practicable of all boundaries, and deserts of such formidable extent, as to threaten those who traverse them, with the most horrible of all deaths, that arising from thirst! Placed in such circumstances, can we be surprised either at our ignorance of its interior part, or of the tardy progress of its civilization? Possibly the difficulty of conveying merchandise to the coasts, under the above circumstances, may have given rise to the traffic in men, a commodity that can transport itself!

Nothing can evince the low state of the African geography, more than M. D'Anville's having had recourse to the works of Ptolemy and Edrifi, to compose the interior part of his map of Africa (1749). It is well known that those authors wrote in the second and in the twelfth centuries of our æra. Most of the positions in the inland part of the great body of Africa are derived from Edrifi; and it is wonderful how nearly some of them agree with those furnished by the latest observations.

But the public are not to expect, even under an improved system of African geography, that the interior part of that continent will exhibit an aspect similar to the others; rich in variety; each region assuming a distinct character. On the contrary, it will be meagre and vacant in the extreme. The dreary expanses of desert which often surround the habitable spots, forbid the appearance of the usual proportions of towns; and the paucity of rivers, added to their being either absorbed or evaporated, instead of being conducted in flowing lines to the ocean, will give a singular cast to its hydrography; the direction of their courses, being moreover equivocal, through the want of that information which a communication with the sea usually affords at a glance.

The society for promoting the discovery of the interior parts of Africa has been fortunate in collecting much geographical information in so early a stage of the African researches; and there is little doubt that, in a few years, all the great features of this continent (within the reach of their enquiries) may be known and described. But to accomplish this, it will be necessary that intelligent Europeans should trace some of the principal routes; as well to apportion the distances, as to establish some kind of criterion for the parole information derived from the natives. As yet, in the wide extent of near thirty degrees on a meridian, between Benin and Tripoli, not one celestial observation has been taken to determine the latitude.\*

The most considerable rivers in Africa, are the Niger, which falls into the Atlantic or western ocean at Senegal, after a course of about 2800 miles †. It increases

\* Major Rennell's Memoir of his Map of the Northern Parts of Africa, printed by the African Association, at the end of their Proceedings.

† This is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain. For (according to Mr. Lucas's communications to the African Association) both the rise and termination of the Niger are unknown, but the course is from east to west. So great is its rapidity, that no vessel can ascend its stream; and such is the want of skill, or such the absence of commercial inducements among the nations who inhabit its borders, that even with the current neither vessels nor boats are seen to navigate. In one place, indeed, the traveller finds accommodations for the passage of himself and of his goods; but even there, though the ferrymen, by the indulgence of the Sultan of Calina, are exempted from all taxes, the boat which conveys the merchandize is nothing more than an ill-constructed raft, for the

planks are fastened to the timbers with ropes, and the seams are closed, both within and without, by a plaster of tough clay, of which a large provision is always carried on the raft, for the purpose of excluding the stream wherever its entrance is observed.

The depth of the river at the place of passage, which is more than a hundred miles to the south of the city of Calina, the capital of the empire of that name, is estimated at twenty-three or twenty-four feet English.

Its width is such, that even at the island of Gongo, where the ferrymen reside, the sound of the loudest voice from the northern shore is scarcely heard; and at Tombuctou, where the name of Guewa, or black, is given to the stream, the width is described as being that of the Thames at Westminster. In the rainy season it swells above its banks, and not only floods the adjacent lands, but

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creases and decreases as the Nile, fertilises the country, and contains grains of gold intermixed with its sand. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches of this river. The Nile divides Egypt into two parts, and discharges itself into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious course from its source in Abyssinia.

The most considerable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the western ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean, as far as Egypt. It had its name from the king of Mauritania, a great lover of astronomy, who used to observe the stars from its summit; on which account the poets represent him as bearing the heavens on his shoulders. The mountains of the Moon, extending themselves between Abyssinia and Monomotapa, are still higher than those of Atlas. Those of Sierra Leona, or the mountains of the Lions, dividing Nigritia from Guinea, and extending as far as Ethiopia, were styled by the ancients the mountains of God, on account of their being subject to thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their first meridian, rises about two miles high in the form of a sugar-loaf, and is situated on an island of the same name near the coast. The most noted capes or promontories in this country are, Cape Verd; so called, because the land is always covered with green trees and mossy ground; it is the most westerly point of the continent of Africa. The Cape of Good Hope, so denominated by the Portuguese, when they first went round it in 1498, and discovered the passage to Asia. It is the southern extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots; at present in the possession of the Dutch, and the general rendezvous of ships of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one strait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mandel, and joins the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean.

The situation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, standing as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the rest. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, the English, and the French, who have settlements on its coasts, but that of the most authentic historians. It is, however, the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has 10,000 miles of sea-coast, with noble, large, deep rivers, it should be inhabited by barbarous or savage nations. At the mouths of many of its rivers are the most excellent harbours, deep, safe, calm, and sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but quite destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandise. In short, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing so many things delightful, as well as convenient, within itself, has been neglected strangely both by the natives and the Europeans settled in it, particularly the Portuguese.

Africa once contained several kingdoms and states, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the most extensive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful state of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itself, extended her commerce to every part of the ancient world; even the British shores were visited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage,

often sweeps before it the cattle and cottages of the most sited, or too confident inhabitants. That the people who live in the neighbourhood of the Niger should refuse to profit by its navigation, may justly surprize the traveller; but much greater is his astonishment, when he finds that even the food which the bounty of the stream would give, is use-

lessly offered to their acceptance; for such is the want of skill, or such the settled dislike of the people to this sort of provision, that the fish, which the river abounds, are left in undisturbed possession of its waters. — Proceedings of the African Association, p. 183—186.

unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the assistance of the Mauritanians, subdued Carthage, and by degrees all the neighbouring kingdoms and states. After this, the natives, constantly plundered, and consequently impoverished, by the governors sent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might serve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed still more to the destruction of arts and sciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of all the coasts of Egypt and Barbary, in the seventh century. These were succeeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahomedan religion, whose professors carried desolation with them wherever they came, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with respect to religion, may be divided into three sorts; namely, Pagans, Mahomedans, and Christians. The first are the most numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope, and they are generally black. The Mahomedans, who are of a tawny complexion, possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coast. The people of Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites. There are also some Jews, on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country enjoys.

There are scarcely any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, that agree in the modern divisions of Africa; and for this very reason, that scarcely any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country; and consequently we must acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of several of the inland nations, which may be still reckoned among the unknown and undiscovered parts of the world; but, according to the best accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following Table:

Nations

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	Nations.	Length	Bread.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bear. from London	Dist. of time from London	Religions.	
Barbary.	Morocco, Tafflet, &c.	500	480	219,400	Fex	1080 S.	0 24 aft.	Mahom.	
	Algiers	480	100	143,600	Algiers	920 S.	0 13 bef.	Mahom.	
	Tunis	220	170	54,400	Tunis	990 S. E.	0 39 bef.	Mahom.	
	Tripoll	700	240	75,000	Tripoll	1260 S. E.	0 56 bef.	Mahom.	
	Barca	450	300	66,400	Polemota	1440 S. E.	1 26 bef.	Mahom.	
	Egypt	600	250	140,700	Grand Cairo	1920 S. E.	2 21 bef.	Mahom.	
	Biledulgerid	2500	350	485,000	Dara	1567 S.	0 32 alt.	Pagans.	
	Zaara	3400	660	739,200	Fegella	1800 S.	0 24 aft.	Pagans.	
	Negroland	2200	840	1,026,000	Madinga	2500 S.	0 38 alt.	Pagans.	
	Guinea	1800	360	510,000	Benin	2700 S.	0 20 bef.	Pagans.	
p. Ethiop.	Nubia	940	600	264,000	Nubia	2418 S. E.	2 12 bef.	Ma. & Pa.	
	Abyssinia	900	800	378,000	Gondar	2880 S. E.	2 20 bef.	Christian.	
	Abea	540	130	160,000	Doucala	3580 S. E.	2 36 bef.	Ch. & Pa.	
	The middle parts, called the Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 square miles.								
	Low. Guinea.	Loango	410	300	49,400	Loango	3300 S.	0 44 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
Congo		540	420	172,800	St. Salvador	3480 S.	1 0 bef.	Ch. & Pa.	
Angola		360	250	38,400	Loando	3750 S.	0 58 bef.	Ch. & Pa.	
Benguela		430	180	64,000	Benguela	3900 S.	0 58 bef.	Pagans.	
Mataman		450	240	144,000	No Towns	" " "	" " "	Pagans.	
Ajan		900	300	214,000	Urava	3702 S. E.	2 40 bef.	Pagans.	
Zanguebar		1400	350	275,000	Melindor Mozambique	4440 S. E.	2 38 bef.	Pagans.	
Monomotapa		960	660	222,500	Monomotapa	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans.	
Monemugi		900	660	310,000	Chicova	4260 S.	1 44 bef.	Pagans.	
Sofola		480	300	97,000	Sofola	4600 S. E.	1 18 bef.	Pagans.	
Ferra de Nat.	600	350	184,900	No Towns	" " "	" " "	Pagans.		
Calfraria or Hottentot	708	660	200,340	Cape of Good Hope	5200 S.	1 4 bef.	Most stupid Pag.		

The principal islands of Africa lie in the Indian seas and Atlantic Ocean; of which the following belong to, or trade with the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from India:

Islands.	Sq. M.	Towns.	Trade with or belong to.
Babel Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea	—	Babel Mandel	All nations
Zocoura, in the Indian Ocean	3,600	Calanfia	Ditto
The Comora Isles, ditto	1,000	Joanna	Ditto
Madagascar, ditto	168,000	St. Aufln	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto	1,840	Mauritius	French
Bourbon, ditto	2,100	Bourbon	Ditto
S. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean	—	St. Helena	English
Afcenfon, ditto	—	—	Uninhabited
St. Matthew, ditto	—	—	Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes island, Fernandopo	ditto	St. Thomas, Anaboa	Portuguese
Cape Verd Islands, ditto	2,000	St. Domingo	Ditto
Goree, ditto	—	Fort St. Michael	French
Canaries, ditto	—	Palma, St. Christophers	Spanish
Madeira, ditto	1,500	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portuguese
The Azores, or Western Isles lie nearly at an equal distance from Europe, Africa, and America	ditto	2,000 Angra, St. Michael	Ditto

Having

Nations

Having given the reader some idea of Africa in general, with its principal kingdoms, we shall now consider it under four grand divisions: first, Egypt; secondly the states of Barbary, stretching along the coast of the Mediterranean, from Egypt in the east, to the Atlantic Ocean, west; thirdly, the kingdoms of Abyssinia, Fezzan, Bornou, and Cassina; and, lastly, the country of the Hottentots, Caffraria, and that part of Africa, between the tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope: the last of these divisions, indeed, is vastly greater than the other three; but the nations which it contains are so little known, and so barbarous, and, like all barbarous nations, so similar in most respects to each other, that they may, without impropriety, be thrown under one general head.

E G Y P T.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 } between { 20 and 32 north latitude. }		140,700.
Breadth 250 }	{ 28 and 36 east longitude. }	

**BOUNDARIES.]** It is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, North; by the Red Sea, East; by Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the South; and by the desert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Northern division contains	Lower Egypt	{ GRAND CAIRO, E. lon.
		{ 32. N. lat. 30.
		{ Bulac
		{ Alexandria
Southern division contains	Upper Egypt	{ Rosetta
		{ Damietta
		{ Sayd or Thebes
		{ Colliar.

**AIR.]** It is observed by M. Volney, that during eight months of the year (from March to November) the heat is almost insupportable to an European. "During the whole of this season, the air is inflamed, and the sky sparkling."—The other months are more temperate. The southerly winds which sometimes blow in Egypt, are by the natives called *poisonous winds*, or the *hot winds of the desert*. They are of such extreme heat and aridity, that no animated body exposed to them can withstand their fatal influence. During the three days which this wind generally lasts, the streets are deserted; and woe to the traveller whom it surprises remote from shelter; when it exceeds three days it is insupportable. Very frequently the inhabitants are almost blinded with drifts of sand. These evils are remedied by the rising and overflowing of the Nile.

**SOIL AND PRODUCE.]** The vast fertility of Egypt is owing to the annual inundation of the Nile, occasioned by the rains which fall during May, June, and July, in Abyssinia and the neighbouring countries of Africa. According to M. Volney,

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the commencement of the inundation is not entirely ascertained, though the Coptes fix it at the 19th of June. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be seen in the plains, but the tops of forests and fruit-trees, the towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with various festivities. The banks or mounds which confine it are cut by the Turkish basha, attended by his grandees; but, according to captain Norden, who was present on the occasion, the spectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is let into what they call the *Chalis*, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is distributed into cuts, for supplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, such is the fertility of the soil, that the labour of the husbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and in about six weeks, nothing can be more charming than the prospect which the face of the country presents, in rising corn, vegetables, and verdure of every sort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulse, lemons, sugar-canes, and other plants, which require moisture, is supplied by small but regular cuts from cisterns and reservoirs. Dates, plantanes, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harvest months, and produce three crops; one of lettucees and cucumbers (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants), one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian pasturage is equally prolific, most of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the sheep four lambs a year.

[ANIMALS.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is said, that the inhabitants employ every day 20,000 oxen in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, being insolently debarred by the Turks from riding on horseback. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river-horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head of a horse, is common in Upper Egypt. Tygers, hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes with the head like a dog, and the rat, called *ichneumon*, are natives of Egypt. The camelion, a little animal something resembling a lizard, that changes colour as you stand to look upon him, is found here as well as in neighbouring countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to Egypt, but there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four short legs, with large feet armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable scales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the sedge, and other cover, on the sides of the rivers; and, pretty much resembling the trunk of an old tree, sometimes surprises the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces likewise great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) somewhat resembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its destroying serpents and pestiferous insects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

The Cerastes, or horned viper, inhabits the greatest part of the eastern continent, especially the desert sandy parts of it. It abounds in Syria, in the three Arabias, and

and in Africa. It is thought to have been this species of viper which Cleopatra employed to procure her death. Alexandria, plentifully supplied by water, must then have had fruit of all kinds in its gardens. The baskets of figs must have come from thence, and the aspic, or cerastes, that was hid in them, from the adjoining desert, where there are plenty to this day. Mr. Bruce, in his Travels in Abyssinia, has given a very curious account of the power which the natives have over these reptiles, by which they become quite harmless to them; but he could learn no other reason for this exemption, than their saying that they were born so. Whatever be the cause, the fact seems plain both from sacred \* and profane † writers.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } As the population of Egypt is almost confined to the banks of the Nile, and the rest of the country inhabited by Arabs, and other nations, we can say little upon this head with precision. It seems to be certain that Egypt is at present not near so populous as formerly, and its depopulation is owing to anarchy and despotism. According to M. Volney, the number of inhabitants may amount to 2,300,000, of which Cairo contains about 250,000. This country is inhabited by four different races of people; the Turks who pretend to be masters of the country; the Arabs who were conquered by the Turks; the Coptes, who are descended from the ancient Egyptians, mixed with the Persians, Greeks, and Romans, who successively conquered Egypt; and the Mamelouks, who were originally Circassian and Mingrelian slaves, and being the only military force, are the real masters of the country.

The Turks, who reside in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, and wear the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Coptes, who dress very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather slippers, the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign Christians yellow. The dress of the women is very ungraceful, which in the higher ranks, is of silk. Those females who are not exposed to the sun, have delicate complexions and features. The women are not admitted to the society of men even at table. When a rich Egyptian is desirous of dining with one of his wives, he gives her previous notice; who accordingly prepares the most delicate dishes, and receives her lord with the greatest attention and respect. The women of the lower class remain standing, or seated in a corner of the room, while their husband is at dinner, and present him with water to wash, and help him at the table. The Coptes are generally excellent accompaniments, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exercises and diversions are much the same as those made use of in Persia, and other Asiatic countries. Egypt abounds with jugglers, fortune-tellers, and mountebanks.

RELIGION.] To what has been already said concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add that the bulk of the Mahomedans are enthusiasts, and have among them their *fiates*, or fellows who pretend to a superior degree of holiness, and without any ceremony intrude into the best houses, whence it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks pay little attention to religion;

\* Jerem. viii. 17. Psal. lviii. 5.

† Ad quoniam cantus mites jacuere cerastæ. Sil. Ital. lib. iii.

nor would it be easy to say what species of Christianity is believed by the Christian Coptes who are here numerous; they however profess themselves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who by easy pecuniary influence generally obtains a protection at the Ottoman court.

[LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the most ancient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the califate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabesque, as it is called, is still the current language, but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be spoken.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though it is supposed that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet scarcely a vestige of it remains among their descendants. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahomedan masters; but here it is proper to make one observation which is of general use. The Califs or Saracens who subdued Egypt were of three kinds. The first, who were the immediate successors of Mahomed, made war, from confidence and principle, upon all kinds of literature, except the Koran; and hence it was, that when they took possession of Alexandria, which contained the most magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuscripts were applied for some months to cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The same fate attended upon the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The Califs of the second race were men of taste and learning, but of a peculiar strain. They bought up all the manuscripts, that survived the general conflagration, relating to astronomy, medicine, and some useless parts of philosophy; but they had no taste for the Grecian arts, sciences, history, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of Califs, especially those who called themselves Califs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks have riveted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed.

All the learning therefore possessed by the modern Egyptians consists in arithmetical calculations for the dispatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, some knowledge of Arabesque, and of the Mahomedan religion.

[CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with these than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often described. Their antiquity is beyond the researches of history itself, and their original uses are still unknown. They are eleven in number, and distant four leagues from Cairo. The basis of the largest covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but, if measured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 feet\*. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder, who, according to Herodotus, was Cheops, the Egyptian king, who immediately succeeded Proteus, in the ninth century before Christ. In short, the pyramids of Egypt are the most stupendous, and to appearance, the most useless, structures that ever were raised by the hands of men.

The mummy pits, so called for their containing the mummies, or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now lost. It is said that some of the bodies, thus embalmed, are perfect and distinct at this day, though buried 3000 years

\* Mr. Volney says that a late mensuration assigns and its perpendicular height four hundred and to each face of the great pyramid, six hundred feet; eighty-feet.

ago. The labyrinth in Upper Egypt is a curiosity thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of marble rock consisting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houses, the intricacies of which occasion its name. The lake Mariis was dug by order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches which still subsist, and are evidences of the utility as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, mostly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo is a continued scene of antiquities, of which the oldest are the most stupendous, but the more modern the most beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its sculptures, are admirable.

Pompey's pillar, which is situated on a rock, about a mile without the gates of the city of Alexandria, is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the shaft of which is one stone, being eighty-eight feet nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and pedestal. The whole of the pillar is granite, but the capital is of another stone. This magnificent monument appears, in taste, (says Mr. Bruce) to be the work of that period between Hadrian and Severus; but, though the former erected several large buildings in the east, it is observed of him that he never put inscriptions upon them. This pillar has had a Greek inscription, and I think, may very probably be attributed to the time of the latter, as a monument of the gratitude of the city of Alexandria for the benefits he conferred on them, especially since no ancient history mentions its existence at an earlier period. He conjectures that it was brought in a block from the Thebais in Upper Egypt, by the Nile; though some have imagined it was an old obelisk, hewn to the round form of a pillar. The Sphinx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the shoulders of a woman hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids.—The manner of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and now practised in some parts of Europe.

The papyrus (which is one of the natural curiosities of Egypt, and served the ancients to write upon) is a cyperus, called by the Greeks *Biblus*. Pliny says that Varro writes that the papyrus came not into general use till after the conquest of Egypt by Alexander; yet it is plain from Anacreon \*, *Alexus*, *Æschylus*, and the comic poets, that it was known in their time. Plato and Aristotle speak of it also, so do Herodotus, and Theophrastus †. We also know it was of old in use among the Ionians, who probably brought it in very early days directly from Egypt. Numa, too, who lived 300 years before Alexander, is said to have left a number of books written on the papyrus, which a long time after his death were found at Rome.

With Aristotle began the first arrangement of a library. Alexander's conquest, and the building of Alexandria, laid open Egypt, its trade, and learning, to the world. Papyrus then, or the paper made from it, was the only material made use of for writing upon. A violent desire of amassing books, and a library, immediately followed.

The Ptolemies, and the kings of Pergamus, contended who should make the largest collection. The Ptolemies, masters of Egypt, and of the papyrus, availed themselves of this monopoly to hinder the multiplication of books in Greece. The other princes probably smuggled this plant, and propagated it wherever it would grow out of Egypt. And Eumenes king of Pergamus set about bringing to perfection the manufacture of parchment, which, long before, the Ionians had used on account of the scarcity of paper; for whatever resemblance there might be in names, or whatever may be inferred from them, writing upon skins or parchment was much

\* *Anac. Ode 17.*

† *Theoph. Hist. Plant. lib. 17. 9.*

more ancient than any city or state in Greece, and in use probably before Greece was inhabited. The Jews we know made use of it in the earliest ages. At this very time which we are now speaking of, we learn from Josephus \*, that the elders, by order of the high priests, carried a copy of the law to Ptolemy Philadelphus in letters of gold upon skins, the pieces of which were so artfully put together that the joinings did not appear.

" In a large and very perfect manuscript in my possession (says Mr. Bruce), which was dug up at Thebes, the boards are of papyrus root, covered first with the coarser pieces of the paper, and then with leather in the same manner as it would be done now. It is a book one would call a small folio, rather than by any other name, and I apprehend that the shape of the book where papyrus is employed was always of the same form with those of the moderns. The letters are strong, deep, black, and apparently written with a reed, as is practised by the Egyptians and Abyssinians still. It is written on both sides, so never could be rolled up as parchment was, nor would the brittleness of the materials when dry, support any such frequent unrolling †."

CITIES, TOWNS, AND } Even a slight review of these would amount to a large  
PUBLIC EDIFICES. } volume. In many places, not only temples, but the  
walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are still entire, and  
many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as fresh  
and vivid as when first laid on.

Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coast, was once the emporium of the world, and by the means of the Red Sea furnished Europe, and great part of Asia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder Alexander the Great. It stands forty miles west from the Nile, and is a hundred and twenty north-west of Cairo. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-house erected on the opposite island of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. The mole which was built to form a communication with the island of Pharos is 1000 yards in length, and though near 2000 years old, the excellence of its materials has resisted, in a great measure, the violence of winds and waves ever since. All the parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the cisterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which at present is a very ordinary sea-port, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithstanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their mosques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within these ruins, preserve an inexpressible air of majesty. " It is thinly inhabited, and there is a tradition among the natives that, more than once, it has been in agitation to abandon it altogether, and retire to Rosetta, or Cairo, but that they have been withheld by the opinion of divers saints from Arabia, who have assured them, that Mecca being destroyed, (as it must be they think by the Russians) Alexandria is then to become *the holy place*, and that Mahomed's body is to be transported thither: when that city is destroyed, the sanctified relics are to be transported to Carouan, in the kingdom of Tunis: lastly, from Carouan they are to come to Rosetta, and there to remain till the consummation of all things †."

Rosetta, or Rafchid, stands twenty-five miles to the north-west of Alexandria, and is recommended by its beautiful situation, and the delightful prospects which command the fine country, or island of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewise a place of great trade. The length of the city is two miles, but it is only

\* Joseph, lib. xii. p. 405. † Bruce's Travels, 4to. vol. v. p. 1, 2, 3, 5, &c. ‡ Ibid. vol. i. p. 15, 5 M 2  
half

half a mile broad. In the environs are many country houses belonging to Christian merchants, with fine gardens, producing the choicest fruits of the East. The Mahomedan inhabitants are here also particularly civil and polite.

Cairo, now Maſr, the preſent capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a diſagreeable reſidence, on account of its peſtilential air, and narrow ſtreets. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old caſtle, the works of which are ſaid to be three miles in circumference. This caſtle is ſaid to have been built by Saladin: at the weſt end are the remains of very noble apartments, ſome of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in Moſaic work; but theſe apartments are now only uſed for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually ſent to Mecca. The well, called Joſeph's well, is a curious piece of mechanism, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is ſtill revered in Egypt, where they ſtrew granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vaſt antiquity; but it is very queſtionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is ſhewn in Old Cairo, but captain Norden ſuſpects it is a Saracenic work, nor does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city itſelf. On the bank of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gize, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles weſt, is Bulac, called the port of Cairo. The Chriſtians of Cairo praſtiſe a holy cheat, during the Eaſter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead ariſe from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The ſtreets of Cairo are peſtered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor: the intenſe heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the ſound of a drum, the noiſe of that inſtrument ſets them a dancing all their lives after.

The other towns of note in Egypt are Damietta, ſuppoſed to be the ancient Peluſium; Seyd, on the weſt banks of the Nile, 200 miles ſouth of Cairo, ſaid to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes; and Colſiar, on the weſt coaſt of the Red Sea. The general praſtice of ſtrangers, who viſit thoſe places, is to hire a Janizary, whoſe authority commonly protects them from the inſults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a ſmall city, and gives name to the Iſthmus, that joins Africa with Aſia. The children of Iſrael are ſuppoſed to have marched near this city, when they left Egypt, in their way towards the Red Sea. This ſea appears to have certainly derived its name from Edom, long and early its powerful maſter, that word ſignifying Red in Hebrew. It formerly went by the name of the ſea of Edom, or Idumæa. Almoſt every object and village in this country preſents ſome amazing piece of antiquity.

MARBLE QUARRIES.] "It has been a wonder (ſays Mr. Bruce in his journey acroſs the deſert of the Thebaid from Kenné to Colſeir) with all travellers, and with myſelf among the reſt, where the ancients procured that prodigious quantity of fine marble, with which all their buildings abound. That wonder, however, among many others, now ceases after having paſſed, in four days, more granite, porphyry, marble, and jaſper, than would build Rome, Athens, Corinth, Syracuſe, Memphis, Alexandria, and half a dozen ſuch cities. It ſeemed to be very viſible that thoſe openings in the hills, which I call deſiles, were not natural, but artificial, and that whole mountains had been cut out at theſe places.

"The porphyry ſhews itſelf by a fine purple ſand, without any gloſs, or glitter on it, and is exceedingly agreeable to the eye. It is mixed with the native white ſand, and fixed gravel of the plains. Green unvariegated marble is generally ſeen in the ſame mountain with the porphyry. Where the two veins meet, the marble

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marble is for some inches brittle, but the porphyry of the same hardness as in other places.

"The granite is covered with sands, and looks like stone of a dirty, brown colour. But this is only the change and impression the sun and weather have made upon it; for upon breaking it, you see it is grey granite, with black spots, with a reddish cast, or bluish over it. This red seems to fade, or suffer from the outward air, but, upon working or polishing the surface, this colour again appears. It is in greater quantity than the porphyry, and nearer the Red Sea. Pompey's pillar seems to have been from this quarry.

"Next to the granite, but never, as I observed, joined with it in the same mountain, is the red marble. It is covered with sand of the same colour, and looks as if the whole mountain were spread over with brick dust. There is also a red marble with white veins, which I have often seen at Rome, but not in principal subjects. I have also seen it in Britain. The common green (called serpentine) looks as if covered over with Brazil snuff. Joined with this green, I saw two samples of that beautiful marble, they call Isabella; one of them with a yellowish cast, which we call Quaker-colour, the other with a bluish, which is commonly termed dove-colour. In this green, likewise, it was, we saw the vein of jasper; but whether it was absolutely the same with this, which is the bloody jasper, or blood-stone, is what we had not time to settle.

"I should first have made mention of the verde antico, the dark green with white irregular spots, because it is of the greatest value, and nearest the Nile. This is produced in the mountains of the plain green, or serpentine, as is the jasper, and is not discoverable by the dust, or any particular colour upon it. First, there is a blue sleeky stone. After lifting this, we come to the beds of the verde antico; and here the quarrying is very obvious, for it has been uncovered in patches, not above twenty-feet square. Then, in another part, the green stone has been removed, and another pit of it wrought.

"I saw, in several places in the plain, small pieces of African marble scattered about, but no rocks or mountains of it. This prodigious store of marble is placed upon a ridge, whence there is a descent to the east, or west, either to the Nile or Red Sea. The level ground, and hard-fixed gravel are proper for the heaviest carriages, and will easily and smoothly convey any weight whatever to its place of embarkation on the Nile; so that another wonder ceased, how the ancients transported those vast blocks of marble to Thebes, Memphis, and Alexandria \*."

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Egyptians export prodigious quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts, callicoes, yellow, wax, sal ammoniac, saffron, sugar, senna, and cassia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, spices, callicoes, and other merchandises, which are landed at Suez, from whence they send them to Europe. Several European states have consuls resident in Egypt, but the customs of the Turkish government are managed by Jews. A number of English vessels arrive yearly at Alexandria; some of which are laden on account of the owners, but most of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahomedan traders.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] A viceroy is sent to Egypt from the Porte under the title of the pasha or b. Law of Cairo, and is one of the greatest officers of the Ottoman empire. But since the revolution of Ali Bey, the power of the Turks in Egypt is more precarious than in any other province. The government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican. The monarchical is executed

\* Bruce's Travels, 4to. vol. i. p. 156, 187, 188.

by the pasha. The republican, or rather the aristocratical part of the government, consists of a divan, composed of twenty-four sangaicks, beys or lords. The head of them is called the sheik bellet, who is chosen by the divan, and confirmed by the pasha. Every one of the sangaicks is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts sovereign power; the major part of them reside at Cairo. If the grand signior's pasha acts in opposition to the sense of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not suffer him to continue in his post, and the Porte is obliged to send another. They have an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year Sultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamalukes.

**REVENUES.]** These are very inconsiderable, when compared with the natural riches of the country, and the despotism of its government. Some say they amount to a million sterling, and that two thirds of the whole is spent in the country.

**MILITARY STRENGTH.]** This consists in the Mamalukes, some bodies of whom are cantoned in the villages to exact tribute, and support authority. The greater part are assembled at Cairo. They amount to about eight thousand men, attached to the different beys, whom they enable to contend with each other, and to set the Turks at defiance.

**HISTORY.]** It is generally agreed that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs sat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyses, the second king of Persia, conquered the Egyptians 520 years before the birth of Christ; and that in the reign of those princes, the pyramids were raised; structures, which cannot now be viewed without astonishment. Egypt continued a part of the Persian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquished Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conquests of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being seized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the share of Ptolemy, by some supposed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Christ. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominions over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, ascended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been mistress successively to Julius Cæsar and Mark Anthony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second Calif of the successors of Mahomed, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, said to consist of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy; and the same prince caused the Old Testament to be translated into Greek, but whether by seventy-two interpreters, and in the manner commonly related, is justly questioned: this translation is known by the name of the Septuagint. Omar subjected Egypt to the Mahomedan power, about the year 643, and the Califs of Babylon were sovereigns of the country till 870, when the Egyptians set up a governor of their own called the Calif of Cairo.

About the time of the crusades, between the year 1150 and 1190, Egypt was governed by Norededdin, the Saracen sultan of Damascus, whose son, the famous Saladin, proved to formidable to those Christian adventurers, and retok from them Jerusalem. He instituted the military corps of Mamalukes, like the Janizaries of Constantinople, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body. Egypt, for some time, made a figure under those illustrious usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks, till under Selim, who, about the year

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1517, after giving the Mamalukes several bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

While Selim was settling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deserts and plains, under Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate those marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their posterity were known over Europe and Asia, by the name of Gipsies.

An attempt was made a few years since to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt by Ali Bey, whose father was a priest of the Greek church. Ali turned Mahomedan, and being a man of abilities and address, rendered himself extremely popular in Egypt. A false accusation having been made against him to the grand signior, his head was ordered to be sent to Constantinople, but being apprized of the design, he seized and put to death the messenger who brought the order, put himself at the head of an army and taking advantage of the distressed and dangerous situation to which the Turkish empire was reduced, in consequence of the war with Russia, boldly mounted the throne. But not content with the kingdom of Egypt, he also laid claim to Syria, Palestine, and that part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient Sultans. He marched at the head of his troops to support these pretensions, and actually subdued some of the neighbouring provinces both of Arabia and Syria. At the same time that he was engaged in these great enterprizes, he was not less attentive to the establishing of a regular government in a country that had been long the seat of anarchy and confusion. His views were equally extended as to commerce; for which purpose he gave great encouragement to the Christian traders, and took off some shameful restraints and indignities, to which they were subjected in that barbarous country. He also wrote a letter to the republic of Venice, with the greatest assurances of his friendship, and that their merchants should meet with every degree of protection and safety. His great design was said to be, to make himself master of the Red Sea; to open the port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the Europeans, and to render Egypt once more the great centre of commerce. The conduct and views of Ali Bey shewed an extent of thought and ability that indicated nothing of the barbarian, and bespoke a mind equal to the founding of an empire. He assumed the titles and state of the ancient Sultans of Egypt, and was ably supported by Sheik Daher, and some other Arabian princes, who warmly espoused his interests. He also succeeded in almost all his enterprizes against the neighbouring Asiatic governors and pashas, whom he repeatedly defeated; but he was afterwards ruined at once by the base and ungrateful conduct of his brother-in-law, Mahomed Bey Aboudaab, his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March 1773, and himself wounded and taken prisoner: he died of his wounds, and was buried at Grand Cairo. Aboudaab afterwards governed Egypt as Sheik Bellet, and marched into Palestine to subdue Sheik Daher. After behaving with great cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead in his bed one morning at Acre, supposed to be strangled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porte's full amnesty, and trusting to their assurances, embraced the captain pasha's invitation to dine on board his ship, when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head cut off in the 85th year of his age.

From that time Egypt has been torn by a civil war, between the adherents of Ali, and other beys or princes, who rose on his ruins. Of these the principal are Morad and Ybrahim, who having driven their enemies into banishment, began to quarrel

quarrel among themselves. Alternately expelled from Cairo, they finally agreed to a compromise, March, 1785.

The Porte still retains a pasha in Egypt; but this pasha, confined and watched in the castle of Cairo, is rather the prisoner of the Mamalukes, than the representative of the Sultan.

THE STATES OF BARBARY\*.

**U**NDER this head are included the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez; 2. Algiers; 3. Tunis; 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the North by the Mediterranean sea; on the South, by Taflet; and on the East, by Segelmessa and the kingdom of Algiers, being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the East, and Morocco on the South, and is surrounded in other parts by the sea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the East by the kingdom of Tunis, on the North by the Mediterranean, on the South by Mount Atlas, and on the West by the kingdoms of Morocco and Taflet. According to Dr. Shaw, who resided 12 years at Algiers in quality of chaplain to the British factory, and has corrected many errors of ancient and modern geographers respecting the states of Barbary, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the North and East; by the kingdom of Algiers on the West; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the South; being 220 miles in length from North to South, and 170 in breadth from East to West.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the North by the Mediterranean sea; on the South by the country of the Beriberics; on the West by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and the territory of the Gadamis; and on the East by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the sea-coast; and the breadth is from 100 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs, but the capital of Biledulgerid (the ancient Numidia) is Dara.

The Barbary states form a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exercise of its internal policy; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom, in the customs and manners of the inhabitants.

**AIR AND SEASONS.]** The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed of all the other states, except in the months of July and August.

**SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.]** This country, under the Roman empire, was justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there, was considered as the highest state of luxury. The produce of the soil formed those magazines, which furnished all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of their constitution,

\* This territory was called *Barbaria* by the Greeks and Romans, from *Berber*, in the original signifying *Aethiops*, which was the original or caption of the inhabitants. Bruce's Travels, vol. I. p. 397.

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yet they are still fertile, not only in the above mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and, by the report of Europeans who have lived there for some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of life; for the great people find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mahomedan law, and make free with excellent wines and spirits, of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces salt-petre, and great quantities of excellent salt; and lead and iron have been found in several places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the states of Barbary; but their deserts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now said to be decayed, yet some very fine ones are occasionally imported into England. Dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs, a most serviceable creature, begot by an ass upon a cow, are their beasts of burden.

But from the services of the camel they derive their greatest advantages. This useful quadruped enables the African to perform his long and toilsome journeys across that continent. The camel is, therefore, (says Mr. Bruce) emphatically called the *ship of the desert*. He seems to have been created for this very trade, endued with parts and qualities adapted to the office he is employed to discharge. The driest thistle, and the barest thorn, is all the food this useful animal requires; and even these, to save time, he eats while advancing on his journey. As it is his lot to cross immense deserts, where no water is found, and countries not even moistened by the dew of heaven, he is endued with the power, at one watering-place to lay in a store with which he supplies himself for thirty days to come. To contain this enormous quantity of fluid, nature has formed large cisterns within him, from which, once filled, he draws at pleasure the quantity he wants, and pours it into his stomach with the same effect as if he then drew from a spring; and with this he travels, patiently and vigorously, all day long, carrying a prodigious load upon him, through countries infected with poisonous winds, and glowing with parching and never-cooling sands.

Their cows are but small, and barren of milk; their sheep yield but indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, camelions, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. Besides vermin, says Dr. Shaw (speaking of his travels through Barbary), the apprehensions we were under, in some parts at least of this country, of being bitten or stung by the scorpion, the viper, or the venomous spider, rarely failed to interrupt our repose; a refreshment so very grateful and so highly necessary to a weary traveller. Partridges and quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild-fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the capsa-sparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the sweetness of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird; but it cannot live out of its own climate. The seas and bays of Barbary abound with a variety of the finest fish which were preferred by the ancients to those of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. Morocco was formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers say, its capital contained 100,000 houses, whereas at present it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants: nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true that their king or emperor has 80,000 horse and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is said to contain 100,000 Mahomedans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Christian

5000 Christian slaves; but no estimate can be formed as to the populousness of its territory. Some travellers report, that it is inhabited by a friendly, hospitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from those of the metropolis.

Tunis is the most polished republic of all the Barbary states. The capital, which also bears the name of Tunis, is a large and flourishing city. The people are more civilized than in Algiers, and the government milder, but the climate is very far from being so good. Tunis is low, hot, and damp; and destitute of good water, with which (according to Mr. Bruce) Algiers is supplied from a thousand springs. It contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradesmen's shops, and its suburbs consist of 1000 houses. The Tunisines are indeed exceptions to the other states of Barbary; for even the most civilized of the European governments might improve from their manners. Their distinctions are well kept up, and proper respect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned professions. They cultivate friendship with the European states; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are said at present to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The Tunisine women are exceedingly handsome in their persons; and though the men are sun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate, nor are they less neat and elegant in their dress; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the same pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made use of when she is said (2 Kings, chap. ix. verse 30.) to have painted her face; the words of the original being, that she set off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen, in general, are sober, orderly, and clean in their persons, their behaviour genteel and complaisant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the streets and city.

Tripoli was once the richest, most populous, and opulent of all the states on the coast; but is now much reduced; and the inhabitants, who are said to amount to between 4 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much of a piece with those of the Egyptians already described. The subjects of the Barbary states, in general subsisting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a prize at sea. They are notwithstanding far inferior to the English, and other European states, both in the construction and management of their vessels. They are, if we except the Tunisines, void of all arts and literature. The misery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's service, are beyond description; but those who inhabit the inland parts of the country are an hospitable inoffensive people; and indeed it is a general observation, that the more distant the inhabitants of those states are from the seats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveliness about them, especially those who are of the Arabic descent, that gives them an air of contentment; and having nothing to lose, they are peaceable among themselves. The Moors are supposed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppressed by a handful of insolent domineering Turks, the refuse of the streets of Constantinople.

**DRESS.** The dress of these people is a linen shirt, over which they tie a silk or cloth vestment with a sash, and over that a loose coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have slippers on their feet; and persons of condition sometimes wear buskins. They never move their turban, but pull off their slippers when they attend religious duties, or the person of their sovereign. They are fond of striped and fancied silks. The dress of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer,

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longer, and they wear a sort of cawls on their heads instead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houses consists of carpets and mattresses, on which they sit and lie. In eating, their slovenliness is shocking. They are prohibited gold and silver vessels; and their meat, which they swallow by handfuls, is boiled or roasted to rags.

[RELIGION.] All foreigners are here allowed the open profession of their religion, but the inhabitants of these states are Mahomedans; and many subjects of Morocco follow the tenets of Hamed, a modern sectary, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the Califs. All of them have much respect for idiots; whose protection in some cases screens offenders from punishment. The Moors of Barbary, so called from Mauritania, the ancient name of their country, have adopted the very worst parts of the Mahomedan religion, and seem to have retained only as much of it as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is punished with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the most unnatural crimes with impunity.

[LANGUAGE.] As the states of Barbary possess those countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is still spoken in some of the inland countries, and even by some inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the sea-port towns, and maritime countries, a corrupt kind of Arabic is spoken; and sea-faring people are no strangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Latin, &c. that is so well known in all the parts of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

[ANTIQUEITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] This article is well worth the study of an antiquary, but the subjects of it are difficult of access, being scattered over a wide extent of country, inhabited by ignorant and inhospitable barbarians. The reader can scarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the most curious remains of antiquity. Some memorials of the Mauritania and Numidian greatness are still to be met with, and many ruins of cities which bear evidences of their ancient grandeur and populousness. Julia Casarea of the Romans was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itself. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are said to be still remaining, but no vestige of its walls\*. The same is the fate of Utica, famous for the retreat and death of Cato, and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and so over-run is the country with barbarism, that their very sites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings, which remain still in tolerable preservation. Besides those of classical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the most stupendous magnificence, are likewise found in this vast tract; these were erected under the Califs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was subdued by the Turks, or reduced to its present form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curiosities belonging to this country, except its salt-pits, which in some places take up an area of six miles. Dr. Shaw mentions springs found here that are so hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

\* Mr. Stanley, having had frequent opportunities of going over the remains, is of opinion that this celebrated city was about fifteen miles in circumference. There are three eminences, which are to many leaps of fine marble pounded together, and were in all probability, the sites of temples, and other distinguished buildings. He observes, that

the present buildings are not the remains of the ancient city destroyed by the Romans, who entirely raised it, and ploughed up the very foundations. They are the ruins of the city which was built on the site of the former, and which was destroyed by the Saracens in the beginning of the seventh century.

**CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.]** Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almost in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez, 30 miles distant, and very populous. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but the common people live in a dirty slovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houses, and 107 mosques. Their public baths are large and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea from Algiers is very beautiful, being built on the declivity of a mountain; but the city, though for several ages it has braved some of the greatest powers in Christendom, could make but a faint defence against a regular siege. The Spaniards however attacked it in the year 1775, by land and by sea, but were repulsed with great loss, though they had near 20,000 foot and 2000 horse, and 47 king's ships of different rates, and 346 transports. In the year 1783 and 84, they renewed their attacks by sea to destroy the city and galleys, but after spending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or extinction. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a small island where there is a castle and large battery.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the finest of all these states, contains the remains of many noble cities, some of them still in good condition. The capital, about 30 miles south of old Carthage, has fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The streets (says Mr. Stanley) are narrow, as in most hot countries; and, not being paved, they are dirty in winter, and dusty in summer. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; most of them have a porch, or gateway, with benches on each side, covered with mats, where the master of the house transacts his business, and receives his friends; no persons, except on some extraordinary occasions, having any further admittance. Beyond this is an open court paved with marble stone, or glazed tiles, according to the ability of the owner, covered over, and sheltered from the sun and weather, by a cloth which by means of pulleys may be folded or unfolded at pleasure. When entertainments are given, the company meets in the court, which is always kept very clean. The public exchange for merchants and their goods is commodious.

Most of the water used in this city is rain-water, preserved in cisterns, into which it is conveyed by pipes from the roofs of the houses, which are all flat. These cisterns are so large, that they hold enough to serve the families five or six months. Almost every cistern has the base of a marble column hollowed out to cover the mouth; thousands of them being put to this use all over the country.

Meisa, two short miles from Carthage, and eleven from Tunis, is a very pleasant situation. Here the bey has two country-houses, one of which has been a costly work, built by Hassan Bey, surnamed the Good. From these houses are orange gardens, reaching almost to the sea-shore; on the edge of which is a famous well of sweet water, esteemed the best and lightest in the kingdom; and close to this a coffee-house. Numbers of people from the neighbouring places, resort here to drink coffee, and a glass of this natural luxury, so peculiarly enjoyed in the eastern countries; few persons, except those who have lived in hot climates, knowing the blessing of a good spring.

In the middle of the court is a large mulberry-tree, under the shade of which they sit and smoke, and play at chess, inhaling the comfortable sea-breeze, that refreshes this charming spot. Nothing can be more picturesque, than to see the Moors gallantly mounted, with their attendants, complimenting each other.

The water is drawn up by a camel, with the Persian wheel, and distributed to the neighbouring countries.

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The city of Tripoli consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but never can make any considerable figure, on account of the inconveniencies attending its situation, particularly the want of sweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Constantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities in Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides, except the south-west.

Besides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie scattered up and down this immense tract of country. The city of Fez, at present the capital of the kingdom so called, is said to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, besides merchants and foreigners. Its mosques amount to 500; one of them magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Salée was formerly famous for the piracy of its inhabitants. Tangier, situated about two miles within the straits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, consort of Charles II. of England. But the misunderstandings between that king and his parliament occasioned the demolition of its fortifications and harbour; so that from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing town. Ceuta, upon the same strait, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, besieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houses; but the inhabitants are said to be rich, and tolerably civilized in their manners.

The provinces of Suz, Taflet, and Gefula, form no part of the states of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their sovereign: nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious.

Zaara is a desert country, thinly peopled, and nearly destitute of both water and provisions.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.]** The lower subjects of these states know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be supplied with necessary utensils and manufactures; so that their exports consist chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, sword-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper, and softer than those in Turkey, though not so good in other respects. As they leave almost all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Christians settled among them, the latter have established silk and linen works, which supply the higher ranks of their own subjects. They have no ships that, properly speaking, are employed in commerce; so that the French and English carry on the greatest part of their trade. Their exports, besides those already mentioned, consist of elephant's teeth, ostrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum-arabic, and sandrac. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said to carry on a considerable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and some inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vast numbers of negroes, who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities; the particulars of which are too many to specify. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco, are but half those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that no nation is fond of trading with these states, not only on account of their capricious despotism, but the villainy of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and when detected are seldom punished.

It has often been thought surprising, that the Christian powers should suffer their marine to be insulted by those barbarians, who take the ships of all nations with whom they are not at peace, or rather, who do not pay them a subsidy either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwise than by supposing, first, that no Christian power would be fond of seeing Algiers, and the rest of that coast, in possession of another; and, secondly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would instantly carry their effects to their deserts and mountains, so that the benefit, resulting from the conquest, must be tedious and precarious.

**CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.]** In Morocco, government cannot be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters; nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand. Some vestiges, however, of the califate government still continue; for in places where no military officer resides, the mufti or high-priest is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, act as our justices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he pays distant allegiance to the Grand Signor as the chief representative of Mahomed. What I have said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkish pasha or dey, who governs in the name of the Grand Signor, yet very little regard is paid to his authority. When a vacancy of the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every soldier in the army has a vote in choosing the succeeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodshed, yet it is no sooner fixed than the new dey is cheerfully recognized and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the Porte; but this confirmation is a matter of mere form. The power of the dey is despotic; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000*l.* a year, without greatly oppressing his subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. A detachment of the army of their states is annually sent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes taken at sea, sometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives. These deys pay slight annual tributes to the Porte. When the Grand Signor is at war with a Christian power, he requires their assistance, as he does that of the king of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance, the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council, which consists of thirty pashas. These pashas seldom fail of forming parties among the soldiers, against the reigning dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council; and the strongest candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is deposed; sometimes, though but very seldom, he resigns his authority to save his life.

**REVENUES.]** Those of Algiers, already mentioned, are now said to be exceeded by Tunis. They consist of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Christians, a small capitation tax, and the customs paid by the English, French, and other nations, who are suffered to trade with those states. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no ideas of his revenues, because none of his subjects can be said to possess any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ransoms of Christian slaves are his perquisites. He sometimes shares in the vessels of the other states, which entitles him to a part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahomedan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has

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likewise considerable profits in the Negroland and other caravans, especially the slave-trade towards the south. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed 165,000*l.* a year.

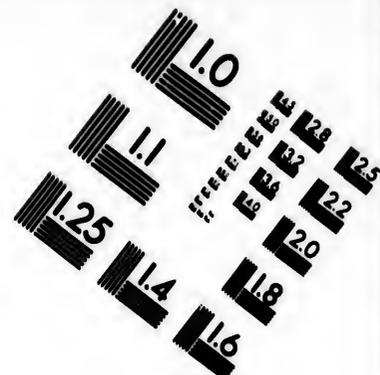
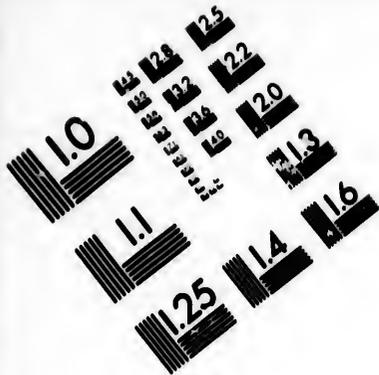
**MILITARY STRENGTH.]** The king of Morocco can bring to the field 100,000 men at sea and land. The strength of this army consists of cavalry mounted by his negro slaves. These wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but their king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, which lay at Sallee, and, being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, consisting of Turks, and cogolies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About 1000 of them do garrison duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the dey can bring 2000 well disciplined Moorish horse into the field, and the deys of all the other Barbary states keeping up a proportional force, they have ventured jointly to refuse sending any tribute to the Turkish emperor, who seems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and a more extensive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished, the present inhabitants have scarcely any merchant-ships belonging to them, or indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which, though increased since the last attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and small, and some years ago did not exceed six ships from thirty-six to fifty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law. With such a contemptible fleet, these infidels not only harrass the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of presents.

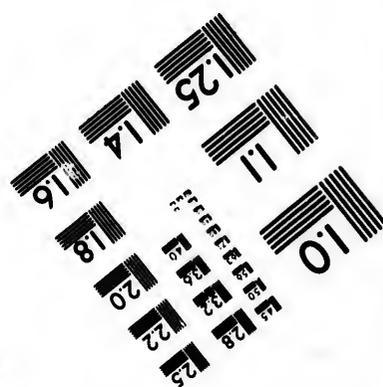
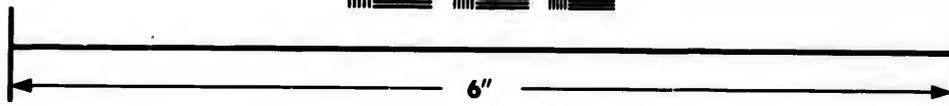
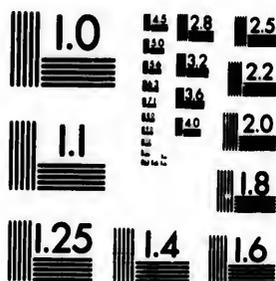
**HISTORY.]** Under the Roman emperors, the states formed the fairest jewel in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh century that, after these states had been by turns in possession of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the Saracenic subjects of Bagdad conquered them, and from thence became masters of almost all Spain, from whence their posterity was totally driven about the 1492, when the exiles settled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coast. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who pressed them so hard, that they called to their assistance the two famous brothers Barbarossa, who were admirals of the Turkish fleet, and who, after breaking the Spanish yoke, imposed upon the inhabitants of all those states (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they were unsuccessful; and, as already observed, the inhabitants have in fact shaken off the Turkish yoke likewise.

The emperors or kings of Morocco are the successors of those sovereigns of that country who were all called xeriffs, and whose powers resembled that of the califate of the Saracens. They have been in general a set of bloody tyrants; though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don Sebastian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almost a continual state of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Christian princes ever since: nor does the crown of Great Britain sometimes disdain, as in the year 1769, to purchase their friendship with presents.





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## A B Y S S I N I A.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 903 } Breadth 900 }	between { 6 and 20 north latitude. } 26 and 44 east longitude. }	378,000

**BOUNDARIES.]** It is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Sennaar, or Nubia; on the east, partly by the Red Sea, and partly by Dancala; on the west by Gorham; and on the south by the kingdom of Gingiro, and Alaba.

It contains (according to Mr. Bruce, from whom the subsequent account is taken) the following provinces; viz. 1. Mafuah; 2. Tigre; 3. Samen; 4. Begemder; 5. Amhara; 6. Walakz; 7. Gojam; 8. Damot; 9. Maitshia; 10. Dembea; 11. Kuara; 12. Nara.

**AIR AND SEASONS.]** The rainy season continues for six months of the year, from April to September, which is succeeded, without interval, by a cloudless sky, and vertical sun; and cold nights, which as immediately follow these scorching days. The earth, notwithstanding the heat of these days, is yet perpetually cold, so as to feel disagreeably to the soles of the feet; partly owing to the six months rains, when no sun appears, and partly to the perpetual equality of nights and days.

**QUADRUPEDS.]** There is no country in the world which produces a greater number or variety of quadrupeds, whether tame or wild, than Abyssinia. Of the tame or cow-kind, great abundance present themselves every where, differing in size, some having horns of various dimensions, some without horns at all. The female buffalo is the only animal kept for giving milk in Egypt. And though apparently these are of the same species, and came originally from Ethiopia, their manners are so entirely changed by their migration, difference of climate or of food, that without the exertion of any art to tame them, they are milked, conducted to and fro, and governed by children of ten years old without apprehension, or any unlucky accident having ever happened.—Of horses also there is a sufficient quantity in this part of the continent of Africa.

Among the wild animals are prodigious numbers of the gazel or antelope kind; the bohur, fassa, fcelho, and madequa, and many others. Hyenas are still more numerous. There are few varieties of the dog or fox kind. Of these the most numerous is the deep, or, as he is called, the jackal; this is precisely the same in all respects as the deep of Barbary and Syria, who are heard hunting in great numbers, and howling in the evening and morning. The wild boar, smaller and smoother in the hair than that of Barbary or Europe, but differing in nothing else, is met frequently in swamps or banks of rivers covered with wood.

The elephant, rhinoceros, giraffa, or camelopardalis, are inhabitants of the low hot country; nor is the lion, leopard, or faadh, which is the panther, seen in the high and cultivated country. The hippopotamus and crocodile abound in all the rivers, not only of Abyssinia, but as low down as Nubia and Egypt. There are many of the ass kind in the low country towards the frontiers of Atbara, but no zebras; these are the inhabitants of Fazucllo, and Narea.

But of all the other quadrupeds, there is none exceeds the hyana, for its merciless

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cilefs ferocity. They were a plague, says our author, speaking of these animals, in Abyssinia, in every situation, both in the city and in the field, and, I think, surpassed the sheep in number. Gondar was full of them from the time it turned dark till the dawn of day, seeking the different pieces of slaughtered carcases which this cruel and unclean people expose in the streets without burial.

It is a constant observation in Numidia, that the lion avoids and flies from the face of man, till by some accident they have been brought to engage, and the beast has prevailed against him; then that feeling of superiority, imprinted by the Creator in the heart of all animals for man's preservation, seems to forsake him. The lion, having once tasted human blood, relinquishes the pursuit after the flock. He repairs to some highway or frequented path, and has been known, in the kingdom of Tunis, to interrupt the road to market for several weeks; and in this he persists till hunters or soldiers are sent out to destroy him.

The hunting of the elephant, rhinoceros, &c. being one of the amusements of the natives, we shall give the reader a brief account of this dangerous sport. Two men, absolutely naked, get on horseback; this precaution is from fear of being laid hold of by the trees or bushes, in making their escape from a very watchful enemy. One of these riders sits upon the back of the horse, sometimes with a saddle, and sometimes without one, with only a switch or short stick in one hand, carefully managing the bridle with the other; behind him sits his companion, who has no other arms but a broad-sword, such as is used by the Sclavonians, and which is brought from Trieste.

As soon as the elephant is found feeding, the horseman rides before him as near his face as possible; who, chafed and angry, seeks to seize him with his proboscis, and follows the horse every where. After having made him turn once or twice, the horseman drops his companion; and, while he engages the elephant's attention upon the horse, the footman behind gives him a drawn stroke just above the heel, or what in man is called the tendon of Achilles. If the sword is good, and the man not afraid, the tendon is commonly entirely separated; and if it is not cut through, it is generally so far divided, that the animal, with the stress he puts upon it, breaks the remaining part asunder. In either case he remains incapable of advancing a step, till the horseman returning, or his companions coming up, pierce him through with javelins and lances; he then falls to the ground, and expires with the loss of blood.

Though the rhinoceros runs with surprising speed, considering his bulk, he is, in a very little time, transfixt with thirty or forty javelins, which so confound him that he sometimes runs into a ditch, without outlet, breaking about a dozen of the javelins as he enters. Here he is caught as in a trap, having scarce room to turn; when a servant, with a gun, standing directly over him, fires at his head, and the animal is thus killed.

**BIRDS.]** The number of birds in Abyssinia exceeds that of other animals beyond proportion. The high and low countries are equally stored with them: the first kind are the carnivorous birds. Many species of the eagle and hawk, many more still of the vulture kind, as it were overstock all parts of the country. That species of glede, called Haddaya, so frequent in Egypt, comes very punctually into Ethiopia, at the return of the sun, after the tropical rains.

The Nisser, or golden eagle, is not only the largest of the eagle-kind, but one of the largest birds that flies. From wing to wing he is eight feet four inches. The black eagle, Rachamah, Erkoom, Moroc, Sheregrig, and Waalia, are particularly described by the historian of Abyssinia, to whose celebrated work we refer the reader who is desirous of information concerning them.

There is no great plenty of water-fowl in Abyssinia, especially of the web-footed kind. Vast variety of storks cover the plains in May, when the rains become constant. All the deep and grassy bogs have snipes in them; and swallows there are of many kinds unknown in Europe; those that are common in Europe appear in passage at the very season when they take their flight from thence. There are few owls; but these are of an immense size and beauty. There are no geese, wild or tame, excepting what is called the golden goose, goose of the Nile, or goose of the cape, common in all the south of Africa: these build their nest upon trees, and when not in water, generally sit upon them.

**INSECTS.]** From the class of insects, we shall select the most remarkable, viz. the Tsaltfalya or fly, which is an insect that furnishes a striking proof how fallacious it is to judge by appearances. If we consider its small size, its weakness, want of variety or beauty, nothing in the creation is more contemptible or insignificant. Yet passing from these to his history, and to the account of his powers, we must confess the very great injustice we do him from want of consideration. We are obliged with the greatest surprize to acknowledge, that those huge animals, the elephant, the rhinoceros, the lion, and the tiger, inhabiting the same wood, are still vastly his inferiors, and that the appearance of this small insect, nay, his very sound, though he is not seen, occasions more trepidation, movement and disorder, both in the human and brute creation, than would whole herds of these monstrous animals collected together, though their number was in a tenfold proportion greater than it really is.

This insect has not been described by any naturalist. It is in size very little larger than a bee, of a thicker proportion. As soon as this plague appears, and their buzzing is heard, all the cattle forsake their food, and run wildly about the plain, till they die, worn out with fatigue, fright and hunger. No remedy remains but to leave the black earth, and hasten down to the sands of Atbara; and there they remain while the rains last; this cruel enemy never daring to pursue them farther. Though the size of the camel is immense, his strength vast, and his body covered with a thick skin, defended with strong hair, yet still he is not capable to sustain the violent punctures the fly makes with his pointed proboscis. He must lose no time in removing to the sands of Atbara; for when once attacked by this fly, his body, head, and legs break out into large bosses, which swell, break, and putrefy, to the certain destruction of the creature.

**VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.]** The *Papyrus*, which is a plant well known in Egypt, appears to have been early brought thither from Ethiopia. It is also found in Abylinia. *Balestan*, *Balm*, or *Balsam* is also a native of this country. The great value, set upon this drug in the east, remounts to very early ages. We know from scripture, the oldest history extant, as well as the most infallible, that the Ishmaelites, or Arabian carriers and merchants, trafficking with the India commodities into Egypt, brought with them balm as part of the cargo; for we are told that "a company of Ishmaelites came from Gilead, with their camels, bearing spicery, and balm, and myrrh, going to carry it down into Egypt\*." At this time it probably acquired its name of Balm of Gilead.—The *Eufete* is an herbaceous plant, which grows and comes to great perfection at Gondar, but it most abounds in that part of Mattha and Goutto west of the Nile, where there are large plantations of it, and is there, almost exclusive of every thing else, the food of the Galla inhabiting that province. The *Teff* is a grain commonly sown; and it seems to thrive equally on all sorts of ground; from it is made the bread which is commonly used

\* Gen. xxxvii. 25.

through-

throughout this country. The Abyssinians indeed have plenty of wheat, and some of it of an excellent quality. They likewise make as fine wheat-bread as any in the world, both for colour and taste; but the use of wheat-bread is chiefly confined to people of the first rank. The acacia tree is very common in Abyssinia, as are several other curious productions of the vegetable world, many of which are described in the Appendix of our author, and illustrated by many elegant engravings, which will afford a very great entertainment to the curious botanist.

**LAKES.]** The lake of Tzana (not to mention those of Gooderoo, and Court Ohha) is by much the largest expanse of water known in this country. Its extent, however, has been greatly exaggerated. Its greatest breadth is thirty-five miles, and its length is forty-nine. The Nile, by a current always visible, crosses the end of it. In the dry months from October to March, the lake shrinks greatly in size: but after that all those rivers are full which are on every side of it, and fall into the lake, like radii drawn to a centre, then it swells, and extends itself into the plain country, and has of course a much larger surface.

There are about eleven inhabited islands in the lake. All these islands were formerly used as prisons for the great people, or for a voluntary retreat, on account of some disgust or great misfortune, or as places of security to deposit their valuable effects during troublesome times.

**CATARACTS OF THE NILE.]** Omitting those of inferior note, we shall here give the reader some account of the great cataract of Alata, which was the most magnificent sight that Mr. Bruce ever beheld. The height has been rather exaggerated. The missionaries say the fall is about fifty feet. The measuring is, indeed very difficult; but, by the position of long sticks, and poles of different lengths, at different heights of the rock, from the water's edge, Mr. Bruce thinks he may venture to say that it is nearer forty feet than any other measure. The river had been considerably increased by rains, and fell in one sheet of water, without any interval, above half an English mile in breadth, with a force and noise that was truly terrible, and which stunned, and made him, for a time, perfectly dizzy. A thick fume, or haze, covered the fall all round, and hung over the course of the stream both above and below, marking its tract, though the water was not seen. The river, though swelled with rain, preserved its natural clearness, and fell, as far as he could discern, into a deep pool, or basin, in the solid rock, which was full, and in twenty different eddies to the very foot of the precipice, the stream, when it fell, seeming part of it to run back with great fury upon the rock, as well as forward in the line of its course, raising a violent ebullition, by chaffing against each other.

**SOURCES OF THE NILE.]** The Agows of Damot pay divine honour to the Nile; they worship the river, and thousands of cattle have been offered, and still are offered, to the spirit supposed to reside at its source. The village of Geeth, though not farther distant than 600 yards, is not in sight of the sources of the Nile. In the middle of a marsh, near the bottom of the mountain of Geeth, arises a hillock of a circular form, about three feet from the surface of the marsh itself, though apparently founded much deeper in it. The diameter of this is something short of twelve feet: it is surrounded by a shallow trench, which collects the water, and voids it eastward; it is firmly built with sod or earthen turf, brought from the sides, and constantly kept in repair; and this is the altar upon which all their religious ceremonies are performed. The mouth, or opening of the source, is some parts of an inch less than three feet diameter, and the water stood about two inches from the lip or brim. This spring is about six feet six inches deep.

Ten feet distant from the first, a little to the west or south, is the second fountain, about eleven inches in diameter; but eight feet three inches in depth. And about twenty feet distant from the first is the third source, its mouth being something

more than two feet large, and it is five feet eight inches deep. With a brass quadrant of three feet radius, he found the latitude to be  $10^{\circ} 59' 25''$  in round numbers, for the exact latitude of the principal fountain of the Nile, though the Jesuits have supposed it  $12^{\circ}$  N. by a random guess. The longitude he ascertained to be  $36^{\circ} 55' 30''$  east of the meridian of Greenwich.

**CAUSES OF THE INUNDATION** } The sun being nearly stationary for some days  
OF THE NILE. } in the tropic of Capricorn, the air there becomes so much rarefied, that the heavier winds, charged with watery particles, rush in upon it from the Atlantic on the west, and from the Indian Ocean on the east. Having thus gathered such a quantity of vapours as it were to a focus, the sun now puts them in motion, and drawing them after it in its rapid progress northward, on the 7th of January, for two years together, seemed to have extended its power to the atmosphere of Gondar, when, for the first time, there appeared in the sky white, dappled, thin clouds, the sun being then distant  $34^{\circ}$  from the zenith, without any one cloudy or dark speck having been seen for several months before. Advancing to the line with increased velocity, and describing larger spirals, the sun brings on a few drops of rain at Gondar the first of March, being then distant  $5^{\circ}$  from the zenith; these are greedily absorbed by the thirsty soil, and this seems to be the farthest extent of the sun's influence, capable of causing rain, which then only falls in large drops, but lasts but a few minutes: the rainy season, however, begins most seriously upon his arrival at the zenith of every place, and these rains continue constant and increasing after he has passed it, in his progress northward.

In April, all the rivers in Amhara, Begemder, and Lasta, first discoloured, and then beginning to swell, join the Nile in the several parts of its course nearest them; the river then, from the height of its angle of inclination, forces itself through the stagnant lake without mixing with it. In the beginning of May, hundreds of streams pour themselves from Gojam, Damot, Maittha, and Dembea, into the lake Tzana, which had become low by intense evaporation, but now begins to fill insensibly, and contributes a large quantity of water to the Nile, before it falls down the cataract of Alata. In the beginning of June, the sun, having now passed all Abyssinia, the rivers there are all full; and then is the time of the greatest rains in Abyssinia, while he is for some days, as it were, stationary in the tropic of Cancer.

Immediately after the sun has passed the line, he begins the rainy season to the southward, still as he approaches the zenith of each place; but the situation and necessities of this country being varied, the manner of promoting the inundation is changed. A high chain of mountains runs from about  $6^{\circ}$  south all along the middle of the continent towards the Cape of Good Hope, and intersects the southern part of the peninsula, nearly in the same manner that the river Nile does the northern. A strong wind from the south, stopping the progress of the condensed vapours, dashes them against the cold summits of this ridge of mountains, and forms many rivers which escape in the direction either east or west, as the level presents itself. If this is towards the west, they fall down the sides of the mountains into the Atlantic, and if on the east, into the Indian Ocean.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.**] **GONDAR**, the metropolis of Abyssinia, is situated upon a hill of considerable height, the top of it nearly plain, on which the town is placed. It consists of about ten thousand families in time of peace; the houses are chiefly of clay, the roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the construction within the tropical rains. On the west end of the town is the king's house, formerly a structure of considerable consequence. It was a square building, flanked with square towers. It was formerly four stories high, and, from the top of it, had a magnificent view of all the country southward to the lake Tzana. Great part of this house is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but there is still

ample lodging in the two lowest floors of it, the audience chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long.

The palace and all its contiguous buildings are surrounded by a substantial stone wall thirty feet high, with battlements upon the outer wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner, by which you can go along the whole, and look into the street. There appears not ever to have been any embrasures for cannon, and the four sides of the wall are above an English mile and a half in length. Gondar, by a number of observations of the sun and stars, made by day and night, in the course of three years, with an astronomical quadrant of three feet radius, and two excellent telescopes, and by a mean of all their small differences, is in N. lat.  $12^{\circ} 34' 30''$ ; and by many observations of the satellites of Jupiter, especially the first, both in their immersions and emersions during that period, its longitude is  $37^{\circ} 33' 0''$  east from the meridian of Greenwich.

DIXAN is the first town in Abyssinia, on the side of Taranta; it is built on the top of a hill, perfectly in form of a sugar loaf; a deep valley surrounds it every where like a trench, and the road winds spirally up the hill till it ends among the houses. It is true of Dixan, as of most frontier towns, that the bad people of both contiguous countries resort thither. The town consists of Moors and Christians, and is very well peopled; yet the only trade of these sects is a very extraordinary one, that of selling children. The Christians bring such as they have stolen in Abyssinia, to Dixan as to a sure deposit; and the Moors receive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Masuah, whence they are sent over to Arabia, or India. The priests of the province of Tigre, especially those near the rock Damo, are openly concerned in this infamous practice. Dixan is in lat.  $14^{\circ} 57' 55''$  north, and long.  $40^{\circ} 7' 30''$  east of the meridian of Greenwich.

AXUM is supposed to have been once the capital of Abyssinia, and its ruins are now very extensive; but, like the cities of ancient times, consist altogether of public buildings. In one square, which seems to have been the centre of the town, there are forty obelisks, none of which have any hieroglyphics upon them. They are all of one piece of granite, and, on the top of that which is standing, there is a *patena* exceedingly well carved in the Greek taste. Axum is watered by a small stream, which flows all the year from a fountain in the narrow valley, where stand the rows of obelisks. The spring is received into a magnificent basin of 150 feet square, and thence it is carried at pleasure, to water the neighbouring gardens, where there is little fruit excepting pomegranates; neither are these very excellent. The latitude of this town is  $14^{\circ} 6' 36''$  north.

MASUAH. The houses of this town, which is situated upon an island bearing the same name, on the Abyssinian shore of the Red Sea, are, in general, built of poles and bent grass, as in the towns of Arabia; but besides these, there are about twenty of stone, six or eight of which are two stories each. N. lat.  $15^{\circ} 35' 5''$  E. lon.  $39^{\circ} 36' 30''$ .

[TRADE AND COMMERCE.] There is a considerable deal of trade carried on at Masuah, narrow and confined as the island is, and violent and unjust as is the government. But it is all done in a slovenly manner, and for articles where a small capital is invested. Property here is too precarious to risk a venture in valuable commodities, where the hand of power enters into every transaction.

Gondar, and all the neighbouring country, depend for the necessaries of life, cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and a number of such articles, upon the Agows, who inhabit a province in which the sources of the Nile are found, and which province is no where sixty miles in length, nor half that in breadth. These Agows come constantly in succession, a thousand or fifteen hundred at a time, loaded with these commodities, to the capital.

It may naturally occur, that, in a long carriage, such as that of a hundred miles, in such a climate, butter must melt, and be in a state of fusion, consequently very near putrefaction: this is prevented by the root of an herb, called Moc-moco, yellow in colour, and in shape nearly resembling a carrot; this they bruise and mix with their butter, and a very small quantity preserves it fresh for a considerable time.

RELIGION.] Mr. Bruce informs us from the annals of Abyssinia, that, in the time of Solomon, all this country was converted to Judaism, and the government of the church and state modelled according to what was then in use at Jerusalem.

Some ecclesiastical writers, rather from attachment to particular systems, than from any conviction that the opinion they espouse is truth, would persuade us that the conversion of Abyssinia to Christianity happened in the days of the Apostles; but it appears that this was effected by the labours of Frumentius (the apostle of the Abyssinians) in the year of Christ 333, according to our account.

Their first bishop, Frumentius, being ordained about the year 333, and instructed in the religion of the Greeks of the church of Alexandria, by St. Athanasius, then sitting in the chair of St. Mark, it follows that the true religion of the Abyssinians, which they received on their conversion to Christianity, is that of the Greek church. They receive the holy sacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruised with the husk together as it grows, so that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat spoon. They observe also circumcision.

HISTORY.] As the accounts of kings and princes of remote ages are much involved in fable, and as the history of so barbarous and uncivilized a people will, we presume, afford but small amusement, we shall therefore make no apology for omitting the annals of Abyssinia, but refer our readers to the second volume of Bruce's Travels.

### FEZZAN, BORNOU, AND CASHNA.

IT having been long a subject of lamentation that Europeans know very little, if any thing, of the interior districts of Africa, we are happy to find that a number of learned and opulent individuals have formed themselves into a society for the purpose of exploring them. The association was formed on the ninth of June, in the year 1788; and on the same day a committee of its members, viz. *lord Rawdon, the bishop of Landaff, sir Joseph Banks, Mr. Beaufoy, and Mr. Stuart*, were invested with the direction of its funds, the management of its correspondence, and the choice of the persons to whom the geographical mission was to be assigned. Persuaded of the importance of the object which the association had in view, their committee lost no time in executing the plan which it had formed. Two gentlemen were recommended to them; and appearing to be eminently qualified for making the projected researches, they were chosen. One was *Mr. Ledyard*; the other *Mr. Lucas*. Mr. Ledyard's history, which pointed him out to the society as a proper person for undertaking the African adventure, is too curious to be omitted.

Mr. Ledyard was an American by birth, and seemed from his youth to have felt an invincible desire to explore the unknown or imperfectly discovered regions of the globe. For several years he had lived with the Indians of America, had studied their manners, and had practised in their school the means of obtaining the protection, and of recommending himself to the favour of savages. In the humble situation of a corporal of marines, to which he submitted, rather than relinquish his pursuit, he had made, with captain Cook, the voyage of the world; and feeling on

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his return an anxious desire of penetrating from the north-western coast of America, which Cook had partly explored, to the eastern coast, with which he himself was perfectly familiar, he determined to traverse the vast continent from the Pacific to the Atlantic Ocean.

His first plan for the purpose was that of embarking in a vessel, which was then preparing to sail on a voyage of commercial adventure to Nootka Sound, on the western coast of America; and with this view he expended in sea-stores the greatest part of the money which his chief benefactor, sir Joseph Banks (whose generous conduct he often acknowledged), had liberally supplied. But the scheme being frustrated by the rapacity of a custom-house officer, who had seized and detained the vessel, for reasons, which, on legal inquiry, proved to be frivolous, he determined to travel over land to Kamtschatka, from whence, to the western coast of America, the passage is extremely short. With no more than ten guineas in his purse, which was all that he had left, he crossed the British Channel to Ostend, and, by the way of Denmark and the Sound, proceeded to the capital of Sweden, from which, as it was winter, he attempted to traverse the gulph of Bothnia on the ice, in order to reach Kamtschatka by the shortest way; but finding, when he came to the middle of the sea, that the water was not frozen, he returned to Stockholm, and taking his course northward, walked into the arctic circle; and passing round the head of the gulph, descended on its eastern side to Peterburgh.

There he was noticed as an extraordinary man. Without stockings, or shoes, and in too much poverty to provide himself with either, he received and accepted an invitation to dine with the Portuguese ambassador. To this invitation it was probably owing that he was able to obtain the sum of twenty guineas for a bill on sir Joseph Banks, which he confessed he had no authority to draw, but which, in consideration of the business that he had undertaken, and of the progress that he had made, sir Joseph, he believed, would not be unwilling to pay. To the ambassador's interest it might also be owing that he obtained permission to accompany a detachment of stores which the empress had ordered to be sent to Yakutz, for the use of Mr. Billings, an Englishman, at that time in her service.

Thus accommodated, he travelled eastward through Siberia six thousand miles, to Yakutz, where he was kindly received by Mr. Billings, whom he remembered on board captain Cook's ship, in the situation of the astronomer's servant, but to whom the empress had now entrusted her schemes of northern discovery.

From Yakutz he proceeded to Oczakow, on the coast of the Kamtschatka sea, from whence he meant to have passed over to that peninsula, and to have embarked on the eastern side in one of the Russian vessels that trade to the western shores of America; but finding that the navigation was completely obstructed by the ice, he returned again to Yakutz, in order to wait for the conclusion of the winter.

Such was his situation, when, in consequence of suspicions not hitherto explained, or resentments for which no reason is assigned, he was seized, in the empress's name, by two Russian soldiers, who placed him in a sledge, and conveying him, in the depth of winter, through the deserts of the Northern Tartary, left him at last on the frontiers of the Polish dominions.

As they parted, they told him, that if he returned to Russia, he would certainly be hanged; but that, if he chose to go back to England, they wished him a pleasant journey.

In the midst of poverty, covered with rags, infested with the usual accompaniments of such cloathing, worn with continued hardship, exhausted by disease, without friends, without credit, unknown and full of misery, he found his way to Koenigsberg.—There, in the hour of his utmost distress, he resolved once more to have recourse

recourse to his old benefactor, and luckily he found a person who was willing to take his draft for five guineas, on the president of the Royal Society.

With this assistance he arrived in England, and immediately waited on sir Joseph Banks, who told him, knowing his temper, that he believed he could recommend him to an adventure almost as perilous as the one from which he had returned; and communicated to him the wishes of the Association for discovering the inland countries of Africa.

Ledyard replied, that he had always determined to traverse the continent of Africa, as soon as he had explored the interior of North America; and as sir Joseph had offered him a letter of introduction, he came directly to the writer of these memoirs\*. Before I had learnt from the note, the name and business of my visitor, I was struck with the manliness of his person, the breadth of his chest, the openness of his countenance, and the inquietude of his eye. I spread the map of Africa before him, and tracing a line from Cairo to Senaar, and from thence westward, in the latitude and supposed direction of the Niger, I told him that was the route by which I was anxious that Africa might, if possible, be explored. He said, he should think himself singularly fortunate to be entrusted with the adventure. I asked him, when he would set out? "To-morrow morning," was his answer. I told him I was afraid that we should not be able, in so short a time, to prepare his instructions, and procure for him the letters that were requisite; but that, if the committee should approve of his proposal, all expedition should be used.

Mr. Lucas's history, being less singular than that of Mr. Ledyard, is told with more brevity: but enough is said to satisfy every reader respecting his qualifications. He had been sent, when a boy, to Cadiz, in Spain, for education as a merchant, and having the misfortune on his return to be captured by a Saltee rover, was brought as a slave to the imperial court of Morocco. Three years of captivity preceded his restoration to freedom and his consequent departure from Gibraltar, where, at the request of general Cornwallis, he accepted the offices of vice-consul and chargé d'affaires in the empire of Morocco, and had the satisfaction to return, as the delegate of his sovereign, to the very kingdom, in which, for a long period, he had lived as a slave. At the end of sixteen years, he once more revisited England, and was soon appointed Oriental interpreter to the British court; in which situation he was, when he became known to the committee, and expressed his willingness, with his majesty's permission, to undertake, in the service of the Association, whatever journey his knowledge of the manners, customs, and language, of the Arabs might enable him to perform.

From two such geographical missionaries (observes a very respectable literary journalist †) much information was no doubt expected; and, though the views of the society are not yet fully answered, the communications which it has received, are of a nature which will excite, though not fully gratify, the curiosity of geographers.

Mr. Ledyard undertook, at his own desire, the difficult and perilous task of traversing from east to west, in the latitude attributed to the Niger, the widest part of the continent of Africa. On this bold adventure, he left London, June 30, 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the 19th of August.

Such was the information which he collected here from the travelling slave-merchants, and from others, respecting the interior districts of Africa, that he was impatient to explore them. He wrote to the committee, that his next communication would be from Senaar, (600 miles to the south of Cairo): but death,

\* Mr. Beaufoy.

† Monthly Review, New Series, vol. ii. p. 63.

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attributed to various causes, arrested him at the commencement of his researches, and disappointed the hopes which were entertained of his projected journey.

Endowed with a soul for discovery, and formed, by nature, for achievements of hardihood and peril, the death of Ledyard must be considered as a public misfortune. Ladies, as well as philosophers, will lament him; especially, when they read his character of the sex, which, conceiving it to be just, we shall here insert.

"I have always remarked that women, in all countries, are civil, obliging, tender and humane; that they are ever inclined to be gay and cheerful, timorous and modest; and that they do not hesitate like men to perform a generous action. Not haughty, not arrogant, not supercilious, they are full of courtesy, and fond of society; more liable, in general, to err than man, but, in general, also, more virtuous, and performing more good actions than he. To a woman, whether civilised or savage, I never addressed myself in the language of decency and friendship, without receiving a decent and friendly answer. With men it has been otherwise.

"In wandering over the barren plains of inhospitable Denmark, through honest Sweden, and frozen Lapland, rude and churlish Finland, unprincipled Russia, and the wide-spread regions of the wandering Tartar; if hungry, dry, cold, wet, or sick, the women have ever been friendly to me, and uniformly so; and to add to this virtue, (so worthy the appellation of benevolence) these actions have been performed in so free, and so kind a manner, that if I was dry, I drank the sweetest draught, and if hungry, I eat the coarse morsel with a double relish."

"With a mixture of regret and disappointment, we turn from poor Ledyard, to notice Mr. Lucas's communications, which occupy the greatest part of the volume published by the Association. He embarked for Tripoli, October 18, 1788, with instructions to proceed over the desert of Zahara to Fezzan, to collect and to transmit by way of Tripoli whatever intelligence the people of Fezzan, or the traders thither, might be able to afford respecting the interior of the continent; and to return by the way of Gambia, or the coast of Guinea.

"Instructions to undertake great enterprizes are more easily given than executed. So Mr. Lucas found; and so the reader, to his disappointment, will find likewise. Only a part of the plan was this geographic missionary able to carry into execution. He sets out, indeed, mounted on a handsome mule presented to him by the Bey, the bathaw's eldest son, in company with three, for the kingdom of Fezzan; resolved, we will suppose, to penetrate from Tripoli even unto Gambia; but his peregrinations, which began Feb. 1, 1789, terminated at Mefurata, on Feb. 7.

"Deprived of visiting Fezzan, and the other inland districts of Africa, Mr. Lucas solicits the information of his fellow travellers, and transmits to the society the result of his conferences. A memoir compiled in this way, from the reports of a Sherreef Inhammed, will not be deemed very satisfactory, and yet it certainly merits consideration, as it is, in part, corroborated by other testimonies †.

"The Sherreef might not mean to deceive; and yet, in consequence of his education, and particular prejudices, on account of the language which he used, and of not properly distinguishing between vague report and attested facts, we may be allowed to question whether things exactly accord with this relation before us. The Aga Mohammed told Mr. Ledyard, "That he would see in his travels, a people who had the power of transmuting themselves into the forms of different animals," p. 28; and hence it is fair to infer, that no absolute dependence is to be placed on

\* Proceedings of the African Association, p. 44.

† The governor of Mefurata, and Ben Alli, a native of Morocco. This, however, is the same sort of evidence. No European has yet confirmed it; and as for the governor of Mefurata, he was not separately interrogated, but only had the me-

morandums, which were taken from the Sherreef, read to him; the truth of which, however, he confirms. As for Ben Alli's testimony, it is given from recollection, impaired by the lapse of twenty years.

the accuracy of the Mohammedan narrative of the interior districts of this quarter of the globe\*."

Having no other sources of information, however, we must, for the present, content ourselves with these communications. From the various conferences of Mr. Lucas with the Shereef Imhammed, the following narrative is composed:

"It describes the kingdom of Fezzan to be a small circular domain, placed in a vast wilderness, as an island in the midst of the ocean, containing near an hundred towns and villages, of which Mourzouk is the capital; distant, south, from Mesurata, about 390 miles. In this kingdom are to be seen some venerable remains of ancient magnificence, some districts of remarkable fertility, and numerous smoking lakes, producing a species of fossil alkali called *trona*. Agriculture and pasturage are the principal occupations of the Fezzaners: they do not appear to have any coin; their medium of commerce is gold-dust; their houses, or rather huts, are built of clay, and are covered with branches of trees, on which earth is laid. As rain never falls at Fezzan, this covering is a sufficient protection. Their dress resembles that of the Moors of Barbary; but, during the heats of summer, which are intense, they only wear drawers, and a cap to protect their heads from the immediate action of the sun. To these, many particulars are added of their persons, diseases, and mode of cure; of their religion, government, taxes, animal and vegetable productions. Their sovereign, who is a tributary of the bashaw of Tripoli, administers impartial justice.

"The narrative proceeds to state, that south-east of Morzouk, at the distance of 150 miles, is a sandy desert, 200 miles wide; beyond which, are the mountains of Tibesti, inhabited by ferocious savages tributary to Fezzan. The vallies between the mountains are said to be fertilized by innumerable springs, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The tribute of the Tibestins to the king of Fezzan, is twenty camel loads of fenna.

"This kingdom is inconsiderable, when compared with the two great empires of Bornou, and Cashna, which lie south of Fezzan, occupying that vast region which spreads itself from the river of the Antelopes, for 1200 miles westward, and includes a great part of the Niger's course. Cashna, we are informed, contains a thousand towns and villages; and in Bornou, which is still more considerable, thirty languages are said to be spoken. The latter is represented as a fertile and beautiful country; its capital being situated within a day's journey of the river *Wad-el-Gazel*, which is lost in the sandy wastes of the vast desert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdsmen, dwelling, like the old patriarchs, in tents, and whose wealth consists in their cattle †. (Bornou, or Bernoa, is a word signifying the land of Noah: for the Arabs conceive, that, on the retiring of the deluge, its mountains received the ark.) Though they cultivate various sorts of grain, the use of the plough is unknown; and the hoe is the only instrument of husbandry. Here, grapes, apricots, and pomegranates, together with limes and lemons, and two species of melons, the water and the milk, are produced in large abundance; but one of the most valuable of its vegetables is a tree called *kedeyna*, which, in form and height, resembles the olive, is like the lemon in its leaf, and bears a nut, of which the kernel and the shell are both in great estimation, the first as a fruit, the last on account of the oil which it furnishes, when bruised, and which supplies the lamps of the people of Bornou with a substitute for the oil of olives, p. 139. Bees,

\* When the person in whom Mr. Lucas confides, p. 138, contounds the skin of the hippopotamus with that of the cameloparadis, may we not suspect that he confounds many other things?

† Horses and horned cattle, goats, sheep, and camels, are the common animals of the country.

it is added, are so numerous, that the wax is often thrown away as an article of no value in the market. Many other particulars are added, for which we must refer to the work. The population is described by the expression, a *countless multitude*. We shall pass over the nature of their religion, which is Mohammedan; of their government, which is an elective monarchy; and the singular mode of their electing a new king from among the children of the deceased sovereign; but the account of the present sultan, his wives, and his children (p. 227.) is too curious not to be exhibited.

"The present sultan, whose name is Alli, is a man of an unobtrusive, plain appearance; for he seldom wears any other dress than the common blue shirt of cotton or silk, and the silk or muslin turban, which form the usual dress of the country. Such, however, is the magnificence of his seraglio, that the ladies who inhabit it are said to be 500 in number, and he himself is described as the reputed father of 350 children, of whom 300 are males; a disproportion which naturally suggests the idea that the mother, preferring to the gratification of natural affection, the joy of seeing herself the supposed parent of a future candidate for the empire, sometimes exchanges her female child for the male offspring of a stranger."

"We are told that fire-arms, though not unknown to the people of Bornou, are not possessed by them.

"South-east from Bornou, lies the extensive kingdom of Begarmee; and beyond this kingdom, are said to be several tribes of Negroes, idolaters, and feeders on human flesh. These, we are told, are annually invaded by the Begarmee; and, when they have taken as many prisoners as their purpose may require, they drive the captives, like cattle, to Begarmee. It is further said, that if any of them, exhausted by fatigue, happen to linger in their pace, one of the horsemen seizes on the oldest, and, cutting off his arm, uses it as a club to drive on the rest.

"We are not much disposed to give credit to this relation. That the Negroes, who are sold for slaves, are different from the other Africans, is not probable; and that they should be driven along with the mangled limbs of their associates, utterly exceeds belief.

"The empire of Cashna bears a great resemblance to that of Bornou.

"After perusing what is here related of the extent, population, fertility, manufactures, and commerce of these regions, we may be permitted to wonder at their having remained altogether unknown to Europeans. We cannot but suspect considerable exaggerations. That the interior parts of Africa are peopled, the caravans which go from Cairo and Tripoli, and which are often absent three years, sufficiently evince: that they are divided into regular and civilized states, may be a question. *A thousand towns and villages* in one empire, and *thirty different languages* spoken in the other, manifest a disposition in the Shereef Imbammed to enlarge, or, at least to retail loose reports. That they should be acquainted with, yet not possess fire-arms, nor make any attempt to navigate the Niger, nor even to catch the fishes that abound in its waters, but little accords with the history of their commerce, and of their progress in manufactures.

"Let us, however, make all possible deductions, and be ever so incredulous as to some particulars, the prospect which this narrative opens to us, of the interior of Africa (the greater part of which we have been accustomed to consider as consigned by nature to perpetual sterility and desolation) must afford great pleasure; and though, as we have already remarked, it is far from being satisfactory, or from having answered the object of the mission, it may be regarded by the society as that sort of evidence which should encourage them to persevere, and ought to induce them, without delay, actually to explore the central provinces of the African continent."

## SIERRA LEONE AND BULAM.

**A** SETTLEMENT, from the purest motives of humanity, was formed at Sierra Leone, upon the coast of Africa, (in 8° 12' N. lat. and about 12° W. lon.) under the patronage of a very respectable society of gentlemen in London, in the year 1791. The benevolent purposes for which it was intended, are to introduce the light of knowledge, and the comforts of civilization into Africa; and to cement and perpetuate the most confidential union between the European colony, and the natives of that country.

The company has ordered experiments to be made, concerning the growth of sugars in their settlements, which have met with such success, as to encourage a hope that the present high price of this commodity may be soon reduced, by a rivalry with the West India merchants. This benevolent colony proceeds with diligence in clearing of land and building of houses. Some delay was occasioned in obtaining the united consent of the surrounding chiefs, which was at length procured, and the dispositions of king Naimbanna appear to be very friendly. The climate is found to be more salubrious than was expected. We with success to this settlement, established upon principles that do honour to humanity.

A settlement of a similar nature was formed upon the island of Bulam, on the same coast, to the eastward of the island of Bilagos. But this is now entirely relinquished. A great part of the colonists were massacred by the natives of the shore, at the mouth of the river Gambia, who were accustomed to make annual plantations of rice in Bulam. The governor being obliged by bad health to return soon to England, the colony was preserved for two years, and the company's property saved by the manly exertions of lieutenant Beaver of the royal navy, who thereby merited the thanks of all concerned.

In January 1793, advices were received at the Sierra Leone house, from that settlement, dated October the 20th, giving a favourable account of the farther progress of the colony. An amicable meeting or palaver had been held with the chiefs on the subject of the distribution of the lots of land, of which a regular survey was begun. The rains had ceased, and the health of the Nova Scotia blacks was much improved. It appears also by the returns, that the mortality among them had not been so very great as was apprehended, only ninety-eight American blacks having died, the chief of whom were of the lower order of those who lived on shore. The company's accountant, who returned for the recovery of his health, died on his arrival in England.

The company's brig Catharine, of one hundred and forty tons, which was dispatched home with some of the adventurers to Bulam, and brought the dispatches of the 20th of October, had been lost off Bideford in a storm, and one boy perished. The settlers had been afflicted with an intermittent fever. Out of the one thousand one hundred and ninety free blacks embarked at Halifax in January 1792, the return of those who died before the 2d of September 1792, amounted to one hundred and sixty-four in men, women, and children, including those who died on their passage. In September 1794 a French 50 gun ship, with some smaller armed vessels, assisted and piloted by two American slave traders, landed at Sierra Leone, plundered the town, and destroyed the public buildings as well as the company's ships lying in the river. They also captured and pillaged the factory at Banee island. In little more than fifteen days, the French squadron left those parts; and the colony, assisted by the seasonable arrival of a ship from England, began to recover from this disaster. At the time when it was most distressed, no want of order had prevailed. The Nova Scotia settlers had suffered but little.

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Their farms are well stocked; there is a sufficient quantity of rice in the colony; and as the company will doubtless send out proper supplies, there is reason to hope that the settlement will again flourish; especially as the principles on which it is founded, entitles it to the protection of every nation that venerates the names of humanity and liberty.

## COUNTRY OF THE HOTTENTOTS.

**D**URING the thirty-six hours which I spent (says monsieur Vaillant) with the Gonaqua Hottentots, I had time to make several observations concerning them. I remarked that they make a clapping noise with their tongue, like the rest of the Hottentots. When they accost any one, they stretch forth the hand, saying *Tabé*, I salute you. This word and ceremony, which are employed by the Caffrees, are not used by the Hottentots, properly so called.

This affinity of customs, manners, and even conformation, their being so near Great Caffraria, and the accounts I afterwards received, convinced me these *hordes* or Gonaquas, who equally resemble the Caffrees and the Hottentots, must be a mixed breed produced by these two nations. The dress of the men, arranged with more symmetry, has the same shape as that of the Hottentots; but as the Gonaquas are a little taller, they make their mantles of calves instead of sheeps skins; they are both called *krofs*. Several of them wear hanging from their necks a bit of ivory, or very white sheeps' bone, and this contrast of the two colours produces a good effect, and is very becoming.

When the weather is excessively hot, the men lay aside every part of their dress that is superfluous, and retain only what they name their *jackals*. This is a piece of the skin of the animal so called, with which they cover what nature bids them conceal, and which is fastened to their girdle. This veil, however, negligently arranged, may be considered as an useless appendage, and is of very little service to their modesty. The women employ more care in adorning their persons. They wear a *krofs* like the men, but the apron which conceals their sex is larger than those of the Hottentots. During the great heats, they retain only this apron, with a skin which descends, behind, from their girdle to the calf of the leg. Young girls, below the age of nine years, go perfectly naked; when they attain to that age, they wear nothing but a small apron.

Whatever may be the extent of the deserts of Africa, we must not form any calculations respecting its population from those innumerable swarms of blacks which are found on the west, and which border all the coasts of the ocean, from the Canary Isles to the environs of the Cape of Good Hope. There is certainly no proportion to enable us to hazard even a conjecture; since by a trade approved by a few, and held in detestation by the greater number, the barbarous navigators of Europe have induced these negroes, by the most villainous attractions, to give up their prisoners, or those who are inferior to them in strength. As their wants increased, they have become equally inhuman and perfidious; the prince has sold his subjects; the mother has sold her son; and nature, as an accomplice, has rendered her prolific.

This disgusting and execrable traffic is, however, still unknown in the interior parts of the continent. The desert is really a desert; and it is only at certain distances that one meets with a few *hordes*, that are not numerous, and who live on the fruits of the earth, and the produce of their cattle. After finding one horde, one must

must travel a great way to find another. The heat of the climate, the dryness of the sands, the barrenness of the earth, a scarcity of water, rugged and rocky mountains, ferocious animals, and, besides these, the humour of the Hottentots, a little phlegmatic, and their cold temperament, are all obstacles to propagation. When a father has six children, it is accounted a phenomenon.

The country of the Gonaquas, into which I penetrated, did not therefore contain three thousand people, in an extent of thirty or forty leagues. These people did not resemble those degenerated and miserable Hottentots, who pine in the heart of the Dutch colonies, contemptible and despised inhabitants, who bear no marks of their ancient origin but an empty name; and who enjoy, at the expence of their liberty, only a little peace, purchased at a dear rate, by the excessive labour to which they are subjected on the plantations; and by the despotism of their chiefs, who are always sold to government. I had here (continues M. Vaillant) an opportunity of admiring a free and brave people, valuing nothing but independence; never obeying any impulse foreign to nature.

The huts, constructed like those of the Hottentots in the colonies, were eight or nine feet in diameter, and were covered with ox or sheep's skins, but more commonly with mats. They had only one opening, very narrow and low; and it was in the middle of their hut that the family kindled their fire. The thick smoke with which these kennels were filled, and which had no other vent but the door, added to the stench which they always retain, would have stifled any European who might have had the courage to remain in them two minutes.

The two colours for which these savages shew the greatest fondness are red and black. The first is composed of a kind of ochry earth, which is found in several places of the country, and which they mix and dilute with grease: this earth has a great resemblance to brick-dust, or tiles reduced to powder. Their black is nothing else than soot, or the charcoal of tender wood. Some women, indeed, are contented with painting only the prominence of the cheeks; but in general they daub over their whole body, in compartments varied with a certain degree of symmetry: and this part of their dress requires much time. These two colours, so much admired by the Hottentots, are always perfumed with the powder of the *boughou*, which is offensive to the smell of an European. But the *boughou* has over our rouge and puffs the advantage of not being pernicious to the skin or the lungs. The men never paint their faces, but they use a preparation made of both colours mixed, to paint the upper-lip as far as the nostrils; by which they enjoy the advantage of continually inhaling the odour of the substance employed for this purpose. Young girls sometimes favour their lovers so far as to apply this paint for them under the nose; and on this point they shew a kind of coquetry which has a very powerful influence over the heart of a Hottentot novice. The reader, however, must not infer, that the Hottentot women pay so much attention to dress as to neglect those daily and useful occupations to which nature and their usages call them.

They are remarkably fond of hunting, and in this exercise they display great dexterity. Besides gins and snares, which they place at convenient spots to catch large animals, they lie in wait for them also, attack them as soon as they appear, and kill them with their poisoned arrows, or their assegays, which are a kind of lances. On the first view of their arrows, one would not suspect how destructive weapons they are; their smallness renders them so much the more dangerous, as it is impossible to perceive and follow them with the eye, and consequently to avoid them. The slightest wound which they make always proves mortal, if the poison reaches the blood, and if the flesh be torn. The surest remedy is to amputate the wounded part, if it be a limb, but if the wound be in the body, death is unavoidable. The assegay is generally

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generally a very feeble weapon in the hands of a Hottentot; and its great length making it visible while it cleaves the air, it may easily be avoided.

The Hottentots have not the least notion of the elements of agriculture; they neither sow nor plant, nor do they ever reap any crop.—When they choose to give themselves the trouble, they make an intoxicating liquor, composed of honey and a certain root, which they suffer to ferment in a certain quantity of water. This liquor, which is a kind of hydromel, is not their usual beverage, nor do they ever keep a stock of it by them. Whatever they have, they drink all at once, and frequently regale themselves in this manner at certain periods. They smoke the leaves of a plant which they name *dagha*, and not *daka*, as some authors have written. This plant is not indigenous; it is the hemp of Europe. There are some of the savages who prefer these leaves to tobacco; but the greater part of them are fond of mixing both together. They set less value on the pipes brought from Europe than on those which they fabricate themselves; the former appear to them to be too small.

Though they rear abundance of sheep and oxen they seldom kill the latter, unless some accident happens to them, or old age has rendered them unfit for service: their principal nourishment, therefore, is the milk of their ewes and cows, besides which, they have the produce of their hunting excursions, and from time to time they kill a sheep. To fatten their animals they employ a process as efficacious as it is barbarous. They bruise, between two flat stones, those parts which we cut off by the knife; and when thus compressed they acquire in time a prodigious bulk, and become a most delicate morsel, when they have resolved to sacrifice the animal.

Those oxen which they intend for carrying burdens must be broke and trained very early to the service; otherwise they would become absolutely untractable. On this account, when the animal is still young, they pierce the cartilage which separates the nostrils, and thrust through the hole a piece of stick about eight or ten inches in length, and almost an inch in diameter.—The task of milking the cows and the ewes belongs to the women: and, as they never beat or torment them, they are surprisingly tractable.

Of their sheep and kine each village hath one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be herdsman. This charge requires many precautions, beasts of prey being very numerous and fierce in the southern parts of Africa. Lions, indeed, are not very common; but there are elephants, rhinoceroses, leopards, tygers, hyenas, and several kinds of wolves, more destructive than ours, together with many other furious animals that abound in the forests, and occasionally make excursions towards the Cape, and destroy the tame cattle. To prevent these misfortunes, it is the business of the herdsman to go, or send, every day round his district, in order to discover if any beast of prey be lurking in that quarter. In which case, he assembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the stoutest among them arm themselves with javelins and pointed arrows, and follow the person who may have discovered the beast, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themselves in two lines; the herdsman entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beast to follow him out, where he is inevitably destroyed.

These savages measure the year by the epochs of drought and rainy weather. This division is common to all the inhabitants of the tropical regions, and it is subdivided into moons; but they never count the days, if they exceed ten, that is to say, the number of their fingers. Beyond that, they mark the day or the time by some memorable epoch; for example, an extraordinary storm, an elephant killed, an infectious disorder among the cattle, an emigration, &c. The different parts of the  
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day they distinguish by the course of the sun; and they will tell you, pointing with their finger, he was *there* when I departed, and *here* when I arrived.

A sense of delicacy makes the Hottentots keep themselves separate from others when they are sick. They are then seldom seen; and it would appear that they are ashamed of having lost their health.

When a Hottentot dies, he is buried in his worst kross, and the limbs are disposed in such a manner that the whole body is covered. The relations then transport it to a certain distance from the horde, and disposing it in a pit dug for this purpose, and which is never deep, cover it with earth, and then with stones, if any are to be found in the neighbourhood. Such a mausoleum proves but a very weak defence against the attacks of the jackal and the hyæna: the body indeed is soon dug up and devoured. However badly this last duty may be discharged, the Hottentots are not much to be blamed, when we call to mind the funeral ceremonies of the ancient and celebrated Parthians, (or Persians) still attached to the custom of exposing their dead on the tops of high towers, or in open cemeteries, in order that the crows and the vultures may feed upon them, and carry them away in morsels. The children, and failing them, the nearest relations of the deceased, take possession of whatever is left; but the quality of a chief is not hereditary. He is always appointed by the horde, and his power is limited. In their councils his advice prevails, if it be judged good; if not, no regard is paid to it. When they are about to go to war, they know neither rank nor divisions; each attacks or defends after his own manner; the most intrepid march in the van; and, when victory declares itself, the whole nation triumphs.

Of all the people whom I ever saw (observes our author) the Gonaquas are the only nation that can be considered as free; but they will perhaps be soon obliged to remove to a greater distance, or receive laws from the Dutch government. All the land to the east being in general good, the planters endeavour to extend their possessions in that quarter as much as they can, and their avarice doubtless will some day succeed. Misery must then be the portion of these happy and peaceful people; and every trace of their liberty will be destroyed by massacres and invasions. Thus have all those hordes mentioned by old authors been treated; and, by being often dismembered and weakened, they are now reduced to a state of absolute dependence on the Dutch. The existence of the Hottentots, their names, and their history, will therefore in time be accounted fabulous; unless some traveller, who may possess curiosity enough to induce him to discover their remains, should have the courage to penetrate into the remote deserts inhabited by the great Nimiquas, where rocks more and more hardened by time, and old and barren mountains, do not produce a single plant worthy to engage the attention of the speculative botanist.

It is necessary in this narration to take notice of that disgusting apron of the Hottentot women, which has long made a figure in history. It is still fashionable among a certain horde. I say, it is fashionable (observes M. Vaillant), for, instead of being the gift of nature, it ought to be considered as one of the most monstrous refinements ever invented by I know not what coquetry, altogether peculiar to a certain small corner of the world. This singularity is nothing else but a prolongation of the nymphæ, occasioned by weights suspended from them. They may hang down about nine inches more or less, according to the age of the person, or the assiduous care which is bestowed on this singular decoration.

There is something peculiar in the features of the Hottentot, which in a certain degree separates him from the generality of mankind; his cheek-bones are exceedingly prominent; so that his face being very broad in that part, and the jaw bones on the contrary extremely narrow, his visage continues still decreasing even to the point of the chin. This configuration gives him an air of lankness, which makes

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his head appear very much disproportioned, and too small for his full and plump body. His flat nose rises scarcely half an inch at its greatest elevation; and his nostrils, which are extremely wide, often exceed in height the ridge of his nose. His mouth is large, and furnished with small teeth, well enamelled and perfectly white: his eyes, very beautiful and open, incline a little towards the nose, like those of the Chinese; and, to the sight and touch, his hair has the resemblance of wool; it is very short, curls naturally, and in colour is as black as ebony. He has very little hair, yet he employs no small care to pull out by the roots part of what he has; but the natural thinness of his eyebrows saves him from this trouble in that part. Though he has no beard but upon the upper lip, below the nose, and at the extremity of the chin, he never fails to pluck it out as soon as it appears. This gives him an effeminate look, which, joined to the natural mildness of his character, destroys that commanding fierceness usual among savages.—The women, with more delicacy of features, exhibit the same characteristic marks in their figure: they are equally well made. Their breasts, admirably placed, have a most beautiful form while in the bloom of youth; their hands are small, and their feet exceedingly well shaped, though they never wear sandals. The sound of their voice is soft; and their idiom, passing through the throat, is not destitute of harmony. When they speak, they employ a great many gestures, which give power and gracefulness to their arms.

The Hottentots are naturally timid. Their phlegmatic coolness, and their serious looks, give them an air of reserve, which they never lay aside, even at the most joyful moments; while, on the contrary, all other black or tawny nations give themselves up to pleasures with the liveliest joy, and without any restraint.

A profound indifference to the affairs of life inclines them very much to indolence: the keeping of their flocks, and the care of procuring a subsistence, are the only objects that occupy their thoughts. They never follow hunting as sportsmen, but like people oppressed and tormented by hunger. In short, forgetting the past, and careless of the future, the present alone engages their attention.

They are however (according to our traveller) the best, the kindest, and the most hospitable of men. Whoever travels among them may be assured of finding food and lodging: and though they will receive presents, yet they never ask for any. If the traveller has a long journey to accomplish, and if they learn from the information he requires, that there are no hopes of his soon meeting with other herds, that which he is going to quit, supply him with provisions as far as their circumstances will allow, and with every thing else necessary for his continuing his journey, and reaching the place of his destination. Such are these people, or at least such did they appear to our author, in all the innocence of manners, and of a pastoral life.

## C A F F R A R I A.

**T**HE country known by the general denomination of Caffraria, is a very extensive region, bounded on the north by Negroland and Abyssinia; on the west by part of Guinea, Congo, and the sea; on the south by the Cape of Good Hope; and on the east by the sea. It is divided into several territories and kingdoms, of which little is known, and is computed to be 700 miles long, and 660 broad.

We shall give a more particular description of the people from two modern writers;

writers; the first celebrated for his botanical knowledge, the other for his very interesting travels into the interior parts of Africa, which, it is hoped, will not prove unacceptable to the reader.

The men among the Caffrees, says lieutenant Paterfon, are from five feet ten inches to six feet high, well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in attacking lions or any beasts of prey.

The colour of the Caffrees is a jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The cloathing of both sexes is nearly the same, consisting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs; pieces of brass in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms: they are also adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers fastened in their heads, with many other fantastical ornaments.

They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle: and to such a height do they carry this passion, that if one particularly pleases them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it.—Their whole exercise through the day is hunting, fighting, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances, and, in time of war, use shields made of the hides of oxen.

The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate several vegetables, which are not indigenous to their country, such as tobacco, water melons, a sort of kidney-beans, and hemp. The women also make baskets, and the mats which they sleep on.—The men have great pride in their cattle; they cut their horns in such a way as to be able to turn them into any shape they please, and they teach them to answer a whistle. When they with their cattle to return home, they go a little way from the house, and blow this small instrument, which is made of ivory or bone, and so constructed as to be heard at a great distance.

The soil of this country is a blackish loomy ground, and so extremely fertile that every vegetable substance, whether sown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance.—There are great variations in the climate; but, having no thermometer, our traveller could not observe the degrees of heat. It seldom rains, except in the summer season, when it is accompanied with thunder and lightning. The country, however, is extremely well supplied with water, not only from the high land towards the north, which furnishes abundance throughout the year, but from many fountains of excellent water, which are found in the woods. Mr. Paterfon thinks, from his own observations, this country to be greatly superior to any other known part of Africa. The woods produce variety of arboreous plants, and some of a great size; they are inhabited by elephants, buffaloes, &c. There were also variety of beautiful birds and butterflies; but they were so shy, that he could only preserve two birds of that country.

To judge of the Caffrees by those I had seen, says Monsieur Vaillant, they are taller than the Hottentots of the colonies, or even than the Gonaquais, though they greatly resemble the latter, but are more robust, and possess a greater degree of pride and courage. The features of the Caffrees are likewise more agreeable, none of their faces contracting towards the bottom, nor do the cheek bones of these people project in the uncouth manner of the Hottentots; neither have they large flat faces and thick lips like their neighbours the negroes of Mosambique, but a well formed contour, and agreeable nose, with eyes sparkling and expressive; so that, setting aside our prejudice with regard to colour, there are many women among them who might be thought handsome by the side of an European lady. They do not disfigure themselves by daubing their eye-brows like the Hottentots; but are very much tattooed, particularly about the face.

The hair of the Caffrees, which is strong and curling, is never greased; but they

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anoint the rest of their bodies, with a view of making themselves active and strong. The men are very fond of beads and brass rings. They are seldom seen without bracelets on their legs and arms, made of the tusks of an elephant, which they saw to a convenient thickness, and then polish and round. As these rings cannot be opened, it is necessary to make them big enough to pass the hand through, so that they fall or rise according to the motion of the arm. Sometimes they place small rings on the arms of their children, whose growth soon fills up the space, and fixes the ornament, a circumstance which is particularly pleasing to them.

They likewise make necklaces of the bones of animals, which they polish and whiten in the most perfect manner. Some content themselves with the leg bone of a sheep hanging on the breast, which is thought a pleasing decoration. In the warm season, the Caffres only wear their ornaments; when the weather is cold, they make use of kroses made of the skins of calves or oxen, which reach to the feet. One particularity which deserves attention, and does not exist elsewhere, is, that the Caffree women care little for ornaments. Indeed they are well made, and pretty, when compared to other savages; and never use the uncouth profusion of Hottentot coquetry, not even wearing copper bracelets. Their aprons, like those of the Gonnquais, are bordered with small rows of beads, which is the only vanity they exhibit.

The skin, that the female Hottentot ties about the loins, the Caffree woman wears as high as her shoulders, tying it over the bosom which it covers. They have, like the men, a kros or cloak of calf or ox skin divested of the hair; but it is only in the cold and rainy season that either sex wear it. These skins are as soft and pliant as the finest stuffs. Let the weather or the season prove ever so bad, neither men nor women cover their heads. Sometimes, indeed, I have seen the head of a Caffree adorned with a feather stuck in the hair; but this sight is by no means common.

One part of the daily occupation of the women is making earthen ware, which they fashion as dexterously as their husbands: they likewise make a curious kind of baskets, of a texture so compact as to contain milk; and they also prepare the fields for seed, scratching the earth, rather than digging it, with wooden pick-axes.

The huts of the Caffrees are higher and more commodious than those of the Hottentots; they form perfect hemispheres; and are composed of wooden work very strong and compact, covered, both within and without, with a mixture of earth, clay, and cow-dung. The opening or door-way is so low, that, to enter the dwelling, you must crawl on your hands and knees, which makes it easier of defence against animals, or the sudden attacks of an enemy. The hearth or fire-place is in the centre, surrounded by a circular rim which rises two or three inches.

The lands of Caffraria, either from their situation or the number of small rivers that refresh them, are more fertile than those of the Hottentots. The Caffrees practise agriculture.

I have remarked, continues monsieur Vaillant, that, notwithstanding the beautiful forests that adorn Caffraria, and delightful pastures which spring up and almost cover the animals which feed on them; notwithstanding those rivers and streams which cross each other in a thousand different directions to render them rich and fertile; their oxen, their cows, and almost all their animals, are much smaller than those of the Hottentots—a difference which undoubtedly arises from the nature of the soil, and a certain flavour predominant in every kind of grass. I have made the observation both on domestic and wild animals, which never acquire the size of those bred in the dry barren countries I have passed through.

Industry is the leading trait in the character of the Caffrees. Some arts, taught indeed by necessity, a love of agriculture, with a few religious dogmas, distinguish them as a more civilised people than those towards the south.

Circumcision is generally practised among them. They acknowledge the supreme being, believe in a future state, where the good will be rewarded, and the wicked punished; but have no idea of the creation, thinking the world had no beginning, and will ever continue in the present state. They have no sacred ceremonies. They instruct their own children, having no priests; but instead of them a kind of forcerers or conjurers, whom they greatly distinguish and revere.

The Caffrees are governed by a chief or king, whose power is very limited, receiving no tax, having no troops at his command, but being the father of a free people; neither attended nor feared, but respected and beloved, and frequently poorer than many of his subjects. Being permitted to take as many wives as he pleases, who think it an honour to belong to him, it is necessary that he should have a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed; these being his only resources for the maintenance of his numerous family, he is frequently in danger of being ruined. His cabin is neither higher nor better decorated than the rest; his whole family and seraglio live round him, composing a group of a dozen or fifteen huts; the adjoining land is generally of his own cultivation.

It is a custom among the Caffrees for each to gather his own grain, which is their favourite nourishment, and which they grind, or rather crush, between two stones; for which reason, the families living separately, each surrounded by his own plantation of corn, occasions a small *horde* sometimes to occupy a league square of ground, a circumstance never seen among the Hottentots.

The distance of the different *hordes* makes it necessary that they should have chiefs, who are appointed by the king. When there is any thing to communicate, he sends for and gives them orders, or rather information, which the chiefs bear to their several *hordes*.

The principal weapon of the Caffree is the lance or assaygay, which shews his disposition to be at once intrepid and noble, despising, as below his courage, the venomous dart, so much in use among his neighbours; seeking his enemy face to face, and never throwing his lance but openly. In war he carries a shield of about three feet in height, made of the thickest part of the hide of a buffalo; this defends him from the arrow or assaygay, but is not proof against a musket ball. The Caffree also manages with great skill a club of about two feet and a half long, made of a solid piece of wood, three or four inches thick in the largest part, and gradually diminishing towards one of the ends. When in a close engagement, they strike with this weapon, or frequently throw it to the distance of fifteen or twenty paces, in which case it seldom fails of the intended effect.

The sovereignty here is hereditary, the eldest son ever succeeding. In default of male heirs, it is not the king's brother succeeds, but the eldest nephew; and in case the king should have neither children nor nephews, the chiefs of the different hordes elect a king. Upon these occasions a spirit of party sometimes prevails, which gives rise to factions and intrigues that generally end in bloodshed.

Polygamy is customary among the Caffrees: their marriages are even more simple than those of the Hottentots, the parents of the bridegroom being always content with his choice; the friends of the bride are rather more difficult, but seldom refuse their consent; after which they rejoice, drink and dance, for weeks together according to the wealth of the families; but these feasts are never held but on the first espousals. They have no musical instruments but such as are used by the Hottentots. As for their dances, the step is not unlike the English.

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At the death of the father, the sons and the mother divide the property he has left between them. The daughters claiming nothing, remain at home with their mother or brother, unless it pleases some man to take them; and if this happens during the life of the parents, they receive cattle in proportion to the wealth of their father. The dead are seldom buried, but carried away from the Kraal by their family, and deposited in a deep trench used by the whole horde on such occasions, where the wild beasts repair at leisure, which preserves the air from those noxious vapours which otherwise the putrefaction would occasion. The honours of burial are only due to the king or chief of a horde. They cover these bodies with piles of stones in the form of a dome.

I am unacquainted with the disposition of the Caffrees, respecting love and jealousy, but believe that they only feel the latter sensation in regard to their countrymen; voluntarily giving up their women for a small consideration to the first white man that expresses an inclination for them.

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OF AFRICA, FROM THE TROPIC OF CANCER TO THE CAPE OF GOOD-HOPE.

*See the Table and Map.*

**T**HIS immense territory is, comparatively speaking, very little known, no modern traveller having penetrated into the interior parts; so that we are ignorant not only of the bounds, but even of the names of several inland countries. In many material circumstances, the inhabitants of this extensive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyssinia, who are tawny, and profess a mixture of Christianity, Judaism, and Paganism, they are all of a black complexion: in their religion, except on the sea-coasts which have been visited and settled by strangers, they are pagans: and the form of government is every where monarchical. Few princes, however, possess a very extensive jurisdiction; the natives of this part of Africa being generally united in small communities, enjoying little intercourse with each other. In Abyssinia indeed, as well as in Congo, Loango, and Angola, we are told of powerful monarchs; but on examination, it is found that the authority of these princes stands on a precarious footing, each tribe or separate body of their subjects being under the influence of a petty chieftain of their own, styled Negus, to whose commands, however contrary to those of the *Negafcha Negafcht*, or king of kings, they are always ready to submit. This indeed must always be the case among rude nations, where the art of governing, like all others, is in a very simple and imperfect state. In the succession to the throne, force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the descendants, whether male or female.

The fertility of a country so prodigiously extensive might be supposed more various than we find it is; in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to the advantages of soil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile; this arises from the intense heat of the sun, which, where it meets with sufficient moisture, produces the utmost luxuriance, and, in those countries where there are few rivers, reduces the surface of the earth to a barren sand. Of this sort are the countries of Amian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and consequently of all other necessaries, are reduced to perfect deserts, as the name of the latter denotes. In those countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly

cularly where the rivers overflow the land, part of the year, as in Abyssinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the highest perfection and greatest abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batavia, Truticul, Monomotapa, Cafati, and Mehene-mugi, are extremely rich in gold and silver. The baser metals likewise are found in these and many other parts of Africa. But the persons of the natives make the most considerable article in the produce and traffic of this miserable quarter of the globe.

On the Guinea or western coasts, the English trade to James Fort, and other settlements near and up the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hardware and spirituous liquors, for the persons of the natives. By the treaty of peace in 1783, the river of Senegal with its dependencies were given up to France. Among the negroes, a man's wealth consists in the number of his family, whom he sells like so many cattle, and often at an inferior price. Gold and ivory, next to the slave trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. These are carried on from the same coast, where the Dutch and French, as well as English, have their settlements for this purpose.

According to Mr. Ramsay, the annual British exports to Africa are estimated at 500,000*l.* part of which is annually exchanged with American and other foreign traders on the coast. About 50,000*l.* is returned in Ivory, gold dust, gum, &c. The greatest part of the profits of the slave trade is raised on the sugar plantations. If, by establishing factories, and encouraging civilization on the coast of Africa, and returning some of our West Indian slaves to their original country, we tried to make up for our past treachery to the natives, and instructed them in the culture of those articles, our demand for which has been so advantageous to America, viz. tobacco, indigo, cotton, rice, &c. to barter with us for our manufactures, great would be our profits. Were Africa civilized, and could we pre-occupy the affections of the natives, and introduce gradually our religion, manners, and language among them, we should open a market that would fully employ our manufacturers and seamen, morally speaking, till the end of time; and, while we enriched ourselves, we should contribute to their happiness.

The Portuguese are in possession of the east and west coast of Africa, from the Tropic of Capricorn to the Equator; which immense tract they became masters of, by their successive attempts, and happy discovery and navigation of the Cape of Good Hope. From the coast of Zanguebar, on the eastern side, they trade not only for the articles above mentioned, but likewise for several others, as sena, aloes, civet, ambergrise, and frankincense. The Dutch have settlements towards the southern part of the continent in the country called Caffraria, or the land of the Hottentots, particularly Cape Town\*, which is well settled, and fortified;

\* Monsieur de Pagés gives a singular instance of magnanimity, which happened at the Cape the evening before his arrival, which excited in every individual the strongest emotions of sympathy, blended with admiration.

A violent gale of wind setting in from the north north west, the barometer, which had stood at 28° and a fraction during the preceding fine weather, suddenly dropped to 27°, and three Dutch vessels in the road dragged their anchors. One loaded with grain for Holland was forced upon the rocks and bulged; and while the greater part of the crew fell an immediate sacrifice to the

waves, the remainder were seen from the shore struggling for their lives by clinging to different pieces of the wreck. The sea ran dreadfully high, and broke over the sailors with such amazing fury, that no boat whatever would venture off to their assistance. Meanwhile a planter, considerably advanced in life, and long a member of the colony, had come from his farm on horseback, to be a spectator of the shipwreck. His heart was melted at the sight of the unhappy seamen; and knowing the bold and enterprising spirit of his horse, and his particular excellence as a swimmer, he instantly determined to make a desperate effort,

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sied; where their ships bound for India usually put in, and trade with the natives for their cattle, in exchange for which they give them spirituous liquors.

**HISTORY.]** The history of the continent of Africa is little known. We learn from the ancients, who sailed a considerable way round the coasts, that the inhabitants were in the same rude situation near 2000 years ago in which they actually remain. The attempts of the Europeans, particularly of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the least impression on these savage mortals, or giving them the least inclination or even idea of the European manner of life.

The Portuguese are sovereigns of the greatest part of the coast, and have a number of black princes their tributaries. There are some independent princes who have extensive dominions, particularly the kings of Dahome and Widah, the most noted of any for the infamous slave-trade. Upwards of 200 years have the European nations traded with Africa in human flesh, and encouraged in the Negro countries, wars, rapine, desolation, and murder, that the West India islands might be supplied with labourers. The annual exportation of poor creatures from Africa hath exceeded 100,000, many of whom are driven a thousand miles to the sea coast, their villages having been surrounded in the night by an armed force, and the inhabitants dragged into perpetual captivity.

A sea officer lately visited all the chiefs of the Negroes in our settlements, from Santa Apollonia to Athera, an extent of more than 250 miles, and found the police and punishment of all crimes regulated by the slave-trade. Those who commit crimes or trespasses against their laws, are, at the decision of twelve elders, sold for slaves for the use of their government, and the support of their chiefs. Theft, adultery, and murder, are the highest crimes, and whenever they are detected, subject the whole family to slavery. But any individual, condemned to slavery for the crime of his relation, may redeem his own person, by furnishing two slaves in his room. Or when a man commits one of the above cardinal crimes, all the male part of his family are forfeited to slavery; if a woman, the female part is sold. "This traffic in crimes makes the chiefs vigilant. Nor do our planters, who purchase them, use any pains to instruct them in religion, to make them amends for the oppression thus exercised on them. They are unnaturally averse to every thing that tends to it; yet the Portuguese, French, and Spaniards, in their settlements, succeeded in their attempts to instruct them, as much to the advantage of commerce, as of religion. It is for the sake of Christianity, and the advantages accompanying it, that English slaves embrace every occasion of deserting to the settlements of those nations."

It is high time for the legislature to interfere, and put an end to this most infamous of all trades, so disgraceful to the Christian name, and so repugnant to the principles of our constitution. Let the negroes already in our islands be properly treated, made free, and encouragement given to their population; measures that would be attended with no less profit than honour.

effort for their deliverance. He alighted, and blew a little brandy into his horse's nostrils, when again seating himself firm in the saddle, he instantly rushed into the midst of the breakers. At first both disappeared; but it was not long before they floated on the surface, and swam to the wreck; when taking with him two men, each of whom held by one of his boots, he brought them safe on shore. This perilous experiment he repeated not less than seven times, and saved four-

teen lives to the public; but on his return the eighth time, being much fatigued, and meeting a most formidable wave, he lost his balance, and was overwhelmed in a moment. The horse swam safe to land, but his gallant rider, alas! was no more. I am doubtful if in the history of mankind we have a more brilliant example of heroism exerted in the cause of humanity. *Pagés' Travels round the World, from 1767 to 1771. vol. iii. p. 32.*

AFRICAN

## A F R I C A N I S L A N D S .

**O**F the African islands, some lie in the Eastern or Indian Ocean, and some in the Western or Atlantic. We shall begin with those in the Indian Ocean; the chief of which are Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagascar, the Comora Islands, Bourbon, and Mauritius. *See the Map.*

**ZOCOTRA.** This island is situated in east lon. 53, north lat. 12, thirty leagues east of Cape Gardesol, on the continent of Africa: it is eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ships used formerly to put in when they took their passage to India. It is a populous, plentiful country, yielding most of the fruits and plants that are usually found within the tropics, together with frankincense, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahomedans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince or Sheik who is probably tributary to the Porte.

**BABELMANDEL.** The island of Babelmandel gives name to the strait at the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is situated, in east lon. 44-30, north lat. 12, about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyssinian shores. The Abyssinians or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the possession of this island, as it commands the entrance into the South Sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but since the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance. The island is of small value, being a barren, sandy spot of earth, not five miles round.

**COMORA.** These islands are, Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, Angezia, and Comora; situated between 41 and 46 east lon. and between 10 and 14 south lat. at an equal distance from Madagascar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, and which claims sovereignty over, and exacts tribute from the others, is about 30 miles long and 15 broad, and affords plenty of provisions, and such fruits as are produced between the tropics. East-India ships, bound to Bombay, usually touch here for refreshments. The inhabitants are negroes of the Mahomedan persuasion, and entertain our seamen with great humanity.

**MADAGASCAR.** This is the largest of the African islands, and is situated between 43 and 51 deg. east lon. and between 10 and 26 south lat. 300 miles south-east of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 miles in length from north to south; and generally between 200 and 300 miles broad. The sea rolls with great rapidity, and is exceeding rough between this island and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel, or passage, through which all European ships, in their voyage to and from India, generally pass, unless prevented by storms.

Madagascar is a pleasant and fertile country, abounding in sugar, honey, vines, fruit-trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious stones, iron, some silver, copper, steel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champaign, watered with numerous rivers, and well stored with fish. The air is generally temperate, and said to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions: some white, some

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some negroes, some Mahomedans, some pagans. The whites, and those of a tawny complexion who inhabit the coasts, are descended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites; but here are no mosques, temples, nor any stated worship, except that they offer sacrifices of beasts on particular occasions; as when sick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their assemblies, circumcise their children, declare war, enter into new-built houses, or bury their dead. Many of them observe the Jewish sabbath, and give some account of the sacred history, the creation and fall of man, as also of Noah, Abraham, Moses, and David; from whence it is conjectured that they are descended of Jews who formerly settled here; though none knows how or when. This island was discovered by the Portuguese, and the French took possession of it in 1643; but the people disliking their government, they were driven out in 1651; since which time the natives have had the sole possession of the island, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon each other for slaves and plunder.

**MAURITIUS, or Maurice,** was so called by the Dutch, who first touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their stadtholder; but the French, its present masters, have given it the name of **THE ISLE OF FRANCE.** It is situated in east lon. 56, south lat. 20, about 400 miles east of Madagascar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ships, secure against any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleasant. The mountains, of which there are many, and some so high that their tops are covered with snow, produce the best ebony in the world, besides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly resemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The island is watered with several pleasant rivers well stocked with fish; and though the soil is not the most fruitful, it yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and sheep.

**BOURBON.** The Isle of Bourbon is situated in east lon. 54, south lat. 21, about 300 miles east of Madagascar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for shipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and south sides; but hardly a single harbour where ships can ride secure against those hurricanes which blow during the monsoons. Indeed the coast is so surrounded with blind rocks, a few feet below the water, that coasting along shore is at all times dangerous. On the southern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames, smoke, and sulphur, with a hideous roaring noise, terrible in the night to mariners. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreshed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the sea and land: sometimes, however, terrible hurricanes shake the whole island almost to its foundation, but generally without any other bad consequence than frightening the inhabitants. The island abounds in brooks and springs, and in fruits, grass, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there), aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood, and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and resins, particularly benzoin of an excellent sort in great plenty. The rivers are well stocked with fish, the coast with land and sea tortoises, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergris, coral, and the most beautiful shells, are found upon the shore. The woods are full of turtle doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye and pleasant to the palate. The French first settled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the island of Madagascar. They have now some considerable towns in the island, with a governor; and here their East-India ships touch and take in refreshments.

There are a great many more small islands about Madagascar, and on the eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps but no where described.

Leaving therefore the eastern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immense ocean, lying between the two grand divisions of the globe, having Europe, Asia, and Africa, or the Old World, on the east; and America, or the New World, on the west; towards which division we now steer our course, touching in our way at the following islands upon the African coast, that have not yet been described, viz. St. Helena, Ascension, St. Matthew, St. Thomas's, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira islands. *See the Map.*

**ST. HELENA.** The first island on this side the Cape is St. Helena, situated in west lon. 6-4, south lat. 16, being 1200 miles west of the continent of Africa, and 1800 east of South America. The island is a rock about 21 miles in circumference, very high, and very steep, and only accessible at the landing-place, in a small valley at the east side of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually dashing on the shore, it is generally difficult landing even here. There is no other anchorage about the island but at Chapel Valley Bay; and as the wind always blows from the south-east, if a ship over-shoots the Island ever so little, she cannot recover it again. The English plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn; of the last, however, most part is devoured by the rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be destroyed; so that the flour they use is almost wholly imported from England; and in times of scarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes instead of bread. Though the island appears on every side a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diversified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden-stuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geese, and turkeys, with which they supply the sailors, taking in exchange shirts, drawers, or any light cloaths, pieces of callico, silks, muslins, arrack, sugar, &c.

St. Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese on the festival of the empress Helena, mother of the emperor Constantine the Great, whose name it still bears. It does not appear that the Portuguese ever planted a colony here; and the English East India company took possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprise. However, the English, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within the space of a year, and at the same time took three Dutch East India ships that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the island, most of them descended from English parents. The East India ships take in water and fresh provisions here, in their way home; but the island is so small, and the wind so much against them outward bound, that they then very seldom see it.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the company, besides a public table well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers are welcome.

**ASCENSION.** This island is situated in 7 deg. 40 min. south lat. 600 miles north-west of St. Helena: it received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day; and is a mountainous, barren island, about 20 miles round, and uninhabited; but is a safe, convenient harbour, where the East India ships generally touch to furnish themselves with turtles or tortoises, which are very plentiful here, and vastly large, some of them weighing above a hundred pounds.

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The sailors going ashore in the night-time, frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are sometimes so cruel, as to turn many more than they use, leaving them to die on the shore.

**ST. MATTHEW.** This is a small island lying in 6-1 west lon. and 1-30 south lat. 300 miles to the north-east of Ascension, and was also discovered by the Portuguese, who planted and kept possession of it for some time; but afterwards deserting it this island now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to settle there, except a small lake of fresh water.

The four following islands, viz. **ST. THOMAS, PRINCE'S ISLAND, ANNABOA,** and **FERNANDOPO,** are situated in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were first discovered by the Portuguese, and belong still to them; they furnish vessels with fresh water and provisions as they pass by. And, to the honour of the Portuguese government, and disgrace of our West India legislatures, there are 15,000 Negro Christians in St. Thomas, instructed to read and write, who daily attend divine worship, clean and well clothed.

**CAPE VERD ISLANDS.** These islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the river Gambia, over against which they lie, at the distance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 degrees west lon. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about 20 in number; but some of them, being only barren, uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonavista, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio, are the most considerable, and are subject to the Portuguese. The air, generally speaking, is very hot, and in some of them very unwholesome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the descendants of Europeans, and negroes.

**ST. JAGO,** where the Portuguese viceroy resides, is the most fruitful, best inhabited, and largest of them all, being 150 miles in circumference, yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some wine, India corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits; but the plant of most consequence is madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs. Here is plenty of roots, garden-stuffs, hogs, and poultry, and some of the prettiest green monkeys, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, or Praya (famous for an action between an English and French squadron), situated on the east side, has a good port, and is seldom without ships, those outward-bound to Guinea or the East Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreshments.

In the island of **MAYO** or **MAY**, immense quantities of salt are made by the heat of the sun from the sea-water, which at spring tides, is received into a sort of pan, formed by a sand-bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. Here the English drive a considerable trade for salt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the vessels that come to load with it, which in some years amount to a hundred or more. The salt costs nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on asses to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ships come hither for a freight of asses, which they carry to Barbadoes and other British plantations. The inhabitants of this island, even the governor and priests, are all negroes, and speak the Portuguese language. The negro governor expects a small present from every commander that loads salt,

and is pleased to be invited aboard their ships. The sea water is so clear on this coast, that an English sailor, who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are generally expert at diving.

The island of **Fogo** is remarkable for being a volcano, continually sending up sulphureous exhalations; and sometimes the flame breaks forth like *Ætna*, in a terrible manner, throwing out punice stones that annoy all the parts adjacent.

**GORRE** is situated within cannon-shot of Cape Verd, N. lat. 14-43, W. lon. 17-20 and was so called by the Dutch, from an island and town of the same name in Holland. It is a small spot not exceeding two miles in circumference, but its importance rises from its situation for trade so near Cape Verd, and it has been therefore a bone of contention between European nations. It was first possessed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the English; but in 1665 it was re-taken by the Dutch, and in 1677 subdued by the French, in whose possession it remained till the year 1759, when the British arms were every where triumphant. It was restored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was re-taken by the English in the last war, but again restored at the peace of 1783.

**CANARIES.** The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Islands, are seven in number, and situated between 12 and 19 degrees west lon. and between 27 and 29 degrees north lat. about 150 miles south-west of Morocco. Their particular names are, Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuerteventura, and Langorote. These islands enjoy a pure, temperate air, and abound in the most delicious fruits, especially grapes, which produce those rich wines that obtain the name of the Canary, whereof the greatest part is exported to England, which in time of peace is computed at ten thousand hogsheads annually. The Canaries abound with those little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now so common and so much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel those in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and so extremely fertile, as to produce two harvests in the year. Teneriffe, the largest of these islands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round; a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil; though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glas observes, that in coming in with this island, in clear weather, the Peak may be easily discerned at 120 miles distance, and in sailing from it at 150. The Peak is an ascent in the form of a sugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and according to the account of Sprat bishop of Rochester, published in the Philosophical Transactions, near three miles perpendicular; but lately ascertained to be only 13,265 feet. This mountain is a volcano, and sometimes throws out such quantities of sulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richest land into barren deserts. These islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans destroying that state, put a stop to the navigation on the west coast of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the rest of the world, until they were again discovered in the year 1405, by the Spaniards, to whom they still belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives resembled the Africans in their stature and complexion when the Spaniards first came among them, their language was different from that spoken on the continent; they retained none of their customs, were masters of no science, and did not know there was any country in the world besides their own.

**MADEIRAS.** The three islands called the Madeiras, are situated, according to the author of Anson's voyage, in a fine climate in 32-27 north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-50 west lon. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many west of Sallee in Morocco. The largest, from which the rest derive the general name of Madeiras, or rather Mattered, on account of its being formerly almost covered with wood, is about 75 miles long, 60 broad, and 180 in circumference. It is composed of one continued hill, of a considerable height, extending from east to west; the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated and interspersed with vineyards; and in the midst of this slope the merchants have fixed their country seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. There is but one considerable town in the whole island, which is named Funchial, seated on the south part of the island, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the sea it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is possible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it.

Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese in 1519; but others assert that it was first discovered by an Englishman, in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still almost the only people who inhabit it. The Portuguese, at their first landing, finding it little better than a thick forest, rendered the ground capable of cultivation by setting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing in great abundance the richest wine, sugar, the most delicate fruits, especially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax: it abounds also with boars and other wild beasts, and with all sorts of fowls, besides numerous groves of cedar trees, and those that yield a juice called dragon's blood, mastic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this isle make the best sweet-meats in the world, and succeeded wonderfully in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The sugar they make is extremely beautiful, and smells naturally of violets. This indeed is said to be the first place in the West where that manufacture was set on foot, and from thence it was carried to the Brasils in America. The Portuguese not finding it so profitable as at first, have pulled up the greatest part of their sugar canes, and planted vineyards in their stead, which produce several sorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the island, malmsey, and tent; of all which the inhabitants make and sell prodigious quantities. No less than 20,000 hogheads of Madeira, it is said, are yearly exported, the greatest part to the West Indies, especially to Barbadoes, the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved, when exposed to the sun in barrels, after the bung is taken out. It is said no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other islands, one is called Port Santo, which lies at a small distance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compass, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ships may ride with safety against all winds, except the south-west; and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other island is an inconsiderable barren rock.

**AZORES.** Leaving the Madeiras, with which we close the account of Africa, we continue our course westward through this immense ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Western Islands, that are situated between 25 and 32 degrees west lon. and between 37 and 40 north latitude, 900 miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St.

Miguel

Miguel or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered in the middle of the fifteenth century by Joshua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Lisbon, was, by stress of weather, driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called the them Flemish Islands. On his arrival at Lisbon he boasted of this discovery, on which the Portuguese set sail immediately, and took possession of them, which they still retain. They were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found in them. All these islands enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air; but are exposed to violent earthquakes and inundations, from both which they have frequently suffered much damage. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits; also in cattle, fowl, and fish. It is said that no poisonous or noxious animals breed on the Azores, and that if carried thither they will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largest, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the English in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious, and has good anchorage, but is exposed to the south-east winds. It is generally visited by homeward bound fleets from Brazil, Africa, and the East Indies. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the residence of the Governor of these islands, as well as of the bishop.

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## A M E R I C A.

## ITS DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST.

WE are now to treat of a country of vast extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of Art, owes in many respects more to that of Nature than any other division of the globe. The particular circumstances of this country require that we should in some measure vary our plan, and, before describing its present state, afford such information with regard to its discovery, as is most necessary for satisfying our readers.

Towards the close of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their support to commerce. An interference of interests inspired a mutual rivalship; but in traffic Venice was much superior. She engrossed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed always, the most valuable in the world; but hitherto entirely carried on through the inland parts of Asia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red Sea. In this state of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, whose knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much superior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, formed a project of sailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown route, and of opening to his country a new source of opulence and power. But this proposal of sailing westward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoese as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as absurd. Stung with disappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, laid his scheme before the court of France, where his reception was still more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII. of England was his next resort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the most opposite imaginable to a great but uncertain design. In Portugal, where the spirit of adventure and discovery about this time began to operate, he had reason to expect better success. But the Portuguese contented themselves with creeping along the coast of Africa, and discovering one cape after another: they had no notion of venturing boldly into the open sea, and of risking the whole at once. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, still remained firm; he became the more enamoured of his design, the more difficulty he found in accomplishing it, and he was inspired with that noble enthusiasm which always animates an adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only resource; and there, after eight years attendance, he at length succeeded, and chiefly through the interest of queen Isabella. Columbus set sail in the year 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon the most adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested\*. In this voyage he had a thousand difficulties to contend

\* Dr. Robertson observes, that the armament of Columbus was not suitable either to the dignity of the nation by which it was equipped, or to the importance of the service for which it was destined.

It consisted of three vessels. The largest, a ship of no considerable burden, was commanded by Columbus, as admiral, who gave it the name of Santa Maria, out of respect for the Blessed Virgin, whom

tend with ; the most striking was the variation of the compass, then first observed, and which seemed to threaten that the laws of Nature were altered on an unknown ocean, and the only guide he had left was ready to forsake him. His sailors, always discontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and insisted on their return. But the firmness and address of the commander, and much more the discovery of land, after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the sedition. It was on the morning of the 12th of October, that Columbus descried an island, whose flat and verdant fields, well stored with wood, and watered with many rivulets, presented the aspect of a delightful country. The crew of the *Pinta* instantly began the *Te Deum*, as a hymn of thanksgiving to God, and were joined by those of the other ships, with tears of joy, and transports of congratulation. This office of gratitude to Heaven was followed by an act of justice to their commander. They threw themselves at the feet of Columbus with feelings of self-condemnation mingled with reverence, and implored him to pardon their ignorance, incredulity, and insolence. After this the boats were all manned and armed, and they rowed towards the island with their colours displayed, with warlike music and other martial pomp. As they approached the coast, they saw it covered with a multitude of people, whom the novelty of the spectacle had drawn together, and whose attitudes and gestures expressed wonder and astonishment at the strange objects which presented themselves to their view. Columbus was the first European who set foot in the new world which he had discovered. He landed in a rich dress, and with a naked sword in his hand. His men followed, and kneeling down, they all kissed the ground which they had so long desired to see ; and took solemn possession of the country for the crown of Castile and Leon. The natives of the country were at first shy through fear, but soon became familiar with the Spaniards, and trafficked with them. It was one of the Bahama islands on which Columbus had landed, and which he called *San Salvador* ; but he soon discovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that these could not be the Indies he was in quest of. In steering southward, however, he found the island called *Hispaniola*, abounding in all the necessaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hospitable people, and what was of still greater consequence, as it insured his favourable reception at home, promising, from some samples he received, considerable quantities of gold. This island therefore he proposed to make the centre of his discoveries : and having left upon it a few of his companions as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure necessary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona ; Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidst the acclamations of the people, attended by some of the natives, and conveying the gold, the arms, utensils, and ornaments of the country he had discovered. This entry into Barcelona was a species of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more striking, and more innocent. In this voyage, he had acquired a general knowledge of all the islands in that great sea which divides North and South America ; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. The countries which he had discovered were considered as a part of India. Even after the error which gave rise to this opinion was detected, and the true position of the new

whom he honoured with singular devotion. Of the second, called the *Pinta*, Martin Pinzon was captain, and his brother Francis pilot. The third, named the *Niña*, was under the command of Vincent Yanez Pinzon. These two were light vessels, hardly superior in burden or force to large boats. This Squadron, if it merits that name, was victualled for twelve months, and had on board ninety men, mostly sailors, together with a few

adventurers who followed the fortune of Columbus, and some gentlemen of Isabella's court, whom she appointed to accompany him. Though the expence of the undertaking was one of the circumstances which chiefly alarmed the court of Spain, and retarded so long the negotiation with Columbus, the sum employed in fitting out this Squadron did not exceed four thousand pounds.

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world was ascertained, the name has remained, and the appellation of *West Indies* is given by all the people of Europe to the country, and that of *Indians* to its inhabitants. Thus were the West Indies discovered by seeking a passage to the East; and even after the discovery, still conceived to be a part of the eastern hemisphere. The present success of Columbus, his former disappointments, and the glory attending to unexpected a discovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his designs now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of seventeen sail was immediately prepared; all the necessaries for conquest or discovery were embarked, and 1500 men, among whom were several of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the most ample authority. It is impossible to determine, whether the genius of this great man, in first conceiving the design of these discoveries, or his sagacity in executing the plan he had conceived, most deserves our admiration. Instead of hurrying from sea to sea, and from one island to another, which, agreeably to the vulgar ambition of navigators, was naturally to be expected, Columbus with such a field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curiosity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the discoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himself the unavailing applause of visiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleasure of seeing them. With this view he made for Hispaniola, where he established a colony, and erected forts in the most advantageous grounds for securing the dependence of the natives. Having spent a considerable time in this employment, and laboured for the establishment of this colony with as much zeal and alacrity as if his views had extended no farther, he next proceeded to ascertain the importance of his other discoveries, and to examine what advantages were most likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from some specimens, seemed a rich country; but whether it was an island, or a part of some great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To ascertain this point, was the present object of his attention. In coasting along the southern shore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled among a multitude of islands, of which he reckoned 160 in one day. These islands, which were well inhabited, and abounded in all the necessaries of life, gave him an opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature, where his countrymen expected nothing but the barren ocean; he called them *Jardin de la Reina*, or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactress, who was always uppermost in his memory. In the same voyage Jamaica was discovered. But to so many difficulties was Columbus exposed, on an unknown sea, among rocks, shelves, and sands, that he returned to Hispaniola, without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprise.

By the first success of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration; but by a continuance of the same success, their admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain set every spring in motion against him; and there is seldom difficulty in finding specious grounds of accusation against such as are employed in the execution of extensive and complicated plans. An officer was dispatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a spy and informer, and whose presence plainly demonstrated to Columbus the necessity of returning to Europe, for obviating the objections or calumny of his enemies.

It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to set out on a third expedition, still more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He designed to sail to the southward from the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly westward, that he might discover what opening that might afford to India, or what new islands, or what continent might reward his labour.

bour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and suffering numberless inconveniencies from the excessive heats and rains between the tropics, the adventurers were at length favoured by a smart gale, and went before it seventeen days to the westward. At the end of this time, a seaman saw land, which was an island on the coast of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having passed this island, and two others which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoque, the admiral was surpris'd with an appearance he had never seen before: this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occasioned by a conflict betwixt the tide of the sea, and the rapid current of that immense river. But sailing forward, he plainly perceived that they were in fresh water; and judging rightly that it was improbable any island should supply so vast a river, he began to suspect he had discovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on to the westward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this discovery, he yielded to the uneasiness and distresses of his crew, and bore away for Hispaniola. In the course of this discovery, Columbus landed at several places, where, in a friendly manner, he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in considerable plenty.

About this time the spirit of discovery spread itself widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wished to acquire the reputation of Columbus, without possessing his abilities. The Portuguese discovered Brasil, which makes at present the most valuable part of their possessions: Cabot, a native of Bristol, discovered the north-east coasts, which form the United States of America; and Americus Vesputius, a merchant of Florence, sailed to the southern continent; and being a man of address, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now imposed on by the name; it is universally known that Columbus was the first discoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the smallest mortifications to which this great man was exposed. For such were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that, after discovering the continent, and making settlements in the islands of America, he was treated like a criminal, and carried over to Europe in irons. When he arrived in Spain, the court began to be ashamed of their ungenerous treatment of this great man, and orders were instantly issued to set him at liberty. He vindicated his conduct, in the presence of the king and queen, in the most satisfactory manner, and gave ample evidence of the wickedness of his enemies. Ferdinand and Isabella expressed their sorrow for what had happened, disavowed their knowledge of it, and joined in promising him protection and future favour. Columbus, however, retained a deep sense of the indignity with which he had been treated. The fetters that he had been loaded with were constantly hung up in his chamber, and he gave orders that when he died they should be buried in his grave. But, notwithstanding the ill treatment which he had received, he undertook another voyage in order to make farther discoveries. He underwent in the course of it great fatigues; and returning to Spain, ended his life at Valladolid on the 20th of May, 1506, in the 59th year of his age. He had the glory of making the one half of the world known to the other; a glory so much the more precious, as it was untaunted by cruelty or rapacity, which disfigured all the exploits of those who came after him, and accomplished the execution of his plan. The succeeding governors of Cuba and Hispaniola endeavoured to purchase the same advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good sense and humanity. These islands contained mines of gold. The Indians only knew where they were situated; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of persuasion, hurried them to acts of the most shocking enormity and cruelty against those unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed

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part of their treasure. The slaughter once begun, they set no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hispaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de las Casas, a witness of those barbarous depopulations, says, that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt men. The unhappy savages, almost naked and unarmed, were pursued like deer in the forests, devoured by dogs, killed by gun-shot, or surpris'd and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only visited the continent: from what they saw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a still more valuable conquest. Fernando Cortez was dispatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horses, and a small number of field-pieces. With this inconsiderable force, he propos'd to subdue the most powerful state on the continent of America; this was the empire of Mexico; rich, extensive, and inhabited by millions of Indians passionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whose fame in arms struck terror into the neighbouring nations. No true history was ever more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico, it is said, had subsisted for ages: its inhabitants were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a polished and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, that the year consisted nearly of 365 days. Their superiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the sure basis of laws combined with religion, seem'd to bid defiance to time itself. Mexico, the capital of the empire, situated in the middle of a spacious lake, was the noblest monument of American industry: it communicated with the continent by immense causeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admir'd for its buildings, all of stone, its squares and market-places, the shops which glittered with gold and silver, and the sumptuous palaces of Montezuma, some erected on columns of jasper, and containing whatever was most rare, curious, or useful. But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it against the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with feeble opposition from the nations along the coast of Mexico, who were terrified at their first appearance: the warlike animals on which the Spanish officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which issued from their hands, the wooden castles which had waded them over the ocean, struck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover till it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards march'd, they spared no age or sex, nothing sacred or profane. At last, the inhabitants of Tlascala, and some other states on the coast, despairing of being able to oppose them, enter'd into their alliance, and join'd armies with those terrible, and, as they believ'd, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, march'd onward to Mexico; and in his progress discover'd a volcano of sulphur and saltpetre, whence he could supply himself with powder. Montezuma heard of his progress, without daring to oppose it. This sovereign is report'd by the boasting Spaniards, to have commanded 30 vassals, of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants, arm'd with bows and arrows; and yet he dur'd not resist a handful of Spaniards, aided by a few Americans, whose allegiance would be shaken by the first reverse of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and such the effect of the Spanish victories, the fame of which always march'd before them.

By sending a rich present of gold, which only whett'd the Spanish avarice, Montezuma hasten'd the approach of the enemy. No opposition is made to their entry into his capital. A palace is set apart for Cortez and his companions, who are already treat'd as the masters of the new world. He had good reason, however, to distrust the affected politeness of this emperor, under which he suspected some plot for his destruction was conceal'd; but he had no pretence for violence;

Montezuma loaded him with kindness, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was surrounded with artillery, the most frightful of all engines to the Americans. At last a circumstance fell out, which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hostilities. In order to secure a communication by sea, to receive the necessary reinforcements, he had erected a fort, and left a small garrison behind him at Vera Cruz, which has since become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He understood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garrison in his absence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action; that Montezuma himself was privy to this violence, and had issued orders that the head of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to destroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in person to the emperor, attended by a few of his most experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, and Cortez seemed extremely ready to believe him; though at the same time he alleged that the Spaniards in general would never be persuaded of it, unless he returned along with them to their residence, which would remove all jealousy between the two nations. The success of this interview shewed the superiority of European address. A powerful monarch, in the midst of his own palace, and surrounded by his guards, gave himself up a prisoner, to be disposed of according to the will of a few strangers who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine, by which every thing might be accomplished. The Americans had the highest respect, or rather a superstitious veneration for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and at the same time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his tastes and passions, maintained the easy sovereignty of Mexico, by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their respect? Montezuma was the first to teach them more deference. Was there a tumult excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards? Montezuma attended the battlements of his prison, and harangued his Mexicans into order and submission. This farce continued a long while: but on one occasion, when Montezuma was shamefully disgracing his character by justifying the enemies of his country, a stone, from an unknown hand, struck him on the temple, which in a few days occasioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who co-operated so strongly with the Spaniards, elected a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, who from the beginning discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct the unhappy Mexicans rushed against those very men, whom a little before they had offered to worship. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly established to be expelled from Mexico. The immense tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, besides an amazing quantity of precious stones, a fifth part of which being distributed among the soldiers, stimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to perish, rather than part with so precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no small efforts for independence; but all their valour, and despair itself, gave way before what they called the Spanish thunder. Guatimozin and the empress were taken prisoners. This was the prince who, (when he lay stretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him discover in what part of the lake he had thrown his riches) said to his high-priest, condemned to the same punishment, and who loudly expressed his sense of the pains that he endured, "Do you take me to lie on a bed of roses?" The high-priest remained silent, and died in an act of obedience to his sovereign. Cortez, by getting a second emperor into his hand, made a complete conquest of Mexico;

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Mexico; together with which, the Castille D'Or, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez and his soldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they got intelligence of another great empire, situated towards the equinoctial line and the tropic of Capricorn, which was said to abound in gold and silver and precious stones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near thirty degrees, and was the only other country in America which deserved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened that the Spanish government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, they did not chuse to adventure on new enterprises; certain it is, that this extensive country, more important than Mexico itself, was reduced by the endeavours, and at the expence of three private persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a wealthy and artful priest. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low education. Pizarro, the soul of the enterprise, could neither read nor write. They sailed over into Spain, and without difficulty obtained a grant of what they should conquer. Pizarro then set out for the conquest of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horse, and 12 small pieces of cannon, drawn by slaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the same prejudices with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spanish nation, and were beside of a character still more soft and unwarlike, it need not surprise us, after what has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that, with this inconsiderable force, Pizarro should make a deep impression on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumstances likewise, which conspired to assist him, and which, as they discover somewhat of the history, religion, and state of the human mind in this immense continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of those uncommon men, who, calm and dispassionate themselves, can observe the passions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He observed that the people of Peru were naturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the sun. He pretended therefore to be descended from that luminary, whose worship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled to bear. By this story, romantic as it appears, he easily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his jurisdiction; a larger still he subdued by his arms; but both the force and the deceit he employed for the most laudable purposes. He united and civilised the dispersed and barbarous people; he bent them to laws and arts; he softened them by the institution of a benevolent religion; in short, there was no part of America where agriculture and the arts were so assiduously cultivated, and where the people were of such mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes succeeded Mango, distinguished by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as descendants of their great God, the Sun. The twelfth of these was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guaiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spanish Peru. To secure himself in the possession, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country; and of this marriage was sprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Huascar, of a different mother, had claimed the succession to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double title. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Huascar, as a prisoner, in the tower of Cusco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble and disjointed state

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was the kingdom of Peru when Pizarro advanced to it. The ominous predictions of religion, too, as in most other cases, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the subjection of the empire by unknown persons, whose description was supposed to correspond to the appearance of the Spaniards. In these circumstances, Atabalipa, instead of opposing the Spaniards, set himself to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whose temper partook of the meanness of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with those he called Barbarians; but who, however, though less acquainted with the cruel art of destroying their fellow-creatures, were more civilised than himself. While he was engaged in conference, therefore, with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked the guards of that prince, and having butchered 3000 of them, as they were pressing forward, without regard to their particular safety, to defend the sacred person of their monarch, seized Atabalipa himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. Pizarro, with the sovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the master of Peru: for the inhabitants of this country were as strongly attached to their emperor, as the Mexicans themselves. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat of his ransom. On this occasion the ancient ornaments, amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treasures of the most magnificent temples, were brought out to save him, who was the support of the kingdom and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negotiation, by which he proposed, without releasing the emperor, to get into his possession an immense quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro caused some embarrassment in his affairs. The friendship, or rather the external show of friendship, between these men, was solely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprising spirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous that might gratify their ruling passion. When their interests, therefore, happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any measures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the most considerable share of the treasure arising from the emperor's ransom, because he had the chief merit in acquiring it. Almagro insisted on being upon an equal footing: and at length, lest the common cause might suffer by any rupture between them, this disposition was agreed to. The ransom was paid without delay, a sum exceeding their conception, but not sufficient to gratify their avarice. It amounted to 1,500,000*l.* sterling, and, considering the value of money at that time, was prodigious: on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the shares of the chief commanders and officers, each private soldier had above 2000*l.* English money. With such fortunes, it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would patiently submit to the rigours of military discipline. They insisted on being disbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand; sensible that avarice would still detain many in his family, and that those who returned with such magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to pursue the same road to wealth. These wise reflections were abundantly verified; it was impossible to send out better recruiting-officers than those who had themselves so much profited by the field; new soldiers constantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcement.

This immense ransom was only a farther reason for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they discovered whether he had another treasure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince from whom they expected no farther advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, on account of some instances of craft and duplicity which he observed in his character,

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character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs, it is certain, that by his command Atabalipa was put to death. To justify this cruel proceeding, a pretended charge was exhibited against the unhappy prince, in which he was accused of idolatry, or having many concubines, and other circumstances equally impertinent. The only just ground of accusation against him was, that his brother Huefcar had been put to death by his command; and even this was considerably palliated, because Huefcar had been plotting his destruction, that he might establish himself on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility set up the full brother of Huefcar; Pizarro set up a son of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to establish themselves by the assistance of the army. These distractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here at another time, were at present rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought against each other; their battles accustomed these harmless people to blood; and such is the preference of a spirit of any kind raised in a nation to a total lethargy, that in the course of those quarrels among themselves, the inhabitants of Peru assumed some courage against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cause of all their calamities. The losses which the Spaniards met with in these quarrels, though inconsiderable in themselves, were rendered dangerous, by lessening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preserve among the inhabitants of the new world. This consideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and this interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city Lima, and in settling the Spaniards in the country. But as soon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war against the Indians, and after many difficulties made himself master of Cusco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the sea-coast, to the southward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the southward of Pizarro's government. This division occasioned a warm dispute between them, each reckoning Cusco within his own district. But the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He persuaded his rival, that though the country which really belonged to him, lay to the southward of Cusco, it was equally rich and fertile, and might be as easily conquered as Peru. He offered him his assistance in the expedition, the success of which he did not even call in question.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of subduing a kingdom for himself, listened to his advice; and joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own as he judged necessary, penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; losing many of his men as he passed over mountains of an immense height, and always covered with snow. He reduced, however, a very considerable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war, not to take advantage of the division of the Spanish troops. They made an effort, for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indisposed, and Almagro removed at a great distance, they were well nigh successful. The latter, however, no sooner got notice of the siege of Cusco, than, relinquishing all views of distant conquests, he returned, to secure the grand object of his former labours. He raised the siege, with vast carnage; but having obtained possession of this city, he would not resign it to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, being ignorant of any other enemy but the Peruvians. This dispute occasioned a long and bloody struggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the resentment fierce on both sides. At last, Almagro, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the security of a rival, in whose dangers and triumphs he had long shared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprise, he had been intimately connected.

needed. During the course of this civil war, many Peruvians served in the Spanish armies, and learned, from the practice of Christians, to commit cruelties which are a disgrace to humanity. That unhappy nation, however, at length took a very remarkable resolution. They saw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguishable resentment and avarice, and they conjectured that these passions would never permit their contests to subside. "Let us retire," said they, "from among them; let us fly to our mountains; they will speedily destroy each other, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations." The resolution was instantly put in practice; the Peruvians dispersed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each side been exactly equal, this singular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with success. But the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and to the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never since ventured to make head against the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now sole master of the field, and of the most extensive empire in the world, was still urged on, by his ambition, to undertake new enterprises. The southern countries of America, into which he had some time before dispatched Almagro, offered the richest conquest. Towards this quarter, the mountains of Potosi, composed almost of entire silver, had been discovered, the shell of which only remains at present. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, passed the Andes, and sailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons; an immense navigation, which discovered a rich and delightful country; but as it is mostly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever since, neglected it. Pizarro, meeting with repeated success, and having no superior to control, nor rival to keep him within bounds, now gave loose reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the basest tyranny and cruelty against all who had not concurred in his designs. This conduct raised a conspiracy against him, to which he fell a sacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himself had founded. The partisans of old Almagro declared his son, of the same name, their viceroy. But the greater part of the nation, though extremely well satisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the orders of the emperor Charles V. then king of Spain, who sent over Vaca di Castro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wisdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the most advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother country. By his prudent management, the mines of La Plata and Potosi, which were formerly a matter of private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were silenced or crushed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, since the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was restored to Peru. It seems, however, that Di Castro had not discovered sufficient address in gaining the favour of the Spanish ministry, by proper bribes or promises, which in that age were expected from the governor of so rich a country. By their advice, a council was sent over to control Di Castro, and the colony was again unsettled. The party spirit, but just extinguished, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, set himself at the head of his brother's partisans, with whom many new malcontents had united. It was now no longer a dispute between governors about the bounds of their jurisdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal submission to the king. He gained strength daily; and even went so far as to behead a governor who was sent over to curb him. He won the confidence of the admiral of the Spanish fleet in the South Seas, by whose means he proposed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain; and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

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Such was the situation of affairs, when the court of Spain, sensible of their mistake in not sending into America men whose character and virtue only, and not impatience and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, dispatched with unlimited powers Peter de la Gasca, a man differing only from Castro by being of a more mild and insinuating behaviour, but with the same love of justice, the same greatness of soul, and the same disinterested spirit. All those who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt, flocked to his standard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gasca, forsook their old connections; the admiral was gained over by insinuation, to return to his duty; and Pizarro himself was offered a full indemnity, provided he should return to the allegiance of the Spanish crown. But so intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard rather than submit to an officer of Spain. With those of his partisans, therefore, who still continued to adhere to his interest, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered and taken prisoner. His execution followed soon after; and thus the brother of him, who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a sacrifice to the security of the Spanish dominion over that country.

The conquest of the great empires of Mexico and Peru is the only part of the American history which deserves to be treated under the present head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent, or of the islands, if it contains either instruction or entertainment, shall be recorded under those particular countries. We now proceed to examine the manners, government, religion, and whatever composes the character of the natives of America: and as these are extremely similar all over this part of the globe, we shall speak of them in general, in order to save continual repetitions; and whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the respective states, shall be particularly delineated, as they pass in revision before us.

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#### Of the ORIGINAL INHABITANTS of A M E R I C A.

THE discovery of America has not only opened a new source of wealth to the busy and commercial part of Europe, but an extensive field of speculation to the philosopher, who would trace the character of man under various forms of society, and observe the movements of the human heart, or the operation of the human understanding, when untutored by science, and untainted with corruption. So striking seemed the disparity between the inhabitants of Europe and the natives of America, that some speculative men ventured to affirm, that it was impossible they should be of the same species, or derived from one common source. This conclusion, however, is precipitate and erroneous. The complexion, form, and characters of mankind may be infinitely varied, according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the nature of their climate\*, the manner in which they acquire the necessaries of life, the force of custom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumstances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be discovered among them all, notwithstanding the various shades which characterise nations, and distinguish them from each other.

When the thirst of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic,

\* See an ingenious Essay on the Causes of the Variety of Complexion and Figure in the Human Species, by Dr. Smith, of New Jersey.

they found the inhabitants of the New World immerfed in what they reckoned barbarity, but which, however, was a ftate of honeft independence and noble fim- plicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively fpeaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unac- quainted with almoft every European art; even agriculture itfelf, the moft ufe- ful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very fparingly. The only kind of labour on which they depended for acquiring the neceffaries of life, was that of hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and forefts fupplied in great abundance. This exercife, which among them is a moft ferious occupation, gives a ftrength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The fame caufe perhaps renders their bodies in general, where the rays of the fun are not too violent, un- commonly ftaight and well proportioned. Their mufcles are firm and ftrong; their bodies and heads flattifh, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and as ftrong as that of a horfe. The colour of their fkin is a reddifh brown, admired among them, and heightened by the conftant ufe of bear's fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumftances and way of life. A people who are conftantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious fubfiftence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be fupposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or a high flow of fpirits. The Indians, therefore, are in general grave even to fadnefs; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to fome nations of Europe; and they defpife it. Their behaviour to thofe about them is regular, modeft, and refpect- ful. Ignorant of the arts of amufement, of which that of faying trifles agreeably is one of the moft confiderable, they never fpeak but when they have fomething important to obferve; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with fome meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almoft continually engaged in purfuits, which to them are of the higheft importance. Their fubfiftence depends intirely on what they procure with their hands; and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be loft by the fmalleft inattention to the defigns of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than to another, they fly wherever they expect to find the neceffaries of life in greateft abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are for the fame reafon extremely fmall, when compared with civilifed focieties, in which, induftry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vaft number of individuals, whom a complicated lux- ury renders ufe- ful to each other. Thefe fmall tribes live at an immense diftance; they are feparated by a defert frontier, and hid in the bofom of impenetrable and almoft boundlefs forefts.

There is eftablifhed in each fociety a certain fpecies of government, which pre- vails, with little variation, over the whole of this continent; and it may alfo be ob- ferved that their manners and way of life are nearly fimilar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great inftruments of fubjection in polished focieties, an American can render himfelf confiderable among his companions, only by a fuperiority in perfonal qualities of body or mind. Where all enjoy the fame education, all are pretty much equal, and will defire to remain fo. Liberty, therefore, is the prevailing paffion of the Americans; and their government, un- der the influence of this fentiment, is better fecured than by the wifeft poli- tical regulations. Though free in the full- eft fenfe of the word, they do not de- fpife all fort of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wifdom, which expe- rience has conferred on the aged, and they inlift under the banners of the chief, in whofe valour and military addrefs they have learned to re- pofe their confidence. In

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every society, therefore, there is to be considered the power of the chief and of the elders; and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a species of aristocracy. Among those tribes which are most engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant; because the idea of having a military leader was the first source of his superiority, and the continual exigencies of the state requiring such a leader, will continue to support, and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather persuasive than coercive; he is revered as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice; and a single act of ill-judged violence would drive him from the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be considered as an aristocracy, have no more power. In some tribes, indeed, there is a kind of hereditary nobility, whose influence being constantly augmented by time, is more considerable. But this source of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex to the merit of our contemporaries that of their forefathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In most countries, therefore, age alone is sufficient for acquiring respect, influence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only source of knowledge among a barbarous people. Among the Indians, business is conducted with such simplicity as recalls, to those acquainted with antiquity, a picture of the most early ages. The heads of families meet together in a house or cabin appointed for the purpose. Here the business is discussed; and here those of the nation, distinguished for their eloquence or wisdom, have an opportunity of displaying their talents. The orators\*, like those of Homer, express themselves in a bold figurative style, stronger and more expreive than nations softened by refinement can well bear, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and affecting. When the business is over, and they happen to be well provided with food, they appoint a feast upon the occasion,

\* I may challenge (says Mr. Jefferson, in his Notes on Virginia) the whole orations of Demosthenes and Cicero, and of any more eminent orator, if Europe has furnished more eminent, to produce a single passage superior to the speech of Logan, a Mingo chief, to lord Dunmore, when governor of this state; and, as a testimony of their talents in this line, I beg leave to introduce it, first stating the incidents necessary for understanding it.

In the spring of the year 1774, a robbery and murder were committed on the inhabitants of the frontiers of Virginia, by two Indians of the Shawnee tribe. The neighbouring whites, according to their custom, undertook to punish this outrage in a summary way. Col. Cresap, a man infamous for the many murders he had committed on those much-injured people, collected a party, and proceeded down the Kanaway in quest of vengeance. Unfortunately a canoe of women and children, with one man only, was seen coming from the opposite shore, unarmed, and unsuspecting an hostile attack from the whites. Cresap and his party concealed themselves on the bank of the river, and the moment the canoe reached the shore, singled out their objects, and, at one fire, killed every person in it. This happened to be the family of Logan, who had long been distinguished as a friend to the whites. This unworthy return provoked his vengeance; he accordingly signalled himself in the war which ensued. In the autumn of the same year, a decisive

battle was fought at the mouth of the great Kanaway, between the collected forces of the Shawnees, Mingo's, and Delawars, and a detachment of the Virginia militia. The Indians were defeated, and sued for peace. Logan, however, disdained to be seen among the suppliant. But lest the sincerity of a treaty should be mistrusted, from which so distinguished a chief absented himself, he sent by a messenger the following speech to be delivered to lord Dunmore:

"I appeal to any white man to say if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry, and he gave him not meat; if ever he came cold and naked, and he clothed him not. During the course of the last long and bloody war, Logan remained idle in his cabin, an advocate for peace. Such was my love for the whites, that my countrymen pointed, as they passed, and said, 'Logan is the friend of white men.' I had even thought to have lived with you, but for the injuries of one man. Col. Cresap, the last spring, in cold blood, murdered all the relations of Logan, not sparing even my women and children. There runs not a drop of my blood in the veins of any living creature. This called on me for revenge. I have sought it: I have killed many; I have glutted my vengeance. For my country, I rejoice at the beams of peace. But do not labour a thought that mine is the joy of fear. Logan never felt fear. He will not turn on his heel to save his life. Who is there to mourn for Logan?—Not one."

of which almost the whole nation partakes. The feast is accompanied with a song, in which the real or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. Their dances (though, like those of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind) and music accompany every feast.

It often happens, that those different tribes or nations, scattered as they are at great intervals, meet in their excursions after prey. If there subsists no animosity between them, which seldom is the case, they behave in the most friendly and courteous manner; but if they happen to be in a state of war, or if there has been no previous intercourse between them, all who are not friends are deemed enemies, and they fight with the most unrelenting fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even their little agriculture; it is left to the women. War, when it does not arise from an accidental rencounter or interference, is entered upon either to revenge themselves for the death of some lost friends, or to acquire prisoners, who may assist them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their society. These hostilities are either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case, all the young men, who are disposed to go out to battle (for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination), give a piece of wood to the chief, as a token of their design to accompany him; for every thing among these people is transacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief, who is to conduct them, fasts several days, during which he converses with no one, and is particularly careful to observe his dreams, which the presumption natural to savages generally renders as favourable as he could desire. A variety of other superstitions and ceremonies are observed. One of the most hideous is setting their war-kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies; which among some nations must formerly have been the case, since they still continue to express it in clear terms, and use an emblem significant of the ancient usage. Then they dispatch a porcelane, or large shell, to their allies, inviting them to come along, and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

“ A generous friendship no cold medium knows,  
“ Burns with one love, with one resentment glows, &c.”

They think that those in their alliance must not only adopt their enmities, but have their resentment wound up to the same pitch with themselves. And, indeed, no people carry their friendships, or their resentment, so far as they do; and this is what should be expected from their peculiar circumstances; for the Americans who live in small societies, who see few objects and few persons, become wonderfully attached to these objects and persons, and cannot be deprived of them without feeling themselves miserable. Their ideas are too confined to enable them to entertain just sentiments of humanity, or universal benevolence. But this very circumstance, while it makes them cruel to an incredible degree, towards those with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendships, and to the common tie which unites the members of the same tribe, or of those different tribes which are in a state of alliance. Without attending to this reflection, some facts we are going to relate, would excite our wonder without informing our reason, and we should be bewildered in a number of particulars, seemingly opposite to each other, without being sensible of the general cause from which they proceed.

Having finished all the ceremonies previous to the war, they issue forth with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermilion, which

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give them a most horrid appearance. Then they exchange their cloaths with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them to a considerable distance, to receive those last tokens of eternal friendship.

The great qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprize; and indeed in these they are superior to all other nations. Accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, having their perceptions sharpened by keen necessity, and living in every respect according to nature, their external senses have a degree of acuteness almost incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smoke of their fires, which they smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they count and distinguish with the utmost facility. They can even distinguish the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the precise time when they passed, where an European could not, with all his glasses, distinguish footsteps at all. These circumstances, however, give them no superiority, because their enemies are equally skilful. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making use of any thing by which they might run the risque of a discovery. They light no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals: they lie close to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that closes the rear diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refresh themselves, scouts are sent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they suspect an enemy to lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes; and, while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, or make prisoners of as many as they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation. But when the enemy is apprised of their design, and coming on in arms against them, they throw themselves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to resemble. Then they allow a part to pass unmolested, when all at once, with a tremendous shout, rising up from their ambush, they pour a storm of musket-bullets on their foes. The party attacked returns the same cry. Every one shelters himself with a tree, and returns the fire. Thus does the battle continue until one party is so much weakened as to be incapable of farther resistance. But if the force on each side continues nearly equal, the fierce spirit of the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They abandon their distant war, they rush upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and insulting their enemies with the bitterest reproaches. A cruel combat ensues, death appears in a thousand hideous forms, which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouse the fury of savages. They trample, they insult over the dead bodies, tearing the scalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beasts, and sometimes devouring their flesh. The flame rages on till it meets with no resistance; then the prisoners are secured, those unhappy men, whose fate is a thousand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors set up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have lost. They approach in a melancholy and severe gloom to their own village; a messenger is sent to announce their arrival; and the women, with frightful shrieks, come out to mourn their dead brothers or their husbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the elders a circumstantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people, and as he mentions the names of those who have fallen, the shrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in these cries, according as each is most connected with the deceased by blood or friendship. The last ceremony is the proclamation of

of the victory; every individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable transition, they pass in a moment from the bitterness of sorrow to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the prisoners, whose fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characterises the savages.

We have already mentioned the strength of their affections or resentments. United as they are in small societies, connected within themselves by the firmest ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the most intense warmth within the walls of their own village, seldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their resentment is easily extended from the individual who has injured them, to all others of the same tribe. The prisoners, who have themselves the same feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the distribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to supply the loss of a citizen. If those who receive him have their house weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into their family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occasion for him, or their resentment for the loss of their friends be too high to endure the sight of any connected with those who were concerned in it, they sentence him to death. All those who have met with the same severe sentence being collected, the whole nation is assembled at the execution, as for some great solemnity. A scaffold is erected, and the prisoners are tied to the stake, where they commence their death-song, and prepare for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other side, are determined to put it to the proof, by the most refined and exquisite tortures. They begin at the extremity of the captive's body, and gradually approach the vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is into the bowl of a pipe made red hot, which he smoaks like tobacco; then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they pull off the flesh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they fear immediately with red-hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them successively; they tear this flesh, thus mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood in an enthusiasm of fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, whilst others are employed in pulling and extending their limbs in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours; and sometimes, such is the strength of the savages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with a variety of torture, often falls into so profound a lethargy, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his sufferings. He is again fastened to the stake, and again they renew their cruelty: they stick him all over with small matches of wood, that easily take fire, but burn slowly; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, after having burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires; after having so mangled the body that it is all one wound; after having mutilated his face in such a manner that it carries nothing human in it; after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red-hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, reels hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with

a club or dagger. The body is then put into a kettle, and this atrocious employment is succeeded by a feast as atrocious.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than furies, even outdo the men in this scene of horror; while the principal persons of the country sit round the stake, smoking and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, smokes too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there seems a contest which shall exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them, with a firmness and constancy almost incredible: not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance is perceivable; he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exasperate them to a perfect madness of rage and fury, he continues his insults even of their ignorance in the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquisite methods, and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for an Indian not to display it, as it would be for any European to suffer as an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early institution, and a ferocious thirst of glory. *I am brave and intrepid, exclaims the savage in the face of his tormentors; I fear not death, nor any kind of tortures; those who fear them are cowards; they are less than women; life is nothing to those that have courage: may my enemies be confounded with despair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the last drop!*

These circumstances of cruelty, which so exceedingly degrade human nature, ought not, however, to be omitted, because they serve to throw, in the strongest light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity the passions of men may be carried, when let loose from the government of reason, and uninfluenced by the dictates of Christianity, the only religion that teaches compassion ever to our enemies.

Nothing in the history of mankind, as I have already observed, forms a stronger contrast than this cruelty of the savages towards those with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who consist of all those who live in the same village, or are in alliance with it: among these all things are common; and this, though it may in part arise from their not possessing very distinct notions of separate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the strength of their attachment; because, in every thing else, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to serve their friends. Their houses, their provision, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a guest. Has any one of their neighbours succeeded ill in his hunting? Has his harvest failed? or is his house burned? These misfortunes are speedily compensated by the benevolence and regard of his fellow-citizens; but to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his resentment; he appears reconciled, until by some treachery or surprise he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his fury; no distance of place great enough to protect its object; he crosses the steepest mountains, he pierces the most impracticable forests, and traverses the most hideous bogs and deserts for several hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprising his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities, even to the eating of his flesh. To such extremes do the Indi-

ans push their friendship or their enmity; and such it deed, in general, is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have said respecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit observing the force of their friendship, which principally appears by the treatment of their dead. When any one of the society is cut off, he is lamented by the whole; on this occasion a thousand ceremonies are practised, denoting the most lively sorrow. Of these, the most remarkable, as it discovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order; and nothing is omitted, that it may be celebrated with the utmost formality. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be present. At this time, all who have died since the last solemn occasion (which is renewed every ten years among some tribes, and every eight among others), are taken out of their graves; those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcases.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general disinterment. I cannot describe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the most authentic account of those nations.

Without question, says he, the opening of these tombs displays one of the most striking scenes that can be conceived: this humbling portrait of human misery, in which death is painted in a thousand various shapes of horror, in the several carcases, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a sort of parchment upon their bones; some look as if they were baked and smoked, without any appearance of rottenness: some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction; whilst others are all swarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to strike us most, the horror of so shocking a sight, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deserves our admiration more than that eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderities; gathering up carefully even the smallest bones, handling the carcases, disgusting as they are with every thing loathsome, cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders through tiresome journeys of several days, without suffering any other emotions to arise than those of regret for having lost persons who were so dear to them in their lives, and so lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feast in honour of the dead; during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses which took place between them and their friends are piously called to mind. The strangers, who have come sometimes many hundred miles to be present on the occasion, join in tender condolence; and the women, by frightful shrieks, demonstrate that they are pierced with the sharpest sorrow. Then the dead bodies are carried from their respective cabins for general reinterment. A great pit is dug in the ground, and thither, at a certain time, each person, attended by his family and friends, marches in solemn silence, bearing the remains of a son, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or the dust of those which were quite corrupted, are deposited in the pit: then the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they possess most valuable is interred with the dead. The strangers are not wanting in their generosity, and confer those presents which they have brought along with them for the purpose. Then all present go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preserve with the most religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with entire new furs, and

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over these with bark, on which they throw stones, wood and earth. Then taking their last farewell, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned, that in this ceremony the savages offer, as presents to the dead, whatever they value most highly. This custom, which is universal, arises from a rude notion of the immortality of the soul. They believe this doctrine most firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the soul is separated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it still continues to hover around it, and to require and take delight in the same things with which it formerly was pleased. After a certain time, however, it forsakes this dreary mansion, and departs far westward into the land of spirits. They have even gone so far as to make a distinction between the inhabitants of the other world; some, they imagine, particularly those who in their life-time have been fortunate in war, possess a high degree of happiness, have a place for hunting and fishing, which never fails, and enjoy all sensual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The souls of those, on the contrary, who happen to be conquered or slain in war, are extremely miserable after death.

Their taste for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a strong bias to their religion. Areskou, or the god of battle, is revered as the great deity of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field; and according as his disposition is more or less favourable to them, they conclude that they shall be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun and moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods: traditions which resemble the Grecian fables, but which are more inconsistent and infinitely less agreeable. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and except when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no sort of worship. Like all rude nations, however, they are strongly addicted to superstition. They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii or spirits, who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happiness or misery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diseases proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The ministers of the genii are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These jugglers are supposed to be inspired by the good genii, most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in, and are supposed to be informed by the genii whether the patients will recover, and in what manner they must be treated. But these spirits are extremely simple in their system of physic, and in almost every disease, direct the juggler to the same remedy. The patient is inclosed in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well soaked with the warm vapour and his own sweat. Then they hurry him from the baguio, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This coarse method, which destroys many lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewise the use of some specifics of wonderful efficacy; and all the savages are dexterous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of these remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are administered.

It should be observed by the reader, that the particulars which have just been mentioned concerning the manner of the Americans, chiefly relate to the inhabitants of North America. The manners and general characteristics of great part of the original inhabitants of South America were very different. On the first appearance of the inhabitants of the New World, their discoveries found them to be in many particulars very unlike the generality of the people of the ancient hemisphere. They were different in their features and complexions; they were not

only averſe to toil, but ſeemed incapable of it; and when rouſed by force from their native indolence, and compelled to work, they ſunk under taſks which the inhabitants of the other continent would have performed with eaſe. This feebleneſs of conſtitution ſeemed almoſt univerſal among the inhabitants of South America. The Spaniards were alſo ſtruck with the ſmalneſs of their appetite for food. The conſtitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded, in their opinion, the abſtinance of the moſt mortified hermits; while, on the other hand, the appetite of the Spaniards appeared to the Americans infinitely voracious; and they affirmed, that one Spaniard devoured more food in a day than was ſufficient for ten Americans. But though the demands of the native Americans for food were very ſparing, ſo limited was their agriculture, that they hardly raiſed what was ſufficient for their own conſumption. Many of the inhabitants of South America confined their induſtry to rearing a few plants, which, in a rich and warm climate, were eaſily trained to maturity; but if a few Spaniards ſettled in any diſtrict, ſuch a ſmall addition of ſupernumerary mouths ſoon exhausted their ſcanty ſtores, and brought on a famine. The inhabitants of South, compared with thoſe of North America, are generally more feeble in their frame, leſs vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a gentle but daſtardly ſpirit, more enſlaved by pleaſure, and deeper ſunk in indolence.

#### A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF A M E R I C A.

**T**HIS great weſtern continent, frequently denominated the **NEW WORLD**, extends from the 80th degree North, to the 56th degree South latitude; and, where its breadth is known, from the 35th to the 136th degree of Weſt longitude from London; ſtretching between 8 and 9000 miles in length, and in its greateſt breadth, 3690. It poſſeſſes part of both hemiſpheres, has two ſummers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords, and is waſhed by the two great oceans. To the eaſtward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa. To the weſt it has the Pacific, or great South-Sea, by which it is ſeparated from Aſia. By theſe ſeas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is compoſed of two great continents, one on the North, the other on the South, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a fort of iſthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, ſo extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only 60 miles over. In the great gulf, which is formed between the iſthmus and the northern and ſouthern continents, lie a multitude of iſlands, many of them large, moſt of them fertile, and denominated the Weſt Indies, in contradiſtinction to the countries and iſlands of Aſia, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the Eaſt Indies.

Before we begin to treat of ſeparate countries in their order, we muſt, according to juſt method, take notice of thoſe mountains and rivers, which diſtain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. For though America in general be not a mountainous country, it has the greateſt mountains in the world\*. In South America, the Andes,

\* Dr. Robertson obſerves, that “the mountains of America are much ſuperior in height to thoſe in the other diviſions of the globe. Even the plain of Quito, which may be conſidered as the

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Andes, or Cordilleras, run from north to south along the coast of the Pacific ocean. They exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe; extending from the isthmus of Darien to the straits of Magellan, they divide the whole southern part of America, and run a length of 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length; for, though in part within the torrid zone, they are constantly covered with snow\*. In North America, which is chiefly composed of gentle ascents, or level plains, we know of no considerable mountains, except those towards the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of the American States, separating them from Canada and Louisiana, which we call the Apalachian, or Allegany mountains; if that may be considered as a mountain, which upon one side is extremely lofty, but upon the other is nearly on a level with the rest of the country.

America is, without question, that part of the globe which is best watered; and that not only for the support of life, and all the purposes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade and the intercourse of each part with the others. In North America, such is the wisdom and goodness of the Creator of the universe, those vast tracts of country, situated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immense and unknown distance from the ocean, are watered by inland seas, called the Lakes of Canada, which not only communicate with each other, but give rise to several great rivers, particularly the Mississippi, running from north to south till it falls into the gulf of Mexico, after a course, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progress the vast tribute of the Illinois, the Missouri, the Ohio, and other great rivers, not inferior to the Rhine or the Danube; and on the north, the river St. Laurence, running a contrary course from the Mississippi, till it empties itself into the ocean near Newfoundland; all of them being almost navigable to their heads, lay open the immense recesses of this great continent, and afford such an inlet for commerce, as must produce the greatest advantage, whenever the country adjacent shall come to be fully inhabited, and by an industrious and civilised people. The eastern side of North America, besides the noble rivers Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, and Potowmack, supplies several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation; hence many parts of the settlements are so advantageously intersected with navigable rivers and creeks, that the planters, without exaggeration, may be said to have each a harbour at his door.

South America is, if possible, in this respect even more fortunate. It supplies the two largest rivers in the world, the river of Amazons, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plate river. The first rising in Peru, not far from the South Sea, passes from West to East, and falls into the ocean between Brazil and Guiana, after a course of more than 3000 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata rises in the heart of the country, and having its strength gradually augmented by an accession of many powerful streams, discharges itself with such vehemence into the sea, as to make its taste fresh for many leagues from land. Besides these, there are other rivers in South America, of which the Oronoque is the most considerable.

the base of the Andes, is elevated farther above the sea than the top of the Pyrenees. This stupendous ridge of the Andes, no less remarkable for extent than elevation, rises in different places more than one third above the Pike of Teneriffe, once thought to be the highest land in the ancient hemisphere. The Andes may literally be said to hide their heads in the clouds; the storms often roll, and the thunder bursts below their summits,

which, though exposed to the rays of the sun in the centre of the torrid zone, are covered with everlasting snows."

\* Chimborazo, the highest of the Andes, is 20,608 feet; at this about 2400 feet from the summit are always covered with snow. Carazon was ascended by the French astronomers, and is said to be 15,800 feet high.

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A country, of such vast extent on each side of the equator, must necessarily have a variety of soils as well as climates. It is a treasury of Nature, producing most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and higher perfection. The gold and silver of America have supplied Europe with such immense quantities of those precious metals, that they are become much more common, so that the gold and silver of Europe now bear little proportion to the high price set upon them before the discovery of America.

This country also produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other rare stones, which, by being brought in great quantities into Europe, have also fallen in value. To these, which are chiefly the production of Spanish America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use; and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the British empire in this part of the world. Of these are the plentiful supplies of cochineal, indigo, matto, logwood, brazil, fustic, pimento, lignum vitæ, rice, ginger, cocoa, or the chocolate nut, sugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, red-wood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili, that valuable article in medicine the Jesuit's bark, mechoacan, sassafras, sarsaparilla, cassia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergrise, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the discovery of America, we were either entire strangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Asia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoese, who then engrossed the trade of the eastern world.

This continent has also a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicorns, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants; and so fertile is the soil, that many exotic productions are nourished in as great perfection as in their native ground.

Though the Indians still live in the quiet possession of many large tracts, America, so far as generally known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by three European nations, the Spaniards, English, and Portuguese. The Spaniards, as they first discovered it, have the largest and richest portion, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana in North America, to the straits of Magellan in the South Sea, except the large province of Brasil, which belongs to Portugal; for though the French and Dutch have some forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the southern continent.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America was Great Britain, who derived her claim to North America from the first discovery of that continent by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated solely to an island upon its coast. It was a long time before we made an attempt to settle this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, first shewed the way by planting a colony in the southern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his mistress, queen Elizabeth.

The French, indeed, from this period until the conclusion of the war in 1763, laid a claim to, and actually possessed Canada and Louisiana, comprehending all that extensive inland country, reaching from Hudson's Bay on the north, to Mexico and the gulf of the same name on the south; regions which all Europe could not people in the course of many ages. But no territory, however extensive, no

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empire, however boundless, could gratify the ambition of that aspiring nation; hence, under the most solemn treaties, they continued in a state of hostility, making gradual advances upon the back of our settlements, and rendering their acquisitions more secure and permanent by a chain of forts, well supplied with all the implements of war. At the same time they laboured incessantly to gain the friendship of the Indians, by various arts, even by intermarriages, and not only trained them to the use of arms, but infused into these savages the most unfavourable notions of the English. The British colonies thus hemmed in, and confined to a slip of land along the sea-coast, by an ambitious and powerful nation, the rivals of Great Britain, begun in 1755 to take the alarm. The British empire in America, yet in its infancy, was threatened with a total dissolution. The colonies, in their distress, called aloud on the mother-country. The bulwarks and the thunder of England were sent to their relief, accompanied with powerful armies, well appointed, and ably commanded. A long war succeeded, which ended gloriously for Great Britain: for after much blood was spilt, and every inch of ground bravely disputed, the French were not only driven from Canada and its dependencies, but obliged to relinquish all that part of Louisiana, lying on the east side of the Mississippi.

Thus, at an immense expence, and with the loss of many brave men, our colonies were preserved, secured, and extended so far, as to render it difficult to ascertain the precise bounds of our empire in North America, to the northern and western sides; for to the northward, it should seem that we might have extended our claims quite to the pole itself; nor did any nation seem inclined to dispute the property of this northernmost country with us. If we had chosen to take our stand upon the northern extremity, and look towards the south, we had a territory extending in that aspect, from the pole to Cape Florida in the gulf of Mexico, North lat. 25, and consequently near 4000 miles long, in a direct line; which was the more valuable, as it included the most temperate climates of this new world, and such as are best suited to British constitutions. To the westward, our boundaries reached to the nations unknown even to the native Indians of Canada. But our American dominions have been greatly abridged by the contest between the mother-country and the colonies, which, after eight years' continuance, with a great expence of treasure and blood, ended in the establishment of a new republic, styled "The Thirteen United States of America." This country is washed by the Atlantic ocean on the east, and on the south by the gulf of Mexico. We have already taken notice of the river St. Laurence, the Mississippi, the lakes of Canada, and other great bodies of water, which fertilise and enrich its northern and western boundaries, as well as the interior parts.

The multitude of islands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided among the Spaniards, English, and French. The Dutch indeed possess three or four small islands, which, in any other hands, would be of no consequence; and the Danes have one or two: but they hardly deserve to be named among the proprietors of America. France has ceded the small island of St. Bartholomew to Sweden. We shall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the north: but as Labrador, or New Britain, and the country round Hudson's Bay, with those vast regions towards the pole, are little known, we can only include within the following Table the colonies that have been formed into regular governments, which bring us to the 50th degree of north latitude.

A S U M.

A SUMMARY VIEW of the FIRST SETTLEMENTS of  
N O R T H A M E R I C A.

Names of Places.	When settled.	By whom.
Quebec	- - - 1608	By the French.
Virginia	- June 10, - 1609	By Lord de la War.
Newfoundland	- June - 1610	By governor John Guy.
New York } New Jersey }	- about - 1614	By the Dutch.
Plymouth	- - - 1620	{ By part of Mr. Robinson's congregation.
New Hampshire	- - - 1623	{ By a small English colony near the mouth of Piscataqua river.
Delaware } Pennsylvania }	- - - 1627	By the Swedes and Finns.
Massachusetts Bay	- - - 1628	By capt. John Endicott and company.
Maryland	- - - 1633	{ By lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman catholics.
Connecticut	- - - 1635	{ By Mr. Fenwick at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river.
Rhode Island	- - - 1635	{ By Mr. Roger Williams and his persecuted brethren.
New Jersey	- - - 1664	{ Granted to the duke of York by Charles II. and made a distinct government, and settled some time before this by the English.
South Carolina	- - - 1669	By governor Sale.
Pennsylvania	- - - 1682	{ By William Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
North Carolina	- about - 1728	{ Erected into a separate government, settled before by the English.
Georgia	- - - 1732	By general Oglethorpe.
Kentucky	- - - 1773	By col. Daniel Boone.
Vermont	- - - 1777	{ By emigrants from Connecticut and other parts of New-England.
Territory N. W. of } Ohio river }	- - - 1787	By the Ohio and other companies.

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The Grand Divisions of NORTH AMERICA.

Colonies.	Length	Breadth	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns.	Dist. and bear. from London.	Belongs to
New Britain	850	750	318,750			Great Britain
Province of Quebec	600	200	100,000	Quebec		Ditto
New Scotland	350	250	57,000	Halifax		Ditto
New Brunfw. }				Shelburne		
New England	550	200	87,000	Boston	2760 W.	United States
New York	300	150	24,000	New York		Ditto
New Jerky	160	60	10,000	Perth Amboy		Ditto
Pennsylvania	300	240	15,000	Philadelphia		Ditto
Maryland	140	135	12,000	Annapolis		Ditto
Virginia	750	240	80,000	Williamsburgh		Ditto
North Carolina	700	380	110,000	Edenton		Ditto
South Carolina				Charles-town		Ditto
Georgia				Savannah		Ditto
East Florida	500	440	100,000	St. Augustine		Spain
West Florida }				Pensacola		Ditto
Louisiana	1200	645	516,000	New Orleans	4880 S. W.	Ditto
New Mexico and California	2000	1000	600,000	St. Fee	4420 S. W.	Ditto
Mexico, or New Spain				St. Juan		Ditto
	2000	600	318,000	Mexico	4900 S. W.	Ditto

The United States ————— 238,000 Sq. Miles.  
 BRITISH POSSESSIONS in { Province of Quebec, Nova Scotia, }  
 NORTH AMERICA, { and New Brunswick — } 157,000 Sq. Miles.

Grand Divisions of SOUTH AMERICA.

Nations.	Length	Bread.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bear. from London.	Belongs to
Terra Firma	1400	700	700,000	Panama	4650 S. W.	Spain
Peru	1800	600	970,000	Lima	5520 S. W.	Ditto
Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 960 B.						
Guiana	780	480	250,000	Surinam	3840 S. W.	Dutch
				Cayenne		French
Brazil	2500	700	940,000	S. Sebastian	6000 S. W.	Portugal
Parag. or La Plata	1500	1000	1,000,000	Puen. Ayres	6040 S. W.	Spain
Chili	1200	500	206,000	St. Jago	6000 S. W.	Spain
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia	1400	460	325,000	The Spaniards took possession of it, but did not think it worth while to settle there.		

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The principal ISLANDS of NORTH AMERICA belonging to the EUROPEANS are,

	Islands.	Length	Bread.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Belongs to
In the Gulf of St. Laur.	Newfoundland	350	200	35,500	Placentia	Great Britain
	Cape Breton	110	80	4,000	Louisburg	Ditto
	St. John's	60	30	500	Charlotte-Town	Ditto
	The Bermuda Isles	20,000 acres		40	St. George	Ditto
	The Bahama Isles	very numerous			Nassau	Ditto
	Jamaica	140	60	6,000	Kingston	Ditto
	Barbadoes	21	14	140	Bridgetown	Ditto
	St. Christopher's	20	7	80	Basse-terre	Ditto
	Antigua	20	20	100	St. John's	Ditto
	Nevis and Montserrat	each of these is 18 circum.			Charles-Town Plymouth	Ditto Ditto
In the Atlantic, between North and South America.	Barbuda	20	12	60		Ditto
	Anguilla	30	10	60		Ditto
	Dominica	28	13	150		Ditto
	St. Vincent	24	18	150	Kingston	Ditto
	Granada	30	15	150	St. George's	Ditto
	Cuba	700	90	38,400	Havannah	Spain
	Hispaniola, or St. Domingo	450	150	36,300	St. Domingo	Do. and France *
	Porto Rico	100	49	3,200	Porto Rico	Spain
	Trinidad	90	60	2,897	St. Joseph	Ditto
	Margarita	40	24	624		Ditto
	Martinico	60	30	300	St. Peter's	France *
	Guadaloupe	45	38	250	Basse-terre	Ditto *
	St. Lucia	23	12	90		Ditto *
	Tobago	32	9	108		Ditto
	St. Bartholomew, Defenda, and Marigalanta	all of them inconsiderable				Ditto † Ditto
	St. Eustatia	20 circum.			The Bay	Dutch
	Curasson	30	10	342		Ditto
	St. Thomas	15 circum.				Denmark
	St. Croix	30	10		Basse End	Ditto

BRITISH ISLANDS in NORTH AMERICA and the WEST INDIES, - 46,930 Square Miles.

\* In the present war with France (1795) some of these islands, and parts of others, have repeatedly changed their masters. But as the events of war are uncertain, it is impossible to ascertain with a

precision to whom they belong, until the termination of hostilities.

† Lately ceded to Sweden by France.

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SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 850	} between { 50 and 70 north latitude.	} 318,750.
Breadth 750		

**N**EW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudſon's Bay, and commonly called the country of the Eſquimaux, comprehending Labrador, now North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands, and frozen ſeas, about the pole, on the North; by the Atlantic ocean, on the Eaſt; by the Bay and river of St. Laurence, and Canada, on the South; and by unknown lands on the Weſt.

**MOUNTAINS.]** The tremendous high mountains in this country towards the north, their being covered with eternal ſnow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occaſion a degree of cold in the winter, over all this country, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the ſame latitude.

**RIVERS, BAYS, STRAITS, AND CAIES }** Theſe are numerous, and take their names generally from the Engliſh navigators and commanders by whom they were diſcovered; the principal bay is that of Hudſon, which includes ſeveral others; the principal ſtraits are thoſe of Hudſon, Davis, and Belleſle; and the chief rivers are the Mooſe, Severn, Rupert, Nelſon, and Black River.

**SOIL AND PRODUCE.]** This country is extremely barren; to the northward of Hudſon's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is ſeen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth is incapable of any better production than ſome miſerable ſhrubs. Every kind of European ſeed, committed to the earth in this inhospitable climate, has hitherto periſhed; but perhaps the ſeed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway might be more congenial to the climate. All this ſeverity, and long continuance of winter, and the conſequent barrenneſs of the earth, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-two; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

**ANIMALS.]** Theſe are the mooſe deer, ſtags, rein deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, ſquirrels, ermins, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind they have geese, buſtards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fiſh, there are whales, morſes, ſeals, cod-fiſh, and a white fiſh preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and freſh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at Port Nelſon, in one ſeaſon, ninety thouſand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five thouſand hares.

All the animals of theſe countries are clothed with a cloſe, ſoft, warm fur. In ſummer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the ſeveral animals: when that ſeaſon is over, which holds only for three months, they all aſſume the livery of winter, and every ſort of beaſts, and moſt of their fowls, are of the colour of the ſnow; every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a ſurpriſing phenomenon. But what is yet more ſurpriſing, and what ought to draw the moſt inattentive to an admiration of the wiſdom and goodneſs of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from England that have been carried into Hudſon's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, ſofter, and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.

Before we advance farther in the description of America, it may be proper to observe in general, that all the quadrupeds of this new world are less than those of the old; even such as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never seen to improve. If, with respect to size, we should compare the animals of the new and the old world, we shall find the former greatly inferior to the latter. The Asiatic elephant, for instance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurette, one of the largest natives of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which some also call the American camel, is still less. Their beasts of prey are quite divested of that courage, which is so often fatal to man in Africa or Asia. They have no lions, nor, properly speaking, either leopard, or tyger. Travellers, however, have affixed those names to such ravenous animals as are there found most to resemble those of the ancient continent. The conjar, the taquar, and the taquaretti among them, are despicable in comparison of the tyger, the leopard, and the panther of Asia. The tyger of Bengal has been known to measure six feet in length, without including the tail; while the congar, or American tyger, as some affect to call it, seldom exceeds three. All the animals therefore in the southern parts of America, are different from those in the southern part of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but those which, being able to bear the colds of the North, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rein-deer, the stag, and the beaver, are known as well in New Britain and Canada as in Russia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tyger, which are natives of the south with us, are utterly unknown in South America. But if the quadrupeds of America be smaller than those of the ancient continent, they are much more numerous; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wisdom of the author of it, that the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. The goat, exported from Europe to Southern America, in a few generations, becomes much less; but then it also becomes more prolific, and instead of one kid at a time, or two at the most, generally produces five, six, and sometimes more. The wisdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious: had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the same degree of fecundity with the rabbit or the rat, all the arts of man would soon be unequal to the contest, and we should soon perceive them to become the tyrants of those who call themselves the masters of the creation.

**PERSONS AND HABITS.]** The men of this country shew great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in clothing themselves, and in preserving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every where surrounds them for the greatest part of the year; in other respects they are very savage. They are of a tawny complexion, and lead a vagrant life, moving from place to place, spending their time in hunting and fishing. In their shapes and faces they do not resemble the Americans who live to the southward; they are much more like the Laplanders and the Samocids of Europe already described, from whom they are probably descended. These on the coast appear to be peaceable and inoffensive, and are dexterous in managing their kials or boats. The other Americans seem to be of a Tartar original.

**DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.]** The knowledge of these northern seas and countries was owing to a project started in England for the discovery of a north-west passage to China and the East Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of discovery, it seems manifest that no practicable passage ever can be found. Frobisher only discovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coasts; but he

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seems never to have entered the bay. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure, the first in 1607, the second in 1608, and his third and last in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the straits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half, into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the discovery not being abated by the difficulties he struggled with in this empire of winter, he staid here until the ensuing spring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized upon him and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy seas, in an open boat. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhospitable coast, were destroyed by the savages; but the ship and the rest of the men returned home.

Other attempts towards a discovery were made in 1612 and 1667; and a patent for planting the country, with a charter for a company, was obtained in the year 1670. In 1746 captain Ellis wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half, and captain Christopher attempted farther discoveries in 1761. But besides these voyages, which satisfy us that we must not look for a passage on this side of the latitude 67 degrees North, we are indebted to the Hudson's Bay Company for a journey by land; which throws much additional light on this matter, by affording what may be called demonstration, how much farther North, at least in some parts of their voyage, ships must go, before they can pass from one side of America to the other. The northern Indians, who come down to the Company's factories to trade, had brought to the knowledge of our people a river, which, on account of much copper being found near it, had obtained the name of the Copper-mine river. The Company, being desirous of examining into this matter with precision, directed Mr. Hearne, a young gentleman in their service, and who having been brought up for the navy, and served in it the war before last, was extremely well qualified for the purpose, to proceed over land, under the convoy of those Indians, for that river, which he had orders to survey, if possible, quite down to its exit into the sea; to make observations for fixing the latitudes and longitudes; and to bring home maps and drawings, both of it and the countries through which he should pass.

Accordingly Mr. Hearne set out from Prince of Wales's Fort, on Churchill river, latitude  $53^{\circ} 47'$  North, and longitude  $94^{\circ} 7'$  West from Greenwich, on the 7th of December, 1770. Mr. Hearne on the 13th of June reached the Copper-mine river, and found it all the way, even to its exit into the sea, incumbered with shoals and falls, and emptying itself into it over a dry flat of the shore, the tide being then out, which seemed, by the edges of the ice, to rise about 12 or 14 feet. This rise, on account of the falls, carries the sea but a very small way within the river's mouth, so that the water in it had not the least brackish taste. Mr. Hearne is, nevertheless, sure that it empties itself into the sea, or a branch of it, by the quantity of whale-bone and seal skins which the Esquimaux had at their tents; and also by the number of seals which he saw upon the ice. The sea, at the river's mouth, was full of islands and shoals, as far as he could see, by the assistance of a pocket telescope; and the ice was not yet (July 17th) broken up, but thawed away only for about three quarters of a mile from the shore, and for a little way round the islands and shoals. But he had the most extensive view of the sea when he was about eight miles up the river, from which station the extreme parts of it bore N. W. by W. and N. E.

By the time Mr. Hearne had finished his survey of the river, which was about one o'clock in the morning on the 18th, there came on a very thick fog and drizzling rain; and as he had found the river and sea, in every respect, unlikely to be of

any utility, he thought it unnecessary to wait for fair weather, to determine the latitude more exactly by observation; but by the extraordinary care he took in observing the courses and distances, he walked from *Congecathawachaga*, where he had two very good observations, and thinks the latitude may be depended on within 20' at the utmost. It appears from the map which Mr. Hearne constructed of this singular journey, that the mouth of the Copper-mine river lies in latitude 72° N. and longitude 25° W. from Churchill river; that is, about 119° W. of Greenwich. Mr. Hearne's journey back from the Copper-mine river to Churchill lasted till June 30th, 1772; so that he was absent almost a year and seven months.

The consequences resulting from this extensive discovery are obvious. We now see that the continent of North America stretches from Hudson's Bay, so far to the North-West, that Mr. Hearne travelled near 1300 miles before he arrived at the sea; and that the whole of his track to the northward of 61° of North latitude, lay near 600 miles due West of the western coast of Hudson's Bay, at the same time that his Indian guides were well aware of a vast tract of land, stretching farther in the same direction. Futile, therefore, are the arguments of those, who, about 40 years ago, pleaded for a North-west passage through Hudson's Bay.

Though the adventurers failed in the original purpose for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to this country. The vast territories which surround Hudson's Bay, as we have already observed, abound with animals, whose fur and skins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not consist of above nine or ten persons, for the exclusive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever since with great benefit to themselves. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this exclusive company, whose interested, not to say iniquitous spirit has been the subject of long and just complaint. The company employ four ships, and 130 seamen. They have several forts, viz. Prince of Wales's fort, Churchill river, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay, and are garrisoned by 186 men. The French, in May 1782, took and destroyed these forts, and the settlements, &c. valued at 500,000*l.* They export commodities to the value of 16,000*l.* and bring home returns to the value of 29,340*l.* which yield to the revenue 3,734*l.* This includes the fishery in Hudson's Bay. This commerce, small as it is, affords great profits to the company, and is advantageous to Great Britain in general; for the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their skins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, those things are sent, of which we have the greatest plenty, and which, in the mercantile phrase, are drugs with us. Though the workmanship too happens to be in many respects so deficient, that no civilised people would take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the skins and furs we bring from Hudson's Bay, enter largely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for a lucrative trade with many nations of Europe. These circumstances tend to prove incontestably the immense benefit that would redound to Great Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudson's Bay, since even in its present restrained state it is so advantageous. The exclusive company, it is probable, do not find their commerce so advantageous now, as it was before we got possession of Canada. The only attempt made to trade with Labrador, has been directed towards the fishery. Great Britain has no settlement here, though the annual produce of the fishery, amounting to upwards of 49,000*l.* and the natural advantages of the country, strongly encourage such a design.

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## CANADA, or the PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	600	between	{ 61 and 81 west longitude. 45 and 52 north latitude. }	100,000.
Breadth	200			

**BOUNDARIES.]** THE French comprehended, under the name of Canada, a very large territory, taking into their claim part of Nova 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 had been able to cultivate, and which bore the face of a colony, lay chiefly upon the banks of the river St. Laurence, and the numerous small rivers falling into that stream. This being reduced by the British arms in the war of 1756, was formed into a British colony, called the Province of Quebec, which is now bounded by New Britain and Hudson's Bay on the North and East; by Nova Scotia, New England, and New York, on the South, and by unknown lands on the West.

**AIR AND CLIMATE.]** The climate of this extensive province is not very different from the colonies mentioned above; but as it is much farther from the sea and more northerly than a great part of these provinces, it has a much severer winter, though the air is generally clear; yet, like most of the American tracts that do not lie too far to the northward, the summers are exceedingly pleasant.

**SOIL AND PRODUCE.]** Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the soil is in general very good, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other sorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well and is much cultivated. The Isle of Orleans near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Laurence and other rivers, are highly fertile. The meadow-grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of British America, and as Canada is upon the back of the United States, and contains almost all the different species of wood and animals that are found in these colonies, we shall, to avoid repetition, speak of them here at some length.

**TIMBER AND PLANTS.]** The uncultivated parts of North America contain the greatest forests in the world. They are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and spreading in all the wild luxuriance of nature. The trees lose themselves in the clouds; and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that even among those persons who have taken most pains to describe them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are describing produces, amongst others, two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar, and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three sorts of ash-trees, the free, the mongrel, and the ballard; three sorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty persons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they sew together with the inner rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter resembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till

till April. Here are also found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infused in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called *alaco*, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton tree, on the top of which grow several tufts of flowers, which, when shaken in the morning, before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into sugar, the seed being a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the sun-plant, which resembles a marigold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire, and the hop-plant.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine; and in some of the mountains, we are told, silver has been found, though we have not heard any great advantage made of it as yet. This country also abounds with coals.

[RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold, and deep. The principal are the Outtauais, St. John's, Seguinay, Desprairies, and Trois Rivieres; but they are all swallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river issues from the lake Ontario, and, taking its course north-east, washes Montreal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile islands. It continues the same course, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, where it is navigable for large vessels; and below Quebec, 320 miles from the sea, it becomes broad, and so deep, that ships of the line contributed, in the last war, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progress innumerable streams, this great river falls into the ocean at Cape Rosieres, where it is 90 miles broad, and where the cold is intense, and the sea boisterous. In its progress it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and islands, many of them fruitful, and extremely pleasant.

[LAKES.] The great river St. Laurence is that only upon which the French (now subjects of Great Britain) have considerable settlements; but if we look forward into futurity, it is not improbable that Canada, and those vast regions to the west, will be enabled of themselves to carry on a considerable trade upon the great lakes of fresh water, which these countries environ. Here are five lakes, the smallest of which is a piece of sweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not less than 200 leagues in circumference; Erie, or Oswego, longer, but not so broad, is about the same extent. That of the Huron spreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not less than 300, as is that of Michigan, though, like the lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains several large islands, is 500 leagues in circuit. All of these are navigable by any vessels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a stupendous fall or cataract, which is called the Falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock crosses it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes, to the perpendicular fall, which is 120 feet, no words can express the contemplation of travellers at seeing so great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from so great a height, upon the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing as white as snow, being *not* converted into foam, through those violent agitations. The noise of this fall is often heard at the distance of 15 miles, and sometimes much farther. The vapour arising from the fall may sometimes be seen at a great distance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of smoke, and in the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the sun and the position of the traveller favours. Many boats and bows here lose their lives, by attempting to swim, or cross the stream in the rapids above the fall, and are found dashed in pieces below; and sometimes the Indians, through carelessness or drunkenness, have met with the same fate; and per-

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haps no place in the world is frequented by such a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Lawrence, as we have already observed, is the outlet of these lakes; by this they discharge themselves into the ocean. The French, when in possession of the province, built forts at the several straits, by which these lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the last of them communicates with the river. By these they effectually secured to themselves the trade of the lakes, and an influence over all the nations of America which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] These make the most curious, and hitherto the most interesting part of the natural history of Canada. It is to the spoils of these that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and most of the commerce as yet carried on between us and that province. The animals that find shelter and nourishment in the immense forests of Canada, and which indeed traverse the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, squirrels of a large size and greyish hue, hares, and rabbits. The southern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a small size, divers sorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, swarm with otters, beavers or castors, of which the white are highly valued, being scarce, as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though resembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the most curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs sixty or seventy pounds; they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The savages, who waged continual war with this animal, believed it to be a rational creature, that it lived in society, and was governed by a leader, resembling their own sachem or prince. It must indeed be allowed, that the accounts given of this animal by travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to serve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and severity of it, are sufficient to shew the near approaches of instinct to reason, and even in some instances the superiority of the former. They are of different colours; black, brown, white, yellow, and straw-colour; but it is observed, that those of lighter colour are clothed with a less quantity of fur, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the skin before it is applied to any use; the green are the furs, that are worn, after being sewed to one another, by the Indians, who besmear them with unctuous substances, which not only render them more pliable, but give to the fine down, that is manufactured into hats, that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and English have of late found the secret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and stockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Besides the fur, this useful animal produces the true castoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the testicles: the value of this drug is well known. The flesh of the beaver is a most delicious food, except when boiled. It has then a disagreeable flavour.

The musk rat is a diminutive kind of a beaver (weighing about five or six pounds), which it resembles in every thing but its tail; and it affords a very strong musk.

The elk is of the size of a horse or mule. Its flesh is very agreeable and nourishing, and its colour a mixture of light-grey and dark-red. They love the cold countries; and when the winter affords them no grass, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he sometimes springs

springs furiously on his pursuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his cloaths to him, and while the deluded animal spends his fury on these, he takes proper measures to dispatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail so long, that Charlevoix says he twisted it several times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the snout to the tail. It is said, that this animal, winding himself about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twisting his strong tail round his body, and cut his throat in a moment.

The buffalo, a kind of wild ox, has much the same appearance with those of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly esteemed. The flesh of the female is very good; and the buffalo hides are soft and pliable as chamois leather, but so very strong, that the bucklers which the Indians make use of are hardly penetrable by a musket ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domestic animal. 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 upon water-fowls, which they decoy by a thousand antic tricks, and then spring upon, and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat has a most beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the smell of which is intolerably nauseous; this, when attacked, it sprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the assailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful silver colour, with a bushy tail, and twice as big as the European: the female carries under her belly a bag, which she opens and shuts at pleasure; and in that she places her young when pursued. Here are three sorts of squirrels; that called the flying-squirrel will leap forty paces and more, from one tree to another. This little animal is easily tamed, and is very lively; he puts up wherever he can find a place, in one's sleeve, pocket, or muff; he first pitches on his master, whom he will distinguish among twenty persons. The Canadian porcupine roasted tastes full as well as a sucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from those in Europe, only they turn grey in winter. There are two sorts of bears here, one of a reddish, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the most dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unless when wounded, or oppressed with hunger. They run themselves very poor in the month of July, when it is somewhat dangerous to meet them; and they are said to support themselves during the winter, when the snow lies from four to six feet deep, by sucking their paws. Scarcely any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater solemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one day, is more eagerly sought after than that of one who has rendered himself famous in war. The reason is, because this chase supplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goshawks, tercols, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they spread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance: woodcocks are scarce in Canada, but snipes, and other water-game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is said by some writers to rattle as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, swallows, and larks; no less than twenty-two different species of ducks, and a great number of geans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but always at a distance from habitations. The Canadian wood-pecker is a beautiful bird. Thrushes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird

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of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very showy, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring. The fly-bird, called also the humming-bird, is thought to be the most beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chaffer, and he makes a noise with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-snake only deserves attention. Some of these are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is most remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is scaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is said there grows every year one ring, or row of scales; so that they know its age by its tail, as we do that of a horse by its teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noise, from which it has its name. The bite of this serpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant, which is called rattle-snake herb, the root of which (such is the goodness of Providence) is a certain antidote against the venom of this serpent, and that with the most simple preparation, for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaster to the wound. The rattle-snake seldom bites passengers, unless it is provoked; and never darts itself at any person without first rattling three times with its tail. When pursued, if it has but little time to recover, it folds itself round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itself with great fury and violence against its pursuers: nevertheless, the savages chase it, and find its flesh very good; it also possesses medicinal qualities.

Some writers are of opinion that the fisheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Laurence contains the greatest variety of fish of any in the world, and these in the greatest plenty and of the best sorts.

Among innumerable others, in the rivers and lakes, are sea-wolves, sea-cows, porpoises, the lencorner, the goberque, the sea-plaife, salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, the chaourou, sturgeon, the achigan; the gilthead, tunny, trout, turtle, prey, snells, conger-eels, mackrel, soals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The sea-wolf, so called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largest are said to weigh two thousand pounds; their flesh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning, and currying of leather; their skins make excellent coverings for trunks; and, though not so fine as Morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less liable to cracks. The shoes and boots made of those skins let in no water, and when properly tanned, make excellent and lasting covers for seats. The Canadian sea-cow is larger than the sea-wolf, but resembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickness and length of a man's arm, which, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory, as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoises of the river St. Laurence are said to yield a hoghead of oil; and of their skins waistcoats are made, which are musket proof. The lencorner is a kind of cuttle-fish, quite round, or rather oval; there are three sorts of them, which differ only in size; some being as large as a hoghead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the last, and that with a torch; they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taste and smell of a small cod. The sea-plaife is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaourou is an armed fish, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, resembling a pike; but is covered with scales that are proof against a dagger. its colour is a silver grey; and there grows under his mouth a long bony substance, ragged at the edges. One may readily conceive, that an animal so well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have few instances of fish making prey of the feathered creation, which this fish does, however, with much art. He conceals himself among the canes and reeds, and in such a manner that nothing is to

he seen besides his weapon, which he holds raised perpendicularly above the surface of the water: the fowls, which come to take rest, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it; but they are no sooner alighted, than the fish opens his throat, and makes such a sudden motion to seize his prey, that it seldom escapes him. This fish is an inhabitant of the lakes. The sturgeon is both a fresh and salt water fish, taken on the coasts of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a small kind of sturgeon, the flesh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fish peculiar to the river St. Laurence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from those of the Nile.

[INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the late war, the banks of the river St. Laurence, above Quebec, were vastly populous; but we cannot precisely determine the number of French and English settled in this province, who are undoubtedly upon the increase. In the year 1783, Canada and Labrador were supposed to contain about 130,000 inhabitants\*. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almost innumerable; but these people are observed to decrease in population where the Europeans are most numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate use of spirituous liquors, of which they are excessively fond. But as liberty is the ruling passion of the Indians, we may naturally suppose, that, as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more distant regions.

Quebec, the capital, not only of this province, but of all Canada, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the sea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble and partly of slate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houses in both are of stone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are strong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor resides. The number of inhabitants are computed at about 15,000. The river, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a sudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies opposite to the town, is safe and commodious, and about five fathom deep. The harbour is flanked by two bastions, that are raised 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in sailing up the river St. Laurence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way; several gentlemen's houses, neatly built, shew themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well-settled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters live wholly within themselves. Many beautiful islands are interspersed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After passing the Richieu islands, the air becomes so mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himself transported to another climate; but this is to be understood in the summer months.

The town, called Trois Rivières, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Laurence. It is much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who, by means of these rivers, come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The country is pleasant, and

\* In 1784, general Haldimand ordered a census of the inhabitants to be taken, when they amounted to 113,012 English and French, exclusive of 10,000 loyalists settled in the upper parts of the province.

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fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handsome houses stand on both sides the rivers.

Montreal stands on an island in the river St. Laurence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the south shore. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island was become a most delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well-formed streets; and when taken by the English, the houses were built in a very handsome manner; and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the southernmost side of the river, as the hill, on the side of which the town stands, falls gradually to the water. This place is surrounded by a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but since it fell into the hands of the English, it hath suffered much by fires.

GOVERNMENT.] Before the late war, the French lived in idleness, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fish, fell timber, and to sow and plant as much land as they could cultivate: and by the capitulation granted to them when their country was reduced, both individuals and communities were entitled to their ancient privileges.

It was enacted by parliament in the year 1774, that it should be lawful for his majesty, with the advice of his privy-council, to constitute and appoint a council for the affairs of the province of Quebec, to consist of such persons resident there, not exceeding twenty-three, nor less than seventeen, as his majesty might be pleased to name; and upon the death, removal, or absence of any of the members of the said council, in like manner to appoint others to succeed them. And this council, so nominated, or the majority of them, are vested with authority to make ordinances for the peace, welfare, and good government of the province, with the consent of the governor, or, in his absence, of the lieutenant-governor, or commander in chief for the time being. The council, however, are not impowered to lay taxes, except for the purpose of making roads, reparation of public buildings, or such local conveniences. By this act, all matters of controversy relative to property and civil rights are to be determined by the French laws of Canada; but the criminal law of England is to have force in the province. The inhabitants of Canada are also allowed by this act not only to profess the Romish religion, but the Popish clergy are invested with a right to claim their accustomed dues from those of the same religion.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] By expelling the French from the back of our then settlements, we secured them from the danger of being molested or attacked by an active and formidable enemy, and enabled our people to attend, with proper spirit and industry, to agriculture, and the improvements of that country. While the important conquest of Canada removed a rival power from that part of North America, it put us in the sole possession of the fur and peltry trade, the use and importance of which are well known to the manufacturers of Great Britain.

The nature of the climate, severely cold in winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, shews what Canada principally wants from Europe; wine, or rather rum, cloths, chiefly coarse linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a sort of duffel blankets, guns, powder, balls and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was possessed by the French, the Indians supplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traversed the vast lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible industry and patience.

carrying their goods into the remotest parts of America, and among nations entirely unknown to us. These again brought the market home to them, as the Indians were thereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpose, people from all parts, even from the distance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and sometimes lasted three months. On this occasion, many solemnities were observed, guards were placed, and the governor attended to preserve order, in such a concourse, and with so great a variety of savage nations. But sometimes great disorder and tumults happened; and the Indians, being fond of brandy, frequently gave for a dram all they were possessed of. It is remarkable, that many of these nations actually passed by our settlement of Albany in New York, and travelled 250 miles farther to Montreal, though they might have purchased the goods cheaper at the former. So much did the French excel us in the arts of winning the affections of these savages!

Since we became possessed of Canada, our trade with that country is computed to employ about 60 ships and 1000 seamen. Their exports, in skins, furs, ginseng, snake-root, capillaire, and wheat, in the year 1786, were 343,263l. The amount of imports the same year was 325,116l. It is unnecessary to make any remarks on the value and importance of this trade, which not only supplies us with unmanufactured materials, indispensably necessary in many articles of our commerce, but also takes in exchange the manufactures of our own country, or the productions of our other settlements in the East and West Indies.

But whatever attention be paid to the trade and peopling of Canada, it will be impossible to overcome certain inconveniences, proceeding from natural causes, viz. the severity of the winter, which is so excessive from December to April, that the greatest rivers are frozen over, and the snow lies commonly from four to six feet deep on the ground, even in those parts of the country which are three degrees south of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience arises from the falls in the river St. Laurence, below Montreal, which render it difficult for very large ships to penetrate to that emporium of inland commerce; but vessels from 300 to 400 tons arrive there annually. Our communication therefore with Canada, and the immense regions beyond it, will always be interrupted during the winter season, until roads are formed, that can be travelled with safety. For it may be here observed, that the Indians often commence hostilities against us, without any provocation, and commit the most horrid ravages. But when at last their barbarities have roused the strength of our people, they are not ashamed to beg a peace: they know we always grant it readily; they promise it shall endure as long as the sun and moon; and then all is quiet till some incident, too often co-operating with ill usage received from our traders, gives them a fresh opportunity of renewing their cruelties.

HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

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## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 350 } Breadth 250 }	between { 43 and 49 north latitude. 60 and 67 west longitude. }	57,000.

**BOUNDARIES.]** BOUNDED by the river St. Laurence on the North; by the Gulf of St. Laurence, and the Atlantic ocean, East; by the same ocean, South; and by Canada and New England, West. In the year 1784, this province was divided into *two governments*.

The province and government, now styled **NEW BRUNSWICK**, is bounded on the westward of the mouth of the river St. Croix, by that river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of the province of Quebec; to the northward by that boundary as far as the western extremity of the Bay de Chaleurs; to the eastward by the said bay to the gulf of St. Laurence to the bay called Bay Verte; to the south by a line in the centre of the Bay of Fundy, from the river St. Croix 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.

**RIVERS.]** The river of St. Laurence forms the northern boundary. The rivers, Rigouche and Nipisiguit run from west to east, and fall into the bay of St. Laurence. The rivers of St. John, Passamagnadi, Penobscot, and St. Croix, which run from north to south, fall into Fundy Bay, or the sea a little to the eastward of it.

**SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.]** The seas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic ocean, Fundy Bay, and the gulf of St. Laurence. The lesser bays are, Chanigto and Green Bay upon the isthmus, which joins the north part of Nova Scotia to the south; and the Bay of Chaleurs on the north-east; the bay of Chedibucto on the south-east; the Bay of the Islands, the ports of Bart, Chebucto, Prosper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Maltois, port Rossignol, port Vert, and port Joly, on the south; port La Tour, on the south-east; port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas, on the south side of Fundy Bay, and port Roseway, now the most populous of all.

The chief capes are, Cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Cape Port and Epis, on the east. Cape Fogeri, and Cape Cancau, on the south-east. Cape Blanco, Cape Vert, Cape Theodore, Cape Dore, Cape La Heve, and Cape Negro, on the south. Cape Sable, and Cape Fourche, on the south-west.

**LAKES.]** The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

**CLIMATE.]** The climate of this country, though within the temperate zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European constitutions. They are wrapt up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year: and for four or five months it is intensely cold. But though the cold in winter and the heat in summer are great, they come on gradually, so as to prepare the body for enduring both.

**SOIL AND PRODUCE.]** From such an unfavourable climate, little can be expected. Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, was, till lately, almost a continued forest; and agriculture, though attempted by the English settlers, has hitherto made little progress.

grafs. In most parts the soil is thin and barren, the corn it produces, of a shrivelled kind like rye, and the grafs intermixed with a cold spongy moss. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninsula to the southward, which do not yield to the best land in New England; and, in general, the soil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ship-building, and produces pitch and tar. Flattering accounts have been given of the improvements making in the new settlements on the Bay of Fundy. A great quantity of land hath been cleared which abounds in timber, and ship-loads of excellent masts and spars have been shipped for England.

ANIMALS.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl, and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupeds, have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the close of March, the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in such shoals as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the surgeon and salmon in May. But the most valuable appendage of New Scotland is the Cape Sable coast, along which is one continued range of cod-fishing banks, and excellent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } Notwithstanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made. The first grant of lands in it was given by James I. to his secretary sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then, it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English nation backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the English till the peace of Utrecht; and their design in acquiring it does not seem to have so much arisen from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehension that the French, by possessing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other settlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were transported in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country. The town they erected is called Halifax, from the earl of that name, to whose wisdom and care we owe this settlement. The town of Halifax stands upon Chebucto Bay, very commodiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with most parts of the province, either by land carriage, the sea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war lies during the winter, and in summer puts to sea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fishery. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber. Three regiments of men are stationed in it to protect the inhabitants from the Indians, whose resentment, however excited or fomented, has been found implacable against the English. The number of inhabitants is said to be 15 or 16,000, who live very comfortably by the trade they carry on in furs and naval stores, by their fisheries, and by supplying the wants of the governor and the garrison already mentioned.

The other towns of less note are Annapolis Royal, which stands on the east side of the bay of Fundy, and though but a small wretched place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the finest harbours in America, capable of containing a thousand vessels at anchor, in the utmost security. This place is also protected by a fort and garrison. St. John's is a new settlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the bay of Fundy on the west side. Since the conclusion of the American war, the emigration of loyalists to this province, from the United States, hath been very great. By them new towns have been raised, but particularly at Port Roseway, where is now a city named Shelburne, which extends two miles on the water side, and one mile back, with wide streets crossing each other

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other at right angles. It is said to have above 9000 inhabitants, exclusive of what is styled the Black Town (containing 1200 free blacks\*, who served on the royal side during the war), which stands about a mile from Shelburne, and separated from it by a small fresh-water river. The harbour here is deep, capacious, and secure, and the tide hath a great rise and fall.

Of the old settlements, the most flourishing and populous are Halifax, and the townships of Windsor, Norton, and Cornwallis, between Halifax and Annapolis. Of the new settlements, the most important are Shelburne, Parr-town, Digby and new Edinburgh. But recent accounts of these settlements represent them in a declining state, great numbers of the houses in the new towns being uninhabited, and considerably reduced in value.

The exports from Great Britain to this country consist chiefly of woollen and linen cloth, and other necessaries for wear, of fishing tackle, and rigging for ships. The amount of our exports, at an average of three years, before the new settlements, was about 26,500*l*. The only articles we can get in exchange are timber, and the produce of the fishery, which, at a like average, amounts to 38,000*l*. But from the late increase of inhabitants, it is supposed that they will now erect saw-mills, and endeavour to supply the West India islands with lumber of every kind, as well as with the produce of the fishery, which will be a profitable article to both countries. The whole population of Nova Scotia and the islands adjoining is estimated at 50,000; but this is thought to be considerably too large.

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## UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

**O**F the rise, progress, and most remarkable events of the war between Great Britain and her American colonies, abetted by France, which at length terminated in the establishment of the "United States of America," we have already given an account, in our view of the principal transactions in the history of Great Britain. It was on the 4th of July, 1776, that the congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority, of the inhabitants of the united colonies of New-Hampshire, Massachusetts-Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia, they declared, that they then were, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States; and that, as such, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts which independent states

\* When the act of parliament had passed for incorporating the Sierra Leone company, and a considerable capital in 1791 appeared likely to be raised for carrying on the undertaking, a delegate from a body of Nova Scotia blacks was then in England, who represented that the persons who sent him thither had migrated to Nova Scotia at the end of the American war, having received from government certain promises of lots of land, which had never been strictly fulfilled; that both the soil and the climate of Nova Scotia, as well as many other circumstances in their situation, were

complained of by them, and that many of them were desirous of becoming colonists at the settlement which they understood was likely to be made at Sierra Leone. In consequence of the directors approving of this petition, and obtaining the approbation of the British government, the number of Nova-Scotians who were willing to embark for Sierra Leone proved to be no less than 1196; of which number 1131 arrived in 16 vessels, in March, 1792; the remaining 65 died during the passage.—Report of the Sierra Leone Company, by Henry Thornton, Esquire.

may.

may of right do. They also published Articles of Confederation, and perpetual Union, between the colonies, in which they assumed the title of "The United States of America;" and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendship for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themselves to assist each other against all violence that might threaten all or any one of them, and to repel, in common, all the attacks that might be levelled against all or any one of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatsoever. Each of the colonies reserved to themselves alone the exclusive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws on all matters not included in the articles of confederation.

But for the more convenient management of the general interests of the United States, it was determined, that delegates should be annually appointed in such manner as the legislature of each state should direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday of November of every year, with a power reserved to each state to recall its delegates at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead. No state was to be represented in congress by less than two, nor more than seven members; and no person was capable of being a delegate for more than three years, in any term of six years; nor was any person, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, should receive any salary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining questions in the United States in congress assembled, each state was to have one vote, and to abide by the determinations of the United States in congress assembled, on all questions submitted to them by the confederation. The articles of confederation were to be inviolably observed, and the union to be perpetual; nor was any alteration thenceforth to be made in any state, unless previously agreed to in congress, and afterwards confirmed by the legislature of that state.

It was on the 30th of January, 1778, that the French king concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the Thirteen United Colonies of America. Holland acknowledged their independence, April 19th, 1782; and on the 30th of November, 1782, provisional articles were signed at Paris, by the British and American commissioners, in which the thirteen colonies are acknowledged as Free, Sovereign, and Independent States; and these articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. Sweden acknowledged them, February 5th, 1783; Denmark, the 25th February; Spain, in March, and Russia, in July, 1783.

According to the report of the committee appointed for that purpose, the *Foreign Debt* of the United States, incurred by the late war for obtaining their independence, amounted to 7,885,085 dollars, and the *Domestic Debt* to 34,115,290; total, at 4s. 6d. each, equal to 9,450,084l. sterling, the interest of which at 6 per cent. is 567,005l. But the cost of the war to Great Britain is moderately computed at 115,654,914l. and the additional annual burden by it, 4,557,575l. since January 1775. As to the loss of men during the unhappy war, the states of America, according to authentic estimates, lost by the sword and in prison near 80,000 men; and by the British returns at New York, the number of soldiers killed in the service amounted to 43,633.

*The following Calculations were made from actual Measurement of the best Maps, by THOMAS HUTCHINS, Esq. Geographer to the United States.*

The territory of the United States contains, by computation, a million of square miles, in which are	-	-	-	-	640,000,000	of acres.
Deduct for water	-	-	-	-	51,000,000	
Acres of land in the United States	-	-	-	-	589,000,000	
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That part of the United States, comprehended between the west temporary line of Pennsylvania on the east, the boundary line between Britain and the United States, extending from the river St. Croix to the north-west extremity of the Lake of the Woods on the North, the river Mississippi to the mouth of the Ohio on the west, and the river Ohio on the south, to the aforementioned bounds of Pennsylvania, contains by computation about four hundred and eleven thousand square miles, in which are

Deduct, for water	263,040,000 of acres.
	43,040,000
To be disposed of by order of Congress	220,000,000

The whole of this immense extent of unappropriated western territory, containing, as above stated, 220,000,000 of acres, has been, by the cession of some of the original Thirteen States, and by the treaty of peace, transferred to the federal government, and is pledged as a fund for sinking the continental debt. It is in contemplation to divide it into new states, with republican constitutions similar to the old states near the Atlantic ocean.

*Estimate of the Number of Acres of Water, north and westward of the River Ohio, within the Territory of the United States.*

	Acres.
In Lake Superior	21,952,780
Lake of the Woods	1,133,800
Lake Rain, &c.	165,200
Red Lake	551,000
Lake Michigan	10,368,000
Bay Puan	1,216,000
Lake Huron	5,009,920
Lake St. Clair	89,500
Lake Erie, western part	2,252,800
Sundry small lakes and rivers	301,000
	43,040,000

*Estimate of the Number of Acres of Water within the Thirteen United States.*

In Lake Erie, westward of the line extended from the north-west corner of Pennsylvania, due north to the boundary between the British territory and the United States	410,000
In Lake Ontario	2,390,000
Lake Champlain	500,000
Chefapeak Bay	1,700,000
Albemarle Bay	330,000
Delaware Bay	630,000
All the rivers within the thirteen states, including the Ohio	2,000,000
	7,960,000
	Total — 51,000,000

POPULATION

5%

That

POPULATION OF THE } According to the census, taken by order of congress,  
 UNITED STATES. } in 1790, the number of inhabitants in the United States  
 of America was 3,930,000 nearly. In this number none of the inhabitants of the  
 territory N. W. of the river Ohio, and but a part of the inhabitants of the territory  
 south of the river Ohio, are included. These added would undoubtedly have  
 increased the number to 3,950,000 \*, at the period the census was taken. The in-  
 crease since, on supposition that the inhabitants of the United States double once  
 in twenty years, has been about 600,000; so that now (1795) there are probably  
 4,550,000 souls in the American United States.

## N E W E N G L A N D .

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 350 } Breadth 140 }	between { 41 and 46 north latitude. 67 and 74 west longitude. }	} 87,000.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED on the North by Canada; on the East by Nova  
 Scotia and the Atlantic Ocean; on the South by the Atlan-  
 tic and Long Island Sound; and on the West by New York †.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The northern division, or government.	} New Hampshire	— } { Portsmouth
The middle division	— Massachusetts Colony	} { Boston, N. Lat. 42-25. W. Lon. 70-37.
The southern division	— Rhode Island, &c.	Newport
The western division	— } Connecticut	— } { New London Hartford.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, } New England is a high, hilly, and, in some parts,  
 MOUNTAINS, &c. } a mountainous country. The mountains are com-  
 paratively small, running nearly north and south, in ridges, parallel to each other.  
 Between these ridges, flow the great rivers in majestic meanders, receiving the in-  
 numerable streams which proceed from the mountains on each side. To a specta-  
 tor on the top of a neighbouring mountain, the vales between the ridges, while in  
 a state of nature, exhibit a romantic appearance. They seem an ocean of woods,  
 swelled and depressed in its surface, like that of the great ocean itself.

There are four principal ranges of mountains, passing, nearly from north-east to  
 south-west, through New-England. They consist of a multitude of parallel ridges,  
 each having many spurs, deviating from the course of the general range; which  
 spurs are again broken into irregular hilly land. The main ridges terminate,  
 sometimes in high bluff heads, near the sea coast, and sometimes by a gradual de-  
 scent in the interior part of the country.—These ranges of mountains are full of

\* Morse's American Geography, vol. 1. p. 207.

† Morse's American Geography.

lakes, ponds and springs of water, that give rise to numberless streams of various sizes. No country on the globe is better watered than New England\*.

RIVERS.] Their rivers are, 1. Connecticut; 2. Thames; 3. Patuxent; 4. Merrimac; 5. Piscataway; 6. Saco; 7. Casco; 8. Kinebeque; and 9. Penobscot, or Pentagonet.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The most remarkable bays and harbours are those formed by Plymouth, Rhode Island, and Providence Plantations; Monument-Bay; West-Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape-Cod, Boston-harbour; Piscataway; and Casco-Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape-Cod, Marble-head, Cape-Anne, Cape-Netic, Cape-Porpus, Cape-Elizabeth, and Cape-Small-Point.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] New England, though situated almost ten degrees nearer the sun than England, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more severe than with us. The summer is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the same latitude. The clear and serene temperature of the sky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country so healthy, that it is reported to agree better with British constitutions, than any other of the American provinces. The winds are very boisterous in the winter season; and naturalists ascribe the early approach, the length, and severity of the winter, to the large fresh-water lakes lying on the north-west of New England, which, being frozen over several months, occasion those piercing winds, which prove so fatal to mariners on this coast.

The sun rises at Boston, on the longest day, at 26 minutes after four in the morning, and sets at 34 minutes after seven in the evening; and on the shortest day, it rises at 35 minutes after seven in the morning, and sets at 27 minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longest day is about fifteen hours, and the shortest about nine.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] We have already observed, that the lands lying on the eastern shore of America are low, and in some parts swampy, but farther back they rise into hills. In New England, towards the north-east, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The soil here is various, but best towards the south. Round Massachusetts bay the soil is black, and said to be as rich as in any part of England; and here the first planters found the grass above a yard high. The uplands are less fruitful, being for the most part a mixture of sand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadows and pasture land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much success; the wheat is subject to be blasted; the barley is a hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn flourishes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower sort of people. They malt and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the common table-drink is cider and spruce beer: the latter is made of the tops of the spruce fir, with the addition of a small quantity of mellisks. They raise a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples: of the former, seven or eight hundred may be found on one tree; and seven barrels of cider have been produced in one season, from a single apple-tree.

But New England is chiefly distinguished for the variety and value of its timber, as oak, ash, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypress, beech, walnut, chestnut, hazel, salisfras, sumach, and other woods used in dying or tanning leather, carpenters' work, and ship-building. The oaks here are said to be inferior to those of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and formerly furnished the royal navy of England

\* Morfe's American Geography.

with masts and yards. They draw from their trees considerable quantities of pitch, tar, resin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the soil produces hemp and flax. A ship may here be built and rigged out with the produce of their forests; and indeed ship-building forms a considerable branch of their trade.

**METALS.]** Rich iron mines, of a most excellent kind and temper, have been discovered in New England, which, if improved, may become very beneficial to the inhabitants.

**ANIMALS.]** The animals of this country furnish many articles of New England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly. The horses of New England are hardy, mettlesome, and serviceable, but smaller than ours, though larger than the Welch. They have few sheep; and the wool, though of a staple sufficiently long, is not near so fine as that of England. Here are also elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, beavers, otters, monkeys, minks, martens, racoons, babbs, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds. But one of the most singular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the moose or moose deer, of which there are two sorts; the common light grey moose, which resembles the ordinary deer; these herd sometimes thirty together; and the large black moose, whose body is about the size of a bull; his neck resembles a stag's, and his flesh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have shoots or branches to each horn, which generally spread about six feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way; and these prodigious horns are shed every year. This animal does not spring or rise in going, like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been seen to step over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a course of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to bay; but, when chased, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, as turkeys, geese, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, swans, heathcocks, herons, storks, blackbirds, all sorts of barn-door fowl, vast flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain seasons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are rattlesnakes, frogs, and toads, which swarm in the uncleared parts of these countries, where, with the owls, in the summer evenings, they make an unpleasant noise.

The seas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fish, and even whales of several kinds, such as the whalebone whale, the spermaceti whale, which yields ambergris, the fin-backed whale, the serag whale, and the bunch whale, of which they take great numbers, and send besides some ships every year to fish for whales in Greenland, and as far as Falkland islands. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from 20 to 30 feet long, with strong teeth and jaws, persecutes the whale in these seas; but, afraid of his monstrous strength, they seldom attack a full-grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobscot, there is a mackarel fishery: they likewise fish for cod in winter, which they dry in the frost.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND**  
**FACE OF THE COUNTRY.]** There is not one of the colonies which can be compared, in the abundance of people, the number of considerable and trading towns, and the manufactures that are carried on in them, to New England. The most populous and flourishing parts of the mother-country hardly make a better appearance than the cultivated parts of this province, which reach above sixty miles back. There are here many gentlemen of considerable landed estates; but the great body of the people are landholders, and cultivators of the soil. The former attaches them to their country;

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\* Morfe's  
|| Ibid. p. 38

the latter, by making them strong and healthy, enables them to defend it. These freeholds generally pass to their children in the way of gavelkind; which keeps them from being hardly ever able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the ordinary ranks so independent, or possess more of the conveniences of life: they are used from their infancy to the exercise of arms; and, before the contest with the mother-country, they had a militia, which was by no means contemptible; but their military strength is now much more considerable.

The inhabitants of New England are almost universally of English descent; and it is owing to this, and to the great and general attention that has been paid to education, that the English language has been preserved among them so free from corruption. It is true that, from laziness, inattention, and want of acquaintance with mankind, many of the people in the country have accustomed themselves to use some peculiar phrases, and to pronounce certain words in a flat drawing manner. Hence foreigners pretend they know a New England man from his manner of speaking. But the same may be said with regard to a Pennsylvanian, a Virginian, or a Carolinian; for all have some phrases and modes of pronunciation peculiar to themselves, which distinguish them from their neighbours.

The New-Englanders are generally tall, stout, and well built. They glory, and perhaps with justice, in possessing that spirit of freedom, which induced their ancestors to leave their native country, and to brave the dangers of the ocean, and the hardships of settling a wilderness. Their education, laws and situation, serve to inspire them with high notions of liberty.—In New England, learning is more generally diffused among all ranks of people, than in any other part of the globe; arising from the excellent establishment of schools in every township. A person of mature age, who cannot both read and write, is rarely to be found. By means of this general establishment of schools, the extensive circulation of newspapers (of which not less than 30,000 are printed every week in New England, and sent to almost every town and village in the country), and the consequent spread of learning, every township, throughout the country, is furnished with men capable of conducting the affairs of their town with judgment and discretion.

New England contains, according to the census\* of 1790, 1,000,522 souls, and, should any great and sudden emergency require it, could furnish an army of 164,600 men. The inhabitants of Massachusetts bay are estimated at 378,787 †.

Connecticut is said, in proportion to its extent, to exceed every state of America in populousness and plenty. In 1790, the population amounted to 237,946 ‡, of whom 2,764 were slaves. The men, in general, throughout the province, are robust, stout, and tall. The greatest care is taken of the limbs and bodies of infants, which are kept straight by means of a board; a practice learnt of the Indian women, who abhor all crooked people; so that deformity is here a rarity. The women are fair, handsome, and genteel, and modest and reserved in their manners and behaviour. They are not permitted to read plays, nor can they converse about whist, quadrille, or operas; but it is said that they will talk freely upon history, geography, and other literary subjects. The inhabitants of Connecticut are extremely hospitable to strangers.

New Hampshire, of late years, hath greatly increased in population, so that in 1783 the number of inhabitants was reckoned to amount to 82,200; but in 1790 to 141,885 §. The population of Rhode Island province in 1783 was 50,400; but in 1790, amounted to 67,877 ||, of which 948 were slaves.

RELIGION.] The church of England, in this part of America, is far from being

\* Morfe's American Geography, vol. i. p. 314. † Ibid. p. 353. ‡ Ibid. p. 393. § Ibid. p. 329. || Ibid. p. 381.

in a flourishing condition; in several places, the number of auditors do not amount to twelve persons. Calvinism, from the principles of the first settlers, hath been very prevalent in New England; many of the inhabitants also formerly observed the sabbath with a kind of Jewish rigor; but their bigotry of late hath been much diminished. Since their independence, there is no one established religion in the province, but every sect is allowed the free exercise of its own, and is equally under the protection of the laws\*. They annually celebrate fasts and thanksgivings. In the spring, the several governors issue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiously observed in fasting, humiliation and prayer, throughout their respective states, in which the predominant vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harvest, that gladfome era of the husbandman's life, a day of public thanksgiving is appointed, enumerating the public blessings received in the course of the year. This pious custom originated with their venerable ancestors, the first settlers. A custom so rational, and so well calculated to cherish in the minds of the people a sense of their dependence on the GREAT BENEFACITOR of the world for all their blessings, it is hoped will ever be sacredly preserved †. The Connecticut province hath also provided a bishop for the Episcopalians among them, by sending one of their number to Scotland to be ordained by the nonjur-ing bishops of the episcopal church in that kingdom, which ceremony was performed at Aberdeen.

**CHIEF TOWNS.]** Boston, the capital of Massachusetts, stands on a peninsula at the bottom of Massachusetts bay, about nine miles from its mouth. At the entrance of this bay, are several rocks which appear above water, and upwards of a dozen small islands, some of which are inhabited. There is but one safe channel to approach the harbour, and that so narrow, that two ships can scarcely sail through abreast; but within the harbour there is room for 500 sail to lie at anchor, in a good depth of water. On one of the islands of the bay, stands Fort William, the most regular fortrefs in all the plantations. This castle is defended by 100 guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water, so that it is scarcely possible for an enemy to pass the castle. To prevent surprize, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks, at two leagues distance, from whence they make signals to the castle, when any ships come near it. There is also a battery of guns at each end of the town. At the bottom of the bay is a noble pier, near 2000 feet in length; along which, on the north side, extends a row of warehouses for the merchants; and to this pier, ships of the greatest burden may come and unload, without the help of boats. The greatest part of the town lies round the harbour, in the shape of a half moon; the country beyond it rising gradually, and affording a delightful prospect from the sea. The head of the pier joins the principal street of the town, which is, like most of the others, spacious and well built. Boston contains at present about 20,000 inhabitants. The surprizing increase of Newbury port, Salem, Marblehead, Cape Anne, Plymouth, Dartmouth, and the island of Nantucket, hath checked the growth and trade of the capital; the latter of which was, however, so very considerable, that, in the year 1768, 1200 sail entered or cleared at the Custom-house there. Both the town and trade of Boston greatly suffered during the war with Great Britain; but since, the trade has again considerably increased.

Cambridge, in the same province, four miles from Boston, has an university, containing two spacious colleges, called by the names of Harvard College, and Stoughton Hall, with a well-furnished library. It consists of a president, five

\* By a late account there are 400 Independent and Presbyterian churches in this province, 84 of Baptists, and 31 of other dominations.

† Morfe's American Geography, vol. 1. p. 315.

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fellows, a treasurer, three professors, four tutors, and a librarian. The college charter was first granted in 1650, and renewed in 1692, and is held under the colony seal.

The other towns in New England, the chief of which have already been mentioned, are generally neat, well built, and commodiously situated upon fine rivers, with capacious harbours.

**COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.]** The trade of New England is great, as it supplies a large quantity of goods from within itself; but it is yet greater, as the people of this country are the principal carriers for the other colonies of North America, and even for some parts of Europe. The commodities which the country yields are principally pig and bar iron, which were imported to Great Britain duty-free; also masts and yards, pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they contracted largely with the royal navy; pot and pearl ashes, staves, lumber, boards; all sorts of provisions, which they sent to the French and Dutch sugar islands, and formerly to Barbadoes, and the other British isles, as grain, biscuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheese, apples, cider, onions, mackarel and cod-fish dried. They likewise send thither cattle, horses, planks, hoops, shingles, pipe-staves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf-skins, and tobacco. Their peltry trade is not very considerable. They have a most valuable fishery upon their coasts in mackarel and cod, which employs vast numbers of their people; with the produce of which they trade to Spain, Italy, the Mediterranean, and West Indies, to a considerable amount. Their whale-fishery has been already mentioned. The arts most necessary to subsistence are those which the inhabitants of New England have been at the greatest pains to cultivate. They manufacture coarse linen and woollen cloth for their own use; hats are made here, which find a good vent in all the other colonies. Sugar-baking, distilling, paper-making, and salt-works, are upon the improving hand. The business of ship-building is one of the most considerable, which Boston, Newbury, and the other sea-port towns in New England carry on. Ships are sometimes built here upon commission; but frequently the merchants of New England have them constructed upon their own account; and loading them with the produce of the colony, naval stores, fish, and fish oil principally, they send them out upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean; where, having disposed of their cargo, they make what advantage they can by freight, until such time as they can sell the vessel herself to advantage, which they seldom fail to do in a reasonable time.

It was computed, that, before the late revolution, the value of English manufactures, and India goods, sent into this colony from Great Britain, amounted, at an average of three years, to 395,000*l*. Our imports from the same were calculated at 370,500*l*.

**HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.]** New England comprehends the four provinces of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. As early as 1606, king James I. had by letters patent erected two companies, with a power to send colonies into those parts, then included under the name of Virginia. No settlements, however, were made in New England by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themselves with sending out some ships to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fish upon their coast. This continued to be the only sort of correspondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1620. By this time the religious dissensions which agitated England had become warm and furious. Archbishop Laud persecuted all sorts of nonconformists with an unrelenting severity. Those men, on the other hand, were ready to submit to all the rigour of persecution rather than conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they considered as abuses of a most dangerous tendency. America opened to them an extensive field. There they might transport themselves, and

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establish whatever sort of religious polity they were inclined to. With this view, having purchased the territory, which was within the jurisdiction of the Plymouth Company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of settling it in whatever way they had a mind, 150 persons embarked for New England, and built a city, which, because they had sailed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithstanding the severity of the climate, the unwholesomeness of the air, and the diseases to which, after a long sea voyage, and in a country which was new to them, they were exposed, notwithstanding the want of all sort of conveniences, and even of many of the necessaries of life, those who had constitutions fit to endure such hardships, not dispirited or broken by the death of their companions, set themselves to cultivate this country, and to take the best steps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, passed over into this land of religious and civil liberty. By the close of the year 1630, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorchester, Charles Town, and Boston, which last has since become the capital of New England. But as necessity is the natural source of that active and frugal industry which produces every thing great among mankind, so an uninterrupted flow of prosperity and success occasions those dissensions, which are the bane of human affairs, and often subvert the best founded establishments.

The inhabitants of New England, who had fled from persecution, became in a short time strongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to introduce an uniformity in religion among all who entered their territories. Many of them were bigoted Calvinists; and though they had felt the weight of persecution themselves, they had no charity for those who professed sentiments different from their own. It was not the general opinion of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the same society, without maintaining the same religious tenets; and wherever these were at variance, the members of different sects kept at a distance from each other, and established separate governments. Hence several slips, torn from the original government of New England by religious violence, planted themselves in a new soil, and spread over the country. Such was that of New Hampshire, which continues to this day a separate jurisdiction; such too was that of Rhode Island, whose inhabitants were driven out from the Massachusetts colony (for that is the name by which the government first erected in New England was distinguished), for maintaining that the civil magistrate had no right over the speculative opinions of mankind. These liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and such is the connection between justice of sentiment and external prosperity, that the government of Rhode Island, though small, became extremely populous and flourishing. Another colony, driven out by the same persecuting spirit, settled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of such as were dissatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America indeed was now become the main resource of all discontented and enterprising spirits; and such were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that, in 1637, a proclamation was published, prohibiting any person from sailing thither, without an express licence from the government. For want of this licence, it is said that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hamplen, and others of that party, were detained from going into New England, after being on shipboard for that purpose.

These four provinces, though always confederated for their mutual defence, were at first, and still continue, under separate jurisdictions. They were all of them by their charters originally free colonies, having the choice of their own magistrates, the governor, the council, the assembly, and the power of making laws not contradictory

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dictory to those of Great Britain. Towards the latter end of the reign of Charles II. when he and his ministers wanted to destroy all charters and liberties, the Massachusetts colony was accused of violating their charter, in like manner as was the city of London, and, by a judgment in the King's Bench of England, was deprived of it. From that time to the Revolution, they remained without any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extensive privileges of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was vested in the crown; the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, justices, and sheriffs, to whom the execution of the law was entrusted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; the governor had a negative on the choice of counsellors, peremptory and unlimited; authentic copies of the several acts passed by this colony, as well as others, were to be transmitted to England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were presented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time; no laws, ordinances, election of magistrates, or acts of government whatsoever, were valid without the governor's consent in writing; and appeals for sums above 300*l.* were admitted to the king and council.

There were originally three sorts of governments established by the English on the continent of America, viz. royal governments, charter-governments, and proprietary governments.

A royal government was properly so called, because the colony was immediately dependent on the crown, and the king remained sovereign of the colony; he appointed the governor, council, and officers of state; and the people only elected the representatives, as in England. Such were the governments of Canada, Nova Scotia, Virginia, New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Georgia, East and West Florida, the West Indies, and the island of St. John's.

A charter-government was so called, because the company, incorporated by the king's charter, were in a manner vested with sovereign authority, to establish what sort of government they thought fit; and these charter-governments have generally transferred their authority to the people; for in such governments, or rather corporations, the freemen did not only choose their representatives, but annually chose their governor, council, and magistrates, and made laws without the concurrence, and even without the knowledge, of the king; and were under no other restraint than this, that they enacted no laws contrary to the laws of England; if they did, their charters were liable to be forfeited. Such were the governments of Rhode Island and Connecticut, in New England; and such was that of the Massachusetts formerly, though some alterations were afterwards made in it. Such likewise were those of the two Carolinas.

The third kind of government was the proprietary, properly so called, because the proprietor was invested with sovereign authority: he appointed the governor, council, and magistrates, and the representatives were summoned in his name; and by their advice he enacted laws, without the concurrence of the crown; but, by a subsequent statute, the proprietor was to have the king's consent in the appointing a governor, when he did not reside in the plantation in person, and of a deputy-governor, when he did. And all the governors of the plantations were liable to be called to an account for their administration, by the court of King's Bench. The last proprietary governors were those of Pennsylvania and Maryland.

But the government of New England was entirely changed, in consequence of the revolt of the colonies from the authority of Great Britain; of the origin and progress of which an account hath been given in another place. It was on the 25th

of July, 1776, that, by an order from the council at Boston, the Declaration of the American Congress, absolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the British crown, and declaring them free and independent, was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the state-house in that town.

A constitution, or form of government, for the commonwealth of Massachusetts, including a declaration of rights, was established by the inhabitants of that province, in October 1780. In the preamble to this it was declared, that the end of government is to secure the existence of the body politic; to protect it, and to furnish the individuals who compose it, with the power of enjoying, in safety and tranquillity, their natural rights, and the blessings of life; and that whenever these great objects are not obtained, the people are entitled to take measures necessary for their own happiness. They expressed their gratitude to the great Legislator of the universe, for having afforded them an opportunity of forming a new constitution of civil government for themselves and their posterity. They declared that it was the right, as well as the duty of all men in society, publicly, and at stated seasons, to worship the Supreme Being; and that no subject should be hurt, molested or restrained, in his person, liberty, or estate, for worshipping God in the manner and season most agreeable to the dictates of his own conscience; provided he did not disturb the public peace, or obstruct others in their religious worship.

It was also enacted, that the several towns, parishes, precincts, and other bodies politic, or religious societies, should, at all times, have the exclusive right of electing their public teachers, and of contracting with them for their salaries. That all monies paid by the subject towards the support of public worship, and of the public teachers, should, if he require it, be uniformly applied to the teachers of his own religious sect or denomination, provided there were any on whose instructions he attended; otherwise it might be paid to those of the parish or precinct in which the said monies should be raised. That every denomination of Christians, demeaning themselves peaceably, and as good subjects of the commonwealth, should be equally protected by the law: and that no subordination of any sect or denomination, to another, should ever be established.

It was likewise declared, that, as all power originated in the people, the several magistrates, whether legislative, executive, or judicial, are their substitutes and agents, and at all times accountable to them. That no subject should be arrested, or deprived of his property, or privileges, but by the judgment of his peers, or the law of the land. That the legislature should not make any law, subjecting any person to a capital or infamous punishment, except for the government of the army or navy, without trial by jury. That the liberty of the press is essential to the security of freedom in a state. That the people have a right to keep, and to bear arms, for the common defence; but that, as in times of peace armies are dangerous to liberty, they ought not to be maintained without the consent of the legislature; and that the military power should always be held in an exact subordination to the civil authority.

The legislature of Massachusetts consists of a senate and a house of representatives; which, together with the governor and lieutenant governor, are elected annually by the people. Electors must be 21 years of age, have freeholds of the annual value of 31. or personal estate to the value of 601. To be eligible to the office of governor or lieutenant governor, the candidate must have resided in the state seven years, and during that time have been seized of a freehold of 10001. Senators must have resided five years in the state, and have possessed a freehold to the value of 3001. or personal property to the value of 6001. A representative must have resided one year in the town which he is chosen to represent, and have been seized therein of freehold estate to the value of 1001. or been possessed of personal property to the value of 2001. From the persons returned as senators and coun-

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fellors, being forty in all, nine are annually elected by joint ballot of both houses for the purpose of advising the governor in the execution of his office. All judicial officers, the attorney and solicitor general, sheriffs, &c. are, with the advice of his council, appointed by the governor. The judges (except justices of the peace, whose commissions expire in seven years, but may be renewed) hold their offices during good behaviour. The constitution of New-Hampshire is not materially different from that of Massachusetts. The supreme executive authority is also vested in a governor and council of five members; and the legislative, in a senate and house of representatives, which together are here styled the "General court." The legislatures of Rhode Island and Connecticut are constituted with an upper and lower house. In Rhode Island, the upper house is composed of the governor, deputy governor, and ten assistants; who, together with the secretary and treasurer, are chosen by the freemen annually. The lower house is composed of deputies from the several towns. All judicial and executive magistrates are appointed by the two houses annually; and all military officers appointed in like manner, but without any precise limitation of time. What has been just said of the constitution of Rhode Island is applicable to Connecticut. One or two variations in point of name and number constitute the only difference; except that in Rhode Island a freeman elector must have freehold estate of the value of 2l. or personal, of 40l. In all these states, the government is arranged on the most frugal scale; the salaries of governors and chief justices amounting to no more than 3 or 400l. per annum; and those of other officers proportionally moderate.

It is worthy of notice, that, during the war with Great Britain, an act was passed, on the 4th of May 1780, by the council and house of representatives of Massachusetts Bay, for incorporating and establishing a society for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and sciences. It is entitled "The American Academy of Arts and Sciences;" the first members were named in the act; and they were never to be more than two hundred, nor less than forty. It was declared in the act, that the end and design of the institution of the said academy was to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural history of the country; and to determine the uses to which its various natural productions might be applied; to promote and encourage medicinal discoveries; mathematical disquisitions; philosophical inquiries and experiments; astronomical, meteorological, and geographical observations; and improvements in agriculture, arts, manufactures, and commerce; and, in short, to cultivate every art and science, which might tend to advance the interest, honour, dignity, and happiness, of a free, independent, and virtuous people.

N E W Y O R K.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Miles.
Length 350	} between	{	40 and 45 north latitude.	} 24,000
Breadth 300			72 and 76 west longitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] **N**EW YORK is bounded on the South and South-west, by Hudson's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jersey and Pennsylvania; on the East and North-east, by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the North-west, by Canada.

This province, including the Island of New York, Long Island, and Staten Island, is divided into the following sixteen counties:

Counties.	Chief Towns.
New York - - - - -	NEW YORK { 40°40' N. lat. 74°00' W. lon.
Ulster - - - - -	Kingston
Duchefs - - - - -	Poughkeepsie, Fishkill
Orange - - - - -	Orange, Goshen
West Chester - - - - -	Bedford, White-plains
King's - - - - -	Flatbush, Brooklyn
Queen's - - - - -	Jamaica
Suffolk - - - - -	East Hampton, Huntington
Richmond - - - - -	Westfield
Washington - - - - -	Salem
Montgomery * - - - - -	Johnstown
Columbia - - - - -	Hudson, Kinderhook
Cinton - - - - -	Plattsburgh
Ranfelaer - - - - -	Lansburgh
Ontario - - - - -	Canadaque

**RIVERS.]** The principal of these are Hudson's and the Mohawk; the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well stored with great variety of fish: on this the cities of New York and Albany are situated. The tide flows a few miles above Albany, which is 160 miles from New York. It is navigable for floops of 80 tons to Albany, and for ships to Hudson. About 60 miles above New York the water becomes fresh. The river is stored with a variety of fish, which renders a summer passage to Albany delightful and amusing to those who are fond of angling †. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which is said to fall 30 feet perpendicular, but including the descent above, the fall is as much as 60 or 70 feet ‡, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

**CAPES.]** These are Sandy-Hook, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montock Point, at the east end of Long Island.

**CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.]** This province, lying to the South of New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all constitutions. The face of the country, resembling that of the other American colonies, is low, flat, and marshy towards the sea. As you recede from the coast, the eye is entertained with the gradual swelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The soil is extremely fertile, producing, wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the same with that of New England. A great deal of iron is found here.

**CITIES, POPULATION, AND COMMERCE.]** The city of New York stands on the

\* Since the Census in 1790, Montgomery has been divided into 3 Counties, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Herkemer - - - - -	German Flats
Orfego - - - - -	Coopers town
Tyoga - - - - -	Catsinango, Union town.

† Morfe's American Geography, vol. 1. p. 419.

‡ Ibid. p. 421.

Morfe, vol. 1. p. 418.

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South-west end of York-Island, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, extremely well situated for trade, at the mouth of Hudson's river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from Albany, and many other inland towns towards Canada, and the lakes. New York is situated at the confluence of the Hudson and east rivers. The length of the city on east river is about two miles, but falls much short of that distance on the banks of the Hudson, and its mean breadth a quarter of a mile. 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. Many of the houses are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine prospect. In the year 1776, when the king's troops took it, some incendiaries attempted to destroy it, and one fourth part of it was burnt down. A great part of the inhabitants, reckoned, in 1790, at 33,131, are descended from the Dutch families, who remained here after the surrender of the New Netherlands to the English; and the whole province, in 1790, was numbered at 340,120.

The city of Albany contains about 4000 inhabitants, collected from almost all parts of the northern world. As great a variety of languages are spoken in Albany, as in any town in the United States. Adventurers in pursuit of wealth are led here by the advantages for trade which this place affords. Situated on one of the finest rivers in the world, at the head of sloop-navigation, surrounded with a rich and extensive back country, and the store house of the trade to and from Canada and the lakes, it must flourish, and the inhabitants cannot but grow rich.

The city of Hudson, however, is their great rival, and has had the most rapid growth of any place in America, if we except Baltimore in Maryland. It is 130 miles north of New York. It was not begun till the autumn of 1783\*.

The situation of New York, with respect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the states. It has at all seasons of the year a short and easy access to the ocean. It commands the trade of a great proportion of the best settled and best cultivated parts of the United States. It has been supposed by gentlemen well informed, that more wealth is conveyed down Connecticut river, and through the Sound to New York, than down the Hudson. This is not improbable, as the banks of the Connecticut are more fertile, and much thicker and more extensively settled than the banks of the Hudson †.

The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the same with those which the New-Englanders use; and they have a share in the log-wood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spanish and French plantations. They used to take almost the same commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boston. At an average of three years, their exports were said to amount to 526,000*l.* and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000*l.*

[AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURES.] New York is at least half a century behind her neighbours in New England, New Jersey and Pennsylvania, in point of improvement in agriculture and manufactures. Among other reasons for this inferiority, that of want of enterprise in the inhabitants is not the least. Indeed their local advantages are such that they have grown rich without enterprise. Besides lands have hitherto been cheap, and farms of course large, and it requires much less ingenuity to raise 1000 bushels of wheat upon 60 acres of land, than to raise the same quantity upon 30 acres. So long, therefore, as the farmer in New York can have 60 acres of land to raise 1000 bushels of wheat, he will never trouble himself to find out how he can raise the same quantity upon half the land.

\* Morfe's American Geography, vol. 1. p. 421.

† Ibid.

It is population alone that stamps a value upon lands, and lays a foundation for high improvements in agriculture. When a man is obliged to maintain a family upon a small farm, his invention is exercised to find out every improvement that may render it more productive. This appears to be the great reason why the lands on Delaware and Connecticut rivers produce to the farmer twice as much clear profit as lands in equal quantity, and of the same quality, upon the Hudson. If the preceding observations be just, improvements will keep pace with population and the increasing value of lands.

Improvements in manufactures never precede, but invariably follow improvements in agriculture. This observation applies more particularly to the country. The city of New York contains a great number of people who are employed in the various branches of manufactures, viz. wheel carriages of all kinds, loaf-sugar, bread, beer, shoes and boots, saddlery, cabinet work, cutlery, hats, clocks, watches, mathematical and musical instruments, ships, and every thing necessary for their equipment. A glass work and several iron works have been established\*.

[RELIGION AND LEARNING.] All religious denominations, without discrimination or preference, enjoy equal privileges here, provided that the liberty of conscience hereby granted shall not be so construed as to excuse acts of licentiousness, or justify practices inconsistent with the peace and safety of the state. The inhabitants of the province consist chiefly of Dutch, English, and Scotch presbyterians, German Calvinists, Lutherans, quakers, baptists, &c. who have their respective houses of worship. The Dutch presbyterians being in subordination to the Classis of Amsterdam, used to send all their youth, who are intended for the ministry, to Holland for ordination, as the episcopalians did theirs to England †.

A college was erected in New York, called king's college, by act of parliament, about the year 1755; but as the assembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reason never met with the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a public seminary in so populous a city. It is now called COLUMBIA COLLEGE. It has about 100 students in the four classes, besides medical students.

[HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The Swedes and Dutch were the first Europeans who formed settlements on this part of the American coast. The tract, claimed by these two nations, extended from the 38th to the 41st degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II. who gained it by right of conquest in 1664, and it was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our possession, before they were divided into different provinces. New York took that name from the king's brother, James, duke of York, to whom the king granted

\* Morfe.

† In the year 1740, the number of places for public worship in the city of New York stood as follows:

Dutch Presbyterians	-	3	Baptists	-	1
English ditto	-	2	Moravians	-	1
Scotch ditto	-	1	German Calvinists	-	2
Episcopalians	-	3	----- Lutherans	-	1
French refugees	-	1	Methodists	-	1
Quakers	-	1	Jews	-	1

The various religious denominations in the state of New York, with the number of their respective congregations, were as follows:

English Presbyterian	-	87	German Lutherans	-	12
Dutch Reformed, including six of the } German language	-	66	Moravians	-	2
Baptists	-	30	Methodists	-	1
Episcopalians	-	26	Roman Catholic	-	1
Quakers	-	20	Jews	-	1

it, with full powers of government, by letters patent, dated March 20, 1664. On James's accession to the throne, the right to New York became vested in the crown, since which time it became a royal government.

According to the constitution ratified in 1777, the legislature of New York consists of a senate and assembly. The number of senators is equal to one third of the assembly, the whole number of which is at present 70, and may never exceed 300. Members of the assembly are elected annually; but senators are chosen for four years, and classed in such manner that the seats of a fourth part are vacated every year. The qualifications of voters for an assembly-man or senator, as well as for the governor and lieutenant-governor (who are elected for the term of 3 years), are a maturity of age, an oath of allegiance to the state, six months' residence, and being a freeholder worth 100l. clear of incumbrance. The governor, chancellor, and judges of the supreme court, form a council for the revision of all bills about to be passed into laws. All officers, whose appointments are not specially provided for in the constitution, are chosen by a council of appointment selected from the senate annually by the assembly. The chancellor, judges of the supreme, and first judges of the county courts, hold their offices during good behaviour, or till 60 years of age: but military officers hold their appointments during pleasure.

N E W J E R S E Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 160	between { 39 and 42.4 north latitude. 74 and 76 west longitude.	} 10,000.
Breadth 50		

BOUNDARIES.] **N**EW JERSEY is bounded on the West and South-west by Delaware river and bay; on the South-east and East, by the Atlantic Ocean; and by the Sound which separates Staten Island from the continent, and Hudfon's river, on the North.

Divisions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Eastern Division contains	Middlesex	} Perth-Amboy and New-Brunswick Shrewsbury and Freehold Elizabeth and Newark Boundbrook Hakkensaak
	Monmouth	
	Essex	
	Somerset	
Western Division contains	Bergen	} BURLINGTON { 40-8 N. lat. 75-0 W. lon. Woodbury and Gloucester Salem Hopewell, Bridgetown None Trenton Morristown Newtown.
	Burlington	
	Gloucester	
	Salem	
	Cumberland	
	Cape May	
	Hunterdon	
Morris		
Suffex		

RIVERS.]

**RIVERS.]** These are the Delaware, Raritan, and Passaic, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock from which the water falls is said to be about 70 feet perpendicular, and the river there 80 yards broad.

**CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.]** The climate is much the same with that of New-York; the soil is various; at least one-fourth part of the province is barren sandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, burley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection.

**RELIGION AND LEARNING.]** The former state of religion here may be seen by the subjoined list of the houses for public worship throughout the province, which was made in 1765 by a member of the council of the province\*. According to the present constitution of this province, all persons are allowed to worship God in that manner that is most agreeable to their own consciences; nor is any person obliged to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the purpose of building or repairing any other church or churches, or for the maintenance of any minister or ministry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately engaged himself to perform. There is not any establishment of any one religious sect in this province, in preference to another; and no protestant inhabitants are denied the enjoyment of any civil right, merely on account of their religious principles.

A college, called Nassau Hall, was established at the town of Princeton, by governor Belcher, in 1746, which has a power of conferring the same degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There are generally between 70 and 100 students here, who come from all parts of the continent, some even from the extremities of it. The damages it sustained during the late war are computed at 5000l. There is another college at Brunswick, called Queen's college, founded a little before the last war, and in great repute.

**HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, &c.]** New Jersey is part of that vast tract of land, which we have observed was given by king Charles II. to his brother, James duke of York: he sold it to lord Berkeley and sir George Carteret (from whom it received its present name, because sir George had estates in the island of Jersey), and they again sold it to others, who in the year 1702 made a surrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which she accepted; after which it became a royal government. By an account published in 1790, the number of inhabitants appears to have been about 184,139, of whom 11,423 were blacks†. Perth-Amboy and Burlington were the seats of government; most frequently the latter, which is pleasantly situated on the fine river Delaware, within twenty miles of Philadelphia. The former is among the best ports on the continent; and the harbour is safe and capacious enough to contain many large ships. This province has no foreign trade worth mentioning, owing to its vicinity to the large trading cities of New York and Philadelphia, by which it is supplied with merchandises of all kinds, and makes returns for them in lumber, wheat, flour, &c. In Bergen county, is a very valuable copper mine.

By the new charter of rights established by the provincial congress, July 2, 1776, the government of New Jersey is now vested in a governor, legislative council, and general assembly. The members of the legislative council are to be freeholders,

* English and Scotch Presbyterians	-	57	Moravians	-	-	-	1
Quakers	-	39	Separatists	-	-	-	1
Dutch Presbyterians	-	22	Rogereens	-	-	-	1
Episcopalian	-	22					
Baptists	-	22					
Lutherans	-	7					
			† Morse, vol. 1, p. 453.				
						In all	174

and

and worth at least one thousand pounds real and personal estate; and the members of the general assembly to be worth five hundred pounds. All inhabitants worth fifty pounds are entitled to vote for representatives in council and assembly, and for all other public officers. The governor, legislative council, and general assembly are chosen annually: judges of the supreme court are chosen for seven years; and judges of the common pleas, justices of peace, and the attorney general, for five years.

PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 300	} between { 74 and 81 west longitude.	} 44,900.
Breadth 240		

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, on the North; by Delaware river, which divides it from the Jerseys, on the East; and by Maryland, on the South and West. The state of Pennsylvania contains the following counties.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Philadelphia	PHILADELPHIA { N. lat. 40. W. long. 75-20.
Chester	Chester
Bucks	Newtown
Berks	Reading
Northampton	Easton
Lancaster	Lancaster
York	York
Cumberland	Carlisle
Montgomery	Norriston
Dauphin	Louisburg
Luzerne	Wilksborough
Northumberland	Sunbury
Franklin	Chamberstown
Huntingdon	Huntingdon
Westmoreland	Greenburgh
Fayette	Union
Washington	Washington
Alleghany.	Pittsburg.

Bedford, a county westward of the mountains, upon the Ohio, purchased from the Indians in 1768, by Mr. Penn, and established in 1771.

The DELAWARE State is divided into three counties.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Newcastle } Kent and } Suffex }	on Delaware { Newcastle, Wilmington Dover Leweltown, Milford,

which form a distinct state and government, having a governor, senate, and house of representatives. The senators are nine, three from each county, and the representatives 27. The former must be 27 years old, and the latter 24; and senators must have a freehold of 200 acres; or real and personal estate to the value of 1000*l*. The governor is not eligible more than three years in six. In other particulars, the constitution of Delaware almost exactly agrees with that of Pennsylvania which will be immediately described.

**RIVERS.** The rivers are Delaware, which is navigable more than 200 miles above Philadelphia. Susquehanna and Schuylkill are also navigable a considerable way up the country. These rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largest fleets, render this province admirably suited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

**CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND** } The face of the country, air, soil, and produce, **FACE OF THE COUNTRY.** Do not materially differ from those of New York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is sweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are so extremely cold and severe, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months of July, August, and September, are most intolerably hot; but the country is refreshed by frequent cold breezes\*. It may be remarked in general,

\* The climate of the middle states of America, viz. New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Territory N. W. of the Ohio, lying almost in the same latitudes, varies but little from that of New England. There are no two successive years alike. Even the same successive seasons and months differ from each other every year. And there is perhaps but one steady trait in the character of this climate, and that is, it is uniformly variable. The changes of weather are great and frequently sudden. The range of the quicksilver in Fahrenheit's thermometer, according to Dr. Mitchell, is between the 24th degree below, and the 10th degree above cypher; and it has been known to vary 30 degrees in the course of 26 hours. Such alterations are much more considerable along the coast, than in the interior and inland parts of the country; and, wherever they prevail, are accompanied with proportionate changes in the air, from calms to winds, and from moisture to drench. Storms and hurricanes sometimes happen, which are so violent as to overturn vessels, demolish fences, uproot trees and unroof buildings. Droughts of six weeks' or two months' continuance occur now and then. Rain has been known to fall in such abundance that the earth by measurement has received 6,5 inches on a level in the short space of four hours\*. The quantity of water which falls in rain and snow, one year with another, amounts to from 24 to 30 inches †. In the northern parts of this district the snow falls in larger quantities, lies longer, and the cold is more steady and intense, by many degrees, than in the southern; hence the climate of the former is more agreeable in winter, and that of the latter in summer. The warmest weather is generally in the month of July; but intensely warm days are often felt in May, June, August, and September. Dr. Rittenhouse says, that, during his residence in the country, in the state of Pennsyl-

vania, he never had passed a summer without discovering frost in every month in the year except July. The greatest degree of heat upon record in Philadelphia, in 1789, was 90°. The standard temperature of air in Philadelphia is 52½° which is the temperature of their deepest wells, and the mean heat of their common spring water. There are seldom more than four months in the year in which the weather is agreeable without a fire. In winter, the winds generally come from the N. W. in fair, and from the N. E. in wet weather. The N. W. winds are uncommonly dry as well as cold.

The climate, on the west side of the Allegany mountains, differs materially from that on the east side, in the temperature of the air, and the effects of the wind upon the weather, and in the quantity of rain and snow which fall every year. The S. W. winds, on the west side of the mountain, are accompanied by cold and rain. The temperature of the air is seldom so cold or so hot by several degrees, as on the east side of the mountain.

On the whole it appears that the climate of this division of the United States is a compound of most of the climates in the world. It has the moisture of Ireland in the spring, the heat of Africa in summer, the temperature of Italy in June, the icy of Egypt in autumn, the snow and cold of Norway and the ice of Holland in winter, the tempests (in a certain degree) of the West Indies in every season, and the variable winds and weather of Great Britain in every month in the year.

From this account of the climate of this district, it is easy to ascertain what degrees of health, and what diseases prevail. As the inhabitants have the climates, so they have the acute diseases, of all the countries that have been mentioned. Although it might be supposed, that, with such changes and varieties in the weather, there would be connected epidemical diseases, and an unwholesome climate, yet on the whole this district is found to be as healthy as any part of the United States.

\* Dr. Mitchell.

† Dr. Rush.

Moris, vol. i. p. 416, 417.

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that, in America, from New York to the southern extremity of the United States, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four species, all different from those we have in Europe. But, whether from some fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the soil where they grow, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have not yet produced any wine that deserves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a sort of wine, with which they regale themselves. It may also be observed of the timber of these colonies, that towards the south it is not so good for shipping, as that of the more northern provinces. The farther southward you go, the timber becomes less compact, and rives easily; which property, as it renders it less serviceable for ships, makes it more useful for staves.

**HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, SETTLEMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, LITERARY SOCIETIES, AND COMMERCE.** } This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally possessed by the Dutch and Swedes. When these nations, however, were expelled from New York by the English, admiral Penn, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the island of Jamaica (under the auspices of Cromwell), being in favour with Charles II. obtained the promise of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his son, the celebrated quaker, availed himself of this promise, and, after much court solicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though, as an author and a divine, Mr. Penn by little known but to those of his own persuasion, his reputation in a character no less respectable is universal among all civilised nations. The circumstances of the times engaged vast numbers to follow him into his new settlement, to avoid the persecutions to which the quakers, like other sectaries, were then exposed; but it was to his own wisdom and ability they are indebted for that charter of privileges, which placed this colony on so respectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in the utmost latitude, was laid down by that great man, as the foundation of all his institutions. Christians of all denominations might not only live unmolested, but have a share in the government of the colony; and by the provisions of the new code, a Protestant, a Roman Catholic, and a Hebrew, may elect or be elected to any office in the state, and pursue any lawful calling or profession\*. No laws can be made but by the consent of the inhabitants. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn subjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court constituted for that purpose. The causes between man and man were not to be subjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wise and honest arbitrators. His benevolence and generosity extended also to the Indian nations: instead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchased of these people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and eldest right, was vested in them. William Penn, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his statue placed next to those of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the solid basis of equity, still maintain their force; and, as a proof of their effects, it is only necessary to mention that land was lately granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four shillings reserved; whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted, were at twenty pounds the thousand acres, with one shilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, before the commencement of the war with the mother-country, land rented at twenty shillings the acre, and, even at several miles distance from that city, sold at twenty years' purchase.

In some years, more people transported themselves into Pennsylvania than into

\* Morfe, vol. 1. p. 481.  
6 B 2

all the other settlements together. In short, this province has increased greatly from the time of its first establishment. Upon the principal rivers, settlements are made, and the country has been cultivated 150 miles above Philadelphia. The inhabitants amounted, in 1790, to 434,373; about 10 for every square mile; and in the state of DELAWARE, to 59,094, of whom 8,887 were slaves\*. The people are hardy, industrious, and most of them substantial, though but few of the landed people can be considered as rich; but before the commencement of the civil war, they were all well lodged, well fed, and, for their condition, well clad; and this at the more easy rate, as the inferior people manufactured most of their own wear, both linens and woollens.

This province contains many very considerable towns, such as German-Town, Chester, Oxford, Radnor, all which, in any other colony, would deserve being taken notice of more particularly. But here the city of Philadelphia, containing upwards of 30,000 inhabitants, beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity scarcely equalled by any in Europe, totally eclipses the rest. It was built after the plan of the famous Penn, the founder and legislator of this colony. It is situated 100 miles from the sea, between two navigable rivers, the Delaware, above a mile in breadth, on the east, and the Schuylkill, on the west, and extends in a line of two miles between them. It is intended that every quarter of the city, should form a square of eight acres, and that in the middle a square of ten acres, surrounded by the town-house, and other public buildings. The principal street is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole breadth of the town: parallel to it run nine other streets, which are crossed by twenty more at right angles, all of them 30 feet wide, and communicating with the two rivers, which contribute not only to the beauty, but to the wholesomeness of the city. According to the original plan, every man in possession of 1000 acres in the province, might have his house either in one of the fronts facing the rivers, or in the principal street, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. Every owner of 5000 acres, besides the above mentioned privilege, was entitled to have an acre of ground in the front of his house, and all others might have half an acre for gardens and court yards. The proprietor's seat, which is the usual place of the governor's residence, and is about a mile above the town, is the first private building, both for magnificence and situation, in the United States. The market, and other public buildings, are proportionably grand. The quays are spacious and fine; and the principal quay is 200 feet wide.

There were in this city a great number of very wealthy merchants; which is no way surprising, when we consider the great trade which it carried on with the English, Spanish, French, and Dutch colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira islands; with Great Britain and Ireland; with Spain, Portugal, and Holland. Besides the Indian trade, and the quantity of grain, provisions, and all kinds of the produce of this province, which is brought down the rivers upon which this city is so commodiously situated, the Germans, who are settled in the interior parts of this province, employ several hundred waggons, drawn each by four horses, in bringing the product of their farms to this market. In the year 1749, 303 vessels entered inwards at this port, and 291 cleared outwards.

The commodities formerly exported into Pennsylvania, at an average of three years, amounted to the value of 611,000l. Those exported to Great Britain and other markets, besides timber, ships built for sale, copper ore, and iron in

\* Morfe, vol. 1. page 470, and 503. ©

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pligs, and bars, consisted of grain, flour, and many sorts of animal food; and, at an average of three years, were calculated at 705,500*l*. But such was the spirit of adventuring in trade, after the conclusion of the late war, the duty in Philadelphia upon imported goods, of 2½ per cent. *ad valorem*, produced, from the first of March 1784, to the first of December, 132,000*l*. which, supposing that their value was not under-rated, nor any smuggled to save the duty, makes their value amount to 3,168,000*l*.

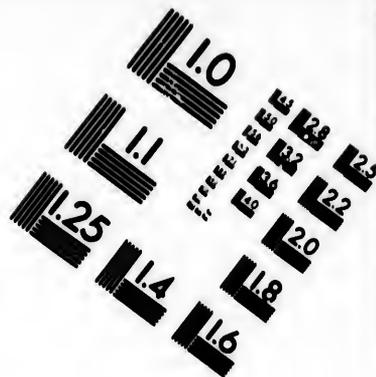
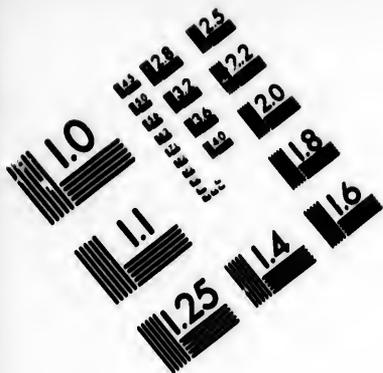
There was an academy established at Philadelphia, greatly encouraged by contributions from England and Scotland, and which, before the civil war broke out, bid fair to become a might seminary of learning. It is now styled an *UNIVERSITY*: its funds were partly given by the state and partly taken from the old college. And in 1787 a college was founded at Lancaster, and, in honour to Dr. Franklin, called Franklin-College.

Besides several other very improving institutions in this city, there is one which deserves a particular notice, which is *THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY, HELD AT PHILADELPHIA, FOR PROMOTING USEFUL KNOWLEDGE*. This society was formed January 2, 1769, by the union of two other literary societies that had subsisted for some time in Philadelphia; and were created one body corporate and politic, with such powers, privileges, and immunities, as are necessary for answering the valuable purposes which the society had originally in view, by a charter, granted by the commonwealth of Pennsylvania, on the 15th of March, 1780. This society has already published several very valuable volumes of their Transactions, particularly one in 1771, the other in 1786. In 1771, this society consisted of nearly 300 members; and upwards of 120 have since been added; a large proportion of whom are foreigners.

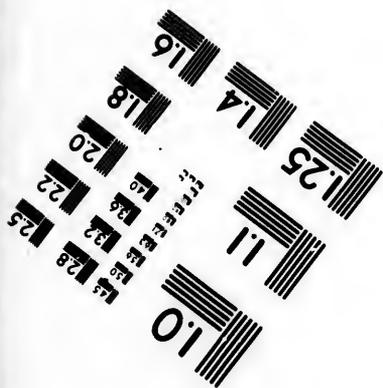
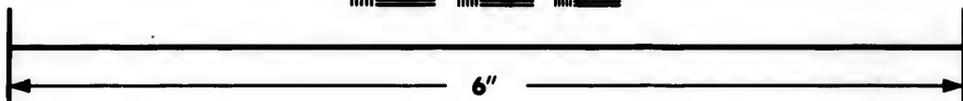
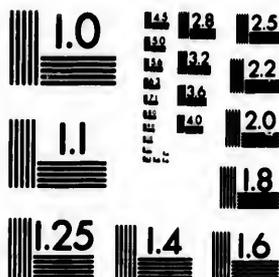
It was in Philadelphia that the general congress of America met in September 1774; and their meetings continued to be chiefly held there, till the king's troops made themselves masters of that city, on the 26th of September, 1777. But in June 1778, the British troops retreated to New York, and Philadelphia again became the residence of the congress.

In 1776, the representatives of the freemen of Pennsylvania met in a general convention at Philadelphia, and agreed upon the plan of a new constitution of government for that colony. According to the actual constitution, the legislative power is administered by a senate and house of representatives; the executive by a governor; and the judiciary by a supreme court, a court of common pleas, and a court of quarter sessions of the peace. The legislature and governor are elected by the freemen; the governor for three years; the representatives and a fourth part of the senate, annually. The number of representatives must not be less than fifty, nor exceed one hundred; nor that of senators less than a fourth, nor greater than a third part of the number of representatives. The electors of the magistrates must have attained the age of 21, have resided in the state two years, and paid taxes. The representatives must have been inhabitants of the state three years, and, the last year previous to their election, have resided in the county which chooses them. The qualifications of 25 years' of age, and of four years' residence, are required in senators; and the governor must have attained the age of thirty, and have resided in the state seven years: and he is not eligible more than nine years in twelve. The senators are divided by lot into four classes, and the seats of one class vacated, and refilled, yearly.





**IMAGE EVALUATION  
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



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M A R Y L A N D.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 134 } Breadth 110 }	between { 75 and 80 west longitude. } { 37 and 40 north latitude. }	12,000.

**BOUNDARIES.]** BOUNDED by Pennsylvania, on the North; by another part of Pennsylvania, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the East; by Virginia, on the South; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the West. Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Chesapeake, viz. 1. The eastern; and 2. The western division.

Divisions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
The east division contains the counties of	Worcester	Princess Anne
	Somerfet	Snow Hill
	Dorset	Dorset, or Dorchester
	Talbot	Oxford
	Cecil	Queen's Town
	Queen Anne's	Chester
	Kent	
	Caroline	
	St. Mary's County	St. Mary's
	Charles	Bristol
The west division contains	Prince George	Masterkout
	Calvert	Abington
	Arundel	ANNAPOLIS, W. lon.
	Harford	76-50. N. lat. 39.
	Baltimore	Baltimore.
	Frederic	
	Washington	
	Montgomery	
Hartford		

**RIVERS.]** This country is indented with a vast number of valuable creeks and rivers. The chief are Potowmac, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, Severn, and Sassafras.

**FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.** In these particulars, this province is not to be distinguished from those already described. The hills in the inland country are of so easy ascent, that they rather seem an artificial than a natural production. The climate is generally mild and agreeable, suited to agricultural productions, and a great variety of fruit trees. In the interior hilly country, the inhabitants are healthy; but in the flat country, in the neighbourhood of the marshes and stagnant waters, they are, as in the other southern states, subject to intermittents. The vast number of rivers diffuses fertility through

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through the soil, that is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco and wheat, which are the staple commodities of that country; hemp, Indian corn and grain.

**POPULATION AND COMMERCE.]** The number of inhabitants have of late years greatly increased, amounting at present to 419,728; of whom 103,036 are slaves; which is nearly 34 for every square mile. The commerce of Maryland depends on the same principles with that of Virginia, and is so closely connected with it, that any separation of them would rather confuse than instruct. It will be considered therefore under that head.

**HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.]** Maryland, like the provinces we have formerly described, owes its settlement to religious considerations. As the neighbouring districts, however, were peopled by protestants, and even sectaries, Maryland was originally planted by Roman-catholics. This sect, towards the close of Charles the First's reign, was the object of great hatred to the bulk of the English nation; and the laws in force against the Roman-catholics were executed with great severity. This in part arose from an opinion, that the court was too favourably disposed towards them. It is certain that many marks of favour were conferred on the Roman-catholics. Lord Baltimore, was one of the most eminent, one in greatest favour with the court, and on that account most odious to the generality of Englishmen. This nobleman, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles, of that country, which formerly was considered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of queen Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. of France, and spouse to king Charles. The year following, about 200 popish families, some of considerable distinction, embarked with lord Baltimore, to enter into possession of this new territory. These settlers, who had that liberality and good breeding which distinguishes gentlemen of every religion, bought their land at an easy price from the native Indians; they even lived with them for some time in the same city; and the greatest harmony continued to subsist between the two nations until the Indians were imposed on by the malicious insinuations of some planters in Virginia, who envied the prosperity of this popish colony, and inflamed the Indians against them by ill-grounded reports, but such as were sufficient to excite the resentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reason to be so.

The colony, however, was not wanting to its own safety on this occasion. Though they continued their friendly intercourse with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and to use every other precaution for their defence against sudden hostilities. The defeat of this attempt gave a new spring to the activity of this plantation, which was likewise receiving frequent reinforcements from England, of those who found themselves in danger by the approaching revolution. But during the protectorship of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland. Baltimore was deprived of his rights; and a new governor, appointed by the Protector, substituted in his room. At the Restoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural possessor. Baltimore was reinstated in his rights, and fully discovered how well he deserved that favour. He established a perfect toleration in all religious matters; the colony increased and flourished, and dissenters of all denominations, allured by the prospect of gain, flocked into Maryland. But the tyrannical government of James II. again deprived this noble family of its possession, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expence.

At the Revolution, lord Baltimore was again restored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not consistently be conferred on a Roman-catholic. But, after the family changed their religion, they obtained the power as well as the interest. The government of this country, exactly resembled that of Virginia, except that the governor was appointed, by the proprietor,

proprietor, and only confirmed by the crown. The customs too were reserved to the crown, and the officers belonging to them were independent of the government of the province. At length, as the protestants became far more numerous, they excluded the papists from all offices of trust and power, and even adopted the penal laws of England against them. The church of England was by law established here, and the clergy were paid in tobacco: a tax for this purpose was annually levied, and every male white person above the age of sixteen was obliged to pay 40 lb. of tobacco, (or if he raised no tobacco, he must take an oath that he did not, and pay the value in cash); dissenting clergy were not exempted. By the declaration of rights and the constitution agreed to in the convention of delegates at Annapolis, August 14, 1776, the legislature is now to consist of two distinct branches, the senate and the house of delegates; the latter to be annually chosen, *viva voce*, by the freeholders in the counties, each of which appoints four; and the towns of Annapolis and Baltimore, each, two. The senate is not elected immediately by the people, but by electors chosen by the people, each county choosing two, and Annapolis and Baltimore, each, one. The governor, and council consisting of five members, are annually elected by the legislature. Voters for delegates, &c. must be above 21 years of age, and possessed of 50 acres of freehold in their respective counties, or property in the state to the amount of 30l. and have resided in the country one year. Proportional qualifications of age property and residence are required in the magistrates.

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

The city of Washington, now building at the junction of the rivers Potowmac and the Eastern Branch, is fixed on by the United States for the seat of their government after the year 1800. When the plan is carried into execution, this city will eminently possess the advantages of regularity, convenience, healthiness, and elegance of prospect.

## V I R G I N I A.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 446	} between { 75 and 90 west longitude.	} 80,000.
Breadth 224		

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the river Potowmac, which divides it from Maryland, on the North-east; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the East; by Carolina, on the South; and by Kentucky, on the West.

It may be divided into 82 counties, which are mentioned in the following table, which is taken from Morfe's American Geography, printed at Boston, 1793, in 2 vols. 8vo.

Situation.

Situation.	Counties.	Situation.	Counties.
West of the Blue Ridge.	Ohio	Between James River and Carolina.	Greenville
	Monongalia		Dinwiddie
	Washington		Chesterfield
	Montgomery		Prince George
	Wythe		Surry
	Botetourt		Suffex
	Green-briar		Southampton
	Kanawa		Isle of Wight
	Hampshire		Nansemond
	Berkley		Norfolk
	Frederick	Princes Ann	
	Shenandoah	Henrico	
	Rockingham	Hanover	
	Augusta	New Kent	
	Rockbridge	Charles City	
	Loudoun	James City	
	Fauquier	Williamsburg	
	Culpepper	York	
	Spotsylvania	Warwick	
	Orange	Elizabeth City	
Louisa	Caroline		
Goochland	King William		
Flavania	King and Queen		
Albemarle	Essex		
Amherst	Middlesex		
Buckingham	Gloucester		
Bedford	Fairfax		
Henry	Prince William		
Pittsylvania	Stafford		
Halifax	King George		
Charlotte	Richmond		
Prince Edward	Westmoreland		
Cumberland	Northumberland		
Powhatan	Lancaster		
Amelia	Accomac		
Nottaway	Northampton		
Lunenburg			
Mecklenburg			
Brunswick			
Between the Blue Ridge and the tide waters.		Between York and Rappahannoc Rivers.	
		Between Rappahannoc and Potowmac Rivers.	
		Eastern Shore.	

The following are new counties.

Campbell	Hardy
Franklin	Pendleton
Harrison	Ruffel *
Randolph	

[CAPES, BAYS, AND RIVERS.] In sailing to Virginia or Maryland, you pass a strait between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a passage into the bay of Chesapeake, one of the largest and safest in the world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the south to the north, is about 18 miles

\* Morfe, vol. i. p. 532, 533, 534.

broad for a considerable way, and seven where it is narrowest, the water in most places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vast number of navigable rivers from the sides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, besides others of less note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannock, and the 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 unquestionably the country in the world of the most convenient navigation. It has been observed, and the observation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door. To the westward of the province, is the Ohio, a large river, which after a long course falls into the Mississippi.

**FACE OF THE COUNTRY.]** The whole face of this country is so extremely low towards the sea, that you are very near the shore, before you can discover land from the mast-head. The lofty trees, which cover the soil, gradually rise as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting prospect. You travel 100 miles into the country, without meeting with a hill; which is nothing uncommon on this extensive coast of America.

**AIR AND CLIMATE.]** In an extensive country it will be expected that the climate is not the same in all its parts. It is remarkable that, proceeding on the same parallel of latitude westwardly, the climate becomes colder in like manner as when you proceed northwardly. This continues to be the case till you attain the summit of the Allegany, which is the highest land between the ocean and the Mississippi. From thence, descending in the same latitude to the Mississippi, the change reverses; and, if we may believe travellers, it becomes warmer there than it is in the same latitude on the sea side. Their testimony is strengthened by the vegetables and animals which subsist and multiply there naturally, and do not on the sea coast. Thus catalpas grow spontaneously on the Mississippi, as far as the latitude of 37°, and reeds as far as 38°. Parroquets even winter on the Scioto, in the 39th degree of latitude.

Mr. Jefferson reckons the extremes of heat and cold to be 98° above, and 6° below 0, in Fahrenheit's thermometer.

That fluctuation between heat and cold, so destructive to fruit, prevails less in Virginia than in Pennsylvania in the spring season: nor is the overflowing of the rivers in Virginia then so extensive or so frequent as that of the rivers in the New England states; because the snows in the former do not lie accumulating all winter, to be dissolved all at once in the spring, as they do sometimes in the latter. In Virginia, below the mountains, snow seldom lies more than a day or two, and seldom a week; and the large rivers seldom freeze over. This fluctuation of weather, however, is sufficient to render the winters and springs very unwholesome, as the inhabitants have to walk in almost perpetual slop.

**SOIL AND PRODUCE.]** Towards the sea shore, and the banks of the rivers, the soil of Virginia consists of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a distance from the water there is a lightness and sandiness in the soil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and which, helped by a kindly sun, yields corn and tobacco in abundance.

From what has been said of the soil and climate, it is easy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The forests are covered with all sorts of lofty trees; and no underwood or brushies grow beneath; so that the people travel with ease through the forests on horseback, under a fine shade to defend them from the sun: the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering shrubs of the richest colours and most fragrant scent. Silk grows spontaneous in many places, the fibres of which are strong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly snake-root, and ginseng, are here in great plenty; and

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there is no sort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants, however, are so engrossed with the culture of the tobacco plant, which is here of a superior quality to what any other country affords, that they think, if corn sufficient for their support can be reared, they do enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced, not only for their own consumption but for exportation.

**ANIMALS.]** We shall here observe, that there were neither horses, cows, sheep, nor hogs in America, before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied so extremely, that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the southern colonies, run wild. Before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, beef and pork were sold here from one penny to two pence a pound; their fattest pullets, at six pence a-piece; chickens, at three or four shillings a dozen; geese, at ten pence; and turkeys, at eighteen pence a-piece. But fish and wild fowl were still cheaper in the season, and deer were sold from five to ten shillings a-piece. In the other American colonies, provisions were equally cheap. Besides the animals transported from Europe, those natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a sort of panther or tiger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewise that singular animal, called the opoffum, which seems to be the wood-rat, mentioned by Charlevoix, in his History of Canada. It is about the size of a cat; and, besides the belly common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itself, and which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture, towards the hinder legs, which discovers a large number of teats on the usual parts of the common belly. Upon these, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang like fruit upon the stalk, until they attain a certain weight and size, when they drop off, and are received into the false belly, from which they go out at pleasure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all sorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, called from the country, whose plumage is crimson and blue; the mocking bird, thought to excell all others in its own notes, and including that of every one; the humming bird, the smallest of all the winged creation, and by far the most beautiful, all arrayed in scarlet, green, and gold. It sips the dew from the flowers, which is all its nourishment; and is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

**CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.]** Virginia has produced some of the most distinguished actors in effecting the revolution in America. Her political and military character has been rendered conspicuous by a few eminent men who take the lead in all her public transactions, and who, in short, govern Virginia; for the great body of the people do not concern themselves with politics, so that their government, though nominally republican, is in fact aristocratical.

Several travellers give but a very indifferent account of the generality of the people of this province. The young men, observes one, generally speaking, are gamblers, cock-fighters, and horse jockies. The ingenuity of a Locke, or the discoveries of a Newton, are considered as infinitely inferior to the accomplishments of him who is expert in the management of a cock-fight, or dexterous in manœuvring at a horse-race. A spirit for literary inquiries, if not altogether confined to a few, is, among the body of the people, evidently subordinate to a spirit of gaming and barbarous sports. At almost every inn or ordinary on the public road, there is a billiard-table, a back-gammon table, cards and other implements for various games. To these public houses the gambling gentry in the neighbourhood resort to *kill* time, which hangs heavily upon them; and at this business they are very expert, having been accustomed to it from their earliest youth. The passion for cock-fighting, a diversion not only extremely barbarous, but infinitely beneath the dignity of a man of sense, is so predominant that they

even advertise their matches in the public papers\*. This dissipation of manners is the consequence of indolence and luxury, which are the fruit of African slavery †.

**NATURAL CURIOSITIES.]** The natural bridge is the most sublime of nature's works. It is on the ascent of a hill, which seems to have been cloven through its length by some great convulsion. The fissure just at the bridge is, by some measurements, 270 feet deep, by others only 205; it is about 45 feet wide at the bottom, and 90 feet at the top; this of course determines the length of the bridge, and its height from the water. Its breadth in the middle is about 60 feet, but more at the ends; and the thickness of the mass at the summit of the arch, about 40 feet. A part of this thickness is constituted by a coat of earth, which gives growth to many large trees. The residue, with the hill on both sides, is a solid rock of lime-stone. The arch approaches the semi-elliptical form; but the larger axis of the ellipsis, which would be the chord of the arch, is many times longer than the transverse. Though the sides of this bridge are provided in some parts with a parapet of fixed rocks, yet few men have resolution to walk along them and look over into the abyss. You involuntarily fall on your hands, and feet, creep to the parapet and peep over it. If the view from the top be painful and intolerable, that from below is delightful in an equal extreme. It is impossible for the emotions arising from the sublime to be felt beyond what they are here; so beautiful an arch, so elevated, so light, and springing as it were up to heaven! the rapture of the spectator is really indescribable. The fissure continuing narrow, deep and straight for a considerable distance above and below the bridge, opens a short but very pleasing view of the North Mountain on one side, and Blue Ridge on the other, at the distance, each of them, of about five miles. This bridge is in the county of Rockbridge, to which it has given name, and affords a public and commodious passage over a valley which cannot be crossed elsewhere for a considerable distance. The stream passing under it is called Cedar creek. It is a water of James river, and sufficient in the driest seasons to turn a grist mill, though its fountain is not more than two miles above ‡. There is a natural bridge similar to the above over Stock creek, a branch of Pelebon river, in Washington county.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.]** Before the war, the inhabitants of this state paid but little attention to the manufacture of their own cloathing. It has been thought they used to import as much as *seven eighths* of their cloathing, and that they now manufacture *three quarters* of it. Considerable quantities of iron are manufactured in this state.—To these we may add the manufacture of lead; besides which they have few others of consequence. The people are much attached to agriculture, and prefer foreign manufactures.

In the year 1758, this state exported seventy thousand hogheads of tobacco, which was the greatest quantity ever produced in this country in one year. But its culture has fast declined since the commencement of the war, and that of wheat taken its place. The price which it commands at market will not enable the planter to cultivate it. Were the supply still to depend on Virginia and Maryland alone, as its culture becomes more difficult, this price would rise, so as to enable the planter to surmount those difficulties and to live. But the western country on the Mississippi, and the midlands of Georgia, having fresh and fertile

\* A Traveller through Virginia observes, "Three or four matches were advertised in the public prints at Williamsburg; and I was witness of five in the course of my travels from that place to Port Royal."

† Morse's Geography, the edition of 1789.

‡ Don Ulloa mentions a break, similar to this, in the province of Angaracé, in South America. It is from 16 to 22 feet wide, 11 feet deep, and of 15 miles continuance, English measure. Its breadth at top is not sensibly greater than at bottom.

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lands in abundance, and a hotter sun, are able to underfell these two states, and will oblige them in time to abandon the raising tobacco altogether. And a happy obligation for them it will be. It is a culture productive of infinite wretchedness. Those employed in it are in a continued state of exertion beyond the powers of nature to support. Little food of any kind is raised by them; so that the men and animals on these farms are badly fed, and the earth is rapidly impoverished. The cultivation of wheat is the reverse in every circumstance. Besides cloathing the earth with herbage, and preserving its fertility, it feeds the labourers plentifully, requires from them only a moderate toil, except in the season of harvest, raises great numbers of animals for food and service, and diffuses plenty and happiness among the whole. It is easier to produce an hundred bushels of wheat than a thousand weight of tobacco; and the former produce is more valuable.

**HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, &c.** This is the first country which the English planted in America. We derived our right, not only to this but to all our other settlements, as has been already observed, from the discovery of Sebastian Cabot, who, in 1497, first made the northern continent of America, in the service of Henry VII. of England. No attempts, however, were made to settle it till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that sir Walter Raleigh, a man of the most enterprising genius of any in that age, applied to court, and got together a company, which was composed of several persons of distinction, and several eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade, and settle a colony, in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, several attempts were made for settling this colony, before any proved successful. The three first companies who failed into Virginia perished through hunger and disease, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced to almost the same situation; and being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had set sail for England, in despair of living in such an uncultivated country, inhabited by hostile and warlike savages. But in the mouth of Chesapeak bay, in the year 1610, they were met by lord Delaware, with a squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion they returned: by his advice, his prudence, and winning behaviour, the internal government of the colony was settled, and its defence provided for. This nobleman, who had accepted the government from the noblest motives, was compelled, by the decayed state of his health, to return into England. He left behind him, however, his son, as deputy; with sir Thomas Gates, sir George Summers, the honourable George Percy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them, James-Town, the first town built by the English in the New World, was erected.

In April 1613, Mr. John Rolfe, a worthy young gentleman, was married to *Pocahontas*, the daughter of *Powhatan*, the famous Indian chief. This connection, which was very agreeable both to the English and Indians, was the foundation of a friendly and advantageous commerce between them.

In 1616, Mr. Rolfe, with his wife Pocahontas, visited England, where she was treated with that attention and respect which she had merited by her important services to the colony in Virginia. She died the year following at Gravesend, in the twenty-second year of her age, just as she was about to embark for America. She had embraced the christian religion; and in her life and death evidenced the sincerity of her profession. She left a little son, who, having received his education in England, went over to Virginia, where he lived and died in affluence and honour, leaving behind him an only daughter. Her descendants are among the most respectable families in Virginia.

Tonococomo, a sensible Indian, brother in law to Pocahontas, accompanied her

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to England; and was directed by Powhatan to bring him an exact account of the numbers and strength of the English. For this purpose, when he arrived at Plymouth, he took a long stick, intending to cut a notch in it for every person he should see. This he soon found impracticable, and threw away his stick. On his return, being asked by Powhatan, how many people there were, he is said to have replied, "Count the stars in the sky, the leaves on the trees, and the sands on the sea shore; for such is the number of the people in England."

The colony continued to flourish, and the true sources of its wealth began to be discovered and improved. The first settlers, like those of Maryland, were generally persons of consideration and distinction. It remained a steady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and, under the government of sir William Berkeley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by stratagem than force, reduced them. After the restoration, there is nothing very interesting in the history of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman, named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himself of some discontents in the colony on account of restraints in trade, became very popular, and set every thing in confusion. But this pest of society being removed by a natural death, tranquillity returned to the province.

The government of Virginia was not at first adapted to the principles of the English constitution. It was subject to a governor and council, appointed by the king. As the inhabitants increased, the inconveniency of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the constitution, by which the people, who had formerly no consideration, were allowed to elect their representatives from each county, with privileges resembling those of the representatives of the commons of England. Thus two houses, the upper and lower house of assembly, were formed. The upper house, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing; its members were appointed, during pleasure, by the crown; they were styled honourable, and answered in some measure to the house of peers in the British constitution. The lower house was the guardian of the people's liberties. And thus, with a governor representing the king, an upper and lower house of assembly, this government bore a striking resemblance to our own. According to the constitution confirmed on the 5th of July 1776, the legislature of Virginia consists of a senate, and house of delegates; the senate, of 24 members, who are divided into four classes, and the seats of one class vacated every year. The delegates are composed of two members from each county, and one from the cities of Richmond and Williamsburg and the borough of Norfolk respectively. They are elected annually, as well as one class of the senate, by freeholders seized of 100 acres of uninhabited land, or of 25 acres with a house, or of a house or lot in town. The legislature appoints the governor, who is the supreme executive magistrate, and also the privy council, consisting of eight members, together with the judges of the superior courts and other principal officers of the law and army. The governor is annually elected; two members of the privy council are changed every three years; the judges of the superior courts hold their offices during good behaviour.

The inhabitants of Virginia amounted, according to the census of 1790, to 747,610; of whom 292,627 were negroes. Kentucky, which till lately belonged to this state, contains 73,677 inhabitants, which, added to 747,610, makes 821,287. In the year 1781, a very inaccurate census was taken: several counties made no return; but supplying by conjecture the deficiencies, the population of Virginia was then computed at 567,614.—The inhabitants therefore have increased in the proportion of 13 to 9 in the course of ten years. In the very first session after their independence, the assembly passed a law for the perpetual prohibition of the importation of slaves. Williamsburg, till the year 1780, was the

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seat of government, and contained 1800 inhabitants; Norfolk, the most populous town in Virginia, about 6000; and Richmond, the present seat of government, 4000; the towns in general not being large, owing to the interfection of the country by navigable rivers, which bring the trade to the doors of the inhabitants. The bishop of London used to send over a superintendent to inspect the characters of clergymen, who lived comfortably here (a priest to each parish) with about 100*l.* per annum, paid in tobacco.

The college, called William and Mary college, was founded by king William, who gave 2000*l.* towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchase and hold lands to the value of 2000*l.* a year, and a duty of one penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a president, six professors, and other officers, who are named by the governors or visitors. The honourable Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to the college for the education of Indian children. The presbyterian denomination of christians is the most numerous in Virginia; for, though the first settlers were episcopalians, yet, through the indolence of the clergy, two thirds of the people had become dissenters at the commencement of the late revolution.

NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA, WITH GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 700	}	between	{	110,000
Breadth 380		{		

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Virginia on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean on the East; by the river St. John, which separates Georgia from Florida, on the South; and by the Apalachian and other mountains, on the West.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Districts.	Counties.	District.	Counties.
Edenton, 9 Counties.	Chowan	Newbern, 9 Counties.	Craven
	Currituck		Beaufort
	Camden		Carteret
	Pasquetank		Johnston
	Perquimins		Pitt
	Gates		Dobbs
	Hertford		Wayne
	Bertie		Hyde
	Tyrrel		Jones
	New Hanover		
Wilmington, 5 Counties.	Brunswick	These three districts are on the sea-coast, extending from the Virginia line southward to South-Carolina.	
	Duplin		
	Bladen		
	Onslow		

Districts.

Districts.	Counties.	Districts.	Counties.
Halifax, 7 Counties.	Halifax	Morgan, 4 Counties.	Burke
	Northampton		Rutherford
	Martin		Lincoln
	Edgecomb		Wilkes
	Warren	Cumberland	
	Franklin	Moore	
	Nath	Richmond	
Hillsborough, 6 Counties.	Orange	Fayette, 6 Counties.	Robison
	Chatan		Sampson
	Granville		Anson*
	Caswell		
	Wake		
	Randolph		
Salisbury, 8 Counties.	Rowan	These five districts, beginning on the Virginia line, cover the whole state west of the three maritime districts before-mentioned; and the greater part of them extend quite across the state from north to south.	
	Mecklenburg		
	Rockingham		
	Iredell		
	Surry		
	Montgomery		
	Stokes		
	Guildford		

SOUTH CAROLINA hath seven districts, in which are 36 counties, as follows;

	Counties.		Counties.
BEAUFORT DISTRICT, on the sea-coast, between Combahee and Savan- nah rivers. Chief town, BEAUFORT.	Hilton	CAMDEN DISTRICT, west of George-Town district. Chief town, CAMDEN.	Clarendon
	Lincoln		Richland
	Granville		Frisfield
	Shrewsbury		Cleremont
CHARLESTON DISTRICT, between Santee and Combahee rivers. Chief town, CHARLESTON. W. long. 79-12 N. lat. 32-45.	Charleston	GEORGE-TOWN DIS- TRICT, between Santee river and North-Carolina. Chief town, GEORGE-TOWN.	Lancaster
	Washington		York
	Marion		Chester
	Berkely		Winyah
ORANGEBURG DIS- TRICT, west of Beaufort district. Chief town ORANGE- BURG.	Colleton	NINETY-SIX DISTRICT comprehends all other parts of the state, not included in the other districts. Chief town, CAMBRIDGE.	Williamsburg
	Bartholomew		Kingston
	Lewisburg		Liberty
	Orange		Abbeville
CERRAWS DISTRICT, west of George- town district. Chief towns are	Lexington	Marlborough, Chesterfield, Darling- ton †.	Newbury
	Winton		Union
			Laurens
			Spartanburgh
			Greenville
			Pendleton.

\* Merle's American Geography, vol. i. p. 579.

† Ibid. p. 594.

G E O R G I A.

That part of the state which hath been laid out in counties is divided into three districts, which are subdivided into eleven counties.

Districts.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Lower district.	Camden - -	St. Patrick's
	Glyn - - -	Brunswick
	Liberty - -	Sunbury
	Chatham - -	SAVANNAH, N. lat. 32-5. W. lon. 80-20.
	Effingham - -	Ebenezer
Middle district.	Richmond - -	AUGUSTA
	Burke - - -	Waynesburg, Louisville
	Washington - -	Golphinton
Upper district.	Wilkes - - -	Washington
	Franklin - -	
	Green - - -	Greensburgh *

**RIVERS.]** These are the Roanoke, or Albemarle river; Pamlico; Neus; Cape Fear, or Clarendon river; Pedee; Santee; Savannah; Alatamaha, or George river, and St. Mary's, which divide Georgia from Florida: all which rivers rise in the Apalachian mountains, and running east, fall into the Atlantic ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yafous, Mobile, Apalachicola, the Pearl river, and many other noble streams which fall into the Mississippi or the gulf of Mexico.

**SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.]** This country is washed by the Atlantic ocean, which is so shallow near the coast, that a ship of any great burden cannot approach it, except in some few places. There has not yet been found one good harbour in North Carolina; the best are those of Roanoke, at the mouth of the Albemarle river, Pamlico and Cape Fear. In South Carolina, there are the harbours of Winyaw or George-Town, Charleston, and Port-Royal. In Georgia, the mouths of the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha form good harbours.

The most remarkable promontories, are, Cape Hatteras, in 35 degrees odd minutes north latitude, Cape Fear to the south of it, and Cape Carteret still farther south.

**CLIMATE, DISEASES, &c.]** In the flat country near the sea-coast, the inhabitants, during the summer and autumn, are subject to intermitting fevers, which often prove fatal, as bilious or nervous symptoms prevail. These fevers are seldom immediately dangerous to the natives who are temperate, or to strangers who are prudent. They however, if suffered to continue for any length of time, bring on other disorders, which greatly impair the natural vigor of the mind, debilitate the constitution, and terminate in death. The countenances of the inhabitants, during these seasons, have generally a pale yellowish cast, occasioned by the prevalence of bilious symptoms. They have very little of the bloom and freshness of the people in the northern states.

It has been observed that more of the inhabitants, of the men especially, die

\* Morse, vol. 1. p. 610.

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Counties.

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Liberty

Abbeville

Edgefield

Newbury

Union

Laurens

Spartanburgh

Greenville

Pendleton

field, Darling

during the winter, by pleurisies and peripneumonies, than during the warm months by bilious complaints. These pleurisies are brought on by intemperance, and by an imprudent exposure to the weather. Were the inhabitants cautious and prudent in these respects, it is alleged by their physicians, that they might in general escape the danger of these fatal diseases. The use of flannel next to the skin during the winter is reckoned an excellent preventative of the diseases incident to this climate. The western hilly parts of the country are as healthy as any of the United States. That district is fertile, full of springs and rivulets of pure water. The air there is serene a great part of the year, and the inhabitants live to old age, which cannot so generally be said of the inhabitants of the flat country. Though the days in summer are extremely hot, the nights are cool and refreshing. Autumn is very pleasant, both in regard to the temperature and serenity of the weather, and the richness and variety of the vegetable productions which the season affords. The winters are so mild in some years, that autumn may be said to continue till spring. Wheat harvest is in the beginning of June, and that of Indian corn early in September.\*

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE } In this respect, too, there is a considerable  
OF THE COUNTRY. } coincidence between these countries and Virginia: the Carolinas, however, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage; but Georgia hath not so good a soil as the other states. The whole country is covered with trees, except where cleared by the planters. The trees are almost the same in every respect with those produced in Virginia; and by the different species of these, the quality of the soil is easily known. The land in Carolina is easily cleared, as there is little or no underwood. Those grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile; they are of a dark sand intermixed with loam; and as all their land abounds with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhausted; for here they never use any manure. The pine-barren is the worst of all; this is an almost perfect white sand; yet it bears the pine and some other useful trees, yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this species of land is cleared, for two or three years together it produces very good crops of Indian corn and pease; and, when it lies low, and is flooded, it answers well for rice. But what is most fortunate for this province is, that this worst part of its land is favourable to a species of the most valuable of all its products, to one of the kinds of indigo. The low, rich, swampy grounds bear their great staple, rice. The country near the sea is much the worst, in many parts little better than an unhealthy salt marsh; for Carolina is all an even plain for 30 miles from the sea, not a hill nor a rock, nor scarcely even a pebble to be met with. But the country, as you advance in it improves continually; and at 100 miles distance from Charleston, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpose of human life: nor can any thing be imagined more pleasant to the eye than the variegated disposition of this back-country. Here the air is pure and wholesome, and the summer heat much more temperate than on the flat sandy coast.

In Carolina, vegetation is incredibly quick. The climate and soil have something in them so kindly, that the latter, when left to itself, naturally throws out an immense quantity of flowers and flowering shrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement, silk, wine, and oil, might be produced in these colonies: of the first we have seen excellent samples. Wheat yields a prodigious increase in the back parts.

\* Morse, vol. i. p. 576.

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From what we have observed of these colonies, their productions appear to be vines, wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, pease, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, oranges, citron, cypress, sassafras, oak, walnut, cassia, and pine trees; white mulberry-trees for feeding silk worms, sarsaparilla, and pines which yield turpentine, rosin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds; and another, which yields a balm, thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees beside these, that yield gums. The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent spirits, and mead as good as Malaga sack. Of all these, the three great staple commodities at present are, indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing surprises an European more at first sight, than the size of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above 36 feet in circumference. Of these trunks when hollowed, the people of Charleston as well as the Indians make canoes, which serve to transport provisions and other goods from place to place; and some of them are so large, that they will carry 30 or 40 barrels of pitch, though formed of one entire piece of timber. Of these are likewise made curious pleasure-boats.

**MODE OF CULTIVATING RICE.]** Rice-ground is prepared only by effectually securing it from the water, except some higher parts of it, which are sometimes dug up with a hoe, or mellowed by a plough or harrow. When the rice is young the overflowing of the water does not prevent its growth. Those who have water in reserve, commonly let it in upon their rice, after first going through with the hoe, while it is young, though it is deemed best to keep out the grass without this aid by the hoe only. The water is commonly kept on the rice eight or ten days after hoeing. When the ear is formed, the water is continued on till it is ripe. It is hoed three or four times. When the grass is very thick, a negro cannot hoe more than one sixteenth of an acre in a day. From 50 to 80 bushels of rough rice have been produced per acre, but sometimes 120 bushels, 20 of which weigh about 500 pounds, and yield eight and a quarter bushels of clean rice for market. After it is threshed, it is winnowed, and then ground in a mill, constructed of two blocks in a simple manner.—After which it is winnowed in a van constructed for that purpose; then beat in a mortar by hand, or now generally by horse or water machines—then sifted, to separate the whole rice from that which is broken and the flour. The whole rice is then barrelled in casks which contain about 500 pounds, or eight and a quarter bushels. The small rice serves for provisions, and the flour for provender, the chaff for manure, and the straw for fodder. The blade is green and fresh while the ear is ripe. The price is from 9s. and 4d. to 10s. and 6d. a hundred—dollars 4s. 8d. \*.

**ANIMALS.]** The original animals of this country do not differ much from those of Virginia; but in Carolina they have still a greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiously: to have 2 or 300 cows is very common, but some have 1000 or upwards. These ramble all day at pleasure in the forests; but their calves being separated and kept in fenced pastures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the same manner, and return like the cows: these are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horses, in the woods. It is surprising that the cattle should have increased so quickly since their being first imported from Europe, while there are such numbers of wolves, tigers, and panthers, constantly ranging the woods and forests. We have already observed that these ani-

\* Morfe, vol. i. p. 600.

mals are less ravenous than the beasts of Africa and Asia; they very seldom attempt to kill either calves or foals in America, and when attacked, their dams make a vigorous defence.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, } The first English expeditions into  
CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } Carolina were unfortunate. Nothing successful was performed till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time several English noblemen, and others of great distinction, obtained a charter from the crown, which invested them with the property and jurisdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to such as were willing to go over into the new settlement, and to submit to a system of laws, which they employed the famous Locke to compose for them.

They began their first settlement at a point of land towards the southward of their district, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city called Charleston which was designed to be, what it now is, the capital.

In time, however, the disputes between the church-of-England men and dissenters caused great confusion in the colony. This was rendered still greater by the incursions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by injustice. In order to prevent the fatal consequences of these intestine divisions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was passed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords proprietors, except earl Granville who had a seventh share, accepted a recompense of about 24,000*l.* for both the property and jurisdiction; and the constitution of this colony, in those respects in which it differed from the royal colonies, was altered. For the more convenient administration of affairs, Carolina was divided into the northern and southern districts and governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time, peace being restored at home, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, these provinces began to breathe; and their trade advanced with wonderful rapidity.

The settlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when several public-spirited noblemen and others, from compassion to the poor of these kingdoms, subscribed a considerable sum, which, with 10,000*l.* from government, was given to provide necessaries for such poor persons as were willing to transport themselves into this province. In process of time, new sums were raised, and new inhabitants sent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 persons were settled in this province. It was not however to be expected that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed as they were at a great distance from their benefactors, and from the check and control of those who had a natural influence over them, would submit to the magistrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations, too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themselves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increased in numbers and opulence, they thought it hard they should be deprived of. From these corrupt sources arose all the bad humours which tore to pieces this constitution of government. Dissensions of all kinds sprang up, and the colony was on the brink of destruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the same footing with the Carolinas.

The method of settling in Carolina, and indeed in other provinces of British America, was to pitch upon a void space of ground, and either to purchase it at the rate of 20*l.* for a 1000 acres, and one shilling quit rent for every 100 acres; or otherwise, to pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors, without purchase-money: the former method was the most common, and the tenure a freehold.

The people of Carolina live in the same easy, plentiful, and luxurious manner with the Virginians already described. Poverty is here almost an entire stranger

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and the planters are the most hospitable people that are to be met with to all strangers, and especially to such as by accidents or misfortunes are rendered incapable to provide for themselves. The general topics of conversation among the men, when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene, are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice and tobacco, &c. Less attention and respect are paid to the women here, than in those parts of the United States, where the inhabitants have made greater progress in the arts of civilised life. Indeed, it is a truth, confirmed by observation, that in proportion to the advancement of civilisation, in the same proportion will respect for the women be increased; so that the progress of civilisation in countries, in states, in towns and in families, may be remarked by the degree of attention which is paid by husbands to their wives, and by the young men to the young women.

Temperance and industry are not to be reckoned among the virtues of the North Carolinians. The time which they waste in drinking, idling and gambling, leaves them very little opportunity to improve their plantations or their minds. The improvement of the former is left to their overseers and negroes; the improvement of the latter is too often neglected.

We are told that a strange and very barbarous practice prevailed among the lower class of people before the revolution in the back parts of Virginia, North and South Carolina and Georgia, it was called *gouging* \*. We have lately been told that in a particular county, where at the quarterly court 20 years ago, a day seldom passed without 10 or 15 boxing matches, it is now a rare thing to hear of a fight.

The only place in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charleston, the metropolis, in South Carolina. It is admirably situated at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ships 20 miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near 40. The harbour is good in every respect, but that of a bar, which hinders vessels of more than 200 tons burden, loaded, from entering. The fortifications are now demolished; the streets are well cut; the houses are large and well built: some of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handsome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The streets are wide and straight, intersecting each other at right angles; those running east and west extend about a mile from one river to the other: It contains about 1000 houses, and was the seat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the assembly. Its neighbourhood is beautiful beyond description. Several handsome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred; and, before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, the people were shewy and expensive in their dress and way of living; so that every thing conspired to make this by much the liveliest, and politest place, as well as the richest, in all America. It ought also to be observed, for the honour of the people of Carolina, that when, in common with the other colonies, they resolved against the use of certain luxuries, and even necessaries of life, those articles which improve the mind, enlarge the understanding, and correct the taste, were excepted: the importation of books was permitted as formerly.

North and South Carolina joined with the other colonies in their revolt against

\* *Gouging* is thus described. When two hands are worried with fighting and bruising each other, they come, as it is called, to *close quarters*, and each endeavours to twist his forefingers in the ear-locks of his antagonist. When

these are fast clinched, the thumbs are extended each way to the nose, and the eyes *gently* turned out of their sockets. It is incredible that such a savage practice should ever have been a common pastime. Morfe, vol. i. p. 581.

Great Britain; and in 1780, Charleston being besieged by the king's troops, surrendered on capitulation, with 6000 men in arms, prisoners, on the 11th of May in that year, after the siege had continued seven weeks.

As South-Carolina has met with infinitely more attention than the neighbouring provinces, the commerce of this country alone employed 140 ships, while that of the other two did not employ 60. Its exports to Great Britain, of native commodities, on an average of three years, amounted to more than 395,000*l.* annual value; and its imports 365,000*l.* The exports of North-Carolina were computed at about 70,000*l.* and its imports 18,000*l.* The exports of Georgia amounted to little more than 74,000*l.* and the imports to 49,000*l.*

The trade between Carolina and the West-Indies was the same in all respects with that of the rest of the colonies, and was very large; their trade with the Indians was in a very flourishing condition; and they formerly carried English goods on pack-horses 5 or 600 miles into the country west of Charleston.

The mouths of the rivers in North-Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, vessels of above 70 or 80 tons. This lays a weight upon their trade, by the expence of lightering.

Georgia has two towns already known in trade. Savannah, the capital, is commodiously situated for an inland and foreign trade, about ten miles from the sea, upon a noble river of the same name, which is navigable for 200 miles farther for large boats, to the second town, called Augusta, which stands in a country of the greatest fertility, and carries on a considerable trade with the Indians. From the town of Savannah you see the whole course of the river towards the sea; and on the other hand, you see the river for about 60 miles up into the country. Here the rev. Mr. George Whitefield (who used to cross the Atlantic every second year) founded an orphan house, which is now converted into a college for the education of young men, designed chiefly for the ministry.

In October 1779, the town of Savannah, being in possession of the king's troops, was besieged by 8000 of the American and French troops, in conjunction; but they were bravely repulsed by the king's troops, with a great slaughter of the French and Americans. But Savannah and Charleston, with the rest of the provinces, were afterwards evacuated and restored to the Americans.

By an estimate of their population, taken in 1791, the number of inhabitants in North Carolina was 393,751\*, of whom 293,179 were freemen; in South Carolina, 249,073, of whom 107,094 were slaves; and in Georgia, 82,548, of whom 29,264 are slaves.

In North Carolina the most numerous branch of the legislature is styled the house of commons; the other branch, the senate. Both are elected annually; each county choosing one senator and two commoners: and the five towns Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Hillsborough, and Halifax, one commoner each. The qualifications, as to residence, fortune, &c. both of the electors and candidates, are here extremely moderate. The governor, styled captain-general, is chosen by the legislature annually, as is also the council of state composed of seven members.

\* Perhaps there are few instances of such a rapid increase of inhabitants as we find in this state. In the year 1710, we are well assured that the number of inhabitants in North Carolina did not exceed six thousand. This extraordinary increase must arise in a great measure from the migration of inhabitants from other states, or from distant countries. Besides this, in North Carolina land continues to be plenty and cheap; grain is raised

with so much ease, and the trouble of providing for cattle in winter is so trifling, that a man supports his family with half the labour that is required in the cold climates. Under these advantages, we are not to wonder that people in all ranks of life should marry young. We have heard of grandmothers in that state, who were not more than 27 years old. *Morse, vol. i. p. 580.*

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The legislature appoints the judges and attorney-general, and recommends the justices of the peace, who are respectively commissioned by the governor, and continue in office during good behaviour. General and field officers of the militia are appointed in the same manner, but hold their commissions only during pleasure. In South Carolina the house of representatives is chosen for two years; the senate for four. The senators are classed, and the seats of one half their number vacated and refilled at every election of representatives. The number of representatives is 124; of senators, 37. Most of the executive as well as judiciary officers are appointed by the legislature; the governor and his lieutenant for two years; the judges during good pleasure; and the commissioners of the treasury, secretary of state, surveyor-general and sheriffs, for four years. To be eligible to the office of governor or senator, candidates must be thirty years old; and have freeholds, the governor 1,500l. and senators 1000l. sterling, unless they be resident in the election district, when 300l. clear of debt is sufficient. The representatives must have resided in the state three years, and have 500 acres of land freehold and ten negroes, or some real estate to the value of 150l. if non resident in the district, to the amount of 500l. and voters for either branch of the legislature must be free white men of the age of 21, have resided in the state two years, and possess freeholds of 50 acres of land, or a town lot; or have resided in the election district six months, and paid a tax to the amount of three shillings sterling. In Georgia the election of senators is triennial; that of representatives in general assembly is annual. The legislature appoints the governor and all executive and other state officers; those of the militia are named by the governor. In all legislative appointments three persons are first balloted for the house of representatives, one of whom is afterwards elected by the senate. The qualifications of electors and candidates are the same as in South Carolina in point of age and residence; but in point of fortune, considerably lower. The actual number of representatives is 34, but may be increased as new counties are laid off in vacant parts of the state. There is a senator for each county.

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NEW STATES FORMED IN NORTH AMERICA.

V E R M O N T.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	150	} between { 42 and 44 North latitude. 72 and 73 30' West longitude.
Breadth	70	

**BOUNDARIES.]** BOUNDED north by Lower Canada; east by Connecticut river, which divides it from New Hampshire; south by Massachusetts; west by New York.

**DIVISIONS.]** Vermont is naturally divided by the Green Mountain, which runs from south to north, and divides the state nearly in the middle. Its civil divisions are as follows:

Counties,

The

	Counties.	Towns.
West of the Mountain.	Bennington - - -	Bennington
	Rutland - - -	Rutland
	Addison - - -	Addison
	Chittendon - - -	Colchester
East of the Mountain.	Orange - - -	Newbury
	Windfor - - -	Windfor
	Windham - - -	Newfane and Putney.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers in this state are Michiscoui, Lamoille, Onion and Otter Creek rivers which run from east to west into lake Champlain; West, Sexton's Black, Waterquechee, White, Ompompanoosuck, Weld's, Wait's, Pafsumtick, and several smaller rivers which run from west to east into Connecticut river. Over the river Lamoille is a natural stone bridge 7 or 8 rods in length. Otter Creek is Navigable for boats 50 miles. Its banks are excellent land, being annually overflowed and enriched.

LAKES AND SPRINGS.] Memphremagog is the largest lake in this state. It is the reservoir of three considerable streams, Black, Barton and Clyde rivers. One of these rises in Willoughby Lake, and forms a communication between it and lake St. Peter's in the river St. Laurence.

CLIMATE.] During the winter season, which commonly lasts from the beginning of November, to the middle of April, the inhabitants enjoy a serene sky and a keen cold air. Snow begins to fall, commonly by the first of November; but the permanent snows do not fall till about the tenth of December, which prevent the ground from freezing to any considerable depth. In April the snow is gradually dissolved by the warm influences of the sun, which moistens and enriches the earth, and vegetation advances with surprising rapidity.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, } This state, generally speaking, is hilly but  
 PRODUCTIONS, &c. } not rocky. West of the mountain, from the county of Rutland, northward to the Canada line, is a flat country well adapted for tillage. The state at large is well watered, and affords the best of pasturage for cattle. Some of the finest beef cattle in the world are driven from this state. Horses also are raised for exportation. The natural growth upon the rivers is white pines of several kinds, intermingled with low intervals of beech, elm, and white oak. Back from the rivers, the land is thickly timbered with birch, sugar-maple, ash, butter nut and white oak of an excellent quality. The soil is well fitted for wheat, rye, barley, oats, flax, hemp, &c. Indian corn, back from the river, is frequently injured by the frost; but on the river it is raised in as great perfection as in any part of New England, owing in a great measure to the fogs, arising from the river, which either prevent or extract the frost. These fogs begin as soon as the corn is in danger from frosts, and last till cold weather commences. Fruit trees, in the northern counties, do not prosper.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] The inhabitants of this state trade principally with Boston, New York and Hartford. The articles of export are pot and pearl ashes, chiefly beef, horses, grain, some butter and cheese, lumber, &c. The inhabitants generally manufacture their own cloathing, in the family way. Grain has been raised in such plenty within a few years past, that the inhabitants have been induced to attempt the manufacture of corn spirits. For this purpose six or seven stills have already been erected, which yield a sufficient supply for the people, and a profit for the owners. Vast quantities of pot and pearl ashes are made in every part of the state. But one of the most important manufactures, in this state

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state is that of maple sugar. It has been estimated by a competent judge, that the average quantity made for every family back of Connecticut river is 200 lbs. a year. One man, with but ordinary advantages, in one month, made 550 lbs. of a quality equal to imported brown sugar. In two towns in Orange county, containing no more than forty families, 13,000 lbs. of sugar were made in the year 1791. The probability is, that in a few years maple sugar will become an article of export. In some parts of the state, the inhabitants are beginning to line the roads with maple trees, and it would certainly be a wise measure if this practice should become general throughout the states. Orchards of these trees planted on sloping hills, so as to render it easy to collect the juice, might be attended with peculiar advantages to the owners.

**POPULATION, RELIGION, AND CHARACTER.]** In 1790, according to the census then taken, this state contained 85,539 inhabitants, consisting chiefly of emigrants from Connecticut and Massachusetts, and their descendants. Two townships in Orange county are settled principally by Scotch. The body of the people are Congregationalists. The other denominations are Presbyterians, Baptists, and Episcopalians. This state is rapidly peopling. Five years ago the township of Danville, in the county of Orange, was a wilderness, without so much as a single family. Now they have two considerable companies of militia, besides a company of light infantry dressed in uniform.

The inhabitants of this state are an assemblage of people from various places, of different sentiments, manners, and habits. They have not lived together long enough to assimilate and form a general character. Assemble together in imagination a number of individuals of different nations—consider them as living together amicably, and assisting each other through the toils and difficulties of life; and yet rigorously opposed in particular religious and political tenets; jealous of their rulers and tenacious of their liberties;—dispositions which originate naturally from the dread of experienced oppression, and the habit of living under a free government—and you have a pretty just idea of the character of the people of Vermont.

**CHIEF TOWNS.]** In a new and interior country, large populous towns are not to be expected. Bennington, situated near the south-west corner of the state, is one of the largest. It contains about 2400 inhabitants, a number of handsome houses, a Congregational church, a court-house, and gaol.

Windsor and Rutland, by a late act of the legislature, are alternately to be the seat of government for eight years. The former is situated on Connecticut river, and contains about 1600 inhabitants; the latter lies upon Otter Creek, and contains upwards of 1400 inhabitants. Both are flourishing towns.

**HISTORY.]** The tract of country called Vermont, before the late war, was claimed both by New York and New Hampshire; and these interfering claims have been the occasion of much warm altercation, the particulars of which it would be neither entertaining nor useful to detail. They were not finally adjusted till since the peace. When hostilities commenced between Great Britain and her colonies, the inhabitants of this district, considering themselves as in a state of nature, and not within the jurisdiction either of New York or New Hampshire, associated and formed for themselves the constitution of which we have given an abstract. Under this constitution they have continued to exercise all the powers of an independent state, and have prospered. On the 4th of March 1791, agreeably to act of congress of December 6th, 1790, this state became one of the United States, and constitutes the fourteenth, and not the least respectable pillar of the American Union.

**CONSTITUTION.]** The legislature consists of a house of representatives and a council of twelve, besides the governor, who is president, and the lieutenant-governor, who is officially a member. The freemen meet annually in their several towns to choose the governor, counsellors, and other magistrates; and to the privilege

ilege of voting all males twenty-one years old and of peaceable dispositions are entitled, after taking the oath of fidelity to the state. The judges of the supreme and county courts, sheriffs, and justices of the peace, are appointed annually by joint ballot of the council and house. The council may originate bills, other than money bills, and suspend till the next session such bills as they disapprove; but have not a final negative.

### TERRITORY NORTH-WEST OF THE OHIO.

#### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 900 } Breadth 700 }	between { 37 and 50 north latitude. 81 and 98 west longitude.	} 411,000.

**BOUNDARIES.]** THIS extensive tract of country is bounded, north, by part of the northern boundary line of the United States; east, by the lakes and Pennsylvania; south, by the Ohio river; West, by the Mississippi. Mr. Hutchins, the late geographer of the United States, estimates that this tract contains 263,040,000 acres, of which 43,040,000 are water.

**CIVIL DIVISIONS.]** That part of this territory in which the Indian title is extinguished by being purchased from them, and which is settling under the government of the United States, is divided into four counties as follows:

Counties.	When erected.	Counties.	When erected.
Washington,	1788, July 26.	St. Clair,	1790, April 27.
Hamilton,	1790, Jan. 2.	Knox,	1790, June 20.

**RIVERS.]** The Muskingum is a gentle river, confined by banks so high as to prevent its overflowing. It is 250 yards wide at its confluence with the Ohio, and navigable by large batteaux and barges to the Three Legs, and by small ones to the lake at its head. The Hockhocking resembles the Muskingum, though somewhat inferior in size. The Scioto is a larger river than either of the preceding, and opens a more extensive navigation. One hundred and seventy-six miles above the Ohio, and eighteen miles above the Missouri, the Illinois empties itself into the Mississippi from the north-east, by a mouth about 400 yards wide.

**POPULATION.]** The number of souls in this large tract of country has not been ascertained. From the best data as yet received, the population may be estimated at 72,820.

**FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.]** The lands on the various streams abovementioned, which fall into the Ohio, are now more accurately known, and may be described with confidence and precision. They are interspersed with all the variety of soil which conduces to pleasantness of situation, and lays the foundation for the wealth of an agricultural and manufacturing people. Large level bottoms or natural meadows, from 20 to 50 miles in circuit, are every where found bordering the rivers and variegating the country in the interior parts. These afford as rich a soil as can be imagined, and may be reduced to proper cultivation with very little labour. It is said that in many of these bottoms a man may clear an acre a day fit for planting with Indian corn; there being no underwood, and the trees growing very high and large, but not thick together, need nothing but girdling.

The sugar maple is a most valuable tree for an inland country. Any number of inhabitants

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inhabitants may be forever supplied with a sufficiency of sugar, by preserving a few trees for the use of each family. A tree will yield about ten pounds of sugar a year, and the labour is very trifling. The sap is extracted in the months of February and March, and granulated, by the simple operation of boiling, to a sugar equal in flavour and whiteness to the best Muscovado.

Springs of excellent water abound in every part of this territory; and small and large streams for mills and other purposes are actually interspersed, as if by art, that there be no deficiency in any of the conveniences of life.

**ANIMALS, &c.]** No country is better stocked with wild game of every kind. Innumerable herds of deer and wild cattle are sheltered in the groves, and fed in the extensive bottoms that every where abound; an unquestionable proof of the great fertility of the soil. Turkeys, geese, ducks, swans, teal, pheasants, partridges, &c. are, from observation, believed to be in greater plenty here, than the tame poultry are in any part of the old settlements in America.

The rivers are well stored with fish of various kinds, and many of them of an excellent quality. They are generally large, though of different sizes: the cat-fish, which is the largest, and of a delicious flavour, weighs from six to eighty pounds.

**GOVERNMENT, &c.]** By an ordinance of congress, passed on the 13th of July 1787, this country, for the purposes of temporary government, was erected into one district, subject however to a division when circumstances shall make it expedient.

In the same ordinance it is provided, that congress shall appoint a governor, whose commission shall continue in force three years, unless sooner revoked.

The governor must reside in the district, and have a freehold estate therein of 1000 acres of land, while in the exercise of his office.

Congress from time to time are to appoint a secretary, to continue in office four years, unless sooner removed, who must reside in the district, and have an estate of 500 acres of land while in office.

Whenever population shall be sufficiently increased, this territory, as well as that to the south of the Ohio (which will afterwards be described), is to be divided into separate states, which, by an act of congress, May 1790, are to be admitted into the confederacy of the United States on an equal footing with its original members.

K E N T U C K Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 250 } between { 83 and 90 west longitude.		} 5,000.
Breadth 200 }	{ 36-30' and 39-30' north latitude.	

**BOUNDARIES.]** BOUNDED, north-west, by the river Ohio; west, by Cumberland river; south, by North Carolina; east, by Sandy river, and a line drawn due south from its source, till it strikes the northern boundary of North Carolina.

**CIVIL DIVISIONS.]** Kentucky was originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferson. It has since been subdivided into nine which follow:

Counties.	Chief Towns.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Jefferson - -	LOUISVILLE.	Madison	
Fayette - -	LEXINGTON.	Lincoln	
Bourbon		Woodford	
Mercer - -	Danville	Mason - -	Washington.
Nelson - -	Beardstown		

As most of these counties are very large, it is probable that subdivisions will continue to be made as population increases.

**RIVERS.]** The river Ohio washes the north-western side of Kentucky, in its whole extent. Its principal branches, which water this fertile tract of country, are Sandy, Licking, Kentucky, Salt, Green and Cumberland rivers.

**FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.]** This whole country, as far as has yet been discovered, lies upon a bed of limestone, which in general is about six feet below the surface, except in the valleys, where the soil is much thinner. A tract of about twenty miles wide, along the banks of the Ohio, is hilly broken land interspersed with many fertile spots. The rest of the country is agreeably uneven, gently ascending and descending at no great distances.

This country in general is well timbered. Of the natural growth which is peculiar to this country, we may reckon the sugar, the coffee, the papaw, and the cucumber tree. The two last are soft wood, and bear a fruit of the shape and size of a cucumber. The coffee tree resembles the black oak, and bears a pod which incloses a seed, of which a drink is made not unlike coffee. Besides these, there is the honey locust, black mulberry, wild cherry of a large size. The buckeye, an exceedingly soft wood, is the horse-chestnut of Europe. The magnolia bears a beautiful blossom of a rich and exquisite fragrance. Such is the variety and beauty of the flowering shrubs and plants which grow spontaneously, that in the proper season the wilderness appears in blossom.

The accounts of the fertility of the soil in this country have probably been exaggerated. That some parts of Kentucky, particularly the high grounds, are remarkably good, all accounts agree. The lands of the first rate are too rich for wheat, and will produce 50 and 60, and in some instances, it is affirmed, 100 bushels of good corn an acre. In common the land will produce 30 bushels of wheat or rye an acre. Barley, oats, cotton, flax, hemp, and vegetables of all kinds common in this climate, yield abundantly.

**CLIMATE.]** Healthy and delightful, some few places in the neighbourhood of ponds and low grounds excepted. The inhabitants do not experience the extremes of heat and cold. Snow seldom falls deep or lies long. The winter, which begins about Christmas, is never longer than three months, and is commonly but two, and is so mild that cattle can subsist without fodder.

**POPULATION AND CHARACTER.]** The population of this state in 1790 was 73,677. In 1783, in the county of Lincoln\* only, there were on the militia rolls 3,570 men, chiefly emigrants from the lower parts of Virginia. In 1784, the number of inhabitants were reckoned at upwards of 30,000. It is asserted that at least 20,000 migrated here in the year 1787. These people, collected from different states, of different manners, customs, religions, and political sentiments, have not been long enough together to form an uniform national character. Among the settlers there are many gentlemen of abilities, and many genteel families from several of the states, who give dignity and respectability to the settlement. They are in general more regular than people who settle new countries.

**RELIGION.]** The Baptists are the most numerous religious sect in Kentucky. There are several large congregations of Presbyterians, and some few of other denominations.

**CONSTITUTION.]** By the constitution of this state, formed and adopted in 1792, the legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives; the supreme executive, in a governor; the judiciary, in the supreme court of appeals and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The representatives are chosen annually by the people; the senators and

\* This county, it is to be remembered, has since been divided and subdivided.

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governor are chosen for four years, by electors appointed for that purpose; the judges are appointed during good behaviour, by the governor, with advice of the senate. The number of representatives cannot exceed 100 nor be less than 40; and the senate, at first consisting of 11, is to increase with the house of representatives in the ratio of one to four. The qualifications of candidates for offices, and of voters, are such only as appear requisite for insuring their maturity of judgment and attachment to the state.

TERRITORY SOUTH OF OHIO,  
OR, THE TENNESSEE GOVERNMENT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	360	between { 81-20' and 91-30' West longitude. { 35 and 36-30' North latitude.
Breadth	105	

**BOUNDARIES.]** BOUNDED, north, by Kentucky and part of Virginia; east, by the Stone, Yellow, Iron and Bald mountains, which divide it from North Carolina; south, by South Carolina and Georgia; west, by the Mississippi\*.

**CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.]** This extensive district is divided into the following counties:

	Counties.	Counties South of French Broad.
WASHINGTON district.	{ Washington	MERO district { Davidfon { Sumner { Tennessee
	{ Sullivan	
	{ Green	
	{ Hawkins	

The population is 35,691 according to the returns made by the governor of this territory, in 1791.

**CLIMATE.]** Moderate and healthy. In the tract lying between the great island, as it is called, and the Kanhaway, the summers are remarkably cool, and the air rather moist. South-west of this as far as the Indian towns, the climate is much warmer, and the soil better adapted to the productions of the southern states.

The diseases to which the adult inhabitants are most liable are pleuritis and rheumatism. It is to the inhabitants a real advantage that they are almost beyond the reach of those luxuries which are enjoyed, and those epidemical diseases which are consequently frequent, in populous towns on the sea coast. An inhabitant of this district writes, "Our physicians are a fine climate, healthy robust mothers and fathers, plain and plentiful diet, and enough of exercise. There is not a regular bred physician residing in the whole district."

**RIVERS AND MOUNTAINS.]** The Tennessee, called also the Cherokee, and absurdly the Hogohege river, is the largest branch of the Ohio. It rises in the mountains of Virginia, latitude 37°; and pursues a course of about 1000 miles south and south-west, nearly to latitude 34°, receiving from both sides a number of

\* About seven and a half millions of acres of this tract only has been yet purchased from the Indians.

large

governor

large tributary streams. It then wheels about to the north, in a circuitous course, and mingles with the Ohio nearly 60 miles from its mouth.

The Cumberland mountain, in its whole extent from the great Kanaway to the Tennessee, consists of the most stupendous piles of craggy rocks, of any mountain in the western country. In several parts of it, for miles, it is inaccessible even to the Indians on foot. In one place particularly, near the summit of the mountain, there is a most remarkable ledge of rocks of about 30 miles in length and 100 feet thick, shewing a perpendicular face to the south-east more noble and grand than any artificial fortification in the known world, and apparently equal in point of regularity. Through this stupendous pile, according to a modern hypothesis, had the waters of all the upper branches of the Tennessee to force their way.

The Shawnee, now called Cumberland river, one of the southern branches of the Ohio, is next in size to the Tennessee, and extends eastward nearly as far, but runs a much more direct course. It is navigable for small craft as far as Nashville. From the south it receives Harper's, Coney, Obeys and Clear Fork rivers; and from the north, Red and Rock Cattle rivers, besides many smaller streams.

**ANIMALS.]** A few years since, this country abounded with large herds of wild cattle, improperly called buffaloes; but the improvident or ill disposed among the first settlers have destroyed multitudes of them out of mere wantonness. They are still to be found on some of the south branches of Cumberland river. Elk or moose are seen in many places, chiefly among the mountains. The deer are become comparatively scarce, so that no person makes a business of hunting them for their skins only. Enough of bears and wolves yet remain. Beavers and otters are caught in plenty in the upper branches of Cumberland and Kentucky rivers.

**COMMERCE.]** This country furnishes many valuable articles of export, such as fine waggon and saddle horses, beef, cattle, ginseng, deer skins and furs, cotton, hemp and flax, which may be transported by land; also iron, lumber, pork, and flour, which might be exported in great quantities, if the navigation of the Mississippi were opened; but there are few of the inhabitants who understand commerce, or are possessed of proper capitals; of course it is badly managed.

**RELIGION.]** The Presbyterians are the prevailing denomination of Christians in this district. They have a presbytery called the Abingdon presbytery, established by act of synod, which, in 1788, consisted of 23 large congregations, who were then supplied by only six ministers. There are also some of the Baptist and Methodist denominations.

**GOVERNMENT.]** Similar to that established by congress in the territory of the United States north-west of the Ohio. The governor is the executive (and in his absence the secretary), and the governor and three judges, the legislative power, in the district.

**CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND DRESS.]** Among the bulk of the inhabitants a great simplicity of manners prevails. Duplicity, or the etiquette of cities and populous places, is unknown among them. If a man deceives another, he is deemed and called a liar, and it frequently happens that a *bloody nose* is the consequence. Wrestling, jumping, running foot-races, and playing at ball, are the common diversions. Dancing is coming into fashion. Card-playing is a rare amusement. The hunting shirt is still worn by the militia on duty, and by hunters in pursuit of game. At home and at public assemblies they dress like the Virginians.

**INDIANS.]** The Indian tribes within and in the vicinity of this district are the Cherokees and Chickasaws. The Cherokees have been a warlike and numerous nation; but by continual wars, in which it has been their destiny to be engaged with the northern Indian tribes, they were reduced at the commencement of the last war to about 2000 fighting men; since which they have been reduced more than one half, and have become weak and pusillanimous.

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The Chickasaws, of all the Indian tribes within the limits of the United States merit the most from the Americans, having at all times maintained a brotherly attachment to them. They glory in saying that they never shed the blood of an Anglo-American. There is so great an affinity between the Chickasaw and Choctaw languages, that the common people can converse together, each speaking in his own dialect. They are a personable people, and have an openness in their countenances and behaviour, uncommon among savages.

**HISTORY.]** The eastern parts of this district were explored by colonels Wood, Patton, Buchanan, captain Charles Campbell, and Dr. T. Walker (each of whom were concerned in large grants of land from the government), as early as between the years 1740 and 1750. In 1754, at the commencement of the French war, not more than 50 families had settled here, who were either destroyed or driven off by the Indians before the close of the following year. It remained uninhabited till 1765, when the settlement of it recommenced; and in 1773 the country as far west as the long island of Holftein, an extent of more than 120 miles in length from east to west, had become tolerably well peopled.

In 1785, in conformity to the resolves of congress of April 23, 1784, the inhabitants of this district essayed to form themselves into a body politic, by the name of the state of FRANKLAND; but differing among themselves as to the form of government, and about other matters, in the issue of which some blood was shed—and being opposed by some leading characters in the eastern parts, the scheme was given up, and the inhabitants remained in general peaceable until 1790, when congress established their present government. Since this period, some late incursions of the Indians excepted, the inhabitants have been peaceable and prosperous.

**PRESENT AND FUTURE CONSTITUTION.]** Such are the extensive dominions OF CONGRESS } dependent on congress; which, together with a president chosen for four years, consists, since 1789, of a senate and house of representatives. The senate is composed of two senators from each state, elected for six years; and the house of representatives, of one representative, chosen every second year, for every thirty-three thousand inhabitants in each state, until the number has exceeded one hundred; since which there is not to be less than one representative for every forty thousand, until the number of representatives amounts to two hundred. When this takes place, the proportion between the people and their representatives is to be so regulated by congress, that there shall not be less than two hundred representatives, nor more than one representative for every fifty thousand persons. This is the ultimate limit to which the Americans as yet look forward, in the constitution of the general government of their Union.

## WEST INDIES.

**WE** have already observed, that, between the two continents of America, lie a multitude of islands, which we call the West Indies, and which, such as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. As the climate and seasons of these islands differ widely from those of Europe, we shall, to avoid repetition, speak of them in general, as well as mention some other particulars peculiar to the West Indies.

**SEASONS.]** A TROPICAL year seems properly to comprehend but two distinct seasons, the wet and the dry; but as the rains in these climates continue two great periods, it may be described, like the European year, under four divisions.

\* For these we acknowledge great obligations to the very elegant History, which Mr. Edwards of Jamaica has published of the British

Colonies in the West Indies, in 2 vols. 4to. second edition, 1795.

The spring may be said to commence with the month of May, when the foliage of the trees evidently becomes more vivid, and the parched favannas begin to change their rufflet hue, even previous to the first periodical rains, which are now daily expected, and generally set in about the middle of the month. These, compared with the autumnal rains, may be said to be gentle showers. They come from the south, and commonly fall every day about noon, and break up with thunderstorms; creating a bright and beautiful verdure, and a rapid and luxuriant vegetation. The thermometer at this season varies considerably; commonly falling six or eight degrees immediately after the diurnal rains: its medium height may be stated at 75°.

After these rains have continued about a fortnight, the weather becomes dry, settled, and salutary; and the tropical summer reigns in full glory. Not a cloud is to be perceived; and the sky blazes with irresistible fierceness. For some hours, commonly between seven and ten in the morning, before the setting in of the sea-breeze or trade-wind, (which at this season blows from the south-east with great force and regularity until late in the evening) the heat is scarcely supportable; but no sooner is the influence felt of this refreshing wind, than all nature revives, and the climate, in the shade, becomes not only very tolerable, but pleasant. The thermometer now varies but little in the whole twenty-four hours: its medium, near the coast, may be stated at about 80°. it has been seldom observed higher than 85° at noon, nor much below 75° at sun-rise.

The nights at this season are transcendently beautiful. The clearness and brilliancy of the heavens, the serenity of the air, and the soft tranquillity in which all nature reposes, contribute to harmonize the mind, and produce the most calm and delightful sensations. The moon too in these climates displays far greater radiance than in Europe: the smallest print is legible by her light; and in the moon's absence her function is not ill supplied by the brightness of the milky-way, and by that glorious planet Venus, which appears here like a little moon, and glitters with so resplendent a beam as to cast a shade from trees, buildings, and other objects, making full amends for the short stay and abrupt departure of the crepusculum or twilight\*.

This state of the weather commonly continues, with little variation, from the beginning of June until the middle of August, when the diurnal breeze begins to intermit, and the atmosphere becomes sultry, incommodious, and suffocating. In the latter end of this month, and most part of September, we look about in vain for coolness and comfort. The thermometer occasionally exceeds 90°; and, instead of a steady and refreshing wind from the sea, there are usually faint breezes and calms alternately. These are preludes to the second periodical or autumnal season. Large towering clouds, fleecy, and of a reddish hue, are now seen in the morning, in the quarters of the south, and south-east; the tops of the mountains at the same time appear clear of clouds, and the objects upon them wear a bluish cast, and seem much nearer to the spectator than usual. When these vast accumulations of vapour have risen to a considerable height in the atmosphere, they commonly move horizontally towards the mountains, proclaiming their progress in deep and rolling thunder, which, reverberated from peak to peak, and answered by the distant roaring of the sea, heightens the majesty of the scene, and irresistibly lifts up the mind of the spectator to the great author of all sublimity.

\* In the mountainous and interior parts of the larger islands, innumerable *fire-flies* abound at night, which have a surprising appearance to a stranger. They consist of different species, some of which cast a light, resembling a spark of fire, from a globular prominence near each eye; and others from

their sides in the act of respiration. They are far more luminous than the glow-worm, and fill the air on all sides, like so many living stars, to the great astonishment and admiration of a traveller unaccustomed to the country.—In the day time they disappear.

The

\* In Barbadoe windward, the by day. This is months of June

The waters, however, with which these congregated vapours load the atmosphere, seldom fall with great and general force until the beginning of October. It is then that the heavens pour down cataracts. An European who has not visited these climates can form no just conception of the quantity of water which deluges the earth at this season: by an exact account which was kept of the perpendicular height of the water which fell in one year in Barbadoes (and that no-wise remarkable) it appeared to have been equal to sixty seven cubic inches.

It is now, in the interval between the beginning of August and the latter end of October, that hurricanes, those dreadful visitations of the Almighty, are apprehended. The prognostics of these elementary conflicts have been minutely described by various writers, and their effects are known by late mournful experience to every inhabitant of every island within the tropics; but their immediate cause seems to lie far beyond the limits of our circumscribed knowledge.

Towards the end of November, or sometimes not till the middle of December, a considerable change in the temperature of the air is perceivable. The coasts to the northward are now beaten by a rough and heavy sea, roaring with incessant noise; the wind varies from the east to the north-east and north, sometimes driving before it, across the highest mountains, not only heavy rains but hail; till at length the north wind having acquired sufficient force, the atmosphere is cleared; and now comes on a succession of serene and pleasant weather, the north-east and northerly winds spreading coolness and delight throughout the whole of this burning region.

If this interval, therefore, from the beginning of December to the end of April, be called winter, it is certainly the finest winter on the globe. To valetudinarians and persons advanced in life, it is the climate of Paradise.

The account thus given is however to be received not as uniformly exact and minutely particular; but as a general representation only, subject to many variations and exceptions. In the large islands of Cuba, Hispaniola, and Jamaica, whose lofty mountains are clothed with forests perhaps as old as the deluge, the rains are much more frequent and violent than in the small islands to windward; some of which are without mountains, and others without wood; both powerful agents on the atmosphere. In the interior and elevated districts of the three former islands, it is believed there are showers in every month of the year; and on the northern coasts of those islands, considerable rains are expected in December, or January, soon after the setting in of the north winds.

**SEA-BREEZE AND LAND WIND.]** Concerning the trade-wind, or diurnal sea-breeze, which blows in these climates from the east and its collateral points, with little intermission or variation nine months in the year, the causes of it having been traced and displayed by numerous writers, it is unnecessary to treat: but the peculiarity of the land wind by night (than which nothing can be more grateful and refreshing) has been less generally noticed. This is an advantage, among others, which the larger islands of the West Indies derive from the great inequality of their surface; for as soon as the sea-breeze dies away, the hot air of the plains being rarefied, ascends towards the tops of the mountains, and is there condensed by the cold; which making it specifically heavier than it was before, it descends back to the plains on both sides of the ridge. Hence a night wind is felt in all the mountainous countries under the torrid zone, blowing on all sides from the land towards the shore, so that on a north shore the wind shall come from the south, and on the south shore from the north. The islands to windward, having no mountains, have of course no land breeze.

\* In Barbadoes, and most of the small islands to windward, the sea breeze blows as well by night as by day. This is sometimes the case in Jamaica in the months of June and July, the land at that time be-

ing heated to such a degree, that the cold air of the mountains is not sufficiently dense to check the current which flows from the sea.

BEAUTY OF THE COUNTRY.] To the first discoverers, the prospect of these islands must have been interesting beyond all that imagination can at present conceive of it. Even at this day when the mind is prepared by anticipation, they are beheld by the voyager for the first time, with strong emotions of admiration, arising not only from the novelty of the scene, but also from the beauty of the smaller islands, and the sublimity of the larger, whose lofty mountains form a stupendous and awful picture.

Nor did these promising territories disappoint expectation on a nearer search and more accurate inspection. Columbus, whose veracity has never been suspected, speaks with raptures of their beauty and fertility. "There is a river" (he observes in one of his letters to king Ferdinand written from Cuba) "which discharges itself into the harbour that I have named Porto Santo, of sufficient depth to be navigable. I had the curiosity to sound it, and found eight fathom. Yet the water is so limpid, that I can easily discern the sand at the bottom. The banks of this river are embellished with lofty palm-trees, whose shade gives a delicious freshness to the air; and the birds and the flowers are uncommon and beautiful. I was so delighted with the scene, that I had almost come to the resolution of staying here the remainder of my days; for, believe me, sire, these countries far surpass all the rest of the world in pleasure and conveniency; and I have frequently observed to my people, that, with all my endeavours to convey to your majesty an adequate idea of the charming objects which continually present themselves to our view, the description will fall greatly short of the reality."

MAGNIFICENCE AND SUBLIMITY OF THE MOUNTAINS.] Relinquishing the naturalist's task of minutely describing the splendid aerial tribe of these regions whose variety is not less remarkable than their beauty, we now proceed to the largest and most awful objects of inanimate nature. It is in the magnitude, extent, and elevation of the mountains of the New World, that the Almighty has most strikingly manifested the wonders of his omnipotence. Those of South America are supposed to be nearly twice the height of the highest in the ancient hemisphere, and, even under the equator, have their tops involved in everlasting snow. To those massive piles, the loftiest summits of the most elevated of the West Indian islands cannot indeed be compared; but some of these rise, nevertheless, in amazing grandeur, and are among the first objects that fix the attention of the voyager. The mountains of Hispaniola in particular, whose wavy ridges are descended from sea to the distance of thirty leagues, towering far above the clouds in stupendous magnificence, and the blue mountains of Jamaica, have never yet, perhaps, been fully explored. Neither curiosity nor avarice has hitherto ventured to invade the topmost of those lofty regions. In such of them as are accessible, nature is found to have put on the appearance of a new creation. As the climate changes, the trees, the birds, and the insects are seen also to differ from those which are met with below. To an unaccustomed spectator, looking down from those heights, the whole scene appears like enchantment. The first object which catches the eye at the dawn of day is a vast expanse of vapour, covering the whole face of the vallies. Its boundaries being perfectly distinct, and visibly circumscribed, it has the exact resemblance of an immense body of water, while the mountains appear like so many islands in the midst of a beautiful lake. As the sun increases in force, the prospect varies: the incumbent vapours fly upward, and melt into air; disclosing all the beauties of nature, and the triumphs of industry, heightened and embellished by the full blaze of a tropical sun. In the equatorial season, scenes of still greater magnificence frequently present themselves; for, while all is calm and serene in the higher regions, the clouds are seen below sweeping along the sides of the mountains in vast bodies, till, growing more ponderous by accumulation, they fall at length in torrents of water on the plains. The sound of the tempest is distinctly

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stinctly heard by the spectator above; the distant lightning is seen to irradiate the bloom; while the thunder, reverberated in a thousand echoes, rolls far beneath his feet.

**SUGAR-CANE, COTTON, IN-} In treating of the agriculture of the West IN-  
DIGO, COFFEE, &c. &c.} dian islands, the first object that naturally excites attention is the cane which produces their great staple commodity, sugar;—a plant which, from its commercial importance and general utility, we may venture to pronounce one of the most valuable in the creation. The ancient name of the cane was *Saccharum*. This word was corrupted, in monkish Latin, into *Zucharum*, and afterwards into *Zucra*. By the Spaniards, it was converted into *Açucar*, from whence *Sugar*. The plant is a native of the east, and was probably cultivated in India and Arabia, time immemorial.**

The botanical name of the sugar-cane is *Arundo Saccharifera*. It is a jointed reed, terminating in leaves or blades whose edges are finely and sharply serrated. The body of the cane is strong but brittle, and, when ripe, of a fine straw-colour, inclining to yellow; and it contains a soft pithy substance, which affords a copious supply of juice, of a sweetness the least cloying in nature.

The time of crop in the sugar islands is the season of gladness and festivity to man and beast. So palatable, salutary, and nourishing is the juice of the cane, that every individual of the animal creation, drinking freely of it, derives health and vigour from its use. The meagre and sickly among the negroes exhibit a surprising alteration in a few weeks after the mill is set in action. The labouring horses, oxen, and mules, though almost constantly at work during this season, yet, being indulged with plenty of the green tops of this noble plant, and some of the scummings from the boiling-house, improve more than at any other period of the year.

Even the pigs and poultry fatten on the refuse. In short, on a well-regulated plantation, under a humane and benevolent director, there is such an appearance during crop-time, of health, plenty, and busy cheerfulness, as to soften in a great measure the hardships of slavery, and induce a spectator to hope, when the miseries of life are represented as insupportable, that they are sometimes exaggerated through the medium of fancy\*.

The juice from the mill ordinarily contains eight parts of pure water, one part of sugar, and one part composed of gross oil and mucilaginous gum, with a portion of essential oil. The proportions are taken at a medium; for some juice has been so rich as to make a hog'shead of sugar from thirteen hundred gallons, and some so watery as to require more than double that quantity.—By a hog'shead is meant sixteen hundred weight. The richer the juice is, the more free it is found from redundant oil and gum: so that an exact analysis of any one quantity of juice would convey very little knowledge of the contents of any other quantity †.

That beautiful vegetable wool, or substance called **COTTON**, is the spontaneous production of three parts of the earth. It is found growing naturally in all the tropical regions of Asia, Africa, and America; and may justly be comprehended

\* "He (says honest old Slare the physician) that undertakes to argue against *Sweets* in general, takes upon him a very difficult task, for nature seems to have recommended this taste to all sorts of creatures; the birds of the air, the beasts of the field, many reptiles and flies seem to be pleased and delighted with the specific relish of all sweets, and to dislike the contrary. Now the sugar-cane, or sugar, I hold for the top and highest standard of vegetable sweets." Sugar is ob-

tainable in some degree from most vegetables, and Dr. Cullen is of opinion, that sugar is directly nutritious. There is also good reason to suppose, that the general use of sugar in Europe has had the effect of extinguishing the scurvy, the plague, and many other diseases formerly epidemical.

† A pound of sugar from a gallon of raw liquor is reckoned in Jamaica very good yielding. Sugar, chemically analysed, yields phlegm, acid, oil, and spongy glossy charcoal.

among the most valuable gifts of a bountiful Creator, superintending and providing for the necessities of man.

The cotton wool which is manufactured into cloth (for there is a species in the West Indies, called silk or wild cotton, unfit for the loom) consists of two distinct kinds, known to the planters by the names of *green-seed cotton* and *shrub cotton*; and these again have subordinate marks of difference, with which the cultivator ought to be well acquainted if he means to apply his labours to the greatest advantage.

**GREEN-SEED COTTON** is of two species; of one of which the wool is so firmly attached to the seed, that no method has hitherto been found of separating them, except by the hand; an operation so tedious and troublesome, that the value of the commodity is not equal to the pains that are requisite in preparing it for market. This sort therefore is at present cultivated principally for supplying wicks for the lamps that are used in sugar-boiling, and for domestic purposes; but the staple being exceedingly good, and its colour perfectly white, it would doubtless be a valuable acquisition to the muslin manufactory, could means be found of detaching it easily from the seed.

The other sort has larger seeds, of a duller green than the former, and the wool is not of equal fineness; though much finer than the cotton wool in general cultivation.

**SHRUB COTTON**, properly so called. The shrub itself very nearly resembles an European corinth bush, and may be subdivided into several varieties, all of which however very nearly resemble each other. These varieties (such of them at least as have come to my knowledge), are, 1st, the *common Jamaica*; 2d, *brown-bearded*; 3d, *nanken*; 4th, *French or small seed*, with a whitish beard; 5th, *kidney cotton*.

The plant is raised from the seed, the land requiring no other preparation than to be cleared of its native incumbances; and the season for putting the seed into the ground is from May to September, both months inclusive. At the end of five months, the plant begins to blossom and put forth its beautiful yellow flowers, and, in two months more, the pod is formed. From the seventh to the tenth month the pods ripen in succession; when they burst open in three partitions, displaying their white and glossy down to the sight. The wool is now gathered, the seeds being enveloped in it; from which it is afterwards extricated by a machine resembling a turner's lathe.

It is computed that not less than six hundred thousand people in Great Britain find full employment in the cotton manufactory. In point of importance therefore, even the produce and manufacture of the great staple commodities of this kingdom, *wool*, does not exceed it in a twofold proportion. According to the information of a very able and diligent inquirer, there are from ten to twelve millions of sheep in England. The value of their wool may, one year with another, amount to 3,000,000*l.* the expence of manufacturing this is probably 9,000,000*l.* and the total value 12,000,000*l.* In reference to the number of persons who are maintained by this manufactory, there are probably about a million.

The plant which yields the valuable commodity called **INDIGO** (probably so named from India, where it was first known to be cultivated) grows spontaneously in all the West Indies. In the British sugar islands, they reckon three distinct species; the wild, Guatimala, and French. The first is said to be the hardest, and the dye extracted from it is supposed to be of the best quality both in colour and closeness of grain; but one of the other two species is commonly preferred by the planter, as yielding a greater return; and of those, the French surpasses the Guatimala in quantity; but yields to it in fineness of grain and beauty of colour.

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**COFFEE** will thrive in every soil in the West Indies; a cold stiff clay soil, and a shallow mould on a hot marl, excepted; in both which, the leaves turn yellow, and the trees perish, or produce nothing: but the best and highest flavoured fruit is unquestionably the growth of either a warm gravelly mould, a sandy loam, or the dry red hills which are found in almost every island of the West Indies, Jamaica especially. Frequent showers of rain, however, are friendly to its growth; but if water remains long about the roots, the tree will decay and perish.

The **CACAO**, or chocolate nut, a production equally delicate, wholesome and nutritive, is a native of South America, and is said to have been originally conveyed to Hispaniola from some of the provinces of New Spain, where, besides affording to the natives an article of nourishment, it served the purpose of money, and was used by them as a medium in barter; one hundred and fifty of the nuts being considered of much the same value as a real by the Spaniards.\*

**GINGER** is distinguished into two sorts, the black and the white; but the difference arises wholly from the mode of curing; the former being rendered fit for preservation by means of boiling water, the latter by insolation; and as it is found necessary to select the fairest and soundest roots for exposure to the sun, white ginger is commonly one third dearer than black in the market.

In the cultivation of this root no greater skill or care is required than in the propagation of potatoes in Great Britain, and it is planted much in the same manner; but is fit for digging only once a year, unless for the purpose of preserving it in syrup. In that case, it must be taken up at the end of three or four months, while its fibres are tender, and full of sap. Ginger thus prepared makes an admirable sweetmeat.

It seems as if this commodity was growing greatly out of use in Europe, and its cultivation in the West Indies decreases in consequence. The average quantity exported annually from the British islands may be stated at ten thousand bags of one cwt. of which 6,000 are the produce of Barbadoes, and the remainder (except a very small part from Dominica) is raised in Jamaica. Its medium price at the London market is forty shillings the hundred weight.

**ARNATTO**. This production is indigenous, and was called by one class of Indians roucou, and by another achiotte. Its botanical name is bixa. Arnatto is mixed up by the Spanish Americans with their chocolate, to which it gives, in their opinion, an elegant tincture and great medicinal virtue. They suppose that it strengthens the stomach, stops fluxes, and abates febrile symptoms; but its principal consumption is among painters and dyers. It is sometimes used by the Dutch farmers to give a richness of colour to their butter: and very small quantities of it are said to be applied in the same manner in the English dairies. On the whole, however, it

\* The cacao tree, both in size and shape, somewhat resembles a young *black-heart cherry*. The flower is of a saffron colour, extremely beautiful, and the pods, which in a green state are much like a cucumber, proceed immediately from all parts of the body and larger branches. As they ripen they change their colour, and turn to a fine bluish red, almost purple, with pink-coloured veins. This is the common sort; but there is a larger species, which produces pods of a delicate yellow or lemon colour. Each pod may contain from twenty to thirty nuts or kernels, not unlike almonds, which are again inclosed in a white pulpy substance soft and sweet, and immediately enveloped in a parchment shell. These nuts, being first simply dried in the sun, are packed for market, and require very

little preparation, after removing the shell, to be made into good chocolate. The cakes which are generally used under this name in England appear to be composed of not more than one half genuine cacao; the remainder is perhaps *sour* and *Cassia soap*. Considered medicinally, chocolate is said to be too heavy for weak and relaxed stomachs; but in the West Indies, experience abundantly demonstrates that it is in the highest degree balsamic and restorative.—Colonel Montague James, of Jamaica, who was the first white person born after the conquest of the island by the English, lived to the great age of one hundred and four, and for the last thirty years of his life used scarce any other food than chocolate.

is an object of no great commercial importance, and the demand for it is not sufficient to encourage much attention to its cultivation.

The **PIZMENTO** trees or allspice grow spontaneously, and in great abundance, in many parts of Jamaica, but more particularly on hilly situations, near the sea, on the northern side of that island; where they form the most delicious groves that can possibly be imagined; filling the air with fragrance, and giving reality, though in a very distant part of the globe, to our great poet's description of those balmy gales which convey to the delighted voyager

"Sabean odours from the spicy shore  
Of Araby the blest.—  
Chear'd with the grateful smell, old ocean smiles."

There cannot be, in all the vegetable creation, a tree of greater beauty than a young piemento. The trunk, which is of a grey colour, smooth and thinning, and altogether free of bark, rises to the height of fifteen or twenty feet. It then branches out on all sides, richly clothed with leaves of a deep green, somewhat like those of the bay-tree; and these, in the months of July and August, are beautifully contrasted and relieved by an exuberance of white flowers. It is remarkable, that the leaves are equally fragrant with the fruit, and yield in distillation a delicate odiferous oil, which is very commonly used, in the medicinal dispensaries of Europe, for oil of cloves.

[**CRUELITIES EXERCISED ON THE ORIGINAL INHABITANTS.**] It may be safely affirmed, that the whole story of mankind affords no scene of barbarity equal to that of the cruelties exercised on these innocent and inoffensive people\*. All the murders and desolations of the most pitiless tyrants that ever diverted themselves with the pangs and convulsions of their fellow creatures, fall infinitely short of the bloody enormities committed by the Spanish nation in the conquest of the new world; a conquest, on a low estimate, effected by the murder of ten millions of the species! But although the accounts which are transmitted down to us of this dreadful carnage are authenticated beyond the possibility of dispute, the mind, shrinking from the contemplation, wishes to resist conviction, and to relieve itself by incredulity.—Such at least is the apology one would wish to frame for the author of the American History, when he attempts, in contradiction to the voice and feelings of all mankind, to palliate such horrible wickedness†. Yet the same author admits, that, in the short interval of fifteen years subsequent to the discovery of the West Indies, the Spaniards had reduced the natives of Hispaniola from a million to sixty thousand‡. It is in vain that he remarks on the bodily feebleness of these poor Indians,

\* Historians have preserved a remarkable speech of a venerable old man, a native of Cuba, who, approaching Christopher Columbus who exercised some of the barbarities which disgraced his successions, with great reverence, and presenting a basket of fruit, addressed him as follows: "Whether you are divinities" (he observed), "or mortal men, we know not; you are come into these countries with a force against which were we inclined to resist it, resistance would be folly. We are all therefore at your mercy; but if you are men, subject to mortality like ourselves, you cannot be unappriized, that after this life there is another, wherein a very different portion is allotted to good and bad men. If therefore you expect to die, and believe, with us, that every one is to be rewarded in a future state according to

"his conduct in the present, you will do no hurt to those who do none to you."

† Introduction to the History of America, by Dr. Robertson, vol. i. p. 10. "It is to be hoped" (says the author) "that the Spaniards will at last discover this system of concealment to be no less impolitic than illiberal. From what I have experienced in the course of my inquiries, I am satisfied that upon a more minute scrutiny into their early operations in the New World, however reprehensible" (a tender expression) "the actions of individuals may appear, the conduct of the nation will be placed in a more favourable light." This opinion however needs no other reutation than that which is to be found in the subsequent pages of the learned author's history.

‡ History of America, vol. i. book iii. p. 185.

and their natural incapacity for labour. Such a constitutional defect, if it existed, entitled them to greater lenity; but the Spaniards distributed them into lots, and compelled them to dig in the mines, without rest or intermission, until death, their only refuge, put a period to their sufferings. Such as attempted resistance or escape, their merciless tyrants hunted down with dogs, which were fed on their flesh. They disregarded sex and age, and with impious and frantic bigotry even called in religion to sanctify their cruelties! Some, more zealous than the rest, forced their miserable captives into the water, and after administering to them the rite of baptism, cut their throats the next moment, to prevent their apostacy! Others made a vow to hang or burn thirteen every morning in honour of our saviour and the twelve apostles! Nor were these the excesses only of a blind and remorseless fanaticism, which exciting our abhorrence, excites also our pity: The Spaniards were actuated in many instances by such wantonness of malice, as is wholly unexampled in the wide history of human depravity.—Martyr relates that it was a frequent practice among them to murder the Indians of Hispaniola in sport, or merely, he observes, *to keep their hands in use*. They had an emulation which of them could most dexterously strike off the head of a man at a blow; and wagers frequently depended on this hellish exercise\*.

“I once beheld” (says Las Casas) “four or five principal Indians roasted alive at a slow fire; and as the miserable victims poured forth dreadful screams which disturbed the commanding officer in his afternoon slumbers, he sent word that they should be strangled; but the officer on guard (*I know his name and I know his relations in Seville*) would not suffer it; but causing their mouths to be gagged, that their cries might not be heard, he stirred up the fire with his own hands, and roasted them deliberately till they all expired.—*I saw it myself!!!*”

STRIKING PECULIARITIES OF } There are some peculiarities in the habits of the  
THE WHITE INHABITANTS. } white inhabitants, which cannot fail to catch the eye of an European newly arrived; one of which is the contrast between the general plenty and magnificence of their tables (at least in Jamaica) and the meanness of their houses and apartments; it being no uncommon thing to find at the country habitations of the planters a splendid side-board loaded with plate, and the choicest wines, a table covered with the finest damask linen, and a dinner of perhaps sixteen or twenty covers; and all this in a hovel not superior to an English barn. A stranger cannot fail also to observe a strange incongruity between the great number of negro domestics, and their appearance and apparel. The butler (and he but seldom) is the only attendant that is allowed the luxury of shoes and stockings. All the others, and there is commonly one to each guest, wait at table in *bare-footed majesty*; some of them perhaps half naked. Another peculiarity in the manners of the English in the West Indies (in Jamaica especially) is the number of nautical expressions in their conversation. Thus they say, *hand such a thing*, instead of bring or give it; a plantation well stocked with negroes is said to be *well handed*: an office or employment is called a *birth*; the kitchen is denominated the *cook-room*; a warehouse is called a *store* or *store-room*; a sofa is called a *cot*; a waistcoat is termed a *jacket*; and in speaking of the East and West, they say *to windward* and *leeward*. This language has probably prevailed since the days of the bucaniers.

CHARACTER, AND DISPOSITIONS OF } The negroes in general in our islands  
NEGROES IN A STATE OF SLAVERY. } (such of them at least as have been any length of time in a state of servitude) are of a distrustful and cowardly disposition. So degrading is the nature of slavery, that fortitude of mind is lost as free agency is re-

\* Edwards's Hist. of the West Indies, vol. i. p. 27.

† Ibid, vol. i. p. 90.

strained.

strained. To the same cause probably must be imputed their propensity to conceal or violate the truth; which is so general, that the vice of falsehood appears to be one of the most prominent features in their character.

The negroes are strongly attached to their countrymen, but above all, to such of their companions as came in the same ship with them from Africa. This is a striking circumstance: the term *shipmate* is understood among them as signifying a relationship of the most endearing nature; perhaps as recalling the time when the sufferers were cut off together from their common country and kindred, and awakening reciprocal sympathy from the remembrance of mutual affliction.

But their benevolence, with a very few exceptions, extends no further. The softer virtues are seldom found in the bosom of the enslaved African. Give him sufficient authority, and he becomes the most remorseless of tyrants. Of all the degrees of wretchedness endured by the sons of men, the greatest, assuredly, is the misery which is felt by those who are unhappily doomed to be the slaves of slaves; a most unnatural relation, which sometimes takes place in the sugar plantations; as for instance, when it is found necessary to instruct young negroes in certain trades or handicraft employments. In those cases it is usual to place them in a sort of apprenticeship to such of the old negroes as are competent to give them instruction; but the harshness with which these people enforce their authority, is extreme; and it serves in some degree to lessen the indignation which a good mind necessarily feels at the abuses of power by the whites, to observe that the negroes themselves, when invested with command, give full play to their revengful passions, and exercise all the wantonness of cruelty without restraint or remorse.

The same observation may be made concerning their conduct towards the inferior animal creation. Their treatment of cattle under their direction is brutal beyond belief. Even the useful and social qualities of the dog secure to him no kind usage from an African master. Although there is scarce a negro that is not attended by one, they seem to maintain these poor animals solely for the purpose of having an object whereon to exercise their caprice and cruelty. And, by the way, it is a singular circumstance, and not the less true for being somewhat ludicrous, that the animal itself, when the property of a negro, betrays at first sight to whom he belongs; for, losing his playful propensities, he seems to feel the inferiority of his condition, and actually crouches before such of his own species as are used to better company. With the manners he acquires also the cowardly, thievish, and sullen disposition of his African tyrant.

If, by love, is meant that tender attachment to one individual object, which, in civilised life, is desire heightened by sentiment and refined by delicacy, it is questionable if it ever found a place in an African bosom. That passion therefore, to which (dignified by the name of love) is ascribed the power of softening all the miseries of slavery, is mere animal desire, implanted by the great author of all things for the preservation of the species. This the negroes, without doubt, possess in common with the rest of the animal creation, and they indulge it, as inclination prompts, in an almost promiscuous intercourse with the other sex; or at least in temporary connections, which they form without ceremony, and dissolve without reluctance. When age indeed begins to mitigate the ardour, and lessen the fickleness of youth, many of them form attachments, which, strengthened by habit and endeared by the consciousness of mutual imbecility, produce a union for life. It is not uncommon to behold a venerable couple of this stamp, who, tottering under the load of years, contribute to each other's comfort, with a cheerful assiduity, which is at once amiable and affecting.

The situation of the aged among the negroes is indeed commonly such as to make them some amends for the hardships and sufferings of their youth. The labour

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bour required of the men is seldom any thing more than to guard the provision grounds; and the women are chiefly employed in attending the children, in nursing the sick, or in other easy avocations; but their happiness chiefly arises from the high veneration in which old age is held by the negroes in general; and this may be considered as one of the few pleasing traits in their character.

Among other propensities and qualities of the negroes, must not be omitted their loquaciousness. They are as fond of exhibiting set speeches, as orators by profession; but it requires a considerable share of patience to hear them throughout; for they commonly make a long preface before they come to the point; beginning with a tedious enumeration of their past services and hardships. Yet I have (says Mr. Edwards) sometimes heard them convey much strong meaning in a narrow compass: I have been surpris'd by such figurative expressions, (and notwithstanding their ignorance of abstract terms) such pointed sentences, as would have reflected no disgrace on poets and philosophers. One instance recurs to my memory, of so significant a turn of expression in a common labouring negro who could have had no opportunity of improvement from the conversation of white people, as is alone, I think, sufficient to demonstrate that negroes have minds very capable of observation. It was a servant who had brought me a letter, and, while I was preparing an answer, had, through weariness and fatigue, fallen asleep on the floor. As soon as the papers were ready, I directed him to be awakened; but this was no easy matter. When the negro who attempted to awake him, exclaimed in the usual jargon, *You no hear massa call you?* that is *Don't you hear master call you?* *Sleep,* replied the poor fellow, looking up, and returning composedly to his slumbers, *sleep hab no massa.* (Sleep has no matter.)

Of those imitative arts in which perfection can be attained only in an improved state of society, it is natural to suppose that the negroes have but little knowledge. An opinion prevails in Europe that they possess organs peculiarly adapted to the science of music; but this is an ill-founded idea. In vocal harmony they display neither variety nor compass. Nature seems in this respect to have dealt more penuriously by them than towards the rest of the human race. As practical musicians, some of them by great labour and careful instruction become sufficiently expert to bear an under part in a public concert; but an instance perhaps cannot be produced of a negro who could truly be called a fine performer on any capital instrument.

Their songs are commonly impromptu, and there are among them individuals who resemble the *improvisatori*, or extempore bards of Italy; but much cannot be said for their poetry.

At their merry meetings and midnight festivals, they are not without ballads of another kind adapted to such occasions; and here they give full scope to a talent for ridicule and derision, which is exercised not only against each other, but also, not unfrequently, at the expence of their owner or employer: but most part of their songs at these places are fraught with obscene ribaldry, and accompanied with dances in the highest degree licentious and wanton. At other times, more especially at the burial of such among them as were respected in life or venerable through age, they exhibit a sort of Pyrrhick or warlike dance, in which their bodies are strongly agitated by running, leaping, and jumping, with many violent and frantic gestures and contortions. Their funeral songs too are all of the heroic or martial cast, affording some colour to the prevalent notion that the negroes consider death not only as a welcome and happy release from the calamities of their condition, but also as a passport to the place of their nativity; a deliverance, which, while it frees them from bondage, restores them to the society of their dearest, long-lost and lamented relatives in Africa. But perhaps this, like other European notions con-

cerning the negroes, is the dream of poetry, the sympathetic effusion of a fanciful or too credulous an imagination\*. The negroes in general are so far from courting death, that, among such of them as have resided any length of time in the West Indies, suicide is much less frequent than among the free-born, happy, and civilised inhabitants of Great Britain. With them, equally as with the whites, nature shrinks back at approaching dissolution; and when at any time, sudden or untimely death overtakes any of their companions, instead of rejoicing at such an event, they never fail to impute it to the malicious contrivances and diabolical arts of some practitioners in *Obeah*,—a term of African origin, signifying forcery or witchcraft, the prevalence of which among many of their countrymen, all the negroes most firmly and implicitly believe. We may conclude, therefore, that their funeral songs and ceremonies are commonly nothing more than the dissonance of savage barbarity and riot, as remote from the fond superstition to which they are ascribed, as from the sober dictates of a rational forerow.

The courage or unconcern, which the negroes manifest at the approach of death, arises, doubtless, in a great measure, from their national manners, wars, and superstitions, which are all in the highest degree savage and sanguinary.

DISPROPORTION OF SEXES IN THE NUMBER OF } The disproportion in  
SLAVES ANNUALLY EXPORTED FROM AFRICA. } the number of male and female slaves exported from Africa (says Mr. Barnes †) appears to me to be imputable to the three following causes: first, to the practice of polygamy, which prevails throughout Africa. Secondly, to some of the very causes of slavery itself:—men are more apt to commit civil offences than women; and in all such cases, where males and females are involved in the same calamity, the first cause still has its operation: the young females are kept for wives, and the males are sold for slaves. Thirdly, to the circumstance that females become unfit for the slave-market at a much earlier period than the males. A woman, through child-bearing,

\* Perhaps it was some such imagination that gave rise to the following little poem, published for the first time in Mr. Edwards's history,—the production of early youth; but surely if the fond idea of returning to their native country could afford the poor negroes comfort and consolation in death, it were to be wished that it really prevailed among them.

ODE ON SEEING A NEGRO FUNERAL.

Mahali dies! O'er yonder plain  
His bier is borne; the sable train  
By youthful virgins led.  
Daughters of injur'd Africa, say,  
Why raise ye thus th' heroic lay?  
Why triumph o'er the dead?

No tear bedews their fixed eye:  
'Tis now the hero lives (they cry)  
Releas'd from Slav'y's chain:  
Beyond the billowy surge he flies,  
And joyful views his native skies,  
And long-lost bow'rs again

On Koromantyn's palmy soil,  
Heroic deeds and martial toil  
Shall fill each glorious day;  
Love, fond and faithful, crown thy nights,  
And bliss unbought, unmix'd delights,  
Fall cruel wrongs repay.

Nor lordly pride's stern av'rice there,  
Alone, shall nature's bounties share,—  
To all her children free.  
For thee the dulcet reed shall spring,  
His balmy bowl the coco bring,  
Th' anana bloom for thee.

The thunder!—hark! 'Tis Afric's God!  
He wakes,—he lifts th' avenging rod,  
And speeds th' impatient hours.  
From Niger's golden stream he calls;—  
Fair freedom comes! oppression falls;  
And vengeance yet is ours!

Now, Christian, now, in wild dismay,  
Of Afric's proud revenge the prey,  
Go roam th' affrighted wood.  
Transform'd to tigers, fierce and fell,  
Thy race shall prowl with savage yell,  
And glut their rage for blood!

But soft, beneath yon tantrind shade  
Now let the hero's limbs be laid;—  
Sweet slumbers bless the brave!  
There shall the breezes shed perfume;  
Nor livid lightnings blast the bloom  
That decks Mahali's grave.

† Report of the Committee of Council, 1789.

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\* A Samba  
a mulatto man  
Mulatto, of  
Quadrans, a  
man.

may appear a very exceptionable slave at twenty-two or twenty-three years of age, whereas a healthy well-made man will not be objected to at four or five-and-thirty; consequently, if an equal number of males and females of like ages were offered for sale, a much greater proportion of the females would be rejected on that account only. With regard to the question, whether the European traders prefer purchasing males rather than females? I have to observe, that though it is impossible to conduct the business either of a house or of a plantation without a number of females, yet as the nature of the slave-service in the West Indies (being chiefly field-labour) requires, for the immediate interest of the planter, a greater number of males, the European trader would of course wish to purchase his assortment according to the proportion wanted: but the fact is, *he has not an option in the case for the reasons already mentioned*; so that, in most parts of Africa, it is with great difficulty he can get as many saleable females as will form any tolerable assortment."

**ARRIVAL AND SALE IN THE WEST INDIES.]** The arrival of a Guinea ship in the West Indies is announced by public advertisement, specifying the number of negroes imported, the country from whence, and day of sale.

The circumstance of being exposed naked is perhaps of little account to these who were never sensible of the necessity or propriety of being clothed. The climate requires it not, nor are the negroes, though naked, destitute of decorations, on which, at their first arrival, they seem to set a much higher estimation than on raiment; most of the nations of Africa having their skin, particularly on the forehead, the breast, and round the waist, punctured or impressed with figures and representations of different kinds (squares, circles, triangles, and crescents) similar to the practice which prevails in *Otaheite* and the other islands of the South Sea, called *tatooving*, as described in the voyages of captain Cook. Like those islanders too, some of the newly-imported negroes display these marks with a mixture of ostentation and pleasure, either considering them as highly ornamental, or appealing to them as testimonies of distinction in Africa, where, in some cases, they are said to indicate free birth and honourable parentage. The negroes are apprised also, before their arrival, that they are to be employed in tillage; and, knowing that they were bought with money, expect to be sold in the same manner. They display therefore, on being brought to market, very few signs of lamentation for their past, or of apprehension for their future condition.

**PEOPLE OF COLOUR.]** Of persons of mixed blood (usually termed people of colour) all the different classes or varieties are not easily discriminated. In the British West Indies, they are commonly known by the names of *Samboes*, *Mulattoes*, *Quadroons*, and *Mestizos* \*.

**POPULATION.]** The present state of the population in the British West Indies appears to be as follows:

	Whites.	Blacks.
Jamaica	30,000	250,000
Barbadoes	16,167	62,115
Grenada	1,000	23,926
St. Vincent	1,450	11,853
Dominica	1,236	14,967
Antigua	2,590	37,808

\* A *Sambo* is the offspring of a black woman by a mulatto man, or *vice versa*.

*Mulatto*, of a black woman by a white man.  
*Quadroon*, of a mulatto woman by a white man.

*Mestizo* or *mustee*, of a quadroon woman by a white man.

The offspring of a mestizo by a white man are white by law. A Mestizo therefore in our islands is perhaps the quinteron of the Spaniards.

	Whites.	Blacks.
Montserrat . . .	1,300	10,000
Nevis . . .	1,000	8,420
St. Christopher's . . .	1,900	20,435
Virgin Isles . . .	1,200	9,000
Bahamas . . .	2,000	2,241
Bermudas . . .	5,462	4,919
Total . . .	65,305	455,684

There is likewise, in each of the islands, a considerable number of persons of mixed blood, and native blacks of free condition. In Jamaica they are reckoned a ten thousand; and they do not fall short of the same number in all the other islands collectively taken. The whole inhabitants therefore may properly be divided into four great classes; 1. European whites; 2. Creole or native whites; 3. Creoles of mixed blood, and free native blacks; 4. Negroes in a state of slavery.

LAND ANIMALS USED AS FOOD.] The enumeration of them follows; the agouti, the peccary, the armadillo, the opossum, the racoon, the musk rat, the alca, the smaller monkey of several varieties; but besides the animals now mentioned, and those that are furnished by the rivers and the sea, the woods were peopled with two very extraordinary creatures, both of which anciently were, and still are, not only used as food, but accounted superior delicacies. These are the iguana and the mountain crab. The iguana (or, as it is commonly written, the *guana*) is a species of lizard; a class of animals, about which naturalists are not agreed whether to rank them with quadrupeds, or to degrade them to serpents. The English did not often serve them at elegant tables; but their French and Spanish neighbours, less squeamish, still devour them with exquisite relish, and say that the iguana is equal in flavour and wholesomeness to the finest green turtle.—Concerning the mountain crab, we shall subjoin the following description.

“These animals (says Du Tertre) live not only in a kind of orderly society in their retreats in the mountains, but regularly once a year march down to the sea-side in a body of some millions at a time. As they multiply in great number, they chuse the months of April or May to begin their expedition; and then fall out from the stumps of hollow trees, from the clefts of rocks, and from the holes which they dig for themselves under the surface of the earth. At that time the whole ground is covered with this band of adventurers: there is no setting down one's foot without treading upon them. The sea is their place of destination, and to that they direct their march with right-lined precision. No geometrician could send them to their destined station by a shorter course; they neither turn to the right nor to the left, whatever obstacles intervene; and even if they meet with a house, they will attempt to scale the walls to preserve the unbroken tenor of their way. But though this be the general order of their route, they, upon other occasions, are compelled to conform to the face of the country; and if it be intersected by rivers, they are seen to wind along the course of the stream. The procession sets forward from the mountains with the regularity of an army under the guidance of an experienced commander. They are commonly divided into battalions, of which the first consists of the strongest and boldest males, that, like pioneers, march forward to clear the route and face the greatest dangers. The night is their chief time of proceeding; but if it rains by day, they do not fail to profit by the occasion, and they continue to move forward in their slow uniform manner. When the sun shines and is hot upon the surface of the ground, they make an universal halt, and wait till the cool of the evening. When they are terrified, they march back in a confused disorder.”

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"derly manner, holding up their nippers, with which they sometimes tear off a piece of skin, and leave the weapon where they inflicted the wound.

"When, after a fatiguing march, and escaping a thousand dangers (for they are sometimes three months in getting to the shore), they have arrived at their destined port, they prepare to cast their spawn. The eggs are hatched under the sand; and soon after millions at a time of the new-born crabs are seen quitting the shore, and slowly travelling up to the mountains."

So far Du Tertre, as copied by Goldsmith. What follows is from Brown's history of Jamaica. "The old crabs, having disburthened themselves (as above), generally regain their habitations in the mountains by the latter end of June.— In August they begin to fatten, and prepare for moulting: filling up their burrows with dry grass, leaves, and abundance of other materials. When the proper period comes, each retires to his hole, shuts up the passage, and remains quite unactive until he gets rid of his old shell, and is fully provided with a new one. How long they continue in this state is uncertain: but the shell is first observed to burst at the back and sides to give a passage to the body, and the animal extracts its limbs from all the other parts gradually afterwards. At this time the flesh is in the richest state, and covered only with a tender membranous skin, variegated with a multitude of reddish veins; but this hardens gradually, and soon becomes a perfect shell like the former. It is however remarkable that, during this change, there are some stony concretions always formed in the bag, which waste and dissolve as the creature forms and perfects its new crust."

To these full and particular accounts, I will add of my own knowledge, (says Mr. Edwards) that many people, in order to eat of this singular animal in the highest perfection, cause them to be dug out of the earth in the moulting state; but they are usually taken from the time they begin to move of themselves, till they reach the sea as already related. During all this time they are in spawn, and if my testimony can add weight to that of all who have written, and all who have feasted, on the subject, I pronounce them, without doubt, one of the choicest morsels in nature. The observation therefore of Du Tertre is neither hyperbolic nor extravagant. Speaking of the various spices of this animal, he terms them "a living and perpetual supply of manna in the wilderness, equalled only by the miraculous bounty of providence to the children of Israel when wandering in the desert. They are a resource," continues he, "to which the Indians have at times resort; for when all other provisions are scarce, this never fails them."

MANAGEMENT OF PLANTATIONS, } Large plantations of the sugar-cane are  
AND TRADE. } generally under the care of a manager, or chief overseer, who has commonly a salary of 150*l.* a year, with overseers under him in proportion to the greatness of the plantation, one to about 30 negroes, with a salary of about 40*l.* Such plantations too have a surgeon at a fixed salary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the course which is least troublesome to the owner of the estate is, to let the land, with all the works, and the stock of cattle and slaves, to a tenant, who gives security for the payment of the rent and the keeping up repairs and stock. The estate is generally estimated to such a tenant at half the neat produce of the best years; such tenants, if industrious and frugal men, soon make good estates for themselves.

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it. Some are subsisted in this manner; but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea or Indian corn,

and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork, a day. All the rest of the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profits of their labour yield 10 or 12l. annually. The price of men negroes upon their first arrival is, for an able man in his prime, 50l. sterling; an able woman, 49l. sterling; a youth approaching to manhood, 47l. sterling; a young girl, 46l. sterling; boys and girls, from 40 to 45l. sterling; exclusive of the colonial tax, or duty on importation, about 20s. more.

To particularise the commodities proper for the West India market, would be to enumerate all the necessaries, conveniences, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, spices, and the commodities already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they sell; but from the numerous shipping constantly arriving from Europe, and a continual succession of new adventurers, each of whom carries out more or less as a venture, the West India market is frequently overstocked; money must be raised, and goods are sometimes sold at prime cost or under. But those who can afford to store their goods and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftsmen, especially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the West Indies, that physicians and surgeons even outdo the planter and merchant, in accumulating riches.

**SITUATION AND FORM.]** The islands of the West Indies lie in the form of a bow or semicircle, stretching from north to south, from the coast of Florida to the river Oronoque in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the first inhabitants; though this is a term that most geographers confine to the Leeward islands. Sailors distinguish them into the Windward and Leeward islands, with regard to the usual courses of ships from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagená or New Spain and Portobello. The geographical tables and maps distinguish them into the Great and Little Antilles.

The first that we come to belonging to Great Britain, and also the most important, is

## J A M A I C A.

**T**HIS island was originally a part of the Spanish empire in America. Several descents had been made upon it by the English, prior to 1656; but it was not till that year that Jamaica was reduced under our dominion. Cromwell had fitted out a squadron under Penn and Venables, to reduce the Spanish island of Hispaniola, but there this squadron was unsuccessful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a descent on Jamaica, and, having carried the capital, St. Jago, soon compelled the whole island to surrender. Ever since it has been subject to the English, and the government of it is one of the richest offices in the disposal of the crown, the standing salary being 2,500l. per annum, and the assembly commonly voting the governor as much more; which, with other perquisites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000l. per annum.

**SITUATION.]** Jamaica\* is situated in the Atlantic ocean, about 4,000 miles south-west of England. It has the island of Hispaniola at the distance of 30 leagues

\* The following particulars concerning this interesting island are selected from the instructive History of the British Colonies in the West Indies, by Bryan Edwards, esq.

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to the east; the island of Cuba about the same distance to the north; the gulph of Honduras to the west; and Carthagea on the great continent of South America, to the south, distant 145 leagues.

CLIMATE.] The centre of Jamaica lies in about  $18^{\circ} 12'$  north latitude, and in longitude about  $76^{\circ} 45'$  west from London. From these data the geographical reader will perceive that the climate, although tempered and greatly mitigated by various causes, some of which will be presently explained, is extremely hot, with little variation from January to December; that the days and nights are nearly of equal duration, there being little more than two hours difference between the longest day and the shortest; that there is very little twilight; and finally, that when it is twelve o'clock at noon in London, it is about seven in the morning in Jamaica.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The general appearance of the country differs greatly from most parts of Europe; yet the north and south sides of the island, which are separated by a vast chain of mountains extending from east to west, differ at the same time widely from each other. When Columbus first discovered Jamaica, he approached it on the northern side; and beholding that part of the country which now constitutes the parish of St. Anne, was filled with delight and admiration at the novelty, variety, and beauty of the prospect. The whole of the scenery is indeed superlatively fine, nor can words alone convey a just idea of it. A few leading particulars may perhaps be pointed out; but their combinations are infinitely various, and, to be understood, must be seen.

The country at a small distance from the shore rises into hills, which are more remarkable for beauty than boldness, being all of gentle declivity, and commonly separated from each other by spacious vales and romantic inequalities; but they are seldom craggy, nor is the transition from the hills to the vallies oftentimes abrupt. In general the hand of nature has rounded every hill towards the top with singular felicity. The most striking circumstances however attending these beautiful swells are the happy disposition of the groves of pimento with which most of them are spontaneously clothed, and the consummate verdure of the turf underneath, which is discoverable in a thousand openings, presenting a charming contrast to the deeper tints of the pimento. As this tree, which is no less remarkable for fragrancy than beauty, suffers no rival plant to flourish within its shade, these groves are not only clear of underwood, but even the grass beneath is seldom luxuriant; the soil in general being a chalky marl, which produces a close and clean turf, as smooth and even as the finest English lawn, and in colour infinitely brighter. Over this beautiful surface the pimento spreads itself in various compartments. In one place we behold extensive groves; in another a number of beautiful groupes, some of which crown the hills, while others are scattered down the declivities. To enliven the scene and add perfection to beauty, the bounty of nature has copiously watered the whole district. No part of the West Indies abounds with so many delicious streams. Every valley has its rivulet, and every hill its cascade. In one point of view, where the rocks overhang the ocean, no less than eight transparent waterfalls are beheld in the same moment. Those only who have been long at sea can judge of the emotion which is felt by the thirsty voyager at so enchanting a prospect.

Such is the foreground of the picture. As the land rises towards the centre of the island, the eye, passing over the beauties that have been recounted, is attracted by a boundless amphitheatre of wood,

Insufferable height of loftiest shade,  
Cedar and branching palm:

an immensity of forest, the outline of which melts into the distant blue hills; and these, again are lost in the clouds.

On the southern side of the island, the scenery, as before observed, is of a different nature. In the landscape just sketched, the prevailing characteristics are variety and beauty: in that which remains, the predominant features are grandeur and sublimity. When one first approaches this side of the island by sea, and beholds from afar such of the stupendous and soaring ridges of the blue mountains as the clouds here and there disclosed, the imagination (forming an indistinct but awful idea of what was concealed, by what was thus partially displayed) was filled with admiration and wonder; yet the sensation was allied rather to terror than delight. Though the prospect before me, says Mr. Edwards\*, was in the highest degree magnificent, it seemed a scene of magnificent desolation. The abrupt precipice and inaccessible cliff had more the aspect of a chaos than a creation; or rather seemed to exhibit the effects of some dreadful convulsion which had laid nature in ruins. Appearances however improved as we approached; for amidst ten thousand bold features too hard to be softened by culture, many a spot was soon discovered, where the hand of industry had awakened life and fertility. With these pleasing intermixtures, the flowing line of the lower range of mountains (which now began to be visible, crowned with woods of majestic growth) combined to soften and relieve the rude solemnity of the loftier eminences; till at length the savannas at the bottom met the sight. These are vast plains, clothed chiefly with extensive cane fields, displaying, in all the pride of cultivation, the verdure of spring blended with the exuberance of autumn, and bounded only by the ocean, on whose bosom a new and ever-moving picture strikes the eye; for innumerable vessels are discovered in various directions, some crowding into, and others bearing away from the bays and harbours with which the coast is everywhere indented. Such a prospect of human ingenuity and industry, employed in exchanging the superfluities of the old world for the productions of the new, opens another, and I might add, an almost untrodden field for contemplation and reflection.

**MOUNTAINS AND THEIR ADVANTAGES.]** The mountains of the West Indies, if not in themselves objects of perfect beauty, contribute greatly towards the beauty of general nature; and surely the inhabitants cannot reflect, but with the deepest sense of gratitude to Divine Providence, on the variety of climate, so conducive to health, serenity and pleasure, which these elevated regions afford them. On this subject, observes our author †, I speak from actual experience. In a maritime situation, on the sultry plains of the south side, near the town of Kingston, where I chiefly resided during the space of fourteen years, the general medium of heat during the hottest months (from June to November, both inclusive) was eighty degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer ‡. At a villa eight miles distant, in the high lands of Liguanea, the thermometer seldom rose, in the hottest part of the day, above seventy. Here then was a difference of ten degrees in eight miles; and in the morning and evening the difference was much greater. At Cold Spring, the seat of Mr. Wallen, a very high situation six miles further in the country, possessed by a gentleman who has taste to relish its beauties and improve its productions, the general state of the thermometer is from 55° to 65°: it has been observed so low as 44°, so that a fire there even at noon day is not only comfortable but neces-

\* History of the West Indies, vol. i. p. 188.

† Ibid. p. 189.

‡ In the other months, viz. from December to May, the thermometer ranges from 70 to 80°. The night air in the months of December and

January is sometimes surprisngly cool. I have known the thermometer so low at sun-rise as 69°, even in the town of Kingston; but in the hottest months, the difference between the temperature of noon day and midnight is not more than 5 or 6°.

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sary a great part of the year \*. It may be supposed that a sudden transition from the hot atmosphere of the plains to the chill air of the higher regions is commonly productive of mischievous effects on the human frame; but this is seldom the case, if the traveller, as prudence dictates, sets off at the dawn of the morning (when the pores of the skin are in some measure shut) and is clothed somewhat warmer than usual. With these precautions, excursions into the uplands are always found safe, salubrious, and delightful.

SOIL, LANDS CULTIVATED AND UNCULTIVATED.] Jamaica is one hundred and fifty miles in length, and, on a medium of three measurements at different places, about forty miles in breadth. These data, supposing the island to have been a level country, would give 3,840,000 acres.

But a great part consisting of high mountains, the superficies of which comprise far more land than the base alone, I conceive it is a moderate estimate to allow on that account  $\frac{1}{8}$  more, which is

240,000

The total is

4,080,000 acres.

Of these, it is found by a return of the clerk of the patents, that no more than 1,007,589 were, in November 1789, located, or taken up, by grants from the crown. Thus it appears that upwards of one half of the lands are considered as of no kind of value, the expence of taking out a patent being of no great account; and even of the located lands, I conceive that little more than 1,000,000 of acres are at present in cultivation.

WOODS AND TIMBERS.] The mountains are in general covered with extensive woods, containing excellent timbers, some of which are of prodigious growth and solidity: such as the lignum vite, dog-wood, iron-wood, pigeon-wood, green-heart, brazil-wood, and bully-trees; most of which sink in water, and are of a compactness and impenetrability inconceivable by European workmen. Some of these are necessary in mill-works, and would be highly valuable in the Windward Islands. They are even so in such parts of Jamaica, as, having been long cultivated, are nearly cleared of contiguous woods; but it frequently happens in the interior parts, that the new settler finds the abundance of them an incumbrance instead of a benefit; and, having provided himself with a sufficiency for immediate use, sets fire to the rest in order to clear his lands; it not answering the expence of conveying

\* Cold Spring is 4,200 feet above the level of the sea. The soil is a black mould on a brown marl; but few or none of the tropical fruits will flourish in so cold a climate. Neither the netberry, the avocado pear, the star-apple, nor the orange, will bear within a considerable height of Mr. Wallen's garden; but many of the English fruits, as the apple, the peach, and the straw-berry, flourish there in great perfection, with several other valuable exotics; among which are a great number of very fine plants of the tea-tree and other oriental productions. The ground, in its native state, is almost entirely covered with different sorts of the fern, of which Mr. Wallen has reckoned about 400 distinct species. A person visiting Cold Spring for the first time, almost conceives himself transported to a distant part of the world, the air and

face of the country so widely differing from that of the regions he has left. Even the birds are all strangers to him. Among others peculiar to these lofty regions, is a species of the swallow, the plumage of which varies in colour like the neck of a drake; and there is a very fine song bird, called the fish-eye, of a blackish brown, with a white ring round the neck. I visited † this place in December, 1788: the thermometer stood at 57° at sunrise, and never exceeded 65° in the hottest part of the day. I thought the climate the most delightful that I had ever experienced. On the Blue Mountain peak, which is 7,531 feet from the level of the sea, the thermometer was found to range from 47° at sunrise to 58° at noon, even in the month of August. See Med. Comment. Edin. 1785.

† Edwards's History of the West Indies, vol. i. p. 150.

them to the sea-coast, for the purpose of sending them to a distant market. Of different kinds for boards and shingles, the species are innumerable; and there are many beautiful varieties adapted for cabinet work,—among others, the bread-nut, the wild-lemon, and the well-known mahogany.

**RIVERS AND MEDICINAL SPRINGS.]** There are reckoned throughout the extent of this island above one hundred rivers, which take their rise in the mountains, and run, commonly with great rapidity, to the sea, on both sides of the island. None of them are deep enough to be navigated by marine vessels. Black River, in St. Elizabeth, flowing chiefly through a level country, is the deepest and gentlest, and admits flat-bottomed boats and canoes for about thirty miles.

Of the springs, which very generally abound even in the highest mountains, some are medicinal, and are said to be highly efficacious in disorders peculiar to the climate. The most remarkable of these is found in the eastern parish of St. Thomas, and the fame of it has created a village in its neighbourhood, which is called the Bath. The water flows out of a rocky mountain about a mile distant, and is too hot to admit a hand being held underneath: a thermometer on Fahrenheit's scale, being immersed in a glass of this water, immediately rose to 123°. It is sulphureous, and has been used with great advantage in that dreadful disease of the climate, called the dry belly-ach. There are other springs, both sulphureous and chalybeate, in different parts of the country,—of which however the properties are but little known to the inhabitants in general.

**ORES.]** In many parts of Jamaica there is a great appearance of metals; and it is asserted by Blome and other early writers, that the Spanish inhabitants had mines both of silver and copper: but, admitting the fact, the industry of the present possessors is perhaps more profitably exerted on the surface of the earth, than by digging into its bowels. A lead mine was indeed opened some years ago, near to the Hope estate in the parish of St. Andrew; and it is said, there was no want of ore: but the high price of labour, or other causes, compelled the proprietors to relinquish their project.

**VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.]** Of the most important of the present natural productions, as sugar, indigo, coffee, cotton, &c. we have already treated, in the general account of the West Indies, and shall only subjoin a few observations on the vegetable classes of inferior order, which, though not of equal commercial importance with the preceding ones, are equally necessary to the comfort and subsistence of the inhabitants. If the reader is inclined to botanical researches, he is referred to the voluminous collections of Sloane and Browne.

The several species of grain cultivated in this island are—1st, maize, or Indian corn, which commonly produces two crops in the year, and sometimes three: it may be planted at any time when there is rain, and it yields, according to the soil, from fifteen to forty bushels the acre. 2dly, Guinea corn, which produces but one crop in the year: it is planted in the month of September, and gathered in January following, yielding from thirty to sixty bushels an acre. 3dly, Various kinds of calavances (a species of pea); and lastly, rice, but in no great quantity, the situation for its growth being deemed unhealthy, and the labour of negroes commonly employed in the cultivation of articles that yield greater profit.

This island abounds likewise with different kinds of grass, both native and extraneous, of excellent quality; of the first is made exceeding good hay, but not in great abundance, this method of husbandry being practised only in a few parts of the country; and it is the less necessary, as the inhabitants are happily accommodated with two different kinds of artificial grass, both extremely valuable, and yielding great profusion of food for cattle. The first is an aquatic plant, called *Scot's grass*,

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*grafs*, which, though generally supposed to be an exotic, there is reason to think, grows spontaneously in most of the swamps and morasses of the West Indies. It rises to five or six feet in height, with long succulent joints, and is of very quick vegetation. From a single acre of this plant, five horses may be maintained a whole year, allowing fifty-six pounds of *grafs* a day to each.

The other kind, called *Guinea-grafs*, may be considered as next to the sugar-cane in point of importance, as most of the grazing and breeding farms, or pens, throughout the island, were originally created, and are still supported chiefly by means of this invaluable herbage. Hence the plenty of horned cattle both for the butcher and planter, which is such, that few markets in Europe furnish beef at a cheaper rate, or of better quality, than those of Jamaica. Perhaps the settlement of most of the north-side parishes is wholly owing to the introduction of this excellent *grafs*, which happened by accident about fifty years ago,—the seeds having been brought from the Coast of Guinea, as food for some birds which were presented to Mr. Ellis, chief justice of the island. Fortunately the birds did not live to consume the whole stock; and the remainder being carelessly thrown into a fence, grew and flourished; and it was not long before the eagerness displayed by the cattle to reach the *grafs* attracted Mr. Ellis's notice, and induced him to collect and propagate the seeds, which now thrive in some of the most rocky parts of the island, bestowing verdure and fertility on lands which otherwise would not be worth cultivation.

The several kinds of kitchen-garden produce, as edible roots and pulse, which are known in Europe, thrive also in the mountains of this island; and the markets of Kingston and Spanish-town are supplied with cabbages, lettuce, carrots, turnips, parsnips, artichokes, kidney-beans, green-peas, asparagus, and various sorts of European herbs, in the utmost abundance. Some of them, as the first three, are of superior flavour to the same kinds produced in England. However, several of the native growths, especially the chocho, ochra, lima-bean, and Indian-kale, are more agreeable than any of the esculent vegetables of Europe. The other indigenous productions of this class are plantains, bananas, yams of several varieties, calaloe (a species of spinach), eddoes, cassavi, and sweet potatoes. A mixture of these, stewed with salted fish or salted meat of any kind, and highly seasoned with Cayenne-pepper, is a favourite olio among the negroes. For bread, an unripe roasted plantain is an excellent substitute, and universally preferred to it by the negroes and most of the native whites. It may in truth be called the staff of life to the former; many thousand acres being cultivated in different parts of the country for their daily support.

Of the more elegant fruits, the variety is equalled only by their excellence. Perhaps no country on earth affords so magnificent a desert; and perhaps the following were spontaneously bestowed on the island by the power of nature:—the anana or pine-apple, tamarind, papaw, guava, sweet-sop of two species, cashew-apple, custard-apple (a species of *chirimoya*), cocoa-nut, star-apple, grenadilla, avocado-pear, hog-plum and its varieties, pindal-nut, netberry, mamee, mamee sapota, Spanish-goosberry, prickly pear, and perhaps a few others. For the orange, Seville and China, the lemon, lime, shaddock and its numerous species, the vine, melon, fig, and pomegranate, the West Indian Islands were probably indebted to their Spanish invaders. Excepting the peach, the strawberry, and a few of the growths of European orchards, which, however, attain to no great perfection unless in the highest mountains, the rose-apple, genipe, and some others of no great value, English industry had not added much to the catalogue until within the last twenty years.

CHIEF TOWNS, &c.] The island of Jamaica is divided into three counties, which.

which are named Middlesex, Surrey, and Cornwall. The county of Middlesex is composed of eight parishes, one town, and thirteen villages. The town is that of *St. Jago-de-la-Vega*, or SPANISH-TOWN, the capital of the island. Most of the villages of this and the other counties are hamlets of no great account, situated at the different harbours and shipping-places, and supported by the traffic carried on there. *St. Jago-de-la-Vega* is situated on the banks of the river *Cobre*, about six miles from the sea, and contains between five and six hundred houses, and about five thousand inhabitants, including free people of colour. It is the residence of the governor, or commander in chief, who is accommodated with a superb palace; and it is here that the legislature is convened, and the court of chancery, and the supreme court of judicature are held.

KINGSRON, in the county of Surry, is situated on the north side of a beautiful harbour, and was founded in the year 1693, when repeated desolations by earthquake and fire had driven the inhabitants from Port-Royal. It contains one thousand six hundred and sixty-five houses, besides negro-huts and warehouses. The number of white inhabitants, in the year 1733, was six thousand five hundred and thirty-nine; of free people of colour, three thousand two hundred and eighty; of slaves, sixteen thousand six hundred and fifty-nine; total number of inhabitants, of all complexions and conditions, twenty-six thousand four hundred and seventy-eight. It is a place of great trade and opulence. Many of the houses in the upper part of the town are extremely magnificent; and the markets for butchers' meat, turtle, fish, poultry, fruits and vegetables, &c. are inferior to none. I can add too, says Mr. Edwards, from the information of a learned and ingenious friend who kept comparative registers of mortality, that since the furrounding country has been cleared of wood, this town is found to be as healthful as any in Europe.

PORT-ROYAL, once a place of the greatest wealth and importance in the West Indies, is now reduced, by repeated calamities, to three streets, a few lanes, and about two hundred houses. It contains however the royal navy-yard, for heaving down and refitting the king's ships; the navy-hospital, and barracks for a regiment of soldiers. The fortifications are kept in excellent order, and vie in strength with any fortrefs in the king's dominions. Cornwall contains five parishes, three towns, and six villages.

CHURCH LIVINGS.] The twenty parishes into which the island is divided contain eighteen churches and chapels, and each parish is provided with a rector, and other church officers: the rectors' livings, the presentation to which rests with the governor or commander in chief, are severally as follows, viz. *St. Catherine*, 300*l.* per annum; *Kington, St. Thomas in the East, Clarendon, and Westmoreland*, 250*l.* per annum; *St. David, St. George, and Portland*, 100*l.* per annum; all the rest 200*l.* per annum. These sums are paid in lieu of tithes, by the church-wardens of the several parishes respectively, from the amount of taxes, levied by the vestries, on the inhabitants. Each parish builds and repairs a parsonage-house, or allows the rector 50*l.* per annum in lieu of one; besides which, many of the livings have glebelands of very considerable value annexed to them, as the parish of *St. Andrew*, which altogether is valued at one thousand pounds sterling per annum.

JUDICATURE.] The supreme court of judicature for the whole island (commonly called the Grand Court, as possessing similar jurisdiction in this country to that of the several courts of king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer, in Great Britain) is held in the town of *St. Jago-de-la-Vega*, the capital of the county of Middlesex, on the last Tuesday of each of the months of February, May, August, and November, in every year. In this court, the chief justice of the island presides, whose salary is only 120*l.* but the perquisites arising from the office make it worth

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about 3000*l.* per annum. The assistant judges are gentlemen of the island, commonly planters, who receive neither salary nor reward of any kind for their attendance. Three judges must be present to constitute a court; and each term is limited in duration to three weeks. From this court, if the matter in dispute in a civil action be for a sum of 300*l.* sterling or upwards, an appeal lies to the governor and council, as a court of error; if sentence of death be passed for felony, the appeal is to the governor alone.

Assize courts are also held every three months, in Kingston, for the county of Surry, and in Savanna-la-Mar, for the county of Cornwall.

**GOVERNOR, AND OTHER GREAT OFFICERS.]** The governor, or commander in chief, is chancellor by his office, and presides solely in that high department, which is administered with great form and solemnity. He is also the sole ordinary for the probate of wills, and granting letters of administration. From the first of these offices, he derives extensive authority, and from the latter, considerable emolument.

As appendages of the supreme court, the several great offices, viz. the office of enrolments, or secretary of the island, provost marshal-general, clerk of the court (or prothonotary, *custos brevium*, &c.) are held and situated in Spanish-town.

**LEGISLATURE.]** The legislature of Jamaica is composed of the captain-general, or commander in chief, of a council nominated by the crown, consisting of twelve gentlemen, and a house of assembly, containing forty-three members, who are elected by the free-holders, viz. three for the several towns and parishes of St. Jago-de-la-Vega, Kingston, and Port-royal, and two for each of the other parishes. The qualification required in the elector is, a freehold of ten pounds per annum in the parish where the election is made; and, in the representative, a landed freehold of three hundred pounds per annum in any part of the island, or a personal estate of three thousand pounds. In the proceedings of the general assembly, they copy, as near as local circumstances will admit, the legislature of Great Britain; and all their bills (those of a private nature excepted) have the force of laws as soon as the governor's assent is obtained. The power of rejection however is still reserved to the crown; but until the royal disapprobation is signified, the laws are valid.

**POPULATION.]** The whole number of inhabitants of all complexions and conditions may be stated as follows:

Whites	-	-	-	30,000
Freed negroes and people of colour				10,000
Maroons	-	-	-	1,400
Negro slaves	-	-	-	250,000
Total	-	-	-	<u>291,400</u>

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

For

## BRITISH AMERICAN ISLANDS.

	Number of vessels.	Tonnage.	Men.
For Great Britain	242	63,471	7,748
Ireland	10	1,231	98
American States	133	13,041	893
British American Colonies	66	6,133	449
Foreign West Indies	22	1,903	155
Africa	1	109	8
Total	474	85,888	9,344

It must however be observed, that, as many of the vessels clearing for America and the foreign West Indies make two or more voyages in the year, it is usual, in computing the real number of those vessels, their tonnage, and men, to deduct one third from the official number. With this correction, the total to all parts is 400 vessels, containing 78,862 tons, navigated by 8,845 men. To this we may add the inspector-general's account of the Jamaica exports, between the 5th of January, 1787, and the 5th of January, 1788; the total of which, in sugar, rum, melasses, pimento, coffee, cotton-wool, indigo, ginger, cacao, tobacco, mahogany, logwood, and miscellaneous articles, amounted to 2,136,442 l. 17s. 3d.

The general account of imports into Jamaica, from Great Britain, Ireland, Africa, the British Colonies in America, the United States, Madeira and Teneriffe, and the Foreign West Indies, as nearly as could be estimated, amounted to 1,496,232 l. 5s. 4d.

**BARBADOES.]** This island is situated in 13° 10' north latitude, and in longitude 59° west from London. It is about twenty-one miles in length, and fourteen in breadth, and contains 106,470 acres of land, most of which is under cultivation. The soil in the low lands is black, somewhat reddish in the shallow parts; on the hills, of a chalky marl, and near the sea generally sandy. Of this variety of soil, the black mould is best suited for the cultivation of the cane, and, with the aid of manure, has given as great returns of sugar, in favourable seasons, as any in the West Indies, the prime lands of St. Kitt's excepted.

That the soil of this island is to a great degree naturally fertile, we must necessarily admit, if we give credit to the accounts which are transmitted down to us of its ancient population and opulence. We are assured, that about the year 1670, Barbadoes could boast of fifty thousand white, and upwards of one hundred thousand black inhabitants, whose labours, it is said, gave employment to sixty thousand tons of shipping\*. I suppose that this account is much exaggerated.

In

\* The earliest planters in Barbadoes were sometimes reproached with the guilt of forcing or decoying into slavery the Indians of the neighbouring continent. The history of *Inkle* and *Yarico*, which the Spectator has recorded for the detestation of mankind, took its rise in this island; but happily this species of slavery has been long since abolished; and perhaps such of my readers as have sympathized with the unfortunate Yarico, may not be sorry to hear that she bore her misfortunes with greater philosophy than they have hitherto fancied. The story was first related by *Ligon*, who (after praising

poor Yarico's excellent complexion, which, he says, was a "bright bay;" and her "small breasts, with "nipples of porphyrie,") observes, that "she "chance afterwards to be with child by a Christian "servant, and being very great, walked down to a "woode, in which was a pond of water, and there, "by the side of the pond, brought herself a-bed, "and in three hours came home with the child in "her arms, a lully boy, frolicke and lively." The crime of *Inkle*, the merchant, however, admits of no palliation; but it is ridiculous enough to hear *Abbe Raynal* (willing to improve upon Addison)

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In 1786, the numbers were sixteen thousand one hundred and sixty-seven whites, eight hundred and thirty-eight free people of colour, and sixty-two thousand one hundred and fifteen negroes.

Their commerce consists in the same articles as formerly, viz. cotton, indigo, and tobacco, though they deal in them to less extent. Their capital is Bridgetown, where the governor resides, whose employment is said to be worth 5000*l.* per annum. They have a college, founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this island. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has suffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague. On the 10th of October, 1780, a dreadful hurricane occasioned vast devastation in Barbadoes: great numbers of the houses were destroyed; not one house on the island was wholly free from damage; many persons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and great numbers were driven into the sea and there perished.

**ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.**] This island, commonly called by the sailors St. Kitt's, is situated in 63°-17' west longitude, and 17°-15' north latitude, about 14 leagues from Antigua; and is twenty miles long, and seven broad. It has its name from the famous Christopher Columbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it as unworthy of their attention; and in 1626, it was settled by the French and English conjunctly; but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. It contains 43,726 acres of land, of which about 17,000 acres are appropriated to the growth of sugar, and 4000 to pasturage. As sugar is the only commodity of any account that is raised, except provisions and a little cotton, it is probable that nearly one half the whole island is unfit for cultivation. The interior part of the country consists indeed of many rugged precipices and barren mountains. Of these, the loftiest is Mount Misery (evidently a decayed volcano), which rises 3,711 feet in perpendicular height from the sea. Nature, however, has made abundant amends for the sterility of the mountains, by the fertility she has bestowed upon the plains. No part of the West Indies possesses even the same species of soil that is found in St. Christopher's. It is in general a dark grey loam, so light and porous as to be penetrable by the slightest application of the hoe; and it may perhaps be the production of subterraneous fires, the black ferruginous pumice of naturalists, finely incorporated with a pure loam, or virgin mould. The under stratum is gravel, from eight to twelve inches deep. Clay is no where found, except at a considerable height in the mountains.

By what process of nature the soil now mentioned becomes more especially suited to the production of sugar than any other in the West Indies, it is not within our province to explain; the circumstance however is unquestionable. Canes, planted in particular spots, have been known to yield 8000 lbs. of Muscovado sugar from a single acre. One gentleman, in a favourable season, made 6,400 lbs. or four hog-heads of 16 cwt. each, per acre, on an average return of his whole crop. It is not however pretended that the greatest part, or even a very large proportion, of the cane land throughout the island is equally productive.

In this island, as in Jamaica, the jurisdiction of both the king's bench and common pleas centres in one superior court, wherein justice is administered by a chief justice and four puisne judges. The chief is appointed by the crown; the others by the governor, in the king's name; and they all hold their commissions during

afcribe to it an intended revolt of all the negroes in Barbadoes, who, as he asserts, moved by indignation at Inkle's monstrous cruelty, vowed, with one accord, the destruction of all the whites; but their plot was discovered the night before it was to have

been carried into effect. The *Histoire Philosophique* has a thousand beauties; but, in point of historical accuracy, it is nearly on a level with the History of Robinson Crusoe.

pleasure. The office of chief judge is worth about 600 l. per annum. The emoluments of the assitant judges are trifling.

The present number of white inhabitants is computed at 4000, and taxes are levied on 26,000 negroes; and there are about 300 blacks and mulattoes of free condition.

In February, 1782, St. Christopher's was taken by the French, but restored to England by the treaty of peace.

ANTIGUA.] Situated in 61° west longitude, and 17° north latitude, is of a circular form, near 20 miles over every way. It is about 20 leagues to the eastward of St. Christopher's, and was discovered at the same time with that island, by Columbus himself who named it, from a church in Seville, *Santa Maria la Antigua*. Antigua is upwards of 50 miles in circumference, and contains 59,838 acres of land, of which about 34,000 are appropriated to the growth of sugar, and pasture annexed: its other principal staples are cotton-wool and tobacco; and they raise, in favourable years, great quantities of provisions.

In 1774, the white inhabitants of all ages and sexes were 2,590; and the enslaved negroes 37,808. The legislature of Antigua is composed of the commander in chief, a council of twelve members, and an assembly of twenty-five; and it is very much to its honour, that it presented the first example to the sister islands, of a melioration of the criminal law respecting negro slaves, by giving the accused party the benefit of a trial by jury, and allowing, in the case of capital convictions, four days between the time of sentence and execution: and it is still more to the honour of Antigua, that its inhabitants have encouraged, in a particular manner, the laudable endeavours of certain pious men, who have undertaken, from the purest and best motives, to enlighten the minds of the negroes, and lead them into the knowledge of religious truth. In the report of the lords of the committee of council on the slave-trade, is an account of the labours of the society known by the name of the *Unitas Fratrum* (commonly called Moravians), in this truly glorious pursuit: from which it appears that their conduct in this business displays such sound judgment, breathes such a spirit of genuine christianity, and has been attended with such eminent success, as to entitle its brethren and missionaries to the most favourable reception from every man whom the accidents of fortune have invested with power over the poor Africans, and who believes (as it is hoped every planter believes) that they are his fellow-creatures, and of equal importance with himself in the eyes of an all-seeing and impartial governor of the universe.

The number of converted negro slaves under the care of the brethren, at the end of the year 1787, was,

In Antigua, exactly	- - - - -	5,465
In St. Kitt's, a new million	- - - - -	80
In Barbadoes and Jamaica, about	- - - - -	100
In St. Thomas, St. Croix, and St. Jan, about	- - - - -	10,000
In Surinam, about	- - - - -	400

Still living in the West Indies and Surinam - - - - - 16,945

a, nearly as can be ascertained from the latest accounts.

It has one of the best harbours in the West Indies; its capital, St. John's, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, and is the ordinary seat of the governor of the Leeward islands.

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**NEVIS.]** This beautiful little spot is nothing more than a single mountain, rising like a cone in an easy ascent from the sea; the circumference of its base not exceeding eight English leagues. It is believed that Columbus bestowed on it the appellation of *Nieves*, or *The Snows*, from its resemblance to a mountain of the same name in Spain; but it is not an improbable conjecture, that on those days a white smoke was seen to issue from the summit which, at a distance, had a snow-like appearance, and that it derived its name from thence. That the island was produced by some volcanic explosion there can be no doubt; for there is a hollow, or crater, near the summit still visible, which contains a hot spring, strongly impregnated with sulphur; and sulphur is frequently found in substance in the neighbouring gullies and cavities of the earth.

The government, in the absence of the governor-general, is administered by the president of the council. This board is composed of the president and six other members. The house of assembly consists of fifteen representatives; three for each parish.

The administration of common law is under the guidance of a chief justice and two assistant judges, and there is an office for the registry of deeds. The present number of white inhabitants is stated not to exceed six hundred, while the negroes amount to about ten thousand; a disproportion which necessarily converts all such white men as are not exempted by age and decrepitude, into a well regulated militia, among which there is a troop consisting of fifty horse, well mounted and accoutred. English forces, on the British establishment, they have none.

**MONTERRAT.]** Of this little island, neither the extent nor the importance demands a very copious discussion. It was discovered at the same time with St. Christopher's, and derived its name from a supposed resemblance which Columbus perceived in the face of the country, to a mountain of the same name near Barcelona.

**BARRUDA.]** Situated in 17°-49' north latitude, 61°-50' west longitude, 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has a good road for shipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in husbandry, and raising fresh provisions for the use of the neighbouring isles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

**ANGUILLA.]** Situated in 18° north latitude, 60 miles north-west of St. Christopher's, is about 30 miles long, and 10 broad. This island is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themselves to husbandry, and feeding of cattle.

**DOMINICA.]** Situated in 16° north latitude, and 62° west longitude, lies about half way between Guadaloupe and Martinico. It is 29 miles in length, and 16 in breadth: it received its name from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The soil of this island is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of cotton than sugar; but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West Indies, and the island is well supplied with rivulets of fine water. The French have always opposed our settling here, because it must cut off their communication, in the time of war, between Martinico and Guadaloupe. However, by the peace of Paris, in 1763, it was ceded in express terms to the English; but we have derived little advantage from this conquest, the island being, till lately, no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Caribbees, who, being expelled their own settlements, took

refuge here. But, on account of its situation between the principal French islands, and Prince Rupert's Bay, being one of the most capacious in the West Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itself, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778, but was restored again to Great Britain by the late peace.

The legislative authority of this island is vested in the commander in chief, a council of twelve gentlemen, and an assembly of nineteen members\*. Dominica contains 186,436 acres of land, and is divided into ten parishes. The town of Roseau is at present the capital of the island, and is situated in the parish of St. George, being about seven leagues from Prince Rupert's Bay; it is on a point of land on the south-west side of the island, which forms two bays, viz. Woodbridge's Bay to the north, and Charlotteville Bay to the southward.

This island contains many high and rugged mountains, interspersed with fine valleys; and in general they appear to be fertile. Several of the mountains contain unextinguished volcanos, which frequently discharge vast quantities of burning sulphur. From these mountains also issue springs of hot water, some of which are supposed to possess great virtue in the case of tropical disorders. In some places the water is said to be hot enough to coagulate an egg.

Dominica is well watered, there being upwards of thirty-five fine rivers in the island, besides a great number of rivulets. The soil in most of the interior country is a light brown colour, mould, and appears to have been washed from the mountains. Towards the sea-coast, and in many of the vallies, it is a deep black and rich native earth, and seems well adapted to the cultivation of all the articles of West Indian produce. The under stratum is in some parts a yellow or brick clay, in most places very strong.

**ST. VINCENT.]** Situated in 13° north latitude, and 61° west longitude, 50 miles north-west of Barbadoes, 30 miles south of St. Lucia, is about 24 miles in length, and 18 in breadth.

St. Vincent's contains about 84,000 acres, which are every where well watered, but the country is very generally mountainous and rugged; the intermediate vallies, however, are fertile in a high degree, the soil consisting chiefly of a fine mould, composed of sand and clay, well adapted for sugar. The extent of country at present possessed by British subjects is 23,605 acres, and about as much more is supposed to be held by the Charaibes or Caribbeans. All the remainder is thought to be incapable of cultivation or improvement.

The island, or rather the British territory within it, is divided into five parishes, of which only one was provided with a church, and that was blown down in the hurricane of 1780; whether it is rebuilt we are not informed. There is one town called Kingston, the capital of the island and the seat of its government, and three villages that bear the name of towns, but they are inconsiderable hamlets, consisting each of a few houses only.

But the public establishment that reflects the greatest honour on St. Vincent's, is its celebrated botanic garden, under the provident and well-directed care of Mr. Anderson. It consists of thirty acres, of which no less than sixteen are in high cultivation, abounding not only with almost every species of the vegetable world, which the hand of nature has bestowed on these islands for use and beauty, for food and luxury, but also with many valuable exotics from the East Indies and South America. If it be surpassed in this latter respect by the magnificent garden of Mr.

\* The governor's salary is 1200l. sterling per annum, exclusive of his fees of office.

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East, in Jamaica, it claims at least the honour of seniority, and does infinite credit both to its original founders and present directors.

In the frame of its government and the administration of executive justice, St. Vincent seems to differ in no respect from Grenada. The council consists of twelve members, the assembly of seventeen. The governor's salary is two thousand pounds sterling, one half of which is raised within the island, the other half is paid him out of the exchequer of Great Britain.

The military force consists at present of a regiment of infantry, and a company of artillery, sent from England, and a black corps raised in the country, but provided for, with the former, on the British establishment, and receiving no additional pay from the island. The militia consists of two regiments of foot, serving without pay of any kind.

The number of inhabitants appear, by the last returns to government, to be one thousand four hundred and fifty whites, and eleven thousand eight hundred and fifty-three negroes.

The Charaibes, or Caribbeans are said to have been treated with so much injustice and barbarity, after this island came into possession of the English, to whom it was ceded by the peace, in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get possession of it again in 1779; but it was restored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

**BREAD-FRUIT-TREE EXPEDITION.]** The ship Providence, captain Bligh, and the Assistance brig, lieutenant Portlock, arrived in the West Indies in January, 1793, from Otaheite, with many hundreds of the bread-fruit-trees, and other valuable plants. These vessels left England the 2d of August, 1791, and arrived at Otaheite the 10th of April, 1792, where they remained till the 19th of July. They encountered various dangers in passing through the before unexplored strait between New Guinea and New Holland, which they found full of rocks, shoals, and small islands, instead of being clear and open as supposed, and laid down in charts. It took twenty-one days to get through it, which, if it were clear, might be passed in two. In this strait the Pandora was lost, and it is conjectured that M. de la Peyrouse there perished. Three hundred bread-fruit plants, were landed at St. Vincent in the latter end of January, 1793, in excellent order, for the purpose of being distributed among the neighbouring islands. The remainder of the plants, amounting to an equal number, arrived at Jamaica in a few days after, of which an allotment was made to the three counties in the islands; to the county of Surry 83, to the county of Middlesex 83, to the county of Cornwall 83.

The cultivation of these valuable exotics will, without doubt, in a course of years, lessen the dependence of the sugar islands on North America, for food and necessaries; and not only supply subsistence for future generations, but probably furnish fresh incitements of industry, new improvements in the arts, and new subjects of commerce. That our readers may be satisfied that this benevolent design is likely to answer the most sanguine wishes that have been formed of it, we shall close this account with an extract of a letter to SIR JOSEPH BANKS, from the botanic gardener in Jamaica, dated December, 1793. "All the trees under my charge are thriving with the greatest luxuriance. Some of the bread-fruit are upwards of eleven feet high, with leaves thirty-six inches long; and my success in cultivating them has exceeded my most sanguine expectations."

**GRENADA AND THE GRENADINES.]** Grenada is situate 12° north latitude, and 62° west longitude, about thirty leagues south west of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of New Andalusia, or the Spanish Main. This island is said to be 30 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. Experience has proved, that the soil is

extremely proper for producing sugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it the appearance of becoming as flourishing a colony as any in the West Indies, of its dimensions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the island, supplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, some of which may be fortified with great advantage, which renders it very convenient for shipping; and it is not subject to hurricanes. St. George's Bay has a sandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour, or careening place, 100 large vessels may be moored with perfect safety. This island was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which this handful of Caribbees defended themselves with the most resolute bravery. In the last war but one, when Grenada was attacked by the English, the French inhabitants, who were not numerous, were so amazed at the reduction of Guadaloupe and Martinico, that they lost all spirit, and surrendered without making the least opposition; and the full property of this island together with the small islands on the north, called the Grenadines, which yield the same produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Paris in 1763. In July 1779, the French made themselves masters of this island, which was restored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

Grenada appears to be fertile in a high degree, and by the variety as well as excellence of its returns, seems adapted to every tropical production. The exports of the year 1776, from Grenada and its dependencies, were 14,012,157 lbs. of Muscavado, and 9,273,607 lbs. of clayed sugar, 818,700 gallons of rum, 1,827,166 lbs. of coffee, 457,719 lbs. of cacao, 91,943 lbs. of cotton, 27,638 lbs. of indigo, and some smaller articles; the whole of which, on a moderate computation, could not be worth less at the ports of shipping than 600,000 l. sterling, excluding freight, duties, insurance, and other charges. It deserves to be remembered too, that the sugar was the produce of one hundred and six plantations only, and that they were worked by eighteen thousand two hundred and ninety-three negroes, which was therefore rather more than one hoghead of muscavado sugar of sixteen hundred weight, from the labour of each negro, old and young, employed in the cultivation of that commodity; a prodigious return, equalled perhaps by no other British island in the West Indies, St. Christopher's excepted.

The governor, by virtue of his office, is chancellor, ordinary, and vice-admiral, and presides solely in the courts of chancery and ordinary as in Jamaica. His salary is 3,200 l. currency per annum\*.

The council of Grenada consists of twelve members, and the assembly of twenty-six. The powers, privileges, and functions of both these branches of the legislature, are the same, and exercised precisely in the same manner as those of the council and assembly in Jamaica.

The law courts in Grenada, besides those of chancery and ordinary, are 1st, The court of grand sessions of the peace, held twice a year, viz. in March and September. 2dly, The court of common pleas. 3dly, The court of exchequer. 4thly, The court of admiralty, for trial of all prize causes of capture from enemies in war, and of revenue seizures in peace or war. There is one judge of admiralty and one surrogate. Lastly, The governor and council compose a court of error, as in Jamaica, for trying all appeals of error from the court of common pleas.

NEWFOUNDLAND.] Exclusive of the West India sugar islands lying between the two continents of America, Great Britain claims some others, that are seated at

\* The currency of Grenada, or rate of exchange, is commonly 65 per cent. worse than sterling.

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the distance of some thousand miles from each other, upon the coast of this quarter of the globe, of which we shall speak according to our method, beginning with those of the most northern situation.

Newfoundland is situated to the east of the gulf of St. Laurence, between 46° and 52° north latitude, and between 53° and 59° west longitude, separated from Labrador, or New Britain, by the straits of Belleisle; and from Canada, by the Bay of St. Laurence, being 350 miles long, and 200 broad. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet, the sky being usually overcast. From the soil of the island, which is rocky and barren, we are far from reaping any sudden or great advantage, for the cold is long-continued and severe; and the summer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable. However, it is watered by several good rivers, and hath many large and good harbours. This island, whenever the continent shall come to fail of timber, convenient to navigation, (which on the sea-coast is perhaps no very remote prospect), will afford a large supply for masts, yards, and all sorts of lumber for the West India trade. But what at present it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fishery of cod, carried on upon those shoals which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and North America, at the lowest computation, annually employed 3000 sail of small craft in this fishery; on board of which, and on shore to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of 10,000 hands; so that this fishery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a source of livelihood to many thousands of poor people, and a most excellent nursery for the royal navy. This fishery is computed to increase the national stock 300,000*l.* a year in gold and silver, remitted to us for the cod we sell in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod, both on the great bank and the lesser ones, which lie to the east and south of this island, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but several other species of fish, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the isle of Cape Breton; so that where our colonies are thinly peopled, or so barren as not to produce any thing from their soil, their coasts make us ample amends, and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, and no way inferior to that arising from the most fertile soil.

This island, after various disputes about property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on its northern shores; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the gulf of St. Laurence, but with this limitation, that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England. The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated to the southward of Newfoundland, were also ceded to the French, who stipulated to erect no fortifications on them, nor to keep more than fifty soldiers to enforce the police. By the last treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fisheries on the north and the west coasts of the island; and the Americans are allowed the same privileges in fishing as before their independence. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonavista, and St. John: but not above 1000 families remain here in the winter. A small squadron of men of war are sent out every spring to protect the fisheries and inhabitants, the commander of which is governor of the island; besides whom, there are two lieutenant-governors, one at Placentia, the other at St. John's.

**THE ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON.** Annexed to the province of LOWER CANADA.] The island, or rather collection of islands, called by the French *Les Isles de Madame*, which lie so contiguous that they are commonly called but one, and comprehended under the name of the island of Cape Breton, lies between 45° and 47° north

47° north latitude, and between 59° and 60° west longitude from London. It is about 100 miles in length, and 50 in breadth; and is separated from Nova Scotia by a narrow strait, called the *Gut of Canso*, which is the communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of St. Laurence.

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

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE, } Except in the hilly parts, the surface of  
SOIL, AND PRODUCTION. } the country has but little solidity, being  
every where covered with a light moss and with water. The dampness of the soil is exhales in fogs. In other respects the climate is very cold, owing either to the prodigious quantity of lakes, which cover above half the island, and remain frozen for a long time; or to the number of forests that totally intercept the rays of the sun; the effect of which is besides decreased by perpetual clouds.

The inhabitants never applied themselves to agriculture, the soil being unfit for it. They often sowed corn, but it seldom came to maturity; and when it did thrive so much as to be worth reaping, it had degenerated so considerably, that it was not fit for seed for the next harvest. They have only continued to plant a few pot herbs, tolerably well tasted; but they must be renewed every year with seed from abroad. The poorness and scarcity of pastures has likewise prevented the increase of cattle. In a word the soil of Cape Breton seems calculated to invite none but fishermen and soldiers.

Though the island was entirely covered with forests before it was inhabited, its wood has scarce ever been an object of trade. A great quantity, however, of soft wood was found there fit for firing, and some that might be used for timber; but the oak has always been scarce, and the fir never yielding much resin.

POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, &c.] On this island there are about 1000 inhabitants, who have a lieutenant-governor resident among them, appointed by the king. The principal towns are Sidney, the capital, and Louisbourg, which has the best harbour in the island.

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

TRADE.] The paltry trade is a very inconsiderable object. It consisted only in the skins of a few lynxes, elks, musk-rats, wild-cats, bears, otters, and foxes, both of a red, silver, and grey colour. Some of these were procured from a colony of Micmac Indians, who had settled on the island with the French, and never could raise more than 60 men to bear arms. The rest came from St. John's, or the neighbouring continent. Greater advantages might possibly have been derived from the coal mines which abound in this island. They lie in a horizontal direction, and being no more than six or eight feet below the surface, may be worked without digging deep or draining off the waters. Notwithstanding the prodigious demand for this coal from New England, from the year 1745 to 1749, these mines would probably have been forsaken, had not the ships which were sent out to the French islands wanted ballast. In one of these mines a fire has been kindled, which could never yet be extinguished.

The people of Cape Breton did not send all their fish to Europe. They sent part of it to the French southern islands, on board twenty or twenty-five ships, from 70

to 140 tons exported to mackarel, but chiefly edities. Can the people and cattle.

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HISTORY. mer, not mo tion of it in A into that of This harbour and were the build a large other parts, a rendered imp (a circumstan resulting from stowed upon accefs to whic fortification of

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This island for the crown command of li of Aix-la-Chap strengthen it. tith troops und body of New pieces of canno tion and stores 1763, since wh difmantled.

to 140 tons burden. Besides the cod, which made at least half their cargo, they exported to the other colonies timber, planks, thin oak boards, salted salmon and mackerel, train oil and sea-coal. These were paid for, some in sugar and coffee, but chiefly in rum and molasses. The island could not consume all these commodities. Canada took off but a small part of the overplus; it was chiefly bought by the people of New England, who gave in exchange fruits, vegetables, wood, bricks, and cattle. This trade of exchange was allowed, but a smuggling trade was added to it, carried on in flour and salt fish.

In 1743, while this island belonged to the French, they caught 1,149,000 quintals of dry fish, and 3,500,000 of mud-fish, the value of both which, including 3,116½ tons of train oil, drawn from the blubber, amounted to 926,577l. 10s. sterling, according to the prime cost of the fish at Newfoundland. The whole value of this trade annually, at that period, amounted to a million sterling, in which no less than 564 ships, besides shallops, and 27,000 seamen were employed. Charlevoix, in his history of France, says, "This fishery is a more valuable source of wealth and power to France, than even the mines of Peru and Mexico would be.

**HISTORY.]** Though some fishermen had long resorted to this island every summer, not more than 20 or 30 had ever fixed there. The French, who took possession of it in August 1713, were properly the first inhabitants. They changed its name into that of *Isle Royale*, and fixed upon Fort Dauphin for their principal settlement. This harbour was two leagues in circumference. The ships came to the very shore, and were sheltered from the winds. Forests, affording oak sufficient to fortify and build a large city were near at hand; the ground appeared less barren than in other parts, and the fishery was more plentiful. This harbour might have been rendered impregnable at a trifling expence; but the difficulty of approaching it (a circumstance that had at first made a stronger impression than the advantages resulting from it) occasioned it to be abandoned, after great labour had been bestowed upon the undertaking. They then turned their views to Louisbourg, the access to which was easier; and convenience was thus preferred to security: the fortification of Louisbourg, however, was not begun till 1720.

In the year 1714, some fishermen, who till then had lived in Newfoundland, settled in this island. It was expected that their number would soon have been increased by the Acadians, who were at liberty from the treaties that had been granted them, to remove with all their effects, and even to dispose of their estates; but these hopes were disappointed. The Acadians chose rather to retain their possessions under the dominion of Britain, than to give them up for any precarious advantage they might derive from their attachment to France. Their place was supplied by some distressed adventurers from Europe, who came over from time to time to Cape Breton, and the number of inhabitants gradually increased to 4000. They were settled at Louisbourg, Fort Dauphin, Port Toulouze, Neruka, and on all the coasts where they found a proper beach for drying the cod.

This island remained in possession of the French till 1745, when it was captured for the crown of Great Britain, by a body of troops from New England, under the command of lieutenant general William Pepperell; but it was again, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, ceded to the French, who spared no expence to fortify and strengthen it. Notwithstanding which, it was again reduced, in 1758, by the British troops under general Amherst and admiral Boscawen, together with a large body of New England men, who found in that place two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon, and eighteen mortars, together with a large quantity of ammunition and stores; and it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the peace of 1763, since which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louisbourg dismantled.

**St. John's.]** Situated in the gulf of St. Laurence, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 or 40 broad, has many fine rivers, and though lying near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, has greatly the advantage of both in pleasantness and fertility of soil. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this island amounting to 4000, submitted quietly to the British arms; and to the disgrace of the French governor, there were found in his house several English scalps, which were brought there to market by the savages of Nova Scotia; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This island was so well improved by the French, that it was styled the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. It has several fine rivers, and a rich soil. Charlotte-town is its capital, and is the residence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer in the island. The inhabitants are estimated at about 5000. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, in 1745, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to about 4000, submitted quietly to the British arms. It is attached to the province of Nova Scotia.

**BERMUDAS, or SOMMERS' ISLANDS.]** These received their first name from their being first discovered by John Bermudas a Spaniard; and were called the Summer Islands, from sir George Sommers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. They are situated at a vast distance from any continent, in 32° north latitude, and in 65° west longitude. Their distance from the Land's End is computed to be near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200, and from Carolina 300. The Bermudas are but small, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and very difficult of access, being, as Waller the poet, who resided some time there, expresses it, "walled with rocks." The air of these islands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always esteemed extremely healthful; a continual spring prevails, so that the beauty and richness of the vegetable productions are delightful. The pasture ground is ever verdant; the gardens ever in bloom. Most of the productions of the West Indies might here be cultivated. Though the soil of these islands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vine, the chief and only business of the inhabitants, who consist of about 10,000, is the building and navigating of the light sloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the West Indies. These vessels are remarkable for their swiftness; as the cedar, of which they are built, is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is seated at the bottom of a haven in the island of the same name, and is defended with seven or eight forts and seventy pieces of cannon. It contains above five hundred houses, and some elegant public buildings.

"The houses are built of a soft stone, which is fawn like timber; when exposed to the weather, and washed like lime, it becomes hard. The houses are white as snow; which beheld from an eminence, contrasted with the greenness of the cedars and pasture-ground, and the multitude of islands full in view, realize what the poets have feigned concerning the Elysian fields. The inhabitants are numerous, perhaps not less than 15 or 20,000, who live so contiguous, that it looks like a continued village.

"The common food of the Bermudians is coffee, fish of different kinds, a sweet potatoe, Indian corn, and American flour. The water is rain preserved in cisterns: the general drink is grog. The government is conducted under a governor named by the crown of England, a council, and general assembly. The established religion is episcopacy. There are nine churches, of which three clergymen have the charge. There is one Presbyterian church. A regard for religion is

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"not the characteristic of the Bermudians. They seldom go to church, except it be to attend a funeral, to the baptism of their children, or to hear a stranger \*."

**LUCAY'S, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.]** The Bahamas are situated to the south of Carolina, between 22° and 27° north latitude, and 73° and 81° west longitude. They extend along the coast of Florida quite down to the ile of Cuba, and are said to be 500 in number,—some of them only mere rocks; but twelve of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the soil of Carolina: all are, however, uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles east of the Floridas; though some others are larger and more fertile, on which the English have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the gulf of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spanish galleons sail in their passage to Europe.

These little islands have deservedly a claim to particular notice; for it was one of them † that had the honour of first receiving Columbus, after a voyage the most bold and magnificent in design, and the most important in its consequences, of any that the mind of man has conceived, or national adventure undertaken, from the beginning of the world to the present time. They were not known to the English till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his passage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a second time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The English, observing the advantageous situation of these islands as a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to settle them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky accidents prevented this settlement from being of any advantage; and the Isle of Providence became an harbour for the buccaneers or pirates, who for a long time infested the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to send out captain Woodes Rogers, with a fleet, to dislodge the pirates, and to make a settlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was stationed in the island. Ever since this last settlement, these islands have been improving, though but slowly. In time of war, people gain considerably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and shelves. The Spaniards and Americans captured these islands during the last war; but they were retaken by a detachment from St. Augustine, April 7, 1783.

**FALKLAND ISLANDS.]** Leaving the Bahama and West India islands, we shall now proceed along the south-east coast of America, as far as the 52d degree of south latitude, where the reader, by looking into the map, will perceive the Falkland islands, situated near the Straits of Magellan, at the utmost extremity of South America. King Charles II. of England thought the discovery of this coast of such consequence, that sir John Narborough was purposely fitted out to survey the Straits of Magellan, the neighbouring coast of Patagonia, and the Spanish ports in that neighbourhood,—with directions, if possible, to procure some intercourse with the Chilian Indians, who are generally at war, or at least on ill terms, with the Spaniards; and to establish a commerce and a lasting correspondence with them. Though sir John, through accidental causes, failed in this attempt, which, in appearance, promised many advantages to this nation, his transactions upon that coast, besides the many valuable improvements he furnished to geography and navigation, are rather an encouragement for farther trials of this kind, than any ob.

\* This account is from a letter lately written by an intelligent gentleman, who had resided a number of years in Bermuda.

† St. Salvador, known to English seamen by the name of Cat Island.

jection against them. It appeared by the precautions and fears of the Spaniards, that they were fully convinced of the practicability of the scheme he was sent to execute, and extremely alarmed with the apprehension of its consequences. It is said that his majesty Charles II. was so far prepossessed with the belief of the emoluments which might redound to the public from this expedition, and was so eager to be informed of the event of it, that, having intelligence of sir John Narborough's passing through the Downs on his return, he had not patience to attend his arrival at court, but went himself in his barge to Gravesend to meet him.

"As therefore it appears (says the author of Anson's Voyage) that all our future expeditions to the South Seas must run a considerable risk of proving abortive, whilst in our passage thither we are under the necessity of touching at the Portuguese settlement of Brazil (where we may certainly depend on having our strength, condition, and designs betrayed to the Spaniards), the discovery of some place more to the southward, where ships might refresh, and supply themselves with the necessary sea-stock for their voyage round Cape Horn, would be an expedient that would relieve us from these embarrassments, and would surely be a matter worthy the attention of the public. Nor does this seem difficult to be effected; for we have already the imperfect knowledge of two places, which might perhaps, on examination, prove extremely convenient for this purpose: one of them is Pepys' Island, in the latitude of 47, south, and laid down by Dr. Halley about 80 leagues to the eastward of Cape Blanco, on the coast of Patagonia; the other is Falkland's Isles, in the latitude of 51 and a half, lying nearly south of Pepys' Island. The last of these have been seen by many ships, both French and English. Woodes Rogers, who ran along the north-east coast of these isles in the year 1708, tells us that they extended about two degrees in length, and appeared with gentle descents from hill to hill, and seemed to be good ground, interspersed with woods, and not destitute of harbours. Either of these places, as they are islands at a considerable distance from the continent, may be supposed, from their latitude, to lie in a climate sufficiently temperate. This, even in time of peace, might be of great consequence to this nation,—and, in time of war, would make us masters of those seas."

Falkland islands were first discovered by sir Richard Hawkins in 1594; the principal of which he named Hawkins' Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The present English name Falkland was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1689; and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps.

In the year 1764, the late lord Egmont, then first lord of the admiralty, revived the scheme of a settlement in the South-Seas; and commodore Byron was sent to take possession of Falkland Islands in the name of his Britannic majesty, and in his journal represents them as a valuable acquisition. On the other hand, they are represented by captain M'Bride 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 any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir-trees, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered away; but goats, sheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increase as in other places. Geese, of a sily taste, snipes, foxes, sea-lions, penguins, plenty of good water, and, in the summer months, wild celery and sorrel, are the natural luxuries of these islands.

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But though the soil be barren, and the sea tempestuous, an English settlement was made here, of which we were dispossessed by the Spaniards in 1770. That measure was, however, disfavoured by the Spanish ambassador, and some concessions were made to the court of Great Britain; but the settlement was finally abandoned in 1774, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the court of Spain.

## SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

## EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 } Breadth 130 }	between { 80 and 92 west longitude. 25 and 31 north latitude.	} 100,000.

**BOUNDARIES.]** THIS country, which was ceded by Great Britain to Spain by the late treaty of peace, and includes a part of Louisiana, is bounded by Georgia on the north; by the Mississippi on the west; by the gulf of Mexico on the south; and by the Bahama straits on the east.

**RIVERS.]** These are the Mississippi, which forms the western boundary of Florida, and is one of the finest in the world, as well as the largest; for, including its turnings and windings, it is supposed to run a course of 4,500 miles: but its mouths are in a manner choked up with sands and shoals, which deny access to vessels of any considerable burthen,—there being, according to Mitchel's map, only twelve feet water over the bar (captain Pitman says seventeen) at the principal entrance. Within the bar there is 100 fathom water, and the channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain season, when, like the Nile, it overflows and becomes extremely rapid. It is, except the entrance already mentioned, every where free from shoals and cataracts, and navigable for craft of one kind or other almost to its source. The Mobile, the Apalachicola, and St. John's rivers, are also large and noble streams.

**BAYS AND CAPES.]** The principal bays are—St. Bernard's, Ascension, Mobile, Pensacola, Dauphin, Joseph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Santo, and Charles Bay.

The chief capes are—Cape Blanco, Sambles, Anclote, St. Augustine, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninsula.

**AIR AND CLIMATE.]** Different accounts have been given of these particulars. It may be observed, that, though the air is very warm, the heats are much allayed by cool breezes from the seas which environ and wash a considerable part of this country. The inland countries towards the north feel a little of the roughness of the north-west wind, which, more or less, diffuses its chilling breath over the whole continent of North America, carrying frost and snow many degrees more to the southward in these regions, than the north-east wind does in Europe. That the air of Florida is pure and wholesome, appears from the size, vigour, and longevity of the Floridian Indians, who in these respects far exceed their more southern neighbours, the Mexicans; and when the Spaniards quitted St. Augustine, many of them were of great age,—some above ninety.

**SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND** } Many of the disadvantages indiscriminately  
FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } imputed to the soil of the whole country should  
be confined to East-Florida, which, indeed, near the sea, and 40 miles back, is flat  
and sandy. But even the country round St. Augustine, in all appearance the worst  
in the province, is far from being unfruitful: it produces two crops of Indian corn  
a year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees  
grow here, without cultivation, to a larger size, and produce better fruit than in  
Spain or Portugal.

The live-oaks, though not tall, contain a prodigious quantity of timber. The  
trunk is generally from twelve to twenty feet in circumference, and rises ten or  
twelve feet from the earth, and then branches into four or five great limbs, which  
grow in nearly a horizontal direction, forming a gentle curve. "I have stepped,"  
says Bartram \*, "above fifty paces in a straight line, from the trunk of one of these  
trees to the extremity of the limbs." They are ever green and the wood almost  
incorruptible. They bear a great quantity of small acorns, which are good to  
eat, when roasted, and from which the Indians extract a sweet oil, which they use  
in cooking hominy and rice.

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

The inland country towards the hills is extremely rich and fertile, producing  
spontaneously the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and  
the Carolinas; and is likewise favourable to the rearing of European productions.  
There is not, on the whole continent of America, any place better qualified by  
nature to afford not only all the necessaries of life, but also all the pleasures of ha-  
bitation, than that part of this country which lies upon the banks of the Missis-  
sippi.

From the climate of Florida, and some specimens sent to England, there is reason  
to expect that cotton, sugar, wine, and silk, will grow here as well as in Persia,  
India, and China, which are in the same latitudes. This country also produces  
rice, indigo, ambergris, cochineal, amethysts, turquoises, lapis lazuli, and other  
precious stones; copper, quick-silver, pit-coal, and iron ore: pears are found in  
great abundance on the coast of Florida: mahogany grows in the southern parts of  
the peninsula, but inferior in size and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal cre-  
ation are here so numerous, that you may purchase a good saddle-horse in exchange  
for goods of five shillings value prime cost; and there are instances of horses being  
exchanged for a batchet per head. Naval stores might be raised in these provinces  
in great abundance; and West Florida has already supplied Spain with considerable  
quantities. It is said, that no province can so profitably furnish Madeira with corn  
and pipe-slaves as West Florida, and in return supply itself and other provinces with

\* Travels, page 85.

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wines. The fisheries might likewise be rendered here very profitable, as might also the trade for furs, and various other branches.

**POPULATION, COMMERCE, & CHIEF TOWNS.** } of war, and frequently changed masters, belonging alternately to the French and Spaniards. West Florida, as far as east Perdido river, was owned and occupied by the French,—the remainder, and all East Florida, by the Spaniards,—previous to their being ceded to the English, at the peace of 1763. The English divided this country into East and West Florida. But notwithstanding the luxuriance of the soil, the salubrity of the air, the cheapness and plenty of provisions, and the encouragement of the British government, the number of English inhabitants here was never very considerable. Indeed the affairs of the colony appear to have been injudiciously managed; and the reduction of Pensacola by the arms of the king of Spain in 1781, and its being guaranteed to that crown by the definitive treaty of 1783, deprived us of our flattering prospects from the possession of Florida.

The chief town in West Florida is Pensacola, N. lat. 30-22. W. lon. 87-20, which is seated within the bay of the same name, on a sandy shore that can only be approached by small vessels. The road is, however, one of the best in all the gulf of Mexico, in which vessels may lie in safety against every wind, being surrounded by land on all sides. This place sent skins, logwood, dying stuff, and silver in dollars, to the annual value of 63,000*l.* and received of our manufactures, at an average of three years, to the value of 97,000*l.*

St. Augustine, the capital of East Florida, N. lat. 29-45. W. lon. 81-12, runs along the shore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular streets, crossing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with bastions, and inclosed with a ditch. It is likewise defended by a castle, which is called Fort St. John; and the whole is furnished with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and south breakers, forming two channels, whose bars, at low tides, have eight feet water.

## LOUISIANA.

**BOUNDARIES.]** BOUNDED by the Mississippi east; by the Gulf of Mexico south; by New Mexico west; and runs indefinitely north. Under the French government, Louisiana included both sides of the Mississippi, from its mouth to the Illinois, and back from the river, east and west indefinitely.

**RIVERS.]** It is intersected by a number of fine rivers, among which are St. Francis, which empties into the Mississippi at Kappas Old Fort, navigable about 250 or three hundred miles; its course is nearly parallel with the Mississippi, and from 20 to 30 miles distant from it;—the Natchitoches, which empties into the Mississippi above Point Coupée, and the Adayes or Mexicano river, emptying into the Gulf of Mexico;—and the river Rouge, on which it is well known, are as rich silver mines as any in Mexico. This is supposed to be one principal reason why the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi has been so much insisted on by Spain.

**CAPITAL.]** New Orleans. It stands on the east side of the Mississippi, 105 miles from its mouth, in latitude 30° 2' north. It contained about 1100 houses, seven eighths of which were consumed by fire, in the space of five hours, on the 19th of March 1788. It is now fast rebuilding. Its advantages for trade are very great,—situated on a noble river, in a fertile and healthy country, within a week's

fall of Mexico by sea, and as near to the British, French, and Spanish West India islands, with a moral certainty of its becoming the general receptacle for the produce of that extensive and valuable country on the Mississippi and Ohio: these circumstances are sufficient to ensure its future growth and commercial importance.

[RELIGION, GOVERNMENT, &c.] The greater part of the white inhabitants are Roman Catholics. They are governed by a viceroy from Spain, and the number of inhabitants is unknown.

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

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

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

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

\* Morse's American Geography, vol. i. p. 633.

## NEW MEXICO INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 } Breadth 1600 }	between { 93 and 125 west longitude. { 23 and 43 north latitude. }	600,000.

**BOUNDARIES.]** **B**OUNDED by unknown lands on the North; by Louisiana, on the East; by Old Mexico, and the Pacific Ocean, on the South; and by the same ocean, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
North-east division	} New Mexico Proper	} SANTA FE, W. lon. 104. N. lat. 36.
South-east division		
South division	Sonora - - -	Tuampe
West division	California, a peninsula.	St. Juan.

**SOIL AND CLIMATE.]** These countries, lying for the most part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable, and a soil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California, however, the heat is great in summer, particularly towards the sea-coast; but in the inland country, the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

**FACE AND PRODUCE OF THE COUNTRY.]** The natural history of these countries is yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themselves know little of the matter, and the little they know they are unwilling to communicate. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California are extremely beautiful and pleasant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, intersected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with various kinds of trees, some producing excellent fruit. With respect to the value of the gold mines, nothing positive can be asserted. They have undoubtedly enough of natural productions to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, settling on the rose leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having all the sweetness of refined sugar, without its whiteness. There is also another very singular natural production; in the heart of the country there are plains of salt, quite firm and clear as crystal, which, considering the vast quantities of fish found on its coasts, well render it an invaluable acquisition to an industrious nation.

**INHABITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION AND COMMERCE.]** The Spanish settlements here are comparatively weak, though they are increasing every day in proportion as new mines are discovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spanish missionaries have in many places brought over to Christianity, to a civilised life, and to raise corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. California was discovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico, in 1536, after enduring incredible hardships, and encountering dangers of almost every species. During a long period, it was so little frequented, that even its form was unknown, and, in most maps, it was represented as an island. Our famous navigator, sir Francis Drake, took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king or chief in the whole country.

country. This title, however, the government of Great Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably situated for trade, and on its coast has a pearl fishery of great value. The inhabitants and government do not materially differ from those of Old Mexico.

OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 } between { 83 and 110 west longitude. }		318,000.
Breadth 600 }	{ 8 and 30 north latitude. }	

**BOUNDARIES.]** BOUNDED by New Mexico, or Granada, on the North; by the gulf of Mexico, on the North-east; by Terra Firma, on the South-east; and by the Pacific Ocean, on the South-west, containing three audiences.

Audiences.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
<b>I. GALICIA.</b>	1. Guadaluajara	Guadaluajara
	2. Zacatecas	Zacatecas
	3. New Biscay	St. Barbara
	4. Cinolea	Cinolea
	5. Culiacan	Culiacan
	6. Charmetlan	Charmetlan
	7. Xalisco	Xalisco
<b>II. MEXICO.</b>	1. Mexico	{ MEXICO, W. lon. 100-5. N. lat. 19-54. Acapulco Mechoacan Tampice Tlascala Vera Cruz Guaxaca Tobasco Campeachy Chiapa Soconusco
	2. Mechoacan	
	3. Panuco	
	4. Tlascala	
	5. Guaxaca	
	6. Tobasco	
	7. Jucatan	
	8. Chiapa	
	9. Soconusco	
<b>III. GUATIMALA.</b>	1. Verapaz	Verapaz
	2. Guatimala	Guatimala *
	3. Honduras	Valladotid
	4. Nicaragua	Leon
	5. Costa Rica	Nycoya
	6. Veragua	Santa Fé.

\* This city was swallowed up by an earthquake on the 7th of June, 1773, when eight thousand families instantly perished. New Guatimala is built at some distance, and is well inhabited.

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**BAYS.]** On the north sea are the gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campechy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific Ocean, or South-Sea, are the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco and Salinas.

**CAVES.]** These are cape Sardo, cape St. Martin, cape Condecedo, cape Ca-toche, cape Honduras, cape Cameron, and cape Gracias Dios, in the North Sea.

Cape Marques, cape Spirito Santo, cape Corientes, cape Gallero, cape Blanco, cape Burica, cape Prucroca, and cape Mala, in the South-Sea.

**WINDS.]** In the gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent seas, there are strong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade-winds prevail every where at a distance from land, within the tropics. Near the coast, in the South-Sea, they have periodical winds, viz. monsoons, and sea and land breezes, as in Asia.

**SOIL AND CLIMATE.]** Mexico, lying for the most part within the torrid zone, is excellently hot; and, on the eastern coast, the land is low, marshy, and constantly flooded in the rainy seasons. The inland country, however, assumes a better aspect, and the air is of a milder temperature; on the western side, the land is not so low as on the eastern, much better in quality, and full of plantations.

**PRODUCES.]** Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts are here in the greatest plenty and perfection. Mexico produces also a prodigious quantity of sugar, especially towards the gulf of Mexico, and the province of Guaxaca and Guatimala, so that here are more sugar-mills than in any other parts of Spanish America. Cedar-trees and logwood abound near the bays of Campechy and Honduras; the Mahoe-tree also which hath a bark with strong fibres, which they twist and make ropes of. They have also a tree, which is called light-wood, being as light as a cork, of which they make floats to carry their merchandise on the sea-coasts.

But what is considered as the chief glory of the country, and what first induced the Spaniards to form settlements upon it, are the mines of gold and silver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, bordering upon Darien and Terra Firma. Those of silver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in several parts, but in none so much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the most barren and mountainous part of the country; nature making amends in one respect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and silver mines depends on the same principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of several heterogeneous substances mixed with the precious metals, it is broken into small pieces by a mill, and afterwards washed, by which means it is disengaged from the earth, and other soft bodies which cling to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all substances, has the strongest attraction for gold, and likewise a stronger attraction for silver than the other substances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and silver are first separated from the heterogeneous matter, and then by straining and evaporation, they are disunited from the mercury itself.

The other articles next in importance to gold and silver, are the cochineal and cocoa. The former is of the animal kind, and of the species of the gall insects. It adheres to the plant called opuntia, and sucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimson colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value, which consists in dyeing all sorts of the finest scarlet, crimson, and purple. It is also used in medicine as a sudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no less than nine hundred thousand pounds weight of this commodity to answer the purposes of medicine and dyeing. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, grows on a tree of a middling size, which bears a pod about the

size and shape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spanish commerce in this article is immense; and such is the internal consumption, as well as the external demand for it, that a small garden of cocoas is said to produce to the owner twenty thousand crowns a year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholesome, nutritious, and suitable to the climate. This country likewise produces silk, but not in such plenty as to make any remarkable part of its export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and on account of its lightness is the common wear of the inhabitants.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } We have already described the original inhabitants of Mexico, and the conquest of that country by the Spaniards. The present inhabitants may be divided into Whites, Indians, and Negroes. The whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are creoles, i. e. natives of Spanish America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the same character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a still more considerable portion of pride; for they consider themselves entitled to great distinctions as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are descended, without that courage, firmness, and patience, which make the praise-worthy part of the Spanish character. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expensive with great parade and little convenience, their general character is no more than a grave and specious insignificance. From idleness and constitution, their whole business is amour and intrigue; and their ladies of consequence are not greatly distinguished by their chastity or domestic virtues. The Indians, who notwithstanding the devastations of the first invaders, remain in great numbers, are become, by continual oppression and indignity, dejected and timorous. The blacks here, like all those in other parts of the world, are stubborn, hardy, and as well adapted for the gross slavery they endure as any human creatures can be.

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greatest part of Spanish America. The civil government is administered by tribunals, called Audiences, which bear a resemblance to the parliaments formerly in France. In these courts the viceroy of the king of Spain presides. His employment is the greatest trust and power which his Catholic majesty has in his disposal, and is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. The greatness of the viceroy's office is diminished by the shortness of its duration, which lasts only three years. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico; and it has been computed, that priests, monks, and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spanish America. The people are superstitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with such materials to work upon, it is not remarkable that the church should enjoy one fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom.

COMMERCE, CITIES, AND SHIPPING.] The trade of Mexico consists of three great branches, which extend over the world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, situated on the gulf of Mexico; with the East Indies, by Acapulco on the South-Sea; and with South America by the same port. These two sea-ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are wonderfully well situated for commercial purposes. By means of the former, Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world; and receives in return the numberless luxuries and necessaries, which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themselves. To this port, the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, consisting of three men of war, as a convoy, and 14 large merchant ships, annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargo consists of every

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commodity and manufacture of Europe; and there are few maritime nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who send out little more than wine and oil. The profit of these, with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the king, are almost the only advantages which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods are landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities for Europe. Some time in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they sail to the Havannah, in the isle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy necessary for their safety, they steer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the sea-port, by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spanish empire in America, and the East Indies. About the month of December, the great galeon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, annually arrives here. The cargoes of these ships (for the convoy, though clandestinely, likewise carries goods) consist of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the East. At the same time, the annual ship from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in, and is computed to bring not less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quicksilver and other valuable commodities to be laid out in the purchase of the galleons' cargoes. Several other ships, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the same occasion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, lasts thirty days. The galeon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with silver, and such European goods as have been thought necessary. As the Spaniards allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial states, to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the flota; so the Spanish settlers in the Philippines, tainted with the same indolence, permit the Chinese merchants to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the galeon. Notwithstanding what has been said of Vera Cruz, and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be considered as the centre of commerce in this part of the world; for here the principal merchants reside, and the greatest part of the business is negotiated. The East India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz also pass through this city. Hither all the gold and silver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is deposited, and here are wrought all those utensils and ornaments in plate which are every year sent to Europe. The city itself breathes the air of the highest magnificence, and according to the best accounts contains about 80,000 inhabitants.

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## SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

### TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

#### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1400 } Breadth 700 }	between { 60 and 82 west longitude, the equator, and 12 north latitude. }	700,000.

**BOUNDARIES.]** BOUNDED by the North Sea (part of the Atlantic ocean), on the North; by the same sea and Surinam, on the East; by the country of the Amazons and Peru, on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean and New Spain, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
The northern division contains the provinces of	1. Terra Firma Proper, or Darien - - -	Porto Bello PANAMA, W. lon. 80-21. N. lat. 8-47.
	2. Carthagena - - -	Carthagena
	3. St. Martha - - -	St. Martha
	4. Rio de la Hacha - - -	Rio de la Hacha
	5. Venezuela - - -	Venezuela
	6. Comana - - -	Comana
The southern division contains the provinces of	7. New Andalusia, or Paria - - - - -	St. Thomas
	1. New Granada - - -	Santa Fè de Bagota
	2. Popayan - - - - -	Popayan.

**RIVERS, BAYS, CAPES, &c.]** The Isthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello in the North, to Panama on the South Sea, or rather a little west of these two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America; and here the Isthmus, or neck of land, is only 60 miles over. The principal rivers are the Rio Grande, Darien, Chagre, and the Oronoque. The peculiarities of this last mentioned river require a particular description.

It was Columbus, who, in 1498, first discovered the Oronoque, the borders of which have since been named Spanish Guiana. This great river takes its rise among the Cordelera mountains; and is said to discharge itself into the ocean by forty openings, after it hath been increased, throughout an immense tract, by the afflux of a prodigious number of rivers more or less considerable. Such is its impetuosity, that it stems the strongest tides, and preserves the freshness of its waters to the distance of twelve leagues from the mouth of that vast and deep channel within which it was confined. Its rapidity, however, is not always the same, which is owing to a circumstance perhaps entirely peculiar. The Oronoque, which begins to swell in April, continues rising for five months; and during the sixth, remains at its greatest height. From October, it begins gradually to subside, till the month of March, throughout the whole of which it remains in the fixed state of its greatest diminution. These alternate changes are regular, and even invariable. Perhaps the rising of the waters of the Oronoque may depend entirely on the rainy season.

This river is not so easily navigated as it might be presumed from its magnitude; its bed being in many places filled up with rock, which obliges the navigator, at times, to carry both his boats and the merchandize they are laden with, by land round the obstruction.

The principal bays in Terra Firma are, the bay of Panama, and the bay of St. Michael's, in the South-Sea; the bay of Porto Bello, the gulf of Darien; Sino bay, Carthagena bay and harbour, the gulf of Venezuela, the bay of Maracaibo, the gulf of Triesto, the bay of Guaria, the bay of Curiaco, and the gulf of Paria, or Andalusia, in the North-Sea.

The chief capes are, Sambblas point, Point Canoa, Cape del Agua, Swart point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa. Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points, and Cape Nassau; all on the north shore of Terra Firma.

**CLIMATE.]** The climate here, particularly in the northern divisions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmest day in Paris is continual at Carthagena; the excessive heats raise the vapour of the sea, which is precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive

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cessive heat, so impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces particularly about P. payan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholesome.

**SOIL AND PRODUCE.]** The soil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impossible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the inland country, for the coasts are generally barren sand, and incapable of bearing any species of grain. The trees, most remarkable for their dimensions, are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balsam tree. The manchineel tree is particularly remarkable. It bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains the most subtle poison. The Habella de Carthagena is the fruit of a species of willow, and contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white, and extremely bitter. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never failing remedy for the bite of the most venomous vipers and serpents, which are very frequent all over this country. There were formerly in Terra Firma rich mines of gold, which are now in a great measure exhausted. The silver, iron, and copper mines have been since opened; and the inhabitants find emeralds, sapphires, and other precious stones.

**ANIMALS.]** In treating of North America, we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the southern parts. Among those peculiar to the South, the most remarkable is the sloth, or as it is called by way of derision, the swift Peter. It bears a resemblance to an ordinary monkey in shape and size, but is of a most wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its skin all over cougated. He stands in no need of either chain or hutch, never stirring unless compelled by hunger; and he is said to be several minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with such a plaintive, and at the same time, so disagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and disgust. In this cry consists the whole defence of this wretched animal. For on the first hostile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always attended with disgusting howling, so that his pursuer flies much more speedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noise. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he ascends with a world of uneasiness, moving and crying, and stopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to save himself such another troublesome journey, and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree he gathers himself in a bunch, and with a shriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in these countries are very numerous; they keep together 20 or 30 in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a single person, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at least they chatter, and make a frightful noise, throwing things at him; they hang themselves by the tail, on the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes, but where two or three people are together, they usually scamper away.

**NATIVES.]** Besides the Indians of this country, who fall under our general description of the Americans, there is another species of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a smaller stature than the ordinary Indians. Their dispositions too are more soft and effeminate; but what principally distinguishes them is their large weak blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the sun, see best by moon-light, and from which they are called Moon-eyed Indians.

**INHABITANTS, AND COMMERCE.]** We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from those of Mexico. To what we have already observed, therefore,

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it is only necessary to add, that the original inhabitants of Spain are variously intermixed with the negroes and Indians. These intermixtures form different gradations, which are carefully distinguished from each other, because every person expects to be regarded, in proportion as a greater share of the Spanish blood runs in his veins. The first distinction, arising from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes, which is well known. Next to these are the Tercerones, produced from a white and mulatto. From the intermarriage with these and the whites arise the Quarterones, who, though still nearer the former, are disgraced with a tint of the negro blood. But the produce of these and the whites are the Quinterones, who, it is said, are not to be distinguished from the real Spaniards, but by being of a still fairer complexion. The same gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes; and besides these, there are a thousand others, hardly distinguishable by the natives themselves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello; which are three of the most considerable cities in Spanish America. In them are held the annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandize of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coast, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the least considerable. The fishing for these, employs a great number of negro slaves, who have arrived at wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are sometimes, however, devoured by fish, particularly the sharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are crushed against the shelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the same footing with that of Mexico.

**CHIEF TOWNS.]** CARTHAGENA is the principal seaport town in Terra Firma. It is situated on the Atlantic ocean in N. lat.  $10^{\circ} 26'$ . and about  $78^{\circ}$  W. lon. The bay on which it stands, is seven miles wide from north to south,—abounds with a variety of good fish,—and has a sufficient depth of water, with good anchorage; and so smooth that ships are no more agitated than on a river. The many shallows at its entrance, however, make the help of a good pilot necessary. The town and its suburbs are fortified in modern style,—the streets are straight, broad, and well paved. The houses are principally brick, and one story high. All houses have balconies, and lattices of wood. This city is the residence of the governor of the province of Carthagena, and of a bishop whose spiritual jurisdiction extends over the whole province. There is here also a court of inquisition,—several convents, and nunneries,—a church, a chapel of ease, and a college of Jesuits. The city is well peopled with Indians, Europeans, negroes, and creoles. The Europeans, who are not numerous, and the creoles, manage the whole trade of the place; the other inhabitants are poor, and work hard for subsistence. The inhabitants are universally fond of chocolate and tobacco; and the most sober seldom fail of drinking a glass of brandy in the morning.

PANAMA is the capital of Terra Firma Proper, and is situated upon a capacious bay, to which it gives its name. It is the great receptacle of the vast quantities of gold and silver, with other rich merchandize, from all parts of Peru and Chili: here they are lodged in store houses, till the proper season arrives to transport them to Europe.

PORTO BELLO is situated close to the sea, on the declivity of a mountain, which surrounds the whole harbour. The convenience and safety of this harbour is such, that Columbus, who first discovered it, gave it the name of Porto Bello, or the fine Harbour.

**HISTORY.]** This part of South America was discovered by Columbus, in his third voyage to this continent. It was subdued and settled by the Spaniards about the year 1514, after they had inhumanly destroyed several millions of the natives.

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This country was called Terra Firma, on account of its being the first part of the continent which was discovered; all the lands discovered, previous to this, being islands.

P E R U.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1800 } Breadth 600 }	between { the equator and 25 south latitude. } { 60 and 81 west longitude. }	970,000

**BOUNDARIES.]** BOUNDED by Terra Firma, on the North; by the mountains of Cordeleirias des Andes, East; by Chili, South; and by the Pacific Ocean, West.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The Northern division,	{ Quito - -	{ Quito { Payta
The Middle division,	{ Lima, or Los Reyes	{ LIMA, 76-49 W. lon. 12-11 S. lat. { Cusco, and Callao
The Southern division,	{ Los Charcos -	{ Potofi { Porco.

**SEAS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.]** The only sea which borders on Peru is the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Cofina, Vermeio, Cuara, Callao the port town to Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

**RIVERS.]** There is a number of rivers, which rise in the Andes, but most of them run to the eastward. Among these are the Granada, or Cagdalená, Oro-noque, Amazon, and Plate. The Amazon rises in Peru, but directs its course eastward, and after running between 3 and 4000 miles, falls into the Atlantic ocean, under the Equator. This river, like others between the tropics, annually overflows its banks; at which time it is 150 miles wide at its mouth. It is supposed to be the largest river in the world, either with regard to the length of its course, the depth of its waters or its astonishing breadth. There is one river in Peru, the waters of which, are said to be as red as blood; but this is doubted by some. It is probable, however, that there may be qualities in the earth through which this river runs, which may tinge the waters and give them some resemblance to blood. Many other rivers rise also in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific Ocean, between the equator and eight degrees S. lat.

**PETRIFYING WATERS.]** There are some waters, which, in their course, cover whatever they touch or pass over, with stone; and here are fountains of liquid matter called coppey, resembling pitch and tar, and used by the seamen for the same purposes.

**SOIL AND CLIMATE.]** Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet having on one

one side the South-Sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not so stifled with heat as the other tropical countries. The sky too, which is generally cloudy, shields them from the direct rays of the sun: but what is extremely singular, in some places, it never rains; which defect, however, is sufficiently supplied by a soft kindly dew, which falls gradually every night on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grass, as to produce in many places the greatest fertility; but in Quito, they have excessive rains, attended by dreadful storms of thunder and lightning. Along the sea-coast, Peru is generally a dry barren sand, except near the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

**VEGETABLE, AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** The northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. But one of the most important vegetable productions of this country is that valuable article in the materia medica, the Peruvian bark, better known by the name of Jesuits' bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug, grows principally in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The best bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds: The tree which bears it, is about the size of a cherry-tree, and produces a kind of fruit resembling the almond. But it is only the bark which has those excellent qualities that render it so useful in intermitting fevers, and other disorders, to which daily experience extends the application of it. It is distinguished into three kinds: the red, the yellow, and the white; but the red is found to be the best and most efficacious. The Jesuits carried this bark to Rome, as early as 1639; but the natives are supposed to have been acquainted with its medicinal qualities, many ages before. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper as we call it, is produced in the greatest abundance in the vale of Africa, a district in the southern parts of Peru, from whence it is annually exported, to the value of 600,000 crowns.

Wool is another article of the produce of this country, and is no less remarkable for its fineness than for the animals on which it grows; these are the Lamas and Vicuñas. The lama has a small head, resembling that of a horse and a sheep at the same time. It is about the size of a stag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it spits a kind of venomous juice, which inflames the part it falls on. The flesh of the lama is agreeable and salutary, and the animal is not only useful in affording wool and food, but also as a beast of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the steepest mountains with a burden of sixty or seventy pounds. It feeds very sparingly, and never drinks. The vicunna is smaller and swifter than the lama, and produces wool still finer in quality. In the vicunna is found the bezoar stone, regarded as a specific against poisons.

**MINES.** In the northern parts of Peru are several gold mines; but those of silver are found all over the country, particularly in the neighbourhood of Potosi. Nature never offered to the avidity of mankind, in any country on the globe, such rich mines as those of Potosi. They were accidentally discovered in the year 1545, in this manner; an Indian named Hualpa, one day following some deer, they made directly up the hill of Potosi; he came to a steep craggy part of the hill, and the better to enable him to climb up, laid hold of a shrub, which came up by the roots, and laid open a mass of silver ore. He for some time kept it a secret, but afterwards revealed it to his friend Guanca, who, because he would not discover to him the method of refining it, acquainted the Spaniard's master, named Valarocel, with the discovery. Valarocel registered the mine in 1545; and from that time till 1633 there came out of Potosi had yielded 395,619,000 pieces of eight, which is about 100,000,000 pieces a year. Potosi is about 20 or 25 leagues from the city of La Plata.

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**Plata.** The hill, and also the country for a considerable distance round, is quite barren and desert, and produces neither tree, plant, nor herb, so that the inhabitants of Potosi, which is situated at the foot of the hill, on the south side, are obliged to procure all the necessaries of life from Peru. These mines begin to decrease, and others rise in reputation.

Under this head it may not be improper to make some observations upon that new substance called *Platina*, and which may be considered as an *eighth* metal. In its native state it is mixed with gold and iron; and this at first gave rise to a suspicion that it was nothing more than a combination of these two metals; but late experiments of chemists fully prove that it is a pure and simple metal, with properties peculiar to itself. It cannot be affected by any simple acid, or by any known solvent except the *aqua regia*; it will not tarnish in the air, neither will it rust; it unites to the fixedness of gold, and to the property it has of not being susceptible of destruction, a hardness almost equal to that of iron, and a much greater difficulty of fusion. It is of an intermediate colour between that of iron and silver; it can be forged and extended into thin plates; and when dissolved in *aqua regia*, it may be made to assume, by precipitation, an infinite diversity of colours; and Count Milhey has succeeded in varying these precipitates so much, that he has had a picture painted, in the colouring of which there is scarce any thing but *platina* made use of. Upon the whole, from considering the advantages of *platina*, we cannot but conclude that this metal deserves, at least, from its superiority to all others, to share the title of king of the metals, of which gold has so long been in possession.

Peru is likewise the only part of South America which produces quicksilver, an article of immense value, considering the various purposes to which it is applied, and especially the purification of gold and silver. The principal mine is at a place called Guancavelica, discovered in 1567, where it is found in a whitish mass, resembling brick ill burned. This substance is volatilized by fire, and received in steam by a combination of glass vessels, where it condenses by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel, and forms a pure heavy liquid.

**MANUFACTURES, TRADE, AND CITIES.]** We join those articles, because of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we shall describe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. Lima is the capital of Peru; its situation, in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the most proper for a city, which he expected would preserve his memory. It is so well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, command a stream, each for his own use. There are many very magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houses in general are built of slight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering stone houses unnecessary; and besides, it is found that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a sixth part. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of the city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, amounting, it is said, to seventeen millions sterling. All travellers speak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, silver, and precious stones, which load and ornament even the walls. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for such articles as the

inhabitants of Peru stand in need of: the fleets from Europe and the East Indies land at the same harbour, and the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are bartered for each other. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouses, knowing that they must soon find an outlet for them, since by one channel or other they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster which always threatens and has sometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a most tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port-town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more terrible or complete,—not more than one of three thousand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by an accident the most extraordinary.—This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as is usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, and buried the inhabitants for ever in its bosom; but the same wave which destroyed the town, drove a little boat to the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself, and was saved.

Cusco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a distance from the sea, it has been long on the decline. But it is still a very considerable place, and contains above 40,000 people. The inhabitants, of whom three parts are Indians, are very industrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have also, both here and at Quito, a particular taste for painting; and their productions in this way, some of which have been admired in Italy, are dispersed all over South America. Quito is next to Lima in populousness, if not superior to it. It is, like Cusco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which supply the consumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

**INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND GOVERNMENT.** It has been guessed by some writers, that in all Spanish America there are about three millions of Spaniards and Creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater;—though neither is in any respect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole Spanish dominions. Pride and laziness are the two predominant passions. It is said, by the most authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The Creoles, and all the other descendants of the Spaniards, according to the above distinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices which a true born Castilian regards with detestation. This, no doubt, in part arises from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies,—mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spanish pride has made the greatest descents; and many of the first nobility are employed in commerce. It is in this city that the viceroy resides, whose authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has lately been detached from it. The viceroy is as absolute as the king of Spain; but as his territories are so extensive, it is necessary that he should part with a share of his authority to the several audiences or courts established over the kingdom. There is a treasury court established at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

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C H I L I.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1200	between { 25 and 45 south latitude. 65 and 85 west longitude. }	206,000.
Breadth 500		

**BOUNDARIES.]** THIS extensive country is bounded by Peru, on the North; by La Plata, or Paraguay, on the East; by Patagonia, on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean, on the West.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
On the western side of the Andes	} Chili Proper - -	} { St. Jago, W. lon. 77. S. lat. 34. Baldivia. Imperial.
On the eastern side of the Andes		

**LAKES.]** The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Besides which, they have several salt-water lakes, that have a communication with the sea, part of the year. In stormy weather the sea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fish; but in the hot season the water evaporates, leaving a crust of fine white salt a foot thick.

**SEAS, RIVERS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.]** The only sea that borders upon Chili is that of the Pacific Ocean on the west. The principal rivers are—the Salado, or Salt River, Guasco, Caquimbo, Bohio, and the Baldivia, scarcely navigable but at their mouths; they fall into the Pacific Ocean.

The principal bays or harbours are—Copiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valparaiso, Iata, Conception, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewer's-haven, and Castro.

**CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.]** These are not remarkably different from the same in Peru; and if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with respect to the gifts of nature. For here, not only the tropical fruits, but all species of grain, of which a considerable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the same with those of Peru; and they have gold almost in every river, supposed to be washed down from the hills.

**INHABITANTS.]** This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are still in a great measure unconquered and uncivilised; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preservation from the Spanish yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition with respect to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, are not supposed to be thrice that number. However, there have lately been some formidable insurrections against the Spaniards, by the natives of Chili, which greatly alarmed the Spanish court.

**COMMERCE.]** The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and some parts of Mexico. To the former they annually export corn sufficient

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cient for 60,000 men. Their other exports are hemp, which is raised in no other part of the South-Seas; hides, tallow, and salted provisions: they receive in return the commodities of Europe and the East Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

GOVERNMENT.] St. Jago is the capital of the state, and the seat of the empire. The commandant there is subordinate to the viceroy of Peru in all matters relating to the government, to the finances, and to war; but he is independent of him as chief administrator of justice, and president of the royal audience. Eleven inferior officers, distributed in the province, are charged, under his orders, with the details of administration.

PARAGUAY, OR, LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
	Length 1500 } between { 12 and 37 south latitude. } 1,000,000.		
	Breadth 1000 }	{ 50 and 75 west longitude. }	
BOUNDARIES.] <b>B</b> OUNDED by Amazonia, on the North; by Brasil, East; by Patagonia, on the South; and by Peru and Chili, West.			
	Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
	Eastern division contains	{ Paraguay - - - }	{ Assumption
		{ Parana, - - - }	{ St. Anne
		{ Guaira - - - }	{ Ciudad Real
		{ Uragua - - - }	{ Los Royes
	Southern division	{ Tucuman - - - }	{ St. Jago
		{ Rio de la Plata - - }	{ BUENOS AYRES, West lon. 57-54. S. lat. 34-35.

BAYS AND LAKES.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which stands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and Cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which, Carócores, is 100 miles long.

RIVERS.] Besides a vast number of smaller rivers which water this country, there is the grand river La Plata, which deserves a particular description. A Modenese Jesuit, by the name of *P. Cottaneo*, who sailed up this river, speaks in the following language concerning it: "While I resided in Europe, and read in books of history or geography, that the river La Plata was 150 miles in breadth, I considered it as an exaggeration, because in this hemisphere we have no example of such vast rivers. When I approached its mouth, I had the most vehement desire to ascertain the breadth with my own eyes; and I have found the matter to be exactly as it was represented. This I deduce particularly from one circumstance: when we took our departure from Monte Viedo, a fort situated more than 100 miles from the mouth of the river, and where its breadth is considerably diminished, we sailed a complete day before we discovered the land on the opposite bank of the river; and when we were in the middle of the channel, we could not discover land on either side, and saw nothing but the sky and water, as if we had been in

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some great ocean. Indeed we should have taken it to be sea, if the fresh water of the river, which was turbid like the Po, had not satisfied us that it was a river."

**ATR. SOIL, AND PRODUCE.]** This vast tract is far from being wholly subdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people of Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above-mentioned river. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued plain for several hundred miles, extremely fertile, and produces cotton in great quantities, tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and the prodigious rich pastures, in which are bred such herds of cattle, that it is said the hides of the beasts are all that is properly bought, the carcase being in a manner given into the bargain. A horse some time ago might be bought for a dollar; and the usual price of a bullock, chosen out of a herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this country is destitute of woods. The air is remarkably sweet and serene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholesome.

**FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF CITY, } The Spaniards first discovered this coun-**  
**COMMERCE, AND POPULATION. } try, by sailing up the river La Plata in**  
1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, so called on account of the excellence of the air, on the south side of the river, fifty leagues within its mouth, where it is seven leagues broad. This is one of the most considerable towns in South America, and the only place of traffic to the southward of Brazil. Its streets are wide, the houses extremely low, and each of them is accommodated with a garden. The public and private buildings, which, 60 years ago, were all made of earth, are of more solid and commodious construction, since the natives have learned the art of making brick and lime. The number of inhabitants is about 30,000. One side of the town is defended by a fortress, with a garrison of 6 or 700 men. The ships approach by sailing up a river that wants depth, is full of islands, shoals and rocks, and where storms are more dreadful and more frequent than on the ocean. It is necessary to anchor every night on the spot where they come to; and on the most moderate days, a pilot must go to sound the way for the ship. After having surmounted these difficulties, the ships are obliged, at the distance of three leagues from the town, to put their goods on board some light vessel, and to go to rest, and to wait for their cargoes at Incunado de Barragon, situated seven or eight leagues below. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru; but no regular fleet comes hither as to the other parts of South America; two, or at most three register ships make the whole of their regular intercourse with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, consisting chiefly of the gold and silver of Chili and Peru, sugar and hides. Those who have carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose in such parts of Brazil, as lie near this country. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are much the same with those of the rest of the Spanish colonies in South America, so that nothing farther need be said on those articles. The inhabitants, from the best information that can be obtained, do not exceed 100,000, including Spaniards, Indians, Negroes, and Creoles. The Spaniards exhibit much the same character here as in the other countries already described.

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

About the middle of the last century, those fathers represented to the court of Spain, that the want of success in their missions was owing to the scandal which

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the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their insolent behaviour caused in the Indians. They insinuated, that, were it not for those obstacles, the empire of the gospel might, by their labours, have been extended into the most unknown parts of America; and that all those countries might be subdued to his Catholic majesty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonstrance met with success; the sphere of their labours was marked out, and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to suffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale, without licences from the fathers. They on their part agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to send a certain number to the king's works whenever they should be demanded, and the missions should become populous enough to supply them.

On these terms the Jesuits gladly entered upon the scene of action, and opened their spiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about 50 wandering families, whom they persuaded to settle; and they united them into a little township. This was the slight foundation upon which they built a superstructure which has amazed the world, and added much power, at the same time that it occasioned much envy against their society. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with such indefatigable pains and such masterly policy, that by degrees they mollified the minds of the most savage nations; fixed the most rambling, and subdued those to their government who had long disdained to submit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese.

Our limits do not permit us to trace with precision all the steps which were taken in the accomplishment of so extraordinary a conquest over the bodies and minds of men. The Jesuits left nothing undone that could confirm their subjection, or that could increase their number; and it is said that above 340,000 families lived in obedience, and expressed an awe, bordering upon adoration, yet obtained without any violence or constraint: that the Indians were instructed in the military art, and could raise 60,000 men well armed: that they lived in towns; were regularly clad; laboured in agriculture, exercised manufactures; some even aspired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal their submission to authority, except their contentment under it. Some writers have treated the character of these Jesuits with great severity; accusing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to such an excess, as to cause not only persons of both sexes, but even the magistrates, who were always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes, and by suffering persons of the highest distinction within their jurisdictions to kiss the hem of their garments, as the greatest honour. The priests themselves possessed large property; all manufactures were theirs; the natural produce of the country was brought to them, and the treasures annually remitted to the superior of the order seemed to evince that zeal for religion was not the only motive for forming these millions. The fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Meztizos, or even Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay. In the year 1757, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal in exchange for Saint Sacramento, to make the Urugua the boundary of their possessions, the Jesuits refused to comply with this division, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own consent. It was declared in the Spanish Gazette that the Indians actually took up arms; but notwithstanding the exactness of their discipline, they were easily, and with considerable slaughter, defeated by the European troops who were sent to quell them; and in 1767, the Jesuits were removed from America, by royal authority, and their late subjects were put upon the same footing with the rest of the inhabitants of the country.

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## SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

**CUBA.]** The island of Cuba is situated between  $20^{\circ}$  and  $25^{\circ}.30'$  north latitude, and between  $74^{\circ}$  and  $85^{\circ}.30'$  west longitude; 100 miles to the south of Cape Florida, and 75 north of Jamaica, and is near 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the island from east to west: but the land near the sea is in general level, and flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical. This noble island is supposed to have the best soil, for so large a country, of any in America. It produces all the commodities known in the West Indies, particularly ginger, long-pepper, and other spices, cassia, fistula, mastic, and aloes. It also produces tobacco and sugar,—but, from the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected. It is said that its exports do not equal in quantity those of our small island of Antigua.

The course of the rivers is too short to be of any consequence; but there are several good harbours, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly situated and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah faces Florida, and is the capital of Cuba; and a place of great strength and importance, containing about 2000 houses, with a great number of convents and churches. It was taken, however, by the courage and perseverance of the English troops in the year 1762, but restored in the subsequent treaty of peace. Besides these, there is likewise Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a considerable town thirty miles east of the Havannah.

**HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO.]** This island was first possessed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the most considerable part is now in the hands of the French. However, as the Spaniards were the original possessors, and still continue to have a share in it, Hispaniola is commonly regarded as a Spanish island.

It is situated between  $17^{\circ}.40'$  and  $20^{\circ}$  north latitude, and  $69^{\circ}$  and  $74^{\circ}$  west longitude, lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto-Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. When Hispaniola was first discovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at least one million. But such was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to so infamous a height did they carry their oppression of the poor natives, that they were reduced to sixty thousand in the space of fifteen years. The face of the island presents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers; and the soil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and cassava root. The European cattle have so much multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for the hides and tallow only. In the most barren part of the rocks they discovered formerly silver and gold. The mines, however, are not now worked. The north-west parts, which are in possession of the French, consist of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vast abundance. This indeed is the best and most fruitful part of the best and most fertile island in the West Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The most ancient town in this island, and in all the New World, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, which is extended sometimes to the whole island by the French. It is situated on a spacious harbour, and is a large, well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spanish towns, by a mixture of Europeans, creoles, mulattoes, mestizoes, and negroes.

The French towns are, Cape François, the capital, which is neither walled nor palled in, and is said to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. It contains about 8000 whites and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of size, is a good port, a place of considerable trade, and the seat of the French government. They have two other towns considerable for their trade, Petit Goaves, and Port Louis.

The following is said to be an exact statement of the product, population, and commerce of the French colony of Hispaniola, in the year 1788, and may serve to shew the immense losses sustained by the late insurrection of the negroes.

POPULATION.] White people 27,717, viz. 9699 men, 2401 males above twelve years old, 2296 under twelve years, 1296 husbandmen of plantations, 1832 plantation managers, 325 sugar refiners, 308 physicians, 510 mechanics, 614 clerks, two white servants, 8511 women and girls.

Free people of colour 21,808, of whom 3493 were men, 2892 males above twelve years old, 2892 under twelve, 2700 servants, 9833 women or girls.

Slaves 405,528.

PLANTATIONS AND MANUFACTORIES.] Sugar 792, indigo 3097, cotton 705, coffee 2810, distilleries 173, brick and potters' ware 63, cocoa 69, tanners 3.

PRODUCTIONS EXPORTED TO FRANCE.

70,227,709 pounds of white sugar,	930,016 pounds of indigo,
93,177,518 ditto raw ditto,	6,286,126 ditto cotton,
68,151,371 ditto coffee,	12,995 dressed skins.

STOLEN TO AMERICAN, ENGLISH, AND DUTCH SMUGGLERS.

25,000,000 pounds of raw sugars,	3,000,000 pounds of cotton,
12,000,000 ditto coffee,	

The molasses exported in American bottoms, valued at 1,000,000 dollars; precious wood, exported in French ships, 200,000 dollars.

TRADE.] Five hundred and eighty large ships, carrying 189,679 tons, in which the imports amounted to 12,000,000 dollars of which more than 8,000,000 dollars were in manufactured goods of France, and the other 4,000,000 in French produce.

The Spanish ships exported in French goods or money 1,400,000 dollars, for mules imported by them into the colony.

Ninety-eight French ships, carrying 40,130 tons, imported 26,506 negroes, who sold for 8,000,000 dollars.

The negroes in the French division of this island have for several years past been in a state of insurrection. In the progress of these disturbances, which have not yet subsided, the planters and others have sustained immense losses. As this unhappy affair has engaged much of the attention of the public, we are happy in being able to give a summary statement of the causes of this insurrection\*.

The situation of the French colonies early attracted the attention of the constituent assembly. At this time all was as tranquil as such a state of oppression would permit. The first interference of the national assembly in the affairs of the colonies was by a decree of the 8th March, 1790, which declared, "That all free persons, who were proprietors and residents of two years' standing, and who contributed to the exigencies of the state, should exercise the rights of voting, which constitute the quality of French citizens."

\* From a pamphlet published in 1792, entitled, "An Inquiry into the Causes of the Insurrection of the Negroes in the Island of St. Domingo."

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This decree, though in fact it gave no new rights to the people of colour, was regarded with a jealous eye by the white planters; who evidently saw that the generality of the qualification included all descriptions of proprietors. They affected, however, to impose a different construction upon it. The people of colour appealed to common justice and common sense: it was to no purpose. The whites repelled them from their assemblies. Some commotions ensued, in which they mutually fell a sacrifice to their pride and resentment.

These disturbances again excited the vigilance of the national assembly. A decree was passed on the 12th day of October 1790, by which the assembly declared, as a constitutional article, "That they would establish no regulations respecting the internal government of the colonies, without the precise and formal request of the colonial assemblies."

Peace however was not the consequence of this decree. The proprietors, it is true, had obtained a legal right of tyrannising; but the unfortunate question still recurred, who should be permitted to exercise that right? On this head the decree was silent. New dissensions arose: each of the parties covered under a factious patriotism the most atrocious designs: assassinations and revolt became frequent. Maudit, a French officer of rank, lost his life by the hands of his own countrymen. The unfortunate Ogé, a planter of colour, who had exerted himself in France in the cause of his brethren, resolved to support by force their just pretensions. He landed in the Spanish territory of St. Domingo, where he assembled about 600 mulattoes. Before he proceeded to hostilities, he wrote to the French general, that his desire was for peace, provided the laws were enforced. His letter was absurdly considered as a declaration of war. Being attacked and vanquished, he took refuge amongst the Spaniards, who delivered him up to his adversaries. The horrors of his death were the harbingers of future crimes. These disturbances still increasing, the national assembly found it necessary at length to decide between the contending parties.

On the 15th of May, 1791, a decree was made consisting of two articles, by the first of which the assembly confirmed that of the 12th of October, so far as respected the slaves in their islands. It is true that the word slave was cautiously omitted in this document, and they are only characterised by the negative description of 'men not free,' as if right and wrong depended on a play of words, or a mode of expression.

This part of the decree met with but little opposition, though it passed not without severe reprehension from a few enlightened members. The second article, respecting the people of colour, was strongly contested. Those who were before known by the appellation of patriots, divided upon it. It was, however, determined in the result, that the people of colour, born of free parents, should be considered as active citizens, and be eligible to the offices of government in the islands.

This second article, which decided upon a right that the people of colour had been entitled to for upwards of a century, instead of restoring peace, may be considered as the cause, or rather the pretext, of all the subsequent evils that the colony of St. Domingo has sustained. They arose not indeed from its execution, but from its counteraction by the white colonists. Had they, after the awful warnings they had already experienced, obeyed the ordinances of an assembly they pretended to revere,—had they imbibed one drop of the true spirit of that constitution to which they had vowed an inviolable attachment,—had they even suppressed the dictates of pride in the suggestions of prudence,—the storm that threatened them had been averted; and in their obedience to the parent state they had displayed an act of patriotism, and preserved themselves from all possibility of danger.

But the equalisation of the people of colour stung the irritable nerves of the white

white colonists. The descendants of slaves might have lost the resentments of their fathers; but the hatred of a despot is hereditary. The European maxim allows, 'That they never pardon who have done the wrong'; but in the colonies, this perversity attains a more monstrous growth, and the aversion to African blood descends from generation to generation. No sooner had the decree passed, than the deputies from the islands to the national assembly withdrew their attendance. The colonial committee, always under the influence of the planters, suspended their labours. Its arrival in the island struck the whites with consternation. They vowed to sacrifice their lives rather than suffer the execution of the decree. Their rage bordered upon phrenzy. They proposed to imprison the French merchants then in the island, to tear down the national flag, and hoist the British standard in its place. Whilst the joy of the mulattoes was mingled with apprehensions and with fears, St. Domingo re-echoed with the cries of the whites, with their menaces, with their blasphemies against the constitution. A motion was made in the streets to fire upon the people of colour, who fled from the city, and took refuge in the plantations of their friends, and in the woods. They were at length recalled by a proclamation; but it was only to swear subordination to the whites, and to be witnesses of fresh enormities. Amidst these agitations, the slaves had remained in their accustomed subordination. Nor was it till the month of August 1791, that the symptoms of this insurrection appeared amongst them.

A considerable number, both of whites and people of colour, had lost their lives in these commotions before the slaves had given indications of disaffection;—they were not, however, insensible of the opportunities of revolt afforded by the dissensions of their masters. They had learnt that no alleviation of their miseries was ever to be expected from Europe; that in the struggle for colonial dominion, their humble interests had been equally sacrificed or forgotten by all parties. They felt their curb relaxed by the disarming and dispersion of their mulatto masters, who had been accustomed to keep them under rigorous discipline. Hopeless of relief from any quarter, they rose in different parts, and spread desolation over the island. If the cold cruelties of despotism have no bounds, what shall be expected from the paroxysms of despair?

On the 11th of September, 1791, a convention took place, which produced the agreement called the *Concordat*, by which the white planters stipulated that they would no longer oppose the law of the 15th of May, which gave political rights to the people of colour. The colonial assembly even proposed to meliorate the situation of the people of colour, born of parents not free, and to whom the decree of the 15th of May did not extend. An union was formed between the planters, which, if it had sooner taken place, had prevented the insurrection. The insurgents were every where dispirited, repulsed, and dispersed, and the colony itself preserved from total destruction.

By a decree of the national assembly, the 24th of September, the people of colour were virtually excluded from all right of colonial legislation, and expressly placed in the power of the white colonists.

If the decree of the 15th of May could infligate the white colonists to the frantic act of violence before described, what shall we suppose were the feelings of the people of colour on that of the 24th of September, which again blasted those hopes they had justly founded on the constitutional law of the parent state, and the solemn ratification of the white colonists? No sooner was it known in the islands, than those dissensions which the revolt of the negroes had for a while appeased, broke out with fresh violence. The apprehensions entertained from the slaves had been allayed by the effects of the *Concordat*: but the whites no sooner found themselves relieved from the terrors of immediate destruction, than they availed themselves of the

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the decree of the 24th of September; they formally revoked the *Concordat*, and treacherously refused to comply with an engagement to which they owed their very excellence. The people of colour were in arms; they attacked the whites in the southern provinces; they possessed themselves of Fort St. Louis, and defeated their opponents in several engagements. A powerful body surrounded Port-au-Prince, the capital of the island, and claimed the execution of the *Concordat*. At three different times did the whites assent to the requisition, and as often broke their engagement. Gratified with the predilection for aristocracy which the constituent assembly had in its dotage avowed, they affected the appellation of patriots, and had the address to transfer the popular odium to the people of colour who were contending for their indisputable rights, and to the few white colonists who had virtue enough to espouse their cause. Under this pretext, the municipality of Port-au-Prince required M. Grimoard, the captain of the *Boreas*, a French line of battle ship, to bring his guns to bear upon, and to cannonade the people of colour assembled near the town. He at first refused; but the crew, deluded by the cry of patriotism, enforced his compliance. No sooner was this measure adopted, than the people of colour gave a loose to their indignation; they spread over the country, and set fire indiscriminately to all the plantations: the greatest part of the town of Port-au-Prince soon after shared the same fate. Nothing seemed to remain for the white inhabitants but to seek their safety in quitting the colony.

In the northern parts, the people of colour adopted a more magnanimous and perhaps a more prudent conduct. "They began," says Mr. *Vernaud*, "by offering their blood to the whites. We shall wait," said they, "till we have saved you, before we assert our own claims." They accordingly opposed themselves to the revolted negroes with unexampled courage. They endeavoured to soothe them by attending to their reasonable requisitions; and, if the colony of St. Domingo be preserved to the French nation, it will be by the exertions of the people of colour.

**PORTO RICO.]** Situated between  $65^{\circ} 30'$  and  $67^{\circ} 40'$  west lon. and in 18 degrees north lat. lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's, is 100 miles long, and 40 broad. The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, vallies, and plains; and extremely fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers; but the island is unhealthy in the rainy season. It was for the sake of the gold that the Spaniards settled here; but there is no longer any considerable quantity of this metal found in it.

**PORTO-RICO**, the capital town, stands in a little island on the northern side, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief island by a causey, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken by sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than most of the Spanish towns, because it is the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the king of Spain's subjects.

**VIRGIN ISLANDS.]** Situated at the east end of Porto Rico, are extremely small.

**TRINIDAD.]** Situated between  $60^{\circ}$  and  $61^{\circ} 30'$  west lon. and in 10 degrees north lat. lies between the island of Tobago and the Spanish Main, from which it is separated by the straits of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthy but fruitful soil, producing sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, some cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by sir Walter Raleigh,

leigh, in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the island, and extorted money from the inhabitants.

MARGARETTA.] Situated in 63 degrees west lon. and 11° 15' north lat. separated from the northern coast of New Andalusia in Terra Firma, by a strait of 24 miles, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a most agreeable prospect. The island abounds in pasture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a scarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fishery on its coast.

There are many other small islands in these seas, which the Spaniards have neglected. We shall therefore proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the first Spanish island of any importance is CHILOBE, on the coast of Chili, which has a governor, and some harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.] Lying in 83 degrees west lon. and 33 south lat. 300 miles west of Chili. This island is uninhabited; but having some good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the English cruisers to touch at and water. This island is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It seems one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotsman, was left ashore in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived some years, until he was discovered by captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709. When taken up, he had forgotten his native language, and could scarcely be understood, seeming to speak his words by halves. He was dressed in goats' skins, would drink nothing but water, and was some time before he could relish the ship's victuals. During his abode in this island, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of these were caught, 30 years after, by lord Anson's people; their venerable aspect and majestic beards discovered strong symptoms of antiquity.

Selkirk, upon his return to England, was advised to publish an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is said to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication. But that writer, by the help of those papers, and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; so that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigested for publication, and Defoe perhaps derived little from them but those hints which gave rise to his own celebrated performance.

The other islands that are worth mentioning are the Gallipago isles, situated 400 miles west of Peru, under the equator; and those in the bay of Panama, called the King's or Pearl Islands.

## PORTUGUESE

Length  
Breadth

BOUNDARY

East; by the  
from Parag  
On the coast  
to the South

Divisions.

Northern division  
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Middle division  
the captain

Southern division  
the captain

SEAS, BAYS

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## PORTUGUESE AMERICA,

CONTAINING BRASIL.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Length 2500 } Breadth 700 }	between { the equator and 35° south latitude. } { 35 and 60° west longitude. }	940,000.

**BOUNDARIES.]** BOUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the North; by the same ocean, on the East; by the mouth of the river Plata, South; and by a chain of mountains, dividing from Paraguay and the country of Amazons, on the West.

On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions in their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catherine's.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Northern division contains the captainships of.	{ Para - - - -	Para or Belim
	{ Marignan - - - -	St. Lewis
	{ Siara - - - -	Siara
	{ Petagues - - - -	St. Luc
	{ Rio Grande - - - -	Tignares
	{ Payraba - - - -	Payraba
	{ Tamara - - - -	Tamara
Middle division contains the captainships of	{ Pernambuco - - - -	Olinda
	{ Serigippe - - - -	Serigippe
	{ Bahai, or the Bay of All- Saints - - - - }	St. Salvador
	{ Ilheos - - - -	Paya.
	{ Porto Seguro - - - -	Porto Seguro.
Southern division contains the captainships of	{ Spirito Santo - - - -	Spirito Santo
	{ Rio Janeiro - - - -	St. Sebastian.
	{ St. Vincent - - - -	St. Vincent
	{ Del Rey - - - -	St. Salvador.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, } The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast of Brasil on  
RIVERS, AND CAPES. } the north-east and east, upwards of 3000 miles, forming several fine bays and harbours,—as the harbours of Pernambuco, All-Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north shore of the river La Plata. On the west, far within land, are mountains from which issue many noble streams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata, others running across the country from east to west till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meandering the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the sugar mills belonging to the Portuguese.

The principal capes are—Cape Roque, Cape St. Augustine, Cape Trio, and Cape St. Mary, the most southerly promontory of Brasil.

CLIMATE,

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The climate of Brasil has been described by two eminent naturalists, Piso and Margrave, who observed it with a philosophical accuracy, to be temperate and mild, when compared with that of Africa. They ascribe this chiefly to the refreshing wind, which blows continually from the sea. The air is not only cool but chilly through the night, so that the natives kindle a fire every evening in their huts. As the rivers in this country annually overflow their banks, and leave a sort of slime upon the lands, the soil here must be in many places amazingly rich; and this corresponds with the best information upon the subject. The vegetable productions are Indian corn, sugar-canes, tobacco, indigo, hides, ipecacuana, balsam, Brasil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry; and is chiefly used in dying, but not the red of the best kind. Here is also the yellow fustic, of use in dying yellow; and a beautiful speckled wood made use of in cabinet work. Here are five different sorts of palm trees, some curious ebony, and a great variety of cotton trees. This country abounds in horned cattle, which are hunted for their hides only,—20,000 being sent annually into Europe. There is also a plenty of deer, hares, and other game. Amongst the wild beasts found here, are tigers, peccary vines, janouveras, and a fierce animal, somewhat like a greyhound; monkeys, *orangs*; and the topirassou, a creature between a bull and an ass, but without horns, and entirely harmless; the flesh is very good, and has the flavour of beef. There is a numberless variety of fowl, wild and tame, in this country. Among these are turkeys, fine white hens, and ducks. The remarkable birds are—the humming bird,—the lankima, sometimes called the unicorn bird, from its having a horn two or three inches long growing out of its forehead,—the guira, famous for often changing its colour, being first black, then ash coloured, next white, afterwards scarlet, and last of all crimson; which colours grow richer and deeper the longer the bird lives. Among the abundance of fish with which the seas, lakes and rivers of this country are stored, is the globe fish, so called from its form, which is so beset with spines, like a hedgehog, that it bids defiance to all fish of prey. But the most remarkable creature is the sea-bladder, so called because it greatly resembles one, and swims on the surface of the waves; the inside is filled with air, except a small quantity of water that serves to poise it. The skin is very thin and transparent, and, like a bubble raised in the water, reflects all the colours of the sky. Brasil breeds a great variety of serpents and venomous creatures, among which are the Indian salamander, a four-legged insect, the sting of which is mortal,—the ibivaboca, a species of serpent, about seven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, whose poison is instantaneously fatal,—the rattlesnake, which there attains an enormous size.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The Portuguese in America are described as a people, who, while sunk in the most effeminate luxury, practise the most desperate crimes:—of a temper hypocritical and dissembling,—without sincerity in conversation, or honesty in dealing;—lazy, proud, and cruel;—in their diet penurious; for, like the inhabitants of most southern climates, they are much more fond of stew, stote, and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society, and of a good table; yet their feasts, which are rare, are sumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cause themselves to be carried in a kind of cotton hammocks, called serpentines, which are borne on the negroes' shoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Most of these hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the same colour; they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of tetter with curtains; so that the person carried cannot be seen unless he pleases; but may lie down, or sit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be seen, he pulls the curtains aside, and salutes his acquaintance

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quaintance whom he meets in the streets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and will even hold long conferences in them in the streets; but then the two slaves who carry them, make use of strong rods, forked above, and pointed below with iron; these they stick fast in the ground, and on them rests the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed, till their master's business or compliment is over. Scarcely any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

**TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.]** The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the same exclusive plan on which the several nations of Europe trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly resembles the ancient Spanish method, in not sending out single ships, as the convenience of the several places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct,—but annual fleets, which sail at stated times from Portugal, and compose three flotas, bound to as many ports in Brazil; namely, to Pernambuco in the northern part, to Rio Janeiro at the southern extremity, and to the Bay of All-Saints in the middle.

In this last is the capital, which is called St. Salvador, and sometimes the city of Bahia, where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour. It is built upon a high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, and a lake forming a crescent, investing it almost wholly, so as nearly to join the sea, on the other. The situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and they have besides added to it very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and beyond comparison the most gay and opulent city in all Brazil.

The trade of Brazil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprising, as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works, at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America,—they being the only Europeans who have established colonies in Africa, and from hence they import between 40 and 50,000 negroes annually, all of whom go into the amount of the cargo of the Brazil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is supposed to be returned to Europe to the value of 135,000*l*. This, with the sugar, the tobacco, the hides, the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give some idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities the European ships carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part the produce of Portugal: they consist of woollen goods of all kinds, from England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the silks of France and Italy; silk and thread stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in these metals, from England; as well as salt fish, beef, flour and cheese. Oil they have from Spain; wine, with some fruit, is nearly all they are supplied with from Portugal. England is at present most interested in the trade of Portugal, both for home consumption and the use of the Brasils.

Brazil is a very wealthy and flourishing settlement. Their export of sugar, within 40 years, is grown much greater than it was, though anciently it made almost the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raised in such large quantities as in the United States.

The Portuguese had been long in possession of Brazil before they discovered the treasures of gold and diamonds which have since made it so valuable. Their fleets rendezvous in the bay of All-Saints, to the amount of 100 sail of large ships, in May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treasures of the Spanish flota and galleons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America,

rica, amounts to near four millions sterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony, and ivory.

[RELIGION.] Though the king of Portugal, as grand master of the order of Christ, be solely in possession of the titles,—and though the produce of the crusade belongs entirely to him; yet in this extensive country, six bishoprics have been successively founded, which acknowledge for their superior the archbishopric of Bohia, established in the year 1552. The fortunate prelates, most of them Europeans, who fill these honourable sees, live in a very commodious manner, upon the emoluments attached to the functions of their ministry, and a salary from government. Among the inferior clergy, none but the missionaries, who are settled in the Indian villages, are paid; but the others find sufficient resources among the superstitious people, whom they are to edify, to instruct, and to comfort. Besides an annual tribute paid by every family to the clergyman, he is entitled to two shillings for every birth, for every wedding, and every burial. Though there be not absolutely an inquisition in Brasil, yet the people of that country are not protected from the outrages of that barbarous institution.

[HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This country was first discovered by Americus Vesputius, in 1498; but the Portuguese did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themselves at the Bay of All-Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with some interruption at first from the court of Spain, who considered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portuguese should possess all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and La Plata, which they still enjoy. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very meridian of their prosperity, they were struck by one of those blows, which instantly decide the fate of kingdoms:—Don Sebastian, the king of Portugal, lost his life and army in an expedition against the Moors in Africa; and by that event the Portuguese lost their independence, being absorbed into the Spanish dominions.

The Dutch, soon after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, were not satisfied with maintaining their independence; but, flushed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, pursued the Spaniards into the remotest recesses of their extensive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the spoils of their former masters. They particularly attacked the possessions of the Portuguese; they took almost all their fortresses in the East Indies, and then turned their arms, in the year 1623, upon Brasil, where they took seven of the captainships or provinces, and would have subdued the whole colony, had not their career been stopped by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few feathered forces. The Dutch were, however, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brasil; but their West-India company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harrassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold to relinquish their interest in that country; which was accepted; and the Portuguese have remained in peaceable possession of all Brasil from that time, till about the end of 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress called St. Sacramento; but, by the treaty of peace, it was restored.

The government of Brasil is in the viceroi, who has two councils, one for criminal, the other for civil affairs, in both of which he presides.

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## FRENCH AMERICA.

**T**HE possessions and claims of the French before the war of 1756, as appears by their maps, consisted of almost the whole continent of North America; which vast country they divided into two great provinces, the northern of which they called Canada, comprehending a much greater extent than the British province of that name, since it included a great part of the provinces of New York, New England, and Nova Scotia. The southern province they called Louisiana, in which they included a part of Carolina. This distribution, and the military dispositions which the French made to support it, formed the principal cause of the war between them and Great Britain in the year 1756, the issue of which is well known. While the French were rearing their infant colonies, and with the most sanguine hopes forming vast designs of an extensive empire, one wrong step in their politics lost them the whole: for by commencing hostilities many years too soon, they were driven from Canada, and forced to yield to Great Britain all that fine country of Louisiana eastward of the Mississippi. At the treaty of peace, however, they were allowed to keep possession of the western bank of that river, and the small town of New Orleans, near the mouth of it; which territories, in 1769, they ceded to Spain, for reasons unknown to the public.

The French, therefore, from being one of the greatest European powers in that quarter, have now lost all their possessions in North America; but on the southern continent they have still a settlement which is called

## CAYENNE, OR EQUINOCTIAL FRANCE.

**I**T is situated between the equator and fifth degree of north latitude, and between the 50th and 55th of west longitude. It extends 240 miles along the coast of Guiana, and near 300 miles within land; bounded by Surinam, on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean, East; by Amazonia, South; and by Guiana, West. The chief town is Caen.

All the coast is very low; but within land there are fine hills very proper for settlements: the French have, however, not yet extended them so far as they might; but they raise the same commodities which they have from the West India islands, and in no inconsiderable quantity. They have also taken possession of the island of Cayenne, on this coast, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about 45 miles in circumference. The island is very unhealthy; but having some good harbours, the French have here some settlements, which raise sugar, coffee, tobacco, Indian corn, fruits, and other necessaries of life.

## FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

**T**HE French were among the last nations who made settlements in the West Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they pursued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they used in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate affords; and in contending against the difficulties which it threw in their way.

We have already mentioned the French colony upon the Spanish island of Hispaniola or St. Domingo, as the most important and valuable of all their foreign settlements,

settlements, and which they possess through the indolence of the Spaniards on that island, or the partiality of their court to the French nation. We shall next proceed to the islands of which the French have the sole possession, beginning with the large and important one of

**MARTINICO.**] Which is situated between 14 and 15 degrees of north lat. and in 61 degrees west lon. lying about 40 leagues north-west of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, and pours out on every side a number of agreeable and useful rivers, which adorn and enrich this island in a high degree. The produce of the soil is sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and such fruits as are found in the neighbouring islands. But sugar is here, as in all the West India Islands, the principal commodity,—of which they export a considerable quantity annually. Martinico is the residence of the governor of the French islands in these seas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious; and so well fortified that they often bade defiance to the English, till the war of 1756, when the British arms being triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this island was added to the British empire; but it was given back at the treaty of peace.

**GUADALOUPE.**] So called by Columbus, from the resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Spain, is situated in 16 degrees north lat. and 62 west lon. about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and almost as much south of Antigua; being 43 miles long, and 38 broad. It is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ships can venture; but the inhabitants pass it in a ferry-boat. Its soil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This island is in a flourishing condition, and its exports of sugar almost incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the English, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759, it was reduced by the British arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763.

**ST. LUCIA.**] Situated in 14 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. west lon. 80 miles north-west of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received its name from being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The English first settled here in 1637. From that time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French: at length it was agreed on between the latter and the English, that St. Lucia, with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to settle these islands; which by the treaty of peace were yielded up to Great Britain, and this island to France. The soil of St. Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds with pleasant rivers and well situated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain restrictions. The English made themselves masters of it in 1778; but it was restored again to the French in 1783.

**TOBAGO.**] This island is situated in 11 degrees odd minutes, north lat. 120 miles south of Barbadoes, and about the same distance from the Spanish Main. It is about 32 miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not so hot as might be expected so near the equator; and it is said that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes that have sometimes proved so fatal to the other West India islands. It has a fruitful soil, capable of producing sugar, and indeed every thing else that is raised in the West Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous

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merous springs; and its bays and creeks are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kind of shipping. The value and importance of this island appears from the expensive and formidable armaments sent thither by European powers in support of their different claims. It seems to have been chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who defended their pretensions against both England and France with the most obstinate perseverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; though, by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain; but in June 1781, it was taken by the French, and confirmed to them by the treaty of 1783.

**ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESRADA, } Are three small islands lying in the neigh-  
AND MARIEGALANTE. } bourhood of Antigua and St. Christopher's;**  
and of no great consequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give shelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our West India trade. It would therefore be good policy in Great Britain, upon the breaking out of a war with France, immediately to take possession of these islands; which would seem to be a matter of no great difficulty, as they have been frequently reduced by the English, and as frequently given back to the French, who have often experienced the generosity of the British court. St. Bartholomew is now to be considered as belonging to the crown of Sweden, being ceded to it by France, 1785.

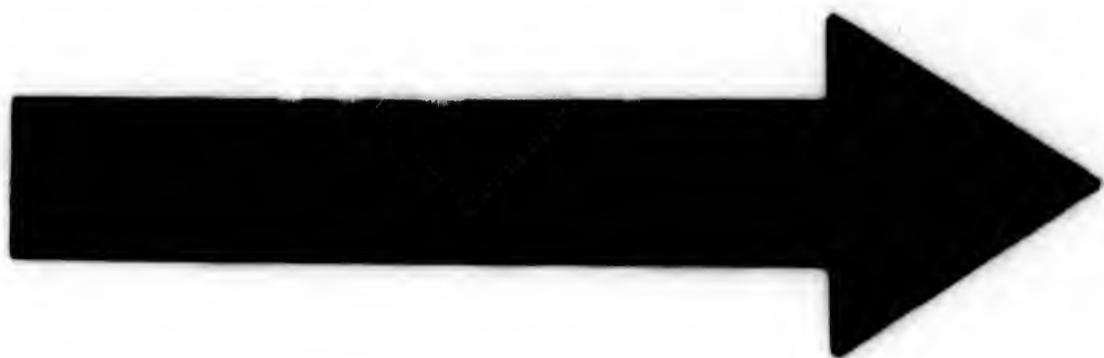
The small islands of St. PIERRE and MIQUELON, situated near Newfoundland, belonging to France, have been already mentioned with that island.

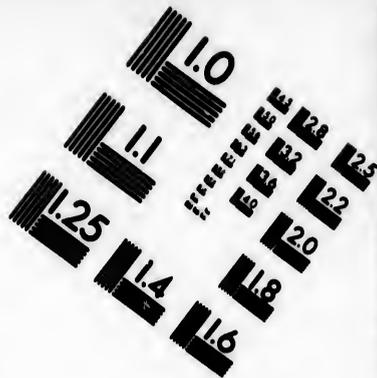
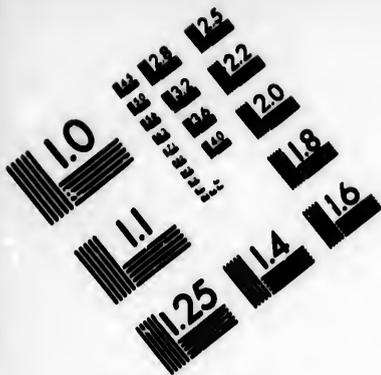
## DUTCH AMERICA,

Containing SURINAM, on the Continent of SOUTH AMERICA.

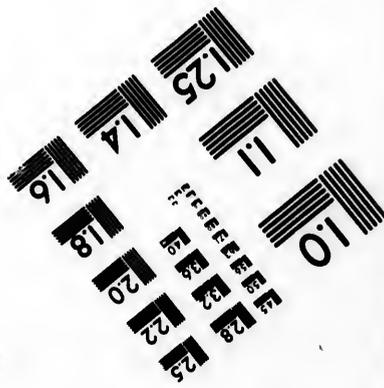
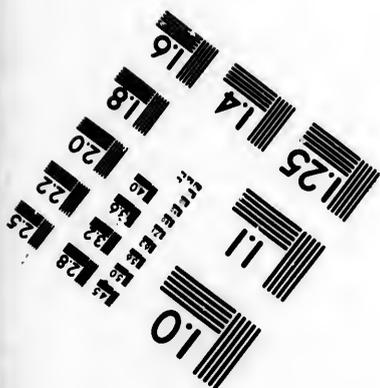
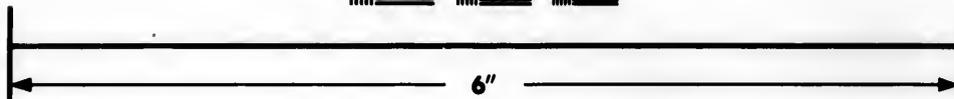
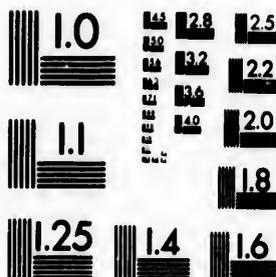
**A**FTER the Portuguese had dispossessed the Dutch of Brasil in the manner we have seen,—and after they had been entirely removed out of North America,—they were obliged to console themselves with their rich possessions in the East Indies, and to sit down content in the West with Surinam,—a country once possessed by the English, but of no great value whilst we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York, with two or three small and barren islands in the north sea, not far from the Spanish Main.

Dutch Guiana is situated between five and seven degrees north lat. extending above an 100 miles from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Marowyne, or French Guiana, south. This is one of the richest and most valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a less prosperous situation than it was some years since, owing, among other causes, to the wars with the fugitive negroes, whom the Dutch treated with great barbarity, and who are become so numerous, having increased from year to year, that they have formed a kind of colony in woods almost inaccessible, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramara, and Copename, and are become very formidable enemies to their former masters. Under the command of chiefs whom they have elected among themselves, they have cultivated lands for their subsistence, and make frequent incursions into the neighbouring plantations. The Dutch claim the whole coast from the mouth of the Oronoque to the river Marowyne, on which are situated





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their colonies of Essequibo, Demerara, Berbice, and Surinam. The last begins with the river Saramacha, and ends with the Marowynne, extending 120 miles along the winding coast.

**RIVERS.]** A number of fine rivers pass through this country, the principal of which are Essequibo, Surinam, Demerara, Berbice and Conya. Essequibo is nine miles wide at its mouth, and is more than 300 miles in length. Surinam is a beautiful river, three quarters of a mile wide, navigable for the largest vessels four leagues, and for smaller vessels 60 or 70 miles further. Its banks, quite to the water's edge, are covered with evergreen mangrove trees, which render the passage up this river very delightful. The Demerara is about three quarters of a mile wide where it empties into the Surinam, is navigable for large vessels 100 miles; a hundred miles further, are several falls, of easy ascent, above which it divides into the south-west and south-east branches.

**CLIMATE.]** In the months of September, October, and November, the climate is unhealthy, particularly to strangers. The common diseases are putrid and other fevers, the dry belly-ach, and the dropsy: 100 miles back from the sea, you come to quite a different soil, a hilly country, a pure dry wholesome air, where a fire sometimes would not be disagreeable. The thermometer ranges from 75° to 90° through the year. A north-east breeze never fails to blow from about nine o'clock in the morning, through the day, in the hottest seasons. As the days and nights, throughout the year, are very nearly of equal length, the air can never become extremely heated, nor the inhabitants so greatly incommoded by the heat, as those who live at a greater distance from the equator. The seasons were formerly divided regularly into rainy and dry; but, of late years, so much dependence cannot be placed upon them, owing probably to the country's being more cleared, by which means a free passage is opened for the air and vapours.

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

**CHIEF TOWNS, AND POPULATION.]** Paramaribo, situated on Surinam river, four leagues from the sea, N. lat. 6°. W. lon. 55° from London, is the principal town in Surinam. It contains about 2,000 whites, one half of whom are Jews, and 8,000 slaves. The houses are principally of wood; some few have glass windows, but generally they have wooden shutters. The streets are spacious and straight, and planted on each side with orange or tamarind trees.

About seventy miles from the sea, on the same river, is a village of about 40 or 50 houses, inhabited by Jews. This village, and the town above mentioned, with the intervening plantations, contain all the inhabitants in this colony, which amount to 3,200 whites, and 43,000 slaves. The buildings on the plantations are, many of them, costly, convenient, and airy. The country around is thinly inhabited with the native Indians, a harmless, friendly set of beings. They are in general short of stature, but remarkably well made, of a light copper colour, straight black hair, without beards, high cheek bones, and broad shoulders. In their ears, noses, and hair, the women wear ornaments of silver, &c. Both men and women go naked. One nation or tribe of them tie the lower part of the leg of the female children, when young, with a cord bound very tight for the breadth of six inches about the ankle, which cord is never afterwards taken off but to put on a new one; by which means, the flesh, which should otherwise grow on that part of the leg, increases the calf to a great size, and leaves the bone below nearly bare. This, though it must render

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

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

On each side of the rivers and creeks, are situated the plantations, containing from 500 to 2000 acres each, in number about 550 in the whole colony, producing at present annually about 16,000 hogsheads of sugar, 12,000,000 pounds coffee, 700,000 pounds cocoa, 850,000 pounds cotton: all which articles (cotton excepted) have fallen off within 15 years, at least one-third, owing to bad management, both here and in Holland, and to other causes. Of the proprietors of these plantations, not above 80 reside here. The sugar plantations have, many of them, water mills, which being much more profitable than others,—and the situation of the colony admitting of them,—will probably become general: of the rest, some are worked by mules, others by cattle; but from the lowness of the country, none by the wind.

Connected with Surinam, we shall mention the two Dutch colonies of Demerara and Essequibo on the Spanish Main, which surrendered to the English in the year 1781, and were represented as a very valuable acquisition, which would produce more revenue to the crown than all the British West India islands united. But the report was either not believed or slighted; for these places were left defenceless, and soon retaken by a French frigate.

Dr. Bancroft observes, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddish brown aboriginal natives of America. The promiscuous intercourse of these different people has likewise generated several intermediate casts, whose colours immutably depend on their degree of consanguinity to either whites, Indians, or Negroes. These are divided into mulattoes, tercerones, quarterones, and quinterones, with several intermediate subdivisions, proceeding from their retrograde intercourse.

**ANIMALS, FISH, SERPENTS, &c.]** The rivers abound with fish, some of which are good; at certain seasons of the year there is plenty of turtle. The woods abound with deer, hares, and rabbits, a kind of buffalo, and two species of wild hogs, one of which (the peccary) is remarkable for having its navel on the back. There are so great a number of birds of various species, and remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, in Guiana, that several persons in this colony have employed themselves advantageously, with their slaves and dependents, in killing and preserving birds for the cabinets of naturalists in different parts of Europe. The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, silver, copper, or by a stick of some particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a shock resembling that of electricity. There are an immense number and variety of snakes in this country, which form one of its principal inconveniences. A snake was killed some years since on a plantation which had belonged to Peter Amyatt, esq. which was upwards of thirty-three feet in length, and in the largest place, near the middle, was three feet in circumference.

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It had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide mouth, in which was a double row of teeth. Among the animals of Dutch Guiana, is the *laubba*, which is peculiar to this country. It is a small amphibious creature, about the size of a pig four months old, covered with fine short hair; and its flesh, by the Europeans who reside here, is preferred to all other kinds of meat.

### DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

**ST. EUSTATIUS,** } Situated in 17° 29' N. lat. 63° 10' W. lon. and three leagues  
OR EUSTATIA. } north-west of St. Christopher's, is only a mountain, about  
29 miles in compass, rising out of the sea, like a pyramid, and almost round. But, though so small, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the industry of the Dutch has made it turn to very good account; it is said to contain 5000 whites, and 15,000 negroes. The sides of the mountain are disposed in very pretty settlements; but they have neither springs nor rivers. They raise here sugar and tobacco; and this island, as well as Curassou, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade; and both places generally profited by their neutrality. But when hostilities were commenced by Great Britain against Holland, admiral Rodney and general Vaughan were sent with a considerable land and sea force against St. Eustatius, which being incapable of defence, surrendered at discretion, on the 3d of February 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiscated with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civilised nations, and very inconsistent with the humanity and generosity by which the English nation used to be characterised. The reason assigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Eustatius had assisted the revolted colonies with naval and other stores. But on the 27th of November, the same year, St. Eustatius was retaken by the French, under the command of the marquis de Bouillé, though their force consisted of only three frigates and some small craft, and about 300 men.

**CURASSOU.]** Situated in 12 degrees north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long, and 10 broad. The island is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America: yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largest, and at the same time the most elegant and cleanly towns in the West Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handsome; the private houses commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is performed by engines,—some of them so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock.

Though this island is naturally barren, the industry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a considerable quantity both of tobacco and sugar: it has, besides, good salt-works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this island of most advantage to the Dutch, is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ships from Europe touch here for intelligence or pilots, and then proceed to the Spanish coasts for trade, which they force with a strong hand,—it being very difficult for the Spanish guarda-costas to take these vessels; for they are

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not only stout ships, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of chosen seamen, deeply interested in the safety of the vessel and the success of the voyage. They have each a share in the cargo, proportioned to their respective ranks, and supplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime cost. This animates them with uncommon courage; and they fight bravely, because every man fights in defence of his own property. Besides this, there is a constant intercourse between this island and the Spanish continent.

Curassou has numerous warehouses, always full of the commodities of Europe and the East Indies. Here are all sorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, silks, ribbands, iron utensils, naval and military stores, brandy, the spices of the Moluccas, and the callicoos of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch West India, which is also their African company, annually bring three or four cargoes of slaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themselves come in small vessels, and carry off not only the best of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above sorts of goods; and the seller has this advantage, that the refuse of warehouses and mercers' shops, and every thing that is grown unfashionable and unsaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being sufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and silver, coined or in bars, cocoa, vanilla, Jesuits' bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curassou, even in times of peace, is said to be annually worth to the Dutch no less than 500,000*l.* but in time of war, the profit is still greater; for then it becomes the common emporium of the West Indies; it affords a retreat to ships of all nations, and at the same time refuses none of them arms and ammunition. The intercourse with Spain being then interrupted, the Spanish colonies have scarcely any other market from whence they can be well supplied either with slaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which are brought from the continent of North America, or exported from Ireland; so that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this island flourishes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American settlements was originally carried on by the West India company alone: at present, such of the ships as go upon that trade pay two and a half per cent. for their licences; the company however reserve to themselves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American islands.

The other islands, Bonaire and Aruba are inconsiderable in themselves, and should be regarded as appendages to Curassou, for which they are chiefly employed in raising cattle and other provisions.

The small islands of Saba and St. Martin's, situated at no great distance from St. Eustatius, were both captured by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, at the time when Eustatius surrendered to the arms of Great Britain; but were afterwards retaken by the French.

## DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS.] **A**N inconsiderable member of the Caribbees, situated in 64 degrees west lon. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour.

STE. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ.] Another small and unhealthy island, lying about

five leagues east of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadest. These islands, so long as they remained in the hands of the Danish West India company, were ill managed, and of little consequence; but that wise and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's stock, and laid the trade open; and since that time the island of St. Thomas, as well as this, has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of 3000 hogheads of sugar of 1000 weight each, and other of the West India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for sale; and a great many vessels trade from hence along the Spanish Main, and return with money in specie or bars, and valuable merchandize. As to Santa Cruz, from a perfect desert a few years since, it is beginning to settle very fast. Several persons from the English islands, some of them of considerable property, have gone to settle there, and have received very great encouragement.

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### N E W D I S C O V E R I E S.

**O**UR knowledge of the globe has been considerably enlarged by the late discoveries of the Russians, and still more by those that have been made by British navigators in the present reign, which have been numerous and important: and of these discoveries we shall therefore here give a compendious account.

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### NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

**T**HIS consists of several groups of islands, lying between the eastern coast of Kamtschatka and the western coast of the continent of America\*. Mr. Muller divides these islands into four principal groups, the two first of which are styled the Aleutian islands. The first group, which is called by some of the islanders Saglian, comprehends,—1. Beering's Island; 2. Copper Island; 3. Otma; 4. Samyra, or Shemiya; 5. Anakta. The second group is called Khao, and comprises eight islands, viz. 1. Immak; 2. Kiska; 3. Tchetchia; 4. Ava; 5. Kavia; 6. Tichangulak; 7. Ulagama; 8. Amtchidga. The third general name is Negho, and comprehends the islands known to the Russians under the name of Andreanofski Ostrava: sixteen of which are mentioned under the following names; 1. Amatkinak; 2. Ulak; 3. Unalga; 4. Navottha; 5. Uliga; 6. Anagin; 7. Kagulak; 8. Illask, or Illak; 9. Takavanga, upon which is a volcano; 10. Kanaga, which has also a volcano; 11. Leg; 12. Skeshuna; 13. Tagaloon; 14. Goreloi; 15. Otehu; 16. Amla. The fourth group is called Kavalang, and comprehends sixteen islands;

\* Mr. Cove observes that, "the first project for making discoveries in that tempestuous sea which lies between Kamtschatka and America was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expense of the crown: but when it was discovered, that the islands in that sea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in similar expeditions: and, within a period of ten years, more important discoveries

were made by these individuals, at their own private cost, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the crown. The investigation of useful knowledge has also been greatly encouraged by the present empress of Russia; and the most distant parts of her vast dominions, and other countries and islands, have been explored, at her expense, by persons of abilities and learning; in consequence of which, considerable discoveries have been made.

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which are called by the Russians *Lyffe Ostrova* or the *Fox Islands*; and which are named, 1. Anuchta; 2. Tschigama; 3. Tschegula; 4. Uniftra; 5. Ulaga; Taingulana; 7. Kagamin; 8. Kigalga; 9. Skelinaga; 10. Umnak; 11. Agun-Alathka; 12. Uninga; 13. Uligun; 14. Anturo-Leilume; 15. Semidit; 16. Senegak.

Some of these islands are only inhabited occasionally and for some months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who constantly reside in them. Copper Island receives its name from the copper which the sea throws upon its coasts. The inhabitants of these islands are, in general, of a short stature, with strong and robust limbs, but free and supple. They have lank black hair, and little beard, flattish faces, and fair skins. They are for the most part well made, and of strong constitutions, suitable to the boisterous climate of their isles. The inhabitants of the Aleutian isles live upon roots which grow wild, and sea-animals. They do not employ themselves in catching fish, though the rivers abound with all kinds of salmon, and the sea with turbot. Their cloaths are made of the skins of birds and of sea-otters.

The Fox Islands are so called from the great number of black, grey, and red foxes with which they abound. The dress of the inhabitants consists of a cap, and a fur coat which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps, made of the skin of a party-coloured bird, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the forepart of their hunting and fishing caps, they place a small board like a screen, adorned with the jaw-bones of sea bears, and ornamented with glass beads, which they receive in barter from the Russians. At their festivals and dancing-parties they use a much more shewy sort of caps. They feed upon the flesh of all sorts of sea animals, and generally eat it raw. But if at any time they choose to dress their victuals, they make use of a hollow stone: having placed the fish or flesh therein, they cover it with another, and close the interstices with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two stones, and light a fire under it. The provisions intended for keeping are dried without salt in the open air. Their weapons consist of bows, arrows, and darts; and for defence they use wooden shields.

The most perfect equality reigns among these islanders. They have neither chiefs nor superiors, neither laws nor punishments. They live together in families, and societies of several families united, which form what they call a race, who, in case of attack or defence, mutually help and support each other. The inhabitants of the same island always pretend to be of the same race; and every person looks upon this island as a possession, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the same society. Feasts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of the others. The men of the village meet their guests, beating drums, and preceded by the women, who sing and dance. At the conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake of the feast. They feed their children when very young with the coarsest flesh, and for the most part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the sea-side, and, whether it be summer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This custom is so far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them against the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the least inconvenience. They seldom heat their dwellings; but, when they are desirous of warming themselves, they light a bundle of hay, and stand over it; or else they set fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but let an injury, or even a suspicion only, rouse them from this phlegmatic state,—and they become inflexible and furious, taking the most violent revenge, without regard to consequences. The least affliction prompts them

to suicide: the apprehension of even an uncertain evil often leads them to despair, and they put an end to their days with apparent insensibility.

The Discovery of an INLAND SEA, containing a great Number of ISLANDS, in NORTH AMERICA.

FROM the observations made by captain Cook on the inhabitants of the western part of America about the latitude of  $64^{\circ}$  north, it appeared that there was a strong similarity between them and the Esquimaux on the eastern coast. Hence it was even then conjectured, that a communication by sea existed between the eastern and western sides of that continent.

In this part of America, however, a most surprising discovery has lately been made, which, when properly authenticated, cannot fail to be of the utmost benefit to the commercial and political interests of mankind. This, though not made by captain Cook himself, took place in consequence of his discoveries on the north-west coast of America. In these parts he found that such quantities of valuable furs might be purchased from the inhabitants, as promised to be a very profitable article of commerce, provided any regular connection could be established between that part of the world and the British settlements in the East Indies. This task was quickly undertaken by some spirited adventurers, who unluckily have found themselves opposed both by *friends* and *foes*, viz. the East India company, and the Spaniards,—the former pretending that they had no right to dispose of furs in the East Indies, and the latter, that they had none to bring them from the western coast of America. By one Mr. Etches who fitted out ships for this purpose, it was discovered that all the western coast of America, from the latitude of  $48^{\circ}$  to  $57^{\circ}$  north, was no continued tract of land, but a chain of islands which had never been explored, and that these concealed the entrance to a vast inland sea like the Baltic or Mediterranean in Europe, and which seems likewise to be full of islands\*. Among these, Mr. Etches' ship, the *Princess Royal*, penetrated several hundred leagues in a north-east direction, till they came within 200 leagues of Hudson's Bay; but as the intention of their voyage was merely commercial, they had not time fully to explore the Archipelago just mentioned, nor did they arrive at the termination of this new mediterranean sea. From what they really did discover, however, it is probable, that there may this way be a communication with Hudson's-bay, in which case the north-west passage to the East Indies will be found through seas much more navigable than those in which it has hitherto been sought. The islands which they explored were all inhabited by tribes of Indians, who appeared very friendly, and well disposed to carry on a commerce. Of these islands upwards of fifty were visited: but of them little can be said till future discoveries render the existence, extent, and direction of this sea, and these islands, more certain.

\* In our map of North America, an island is laid down at the entrance of the River of the West, north latitude  $48^{\circ}$  and west longitude  $127^{\circ}$ , the

place where this discovery is said to have been made.

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## THE PELEW ISLANDS.

THE existence and situation of these islands were probably known to the Spaniards at a distant period; but from a report among the neighbouring islands of their being inhabited by a savage race of cannibals, it appears that there had never been the least communication between them and any of the Europeans, till the Antelope packet (belonging to the East India company) was wrecked on one of them, in August, 1783. From the accounts given of these islands by captain Wilfon who commanded the packet, it appears that they are situated between the 5th and 9th degrees north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of east longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a N. E. and S. W. direction; they are long but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood; the climate is temperate and agreeable; the lands produce sugar-cane, yams, cocoa-nuts, plantains, bananas, oranges and lemons; and the surrounding seas abound with fish.

The natives of these islands are a stout, well-made people, above the middle stature; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is understood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two small aprons, one behind, and one before, made of the husks of the cocoa nut, dyed with different shades of yellow.

The government is monarchical, and the king is absolute; but his power is exercised more with the mildness of a father than the authority of a sovereign. In the language of Europeans, he is the fountain of honour; he occasionally creates his nobles, called Rupacks or Chiefs, and confers a singular honour of knighthood, called the *Order of the Bone*, the members of which are distinguished by wearing a bone on their arm.

The idea which the account published by captain Wilfon gives us of these islanders, is that of a people, who, though unacquainted with the arts and sciences, and living in the simplest state of nature, yet possess all that genuine politeness, that delicacy and chastity of intercourse between the sexes, that respect for personal property, that subordination to government, and those habits of industry, which are so rarely united in the more civilised societies of modern times.

It appears that when the English were thrown on one of these islands, they were received by the natives with the greatest humanity and hospitality; and, till their departure, experienced the utmost courtesy and attention. "They felt our people were distressed; and in consequence wished they should share whatever they had to give. It was not that worldly munificence that bestows and spends its favours with a distant eye to retribution. It was the pure emotion of native benevolence. It was the love of man to man. It was a scene that pictures human nature in triumphant colouring; and whilst their liberality gratified the sense, their virtue struck the heart."

## THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS

ARE five in number, first discovered by Quiros, in 1595; and their situation better ascertained by captain Cook in 1774. St. Dominica is the largest, about 16 leagues in circuit. The inhabitants, their language, manners, and cloathing, with the vegetable productions, are nearly the same as at the Society Isles.

## INGRAHAM'S ISLANDS.

THESE islands were discovered by captain Joseph Ingraham, of Boston, commander of the brigantine Hope, on the 19th of April, 1791. They lie N. N. W. from the Marquesas Islands, from 35 to 50 leagues distant, and are seven in number, which captain Ingraham named as follows, viz.

Names.	Lat. S.	Lon. from Lond.	Circuit.
Washington,	8° 52'	140° 19'	These five, except Federal Island which is smaller, are about 10 leagues in circuit.
Adams,	9° 20'	140° 54'	
Lincoln,	9° 24'	140° 54'	
Federal,	8° 55'	140° 50'	
Franklin,	8° 45'	140° 49'	
Hancock,	8° 3'	141° 14'	6 or 7 leagues.
Knox,	8° 5'	141° 18'	5 ditto.

Most if not all these islands are inhabited, and appear generally to be diversified with hills and vallies, and to be well wooded, and very pleasant. The people resemble those of the Marquesas islands, as do their canoes, which are carved at each end. They appeared friendly.

## OTAHEITE, or KING GEORGE'S ISLAND.

THIS island was discovered by captain Wallis, in the Dolphin \*, on the 19th of June, 1767. It is situated between 17° 28', and 17° 53', south latitude; and between 149° 11', and 149° 39', west longitude. It consists of two peninsulas, of

\* The Dolphin was sent out, under the command of captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expense of the British government, in August 1766, in order to make discoveries in the southern hemisphere. These vessels proceeded together, till they came within sight of the South Sea at the western entrance of the Strait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June 1767, captain Wallis discovered an island about four miles long, and three wide, to which he gave the name of *Whitfun Island*, it being discovered on Whitfun-eve. Its latitude is 19° 26' S. and its longitude, 137° 56' W. The next day he discovered another island, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Island*. The inhabitants of this island, captain Wallis says, were of a middle stature, and dark complexion, with long black hair, which hung loose over their shoulders. The men were well made, and the women handsome. Their clothing was a kind of coarse cloth or matting, which was fastened about their middle, and seemed capable of being brought up round their shoulders. This island is about six miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude 19° 18' S. longitude 138° 4' W. In the space of a

few days after, he also discovered several other small islands, to which he gave the names of *Edmont Island*, *Gloucester Island*, *Cumberland Island*, *Prince William Henry's Island*, and *Ofenburgh Island*.

On the 19th of the same month he discovered the island of Otahete; and after he had quitted that island, he discovered, on the 28th of July 1767, another island, about six miles long, which he called *Sir Charles Saunders's Island*; and, on the 30th of the same month, another about ten miles long, and four broad, which he called *Lord Howe's Island*. After having discovered some other small islands, one of which was named *Wallis's Island*, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November, — at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February 1768; and his ship anchored safely in the Downs on the 20th of May following.

Captain Carteret, in the Swallow, after he had parted with captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, having passed through the Strait of Magellan, and made some stay at the island of Mafaturo, discovered, on the 21 of July 1767, an island about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of *Pitcairn's Island*. It lies in latitude 25° 2' S. longitude 133° 21' W. and about a thousand leagues

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of a somewhat circular form, joined by an isthmus, and is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form several excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almost any number of the largest ships. The face of the country is very extraordinary; for a border of low land almost entirely surrounds each peninsula, and behind this border the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle of these divisions, and these form mountains that may be seen at sixty leagues distance. The soil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, forming the most delightful groves. The border of low land that lies between the ridges and the sea, is in few places more than a mile and a half broad; and this, together with some of the valleys, are the only parts that are inhabited. Captain Wallis made some stay at this island; and it was afterwards visited again by captain Cook, in the Endeavour, in April, 1769. That commander was accompanied by Mr. (now sir Joseph) Banks, and Dr. Solander; and those gentlemen, together with the captain, made a very accurate survey of the island.

Some parts of the island of Otaheite are very populous; and captain Cook was of opinion, that the number of inhabitants on the whole island amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion; the men are tall, strong, well-limbed, and finely shaped; the women are of an inferior size, but handsome, and very amorous. Their cloathing consists of cloth or matting of different kinds; and the greatest part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as coconuts, banannas, bread-fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit. Their houses—those which are of a middling size—are of an oblong square, about 24 feet long, and eleven wide, with a shelving roof supported on three rows of posts, parallel to each other, one row on each side, and one in the middle. The height within is about nine feet, and the eaves on each side reach to three feet and a half from the ground. All the rest is open. The roof is thatched with palm-leaves, and the floor covered some inches deep with soft hay, over which they lay mats; and upon these they sit in the day, and sleep in the night. Their tools are made of stone, or some kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otaheite are remarkable for their cleanliness; for both men and women constantly wash their whole bodies in running water three times every day. Their language is soft and melodious, and abounds with vowels.

There were no tame animals on the island but hogs, dogs, and poultry; and the only wild animals are tropical birds, parroquets, pigeons, ducks, a few other birds, rats, and a very few serpents. The sea, however, supplies the inhabitants with a great variety of the most excellent fish; and by the kindness of the English and the Spaniards, they have now bulls and cows, sheep, goats, a horse and mare, geese, ducks, peacocks, and turkeys, and also cats.

In other countries, the men cut their hair short, and the women pride themselves on its length; but here the women always cut it short round their ears, and the men (except the fishers, who are almost continually in the water) suffer it to spread over their shoulders, or tie it up in a bunch on the top. They have the custom of

leagues to the eastward of the continent of America. The 13th of the same month he discovered another small island, to which he gave the name of the *Bishop of Osnaburg's Island*. The next day, he discovered two other small islands, which he called the *Duke of Gloucester's Islands*. The following month he discovered a cluster of small islands, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Land*, and also three others, which he named

*Gower's Island*, *Simpfon's Island*, *Carteret's Island*. On the 24th of the same month, he discovered *Sir Charles Hardy's Island*, which lies in lat. 45° S. and the next day *Winklesha's Island*, which is distant about ten leagues, in the direction of S. by E. He afterwards discovered several other islands, and then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived in March 1769.

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discolouring the skin, by pricking it with a small instrument, the teeth of which are dipped into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, and this is called tattooing. This is performed upon the youth of both sexes, when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on several parts of the body, and in various figures. Their principal manufacture is their cloth, of which there are three kinds, made of the bark of three different trees. The finest and whitest is made of the Chinese paper mulberry tree; and this is chiefly worn by the principal people. Another considerable manufacture is matting, some of which is finer, and in every respect better than any we have in Europe. The coarser sort serves them to sleep upon, and the finer to wear in wet weather. They are likewise very dexterous in making wicker-work: their baskets are of a thousand different patterns, and many of them exceedingly neat. The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one supreme Deity, but at the same time acknowledge a variety of subordinate gods: they offer up their prayers without the use of idols, and believe the existence of the soul in a separate state, where there are two situations, of different degrees of happiness. Among these people a subordination is established, which somewhat resembles the early state of the European nations under the feudal system. If a general attack happens to be made upon the island, every district is obliged to furnish its proportion of soldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are slings, which they use with great dexterity, and clubs of about six or seven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are constructed for warlike operations. Otaheite is said to be able to send out 1720 war canoes, and 68,000 fighting men.

Bimco, Mataia, or Osnaburgh Island, and Tethuroa, are considered as islands dependent on Otaheite: the customs of the inhabitants of the two former nearly agreeing with the Otaheitans.

#### THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.

OF the several islands so called in honour of the Royal Society, which were discovered by captain Cook\* in the year 1769, the principal are HUANEINE, LISIUA, OTARA, and SOLAROLA. HUANEINE is about 31 leagues to the north-west

\* At the close of the year 1767, it was resolved by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to send a vessel into that part of the South Sea, to observe a transit of the planet Venus over the sun's disk, which, according to astronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769; and that the places called Marquesa de Mendoza, or those of Rotterdam, or Amsterdam, were the proper places then known for making such observation. In consequence of these resolutions, it was recommended to his majesty, in a memorial from the Society, dated February, 1768, that he would be pleased to order such an observation to be made; upon which his majesty signified to the lords commissioners of the admiralty his pleasure, that a ship should be provided to carry such observers as the Society should think fit to the South Seas: and accordingly a bark of three hundred and seventy tons was prepared for that purpose. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who was soon after, by the Royal Society,

appointed, with Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who had been long assistant to Dr. Bradley at the royal observatory at Greenwich, to observe the transit. But while this vessel was getting ready for her expedition, captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by lord Morton, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for his astronomical observation, he, by letter dated on board the Dolphin, the 18th of May 1768, the day before he landed at Hattings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the island of Otaheite: the Royal Society, therefore, by letter dated the beginning of June, in answer to an application from the Admiralty to be informed whether they would have their observers sent, made choice of that place. Captain Cook set sail from Plymouth, in the Endeavour, on the 26th of August 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joseph Banks, esq. and Dr. Solander. They made no discovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon Island, Two Groups, Bird Island, and

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well of Otaheite, and its productions are exactly the same, but it appears to be a month forwarder. The inhabitants seem to be larger made, and more stout, than those of Otaheite. Mr. (now Sir Joseph) Banks measured one of the men, and found him to be six feet three inches and a half high; yet they are so indolent, that he could not persuade one of them to go up the hills with him; for they said, if they

Chain Island; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April, 1769. During their stay there, they had an opportunity of making very accurate enquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants; and on the 4th of June, the whole passage of the planet Venus over the sun's disk was observed by them with great advantage. The result of their observations may be found in the Philosophical Transactions. After his departure from Otaheite, captain Cook discovered and visited the Society Islands and Oheetera, and thence proceeded to the south till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees 22 minutes, longitude 137 degrees 29 minutes W. and afterwards made an accurate survey of the coast of New Zealand. In November, he discovered a chain of islands, which he called *Bottle Islands*. He afterwards proceeded to New Holland, and from thence to New Guinea; and, in September 1770, arrived at the island of Savu, from whence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June, 1771.

Soon after captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was resolved to equip two ships in order to make some further discoveries in the southern hemisphere. Accordingly the Resolution and the Adventure were appointed for that purpose: the first was commanded by captain Cook, and the latter by captain Tobias Furneaux. They sailed from Plymouth Sound, on the 13th of July, 1772, and on the 20th of the same month arrived at the island of Madeira. From thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope; and in February, 1773, arrived at New Zealand, having sought in vain for a southern continent. In that month the Resolution and the Adventure separated in consequence of a thick fog; but they joined company again in Queen Charlotte's Sound, on the 18th of May following. In August, they arrived at Otaheite; and in September they discovered Hervey's island. On the 2d of October, they came to Muffelburgh, one of the Friendly Islands; and about the close of the month, the Resolution and the Adventure were separated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Resolution, in order to make discoveries in the southern polar regions, but was stopped in his progress by the ice, in the latitude of 71 degrees 10 minutes south, longitude 126 degrees 54 minutes west. He then proceeded to Easter Island, where he arrived in March, 1774, as he did also in the same month at the Marquesa Islands. He afterwards discovered four islands, which he named Palliser's islands; and again steering for Otaheite, he arrived there on the 23d of April, and after a short stay in it also visited the neighbouring isles. In August, he came to the New Hebrides, some of which were first dis-

covered by him. After leaving these islands, he steered to the southward a few days, and discovered New Caledonia. Having surveyed the south-west coast of this island, captain Cook steered again for New Zealand, in order to refresh his crew, and put his ship into a condition to encounter the dangers attending the navigation in the high southern latitudes. Directing his course to the south and east after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived in the latitude of 53 degrees 6 minutes south, longitude 139 degrees 56 minutes west, without meeting with any continent, captain Cook gave up all hopes of discovering any in this ocean; and therefore came to a resolution to steer directly for the west entrance of the straits of Magellan, with a view of crossing and surveying the uttermost or south side of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in latitude from 54 to 56, and steering nearly east, he arrived off the western mouth of the straits of Magellan, without meeting with any thing remarkable in this new route. In January 1775, he discovered a large and dreary island, to which he gave the name of *South Georgia*. He afterwards discovered various capes and elevated snow-clad coasts, to the most southern part of which he gave the name of the *Southern Tule*, as being the nearest land to that pole, which has yet been discovered. In February, he discovered *Sandwich Land*, and several islands covered with snow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July, 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned to England, in the Adventure, a year before, having peered about home round the Cape of good hope, without making any remarkable discovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by some of the savages of New Zealand; so that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof that cannibal really exist; and, indeed, in the course of these voyages of discovery, other evidence appeared of this fact. As to captain Cook, in the course of his voyage in the Resolution, he had made the circuit of the southern ocean in a high latitude, and had traversed it in such a manner, as to leave not the least room for believing the existence of a southern continent, unless it were near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. It deserves also to be remembered, in honour of that able commander, that, with a company of an hundred and eighteen men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all the climates, from fifty two degrees north, to seventy-one degrees south, with the loss of only one man by sickness; and this appears in a considerable degree to have arisen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preserving the health of his men.

were to attempt it, the fatigue would kill them. The women are fairer than those of Otaheite; and both sexes appear less timid and less curious; though in their dress, language, and almost every other circumstance, they are the same. Their houses are neat, and they have boat-houses that are remarkably large. *Ulitea* is about seven or eight leagues to the south-west of *Huaheine*, and is a much larger island, but appears neither so fertile nor so populous. The principal refreshments to be procured here are plantains, cocoa-nuts, yams, and fowls; but the two last are rather scarce. *Otaha* is divided from *Ulitea* by a strait, that, in the narrowest part, is not above two miles broad. This island affords two good harbours, and its produce is of the same kind as that of the other islands. About four leagues to the north-west of *Otaha* lies *Bolabola*, which is surrounded by a reef of rocks, and several small islands, all of which are no more than eight leagues in compass. To these islands, and the two called by the natives *Marua*, which lie about fourteen miles westward of *Bolabola*, captain Cook gave the name of Society Islands. *Ta-booyamoo*, or *Saunders's Island*, may be here mentioned also, being subject to *Huaheine*.

#### O H E T E R O A.

**T**HIS island is situated in latitude  $22^{\circ} 27'$  south, and in longitude  $150^{\circ} 47'$  west from Greenwich. It is thirteen miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither so populous nor fertile as some of the other islands in these seas. The inhabitants are lusty and well made, but are rather browner than those of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are long lances made of coa-wood, which is very hard; and some of them are near twenty feet long.

#### T H E F R I E N D L Y I S L A N D S.

**T**HESSE islands were so named by captain Cook in the year 1773, on account of the friendship which appeared to subsist among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to strangers. Abel Jansen Tasman, an eminent Dutch navigator, first touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal islands. Captain Cook laboriously explored the whole cluster, which he found to consist of more than sixty. The three islands which Tasman saw, he named *New Amsterdam*, *Rotterdam*, and *Middleburg*. The first is the largest, and extends about 21 miles from east to west, and about 13 from north to south. These islands are inhabited by a race of Indians who cultivate the earth with great industry. The island of *Amsterdam* is intersected by straight and pleasant roads, with fruit-trees on each side, which provide shade from the scorching heat of the sun.

The chief islands are *Annamooka*, *Tangataboo* (the residence of the sovereign and the chiefs), *Lefooga*, and *Eooa*. *Lefooga* is about seven miles long, and in some places not above two or three broad. It is in many respects superior to *Annamooka*.

The plantations are both more numerous and more extensive; and inclosed by fences, which, running parallel to each other, form fine spacious public roads, which would appear beautiful in countries where rural conveniences have been carried to the greatest perfection. They are, in general, highly cultivated, and well-stocked with the several roots and fruits which these islands produce: and captain Cook endeavoured to add to their number, by planting Indian corn, and the seeds of melons, pumpkins, and the like.

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Tooa, when viewed from the ship at anchor, formed one of the most beautiful prospects in nature, and very different from the others of the Friendly Isles, which being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them: whereas here, the land rising gently to a considerable height, presents us with an extensive prospect, with groves of trees interspersed at irregular distances, in beautiful disorder; the rest is covered with grass, except near the shores, where it is entirely covered with fruit and forest trees, amongst which are the habitations of the natives. In order to have a view of as great a part of the island as possible, captain Cook and some of his officers walked up to the highest point of the island. From this place they saw almost the whole, which consisted of beautiful meadows of prodigious extent, adorned with tufts of trees, and intermixed with plantations. "While I was surveying this delightful prospect," says captain Cook, "I could not help flattering myself with the pleasing idea that some future navigator may, from the same station, behold these meadows stocked with cattle brought to these islands by the ships of England; and that the completion of this single benevolent purpose, independent of all other considerations, would sufficiently mark to posterity, that our voyages had not been useless to the general interests of humanity." "The next morning," says our benevolent commander, "I planted a pine-apple, and sowed the seeds of melons and other vegetables in Taooa's plantation. I had indeed some encouragement to flatter myself that my endeavours of this kind also would not be fruitless; as I had this day a dish of turnips served up at my dinner, which was the produce of seeds I left here in my former voyage."

We are informed that the bulk of the people of these islands are satisfied with one wife; but the chiefs have commonly several women, though it appeared as if one only was regarded as mistress of the family. Though female chastity was frail enough in some, it is highly probable that conjugal fidelity is seldom violated, as it does not appear that more than one instance of it was known to our voyagers,—and, in that, the man's life, who was the cause of it, paid the forfeit of his crime. Nor were unmarried persons of the better sort liberal of their favours; those who despised chastity, being obviously prostitutes by profession. When they are afflicted with any disorder which they deem dangerous, they cut off a joint of one of their little fingers, fondly believing that the Deity will accept of that as a sort of sacrifice, efficacious enough to procure the recovery of their health. It was supposed from some circumstances, that, though they believe in a future state, they have no notion of future rewards or punishments for the things done here. They believe in one Supreme Being; but every island has its peculiar god, as every European nation has its peculiar saint. Captain Cook thinks he can pronounce that they do not worship any thing which is the work of their own hands, or any visible part of the creation. They make no offering of hogs, dogs, or fruit, to the *Orooa*, as at Otaheite; but it is absolutely certain that even this mild, humane, and beneficent people use *human sacrifices*. The government, as far as our people could learn, appears to approach nearly to the feudal system formerly established all over Europe. When any person of consequence dies, his body is washed and decorated by some woman, or women, who are appointed on the occasion; and these women are not, according to their customs, to touch any food with their hands for many months afterwards; and it is remarkable, that the length of the time they are thus proscribed is the greater in proportion to the rank of the chief whom they have washed. Their great men are fond of a singular piece of luxury, which is to have women sit beside them all night, and beat on different parts of their body until they go to sleep; after which they relax a little of their labour, unless they appear likely to awake; in which case they redouble their drumming until they are again fast asleep.

## NEW ZEALAND.

**T**HIS country was first discovered by Tasman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it has been generally distinguished, in our maps and charts, by the name of New Zealand, and was supposed to be part of a southern continent: but it is now known, from the late discoveries of captain Cook who sailed round it, to consist of two large islands, divided from each other by a strait four or five leagues broad. They are situated between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees south, and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees east from Greenwich. One of these islands is for the most part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited: but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of sir Joseph Banks and of Dr. Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants, would flourish here in the utmost luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is supposed that the winters are milder than those of England, and the summers not hotter, though more equably warm; so that it is imagined, that if this country was settled by people from Europe, they might be abundantly supplied, not only with the necessaries, but the luxuries of life. Here are forests of vast extent, filled with very large timber-trees; and near four hundred plants were found, that had not been described by naturalists. The inhabitants of New Zealand are stout and robust, and equal in stature to the largest Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been exposed to the sun, and in many not so deep; and both sexes have good features. Their dress is very uncouth, and they mark their bodies in a manner similar to the inhabitants of Otaheite, which is called tattooing. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle-axes; and they have generally shewn themselves very hostile to the Europeans who have visited them. As to their religious principles, they believe that the souls of such as are killed in battle, and their flesh afterwards eaten by the enemy, are doomed to perpetual fire; while the souls of those who die a natural death, or whose bodies are preserved from such ignominious treatment, ascend to the habitations of the gods. The common method of disposing of their dead is by interment in the earth; but if they have more of their slaughtered enemies than they can eat, they throw them into the sea. They have no such things as *morais*, or other places of public worship; nor do they ever assemble together with this view: but they have priests who alone address the Deity in prayer for the prosperity of their temporal affairs, such as an enterprise against a hostile tribe, a fishing party, or the like. Polygamy is allowed; and it is not uncommon for a man to have two or three wives.

## THE NEW HEBRIDES.

**T**HIS name was given by capt. Cook to a cluster of islands, the most northerly of which was seen by Quiros, the Spanish navigator, in 1606, and by him named Tierra del Espiritu Santo. From that time, till Bougainville's voyage in 1768, and capt. Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1769, this land was supposed to be part of a great southern continent, called *Terra Australis Incognita*. But when capt. Cook had sailed round New Zealand and along the eastern coast of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the Resolution,

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he resolved to explore those parts accurately; and accordingly, in 1774, besides ascertaining the extent and situation of these islands, he discovered several in the group, which were before unknown. The New Hebrides are situated between the latitudes of  $14^{\circ} 29'$  and  $20^{\circ} 4'$  south; and between  $166^{\circ} 41'$  and  $170^{\circ} 21'$  east longitude. They consist of the following islands, some of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. Tierra del Espritu Santo, Mallicollo, St. Bartholomew, Isle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitsuntide, Anbrym, Immer, Apee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorromanga, Ironan, Annatom, and Tanna.

Not far distant from the New Hebrides, and south-westward of them, lies NEW CALEDONIA, a very large island, first discovered by capt. Cook, in 1774. It is about eighty-seven leagues long, but its breadth does not any where exceed ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of stout, tall, well-proportioned Indians, of a swarthy or dark chestnut brown. A few leagues distant are two small islands called the Island of Pines and Botany Island.

## NEW HOLLAND,

THE largest island in the world, and formerly supposed to be a part of that imaginary continent called Terra Australis Incognita, lies between  $10^{\circ} 30'$  and  $43^{\circ}$  south latitude, and between  $110^{\circ}$  and  $153^{\circ} 30'$  east longitude; extending in all as much as the whole continent of Europe,—the eastern coast running no less than 2000 miles in length from north-east to south-west. Its dimensions from east to west have not been exactly ascertained, since we are obliged to take our information concerning them from the accounts of navigators of different nations, who visited this part of the world at a time when the method of ascertaining the latitudes and longitudes of places was less accurate than it is now. Different parts of the country have been called by the names of these discoverers, as Van Dieman's Land, Carpentaria, &c. and though the general appellation of the whole was New Holland, it is now applied by geographers to the north and west parts of the country. The eastern part, called New South Wales, was taken possession of in his majesty's name by captain Cook, and now forms a part of the British dominions,—a colony being very lately formed there, chiefly of the convicts sentenced to transportation.

The accounts of the climate and soil of this extensive country, now become an object of importance to Great Britain, are very various,—different parts having been explored at different times, and at different seasons of the year. In general, however, the relations are by no means favourable; the sea-coast, the only place on which any inhabitants have been discovered, appearing sandy and barren: and as for the inland parts which might reasonably be supposed more fertile, they are now thought to be wholly uninhabited; but whether this proceeds from the natural sterility of the soil, or the barbarity of the inhabitants who know not how to cultivate it, is not yet discovered.

One thing we are assured of by all who have ever visited this country, that its coast is surrounded by very dangerous shoals and rocks, so that it is by no means easy to effect a landing upon it. A shoal, called Houtman's Abrolhos, or shoal, from Frederic Houtman, commander of a fleet of Dutch Indiamen in 1618, lies on the western coast, on which commodore Pelsart, a Dutch navigator, was wrecked in 1629. When his ship, the Batavia, having on board 330 men, struck on this shoal, there was no land in sight, except some small rocky islands, and one considerably

derably bigger, about three leagues distant. All these were explored in search of fresh water; but none being found, part of the crew were obliged to sail in their skiff to the continent, which they soon after discovered. But, on their approach, they found the coast so excessive rocky, that it was impossible to land. Continuing their course northward for two days, they found themselves in 27 degrees of south latitude; but still the shore was so extremely steep, that there was no possibility of approaching it. It presented the same appearance as far north as 24 degrees; but the men being now resolved to get on shore at any rate, six of them who were expert swimmers, threw themselves into the sea, and with much ado got to land. Here they employed themselves in searching for fresh water; but finding none, they were obliged to swim back again to their skiff. Next day they discovered a cape, from the extreme point of which ran a ridge of rocks for about a mile into the sea, with another behind it; but still no passage was found to the continent. Another opening appeared about noon the same day, into which they ventured, though the passage was extremely dangerous, even for a skiff,—having only two feet water, with a rugged stony bottom. Here, however, they effected a landing; but though they made the most diligent search for fresh water, they could find neither rivulets, springs, nor even water that could be drunk by digging of wells. The shoal on which commodore Pelsart was wrecked is placed by Dampier in 27 degrees south latitude.

This navigator explored the coast of New Holland in 1688 and 1699. In the last of these voyages he fell in with the land in 26° south latitude, but could not land on account of the steepness of the shore. In 22° 22', he found another shoal, which was the first he had met with since leaving the Abrolhos in 27°. In 20° 21', he fell in with some rocky islands, which, from the nature of the tides, he supposed to extend in a range as far south as Shark's bay, in 25°, and nine or ten leagues in breadth from east to west. In 18° 21' he effected a landing; but the shore here, as in all other places visited by this navigator, is excessively rocky at low water, so that it is then impossible to land. At high water, however, the tides rise so high, that boats may get over the rocks to a sandy beach which runs all along the coast.

The southern part of this island, visited by captain Tasman in 1642, was found less difficult of access. He pursued the coast as far south as 44 degrees, where it begins to run to the eastward; and from his time the country appears not to have been visited by any Europeans, till the year 1770, when captain Furneaux, of the *Adventure*, reached the point we speak of, lying in 43° 17' south, 145° 36', and by account 143° 10' east from Greenwich. Several islands appeared to the north-west, one of which was named by captain Cook, Eddystone, from its resemblance to the light-house of that name; and he observes that nature seems to have left these two rocks for the same purpose that the Eddystone light-house was built by man, viz. to give navigators warning of their danger; for they are the conspicuous summits of a ledge of rocks under water, on which the sea in many places breaks very high. Their surface is white with the dung of sea-fowls, which makes them conspicuous at a considerable distance.

This celebrated navigator, capt. Cook, spent upwards of four months in surveying the eastern coast, the extent of which, as has already been mentioned, is nearly 2000 miles. The bay in which he anchored, from the great quantity of herbs found on shore, was called *Botany Bay*, and is the place for which the convicts were originally destined; though now they are settled in another part of the island about 15 miles to the northward, named by capt. Cook, *Port Jackson*,—the principal settlement being called *Sydney Cove*.

This was not visited or explored by captain Cook; it was seen at the distance of between two and three miles from the coast: but bad fortune conducted him into

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the harbour, he would have found it much more worthy of his attention as a sea-man than Botany-Bay, where he passed a week. From an entrance not more than two miles broad, Port Jackson gradually extends into a noble and capacious basin, having foundations sufficient for the largest vessels, and space to accommodate in perfect security any number that could be assembled. It runs chiefly in a western direction about 13 miles into the country, and contains no less than 100 small coves formed by narrow necks of land, whose projections afford shelter from the winds.

Sydney Cove lies on the south side of the harbour, between five and six miles from the entrance. The neck of land that forms this cove is mostly covered with wood, yet so rocky, that it is not easy to comprehend how the trees could have found sufficient nourishment to bring them to so considerable a magnitude. The soil, in other parts of the coast immediately about Port Jackson, is of various qualities. This neck of land, which divides the south end of the harbour from the sea, is chiefly sand. Between Sydney Cove and Botany-Bay, the first space is occupied by a wood, in some parts a mile and a half, in others three miles broad. Beyond that, is a kind of heath, poor, sandy, and full of swamps; but, as far as the eye can reach to the westward, the country is one continued wood.

There are several parts of the harbour in which the trees stand at a greater distance from each other than in Sydney Cove; some of these, which have small runs of water, and a promising soil, the governor proposed to cultivate, as soon as hands could be spared; but the advantage of being able to land the stores and provisions with so much ease, immediately determined the choice of a place for the principal settlement; for, if they had but one mile to remove the stores from the spot where they were landed, the undertaking would probably have been fruitless; so many were the obstacles to land-carriage at the head of Sydney Cove, where captain Philip fixed the seat of his government. The 7th of February, 1788, was the memorable day on which a regular form of government was established on the coast of New South Wales. For obvious reasons, all possible solemnity was given to the proceedings necessary on this occasion.

On a space previously cleared, the whole colony was assembled, the military drawn up under arms, the convicts stationed apart,—and near the person of the governor those who were to hold the principal offices under him. The royal commission was then read by Mr. David Collins the judge-advocate. By this instrument, Arthur Philip was constituted and appointed captain-general and governor in chief, in and over the territory called New South Wales, extending from the extremity of the north coast, called Cape York, south latitude  $10^{\circ} 30'$ , to the southern extremity of the South Cape, south latitude  $43^{\circ} 30'$ , and all the inland country to the westward, as far as east longitude  $135^{\circ}$ , including all the islands adjacent in the Pacific Ocean within the latitudes aforesaid; and of all the towns, garrisons, castles, forts, and fortifications, which may be hereafter erected in the said territory. The act of parliament, establishing the courts of judicature, was next read; and lastly, the patents under the great seal, empowering the proper persons to convene and hold their courts whenever the exigency should require. A triple discharge of musquetry concluded this part of the ceremony.

The 4th of June was not suffered to pass without due celebration. It was a day of remission from labour, and a general festivity took place through the whole settlement. At sun-rise, the Sirius and Supply transports fired each a salute of 21 guns; and again, at one o'clock, the marines on shore saluted with three volleys; at sun-set, the same honours were a third time repeated from the ships; large bonfires were lighted, and the whole camp afforded a scene of joy. That there might not be any exception to the happiness of this day, four convicts, who had been  
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retrieved from death, and banished to an island in the middle of the harbour, received a full pardon, and were sent to bear their part in the general exultation. The governor said, he hoped there was not a single heavy heart in this part of his majesty's dominions. His house was the centre of conviviality to all who could be admitted to that society; it was at this time that the name of Cumberland county was given by the government to this part of the territory. It is above 50 miles in length, and 30 broad. The boundaries fixed for Cumberland county were—on the west, Carmarthen and Lanfdown hills; on the north, the northern part of Broken-Bay; and to the southward, the southern parts of Botany-Bay,—thus including completely these three principal bays, and leaving the chief place of settlement at Sydney-Cove nearly in the centre.

At the very first landing of governor Philip on the shore of Botany-Bay, an interview took place with the natives. They were all armed; but on seeing the governor approach with signs of friendship, alone and unarmed, they readily returned his confidence by laying down their arms.

They were perfectly devoid of clothing, yet seemed fond of ornaments, putting the beads and red baize that were given them on their heads or necks, and appearing pleased to wear them.

There was no kind of disagreement between the natives and the British while the ships remained at Botany-Bay. The governor, immediately after landing, examined the bay itself; when it appeared, that, though extensive, it afforded no shelter from the easterly winds; and that, in consequence of its shallowness, ships of a moderate draught would always be obliged to anchor at the entrance of the bay, where they must be exposed to a heavy sea that rolls in whenever it blows from the eastward. Several runs of fresh water were found in different parts of the bay; but there did not appear to be any situation to which there was not some very strong objection. In the northern part of it is a small creek, which runs a considerable way into the country; but it has water only for a boat; the sides of it are frequently overflowed, and the low lands near it are a perfect swamp.

The western branch of the bay is continued to a great extent; but the officers sent to examine it could not find any supply of fresh water, except in small quantities. Point Sutherland afforded the most eligible situation, having a run of good water, though not in very great abundance. But to this part of the harbour the ships could not approach; and the ground near it, even in the highest parts, was in general damp and spongy. Smaller numbers might indeed, in several spots, have found a comfortable residence; but no place was found in the whole of Botany-Bay which seemed at all calculated for the reception of so large a settlement. These circumstances, viz. the shallowness of the harbour, the scarcity of fresh water, the openness of the bay, and the dampness of the soil by which the people would probably be rendered unhealthy, made the governor determine to seek another situation.

The different coves of Port Jackson were examined, and the preference was given to one which had the finest spring of water, and in which ships can anchor so close to the shore, that at a very small expence quays may be constructed at which the largest vessels may unload.

After they had all landed at Sydney Cove, a plan was laid down for building a town, according to which were traced out the principal streets, the governor's house, main-guard, hospital, church, store-houses, and barracks. In some parts of this space, temporary barracks are erected, but no permanent building will be allowed, except in conformity to the plan laid down. The forms of other streets are also marked out, in such a manner as to ensure a free circulation of air. The principal streets, according to this design, will be 200 feet wide; the ground assigned for

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for them is nearly level; not more than one house is to be built on one allotment, which is to consist of 60 feet in front, and 150 in depth. It has been also an object of the governor's attention to place the public buildings in the most eligible situations, and particularly to give the storehouses and hospital sufficient space for future enlargement.

The first huts that were erected here were composed of very perishable materials,—the soft wood of the cabbage-palm being only designed for immediate shelter. The necessity of using the wood quite green made it also the less likely to prove durable. The huts of the convicts were still more slight, being composed only of upright posts, wattled with slight twigs, and plastered up with clay. Barracks and huts were afterwards formed of materials rather more lasting. Buildings of stone might easily have been raised, had there been any means of procuring lime for mortar. The stone which has been found is of three sorts,—a fine free-stone, reckoned equal in goodness to that of Portland, an indifferent kind of sand-stone, or fire-stone, and a sort which appears to contain a mixture of iron. But neither chalk nor any species of lime-stone has yet been discovered. In building a small house for the governor on the eastern side of the cove, lime was made of oyster-shells collected in the neighbouring coves; but, until the discovery of chalk or lime-stone, the public buildings must go on very slowly, unless care be taken to send out those articles as ballast in all the ships destined for Port Jackson. The clay is very good, and some bricks have been made of it; but in using it for building, the walls must be made very thick.

In a country exposed to frequent storms of thunder and lightning, it was rather an uneasy situation to have all the provisions and other necessaries lodged in wooden buildings, covered with thatch of the most combustible kind. Instead of thatch, however, they now use shingles, made from a tree in appearance like fir, but producing a wood not unlike the English oak; but this, though more secure than thatching, is not enough for store-houses. For these, if slate-stone should not be found, tiles must be made of the clay which has been used for bricks.

The principal farm is situated in the next cove to the east of the town, and less than half a mile from it. When the plan was drawn, it contained about nine acres laid down in corn of different kinds. Later accounts speak of six acres of wheat, eight of barley, and six of other grain, as raised on the public account, and in a very promising way.

It is supposed that metals of various kinds abound in the soil on which the town is placed. A convict, who had formerly been used to work in the Staffordshire lead-mines, declared very positively, that the ground which they were now clearing contains a large quantity of that ore; and copper is supposed to lie under some rocks which were blown up in sinking a cellar for the public stock of spirituous liquors. It is the opinion of the governor himself that mines may hereafter be worked to great advantage; but at present he strongly discourages any search of this kind, very judiciously discerning, that in the present situation of his people which requires so many exertions of a very different nature, the discovery of a mine would be the greatest evil that could befall the settlement. In some places where they dug in making wells, they found a substance which they concluded to be black lead. The kind of pigment, called by the painters Spanish brown, is found in great abundance; and the white clay, with which the natives paint themselves, is still in greater plenty. The Abbé le Receveur was of opinion, that this clay, if cleaned from the sand, which might easily be done, would make excellent porcelain.

The climate at Sydney-Cove is considered, on the whole, as equal to the finest in Europe. The rains are never of long duration, and there are seldom any fogs.

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The soil, though in general light, and rather sandy in this part, is full as good as usually is found so near the sea-side. All the plants and fruit-trees brought from Brazil and the Cape, which were not damaged in their passage, thrive exceedingly; and vegetables have now become plentiful,—both the European sorts, and such as are peculiar to New South Wales. In the governor's garden are excellent cauliflowers, and melons very fine of their kinds. The orange-trees flourish, and the fig-trees and vines are improving still more rapidly. In a climate so favourable, the cultivation of the vine may doubtless be carried to any degree of perfection; and should not other articles of commerce divert the attention of the settlers from this point, the wines of New South Wales may perhaps hereafter be sought with avidity, and become an indispensable part of the luxury of European tables.

The rank grass under the trees unfortunately proved fatal to all the sheep purchased by governor Philip on his own and on the public account. Those kept by individuals close to their own tents were preserved. Hogs and poultry increased very fast; and black cattle will doubtless succeed as well. It was very unfortunate, that two bulls and four cows, having been left for a time by the man who was appointed to attend them, strayed into the woods, and, though they were traced to some distance, never could be recovered. This was a loss which must be for some time irreparable.

The natives of New Holland, in general, seem to have no great aversion to the new settlers,—the only acts of hostility having arisen on the subject of the fishing-grounds, which the New Hollanders justly supposed to belong to themselves. They appear, however, to be in too savage a state to be capable as yet of deriving much instruction from their new neighbours. They are so ignorant of agriculture, that it seems most probable they do not even know the use of corn, and, therefore, perhaps more from ignorance than malice, set fire to that which the colonists had raised for their own use. To avoid such disagreeable incidents, a new settlement was begun on a small uninhabited island, named *Norfolk Island*, lying in south latitude 29°, and east longitude 168° 10', at the distance of 1200 miles from New Holland. The party sent out to form this settlement consisted only of 26 persons, who took possession on the 14th of February, 1788. This settlement was found so eligible, that, in October, 1788, another party was sent thither, so that the new colony, at the time the last advices were received, consisted of 44 men and 16 women, who being supplied with 18 months' provisions, will probably be able to cultivate the soil in such a manner as to enable them to form a granary, which will put those who are settled on New Holland entirely out of danger from their barbarous neighbours.

For a more particular account of this new settlement, we refer our readers to "Governor Philip's Voyage to Botany-Bay."

## NEW GUINEA,

**UNTIL** the late discoveries, was thought to be the north coast of an extensive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but captain Cook discovered a strait between them, which runs north-east, through which he sailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow island, extending north-east, from the second degree of south latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees east longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country consists of a mixture of very high hills and vallies, interspersed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, plantains, bread-fruit, and most of the trees, shrubs, and plants, that are found in the other South-Sea islands. It affords from

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**B**ESIDES formed by during the year between the coast of Good Hope discovered two largest, about 1 other, about 2 barren and almost Zealand, and as they arrived at between 22° 15' lubrious, and in Society and Friesland, and their ence about 300 150,000. The map. The natives, and, in hospitalit On the 7th of Fe 36° east, the sailor Captain Cook the north-west coast under his command east. The whole very broken and.

## NEW DISCOVERIES.

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from the sea a variety of delightful prospects. The inhabitants make nearly the same appearance as the New Hollanders on the other side the straits.

To the north of New Guinea is *NEW BRITAIN*, which is situated in the 4th degree of south latitude, and 152 degrees 19 minutes east longitude from Greenwich. It was supposed to be part of an imaginary continent till captain Dampier found it to be an island, and sailed through a strait which divides it from New Guinea. Captain Carteret, in his voyage round the world, in 1767, found that it was far less extensive than formerly supposed, by sailing through another strait to the north, which separates it from a long island, to which he gave the name of *New Ireland*. There are many high hills in *New Britain*, and it abounds with large and stately trees. To the eastward of *New Britain*, and in both the above straits, are many islands, most of which are said to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa-nut trees.

*NEW IRELAND* extends in length, from the north-east to the south-east, about two hundred and seventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black, and woolly-headed, like the negroes of Guinea, but have not their flat noses and thick lips. North-westward of *New Ireland*, a cluster of islands was seen by captain Carteret, lying very near each other, and supposed to consist of twenty or thirty in number. One of these, which is of very considerable extent, was named *NEW HANOVER*; and the rest of the cluster received the name of the *ADMIRALTY ISLANDS*.

## SANDWICH ISLANDS.

**B**ESIDES the voyages of discovery already mentioned, another voyage was performed by captain Cook and captain Clerke, in the *Resolution* and *Discovery*, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in search of a north-west passage between the continents of Asia and America. After they had arrived at the *Cape of Good Hope*, they proceeded from thence to *New Holland*: in this course, they discovered two islands, which captain Cook called *Prince Edward's Isles*. The largest, about 15 leagues in circuit, is in latitude 46-53 south, longitude 37-46; the other, about nine leagues in circuit, latitude 46-40 and longitude 38-3, E. both barren and almost covered with snow. From *New Holland* they sailed to *New Zealand*, and afterwards visited the *Friendly* and *Society Isles*. In January, 1777, they arrived at the *Sandwich Isles*, which are twelve in number, and are situated between 22° 15' and 18° 53' N. latitude. The air of these islands is in general salubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the same with those of the *Society* and *Friendly Isles*. The inhabitants are of a middle size, stout and well-made, and their complexion in general a brown olive. *O'why'hee* is in circumference about 300 English miles, and the number of inhabitants is computed at 150,000. The others are large and well peopled: for their names, we refer to our map. The natives are described as of a mild and friendly temper and carriage, and, in hospitality to strangers, not exceeded by the inhabitants of the *Friendly Isles*. On the 7th of February, being nearly in latitude 44° 33' north, and longitude 235° 36' east, the sailors saw part of the American continent, bearing north-east. Captain Cook afterwards discovered *King George's Sound*, which is situated on the north-west coast of America, and is extensive: that part of it where the ships under his command anchored, is in latitude 49° 36' north, and longitude 233° 28' east. The whole sound is surrounded by high land, which in some places appears very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top.

They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle size, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they discovered Sandwich Sound, in latitude  $59^{\circ} 54'$  north. The harbour in which the ships anchored appeared to be almost surrounded with high land, which was covered with snow; and here they were visited by some of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the island of Unalafelka, and, after their departure from thence, still continued to trace the coast. They arrived, on the 20th of August 1778, in latitude  $70^{\circ} 54'$ , longitude  $194^{\circ} 55'$ , where they found themselves almost surrounded with ice; and the farther they proceeded to the eastward, the closer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a storm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a consultation was therefore held on board the Resolution, as soon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was resolved, that as this passage was impracticable for any useful purpose of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it should be prosecuted no farther; and especially on account of the condition the ships were in, the approach of winter, and their great distance from any known place of refreshment. The voyage, indeed, afforded sufficient evidence that no practicable passage exists between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans towards the North; and this voyage also ascertained the western boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return, it unfortunately happened that the celebrated and able navigator, captain Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives, by an act of sudden resentment and fear, rather than from a bad disposition, on the island of Owhyhee, the largest of the Sandwich isles, on the 14th of February, 1779. In his last voyage he had explored the coast of America, from  $42^{\circ} 27'$  to  $70^{\circ} 40' 57''$  north. After the death of captain Cook, the command devolved on captain Clerke, who died at sea, on his return to the southward, on the 22d day of August 1779. The two ships returned home by the Cape of Good Hope; and on the 5th of October, 1780 anchored at the Nore.

We cannot conclude this article, without inserting the following character of capt. Cook, to perpetuate the memory and services of so excellent a navigator and commander.

Perhaps no science ever received greater additions from the labours of a single man, than geography did from those of capt. Cook. In his first voyage to the South Seas, he discovered the Society Islands; determined the insularity of New Zealand; discovered the straits which separate the two islands, and are called after his name; and made a complete survey of both. He afterwards explored the Eastern coast of New Holland, hitherto unknown,—an extent of twenty-seven degrees of latitude, or upwards of two thousand miles.

In his second expedition, he dispelled the illusion of a southern continent,—having traversed that hemisphere between the latitude of  $40^{\circ}$  and  $70^{\circ}$ , in so many directions that land could not exist, except so near the pole as to be out of the reach of navigation. During this voyage he discovered New Caledonia, the largest island in the Southern Pacific, except New Zealand; the island of Georgia; and an unknown coast, which he named Sandwich Land, the *Thule* of the Southern hemisphere; and having twice visited the tropical seas, he settled the situations of the old, and made several new discoveries.

But the last voyage is distinguished above the rest by its importance. Besides several smaller islands in the Southern Pacific, he discovered, to the North of the Equinoctial Line, the group called the Sandwich Islands, which, from their situation and productions, bid fairer for becoming an object of consequence in the system of European navigation, than any other discovery in the South-Sea. He afterwards explored what had hitherto remained unknown of the Western coast of Ame-

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rica, from the latitude of  $43^{\circ}$  to  $70^{\circ}$  North, containing an extent of 3,500 miles,—ascertained the proximity of the two great continents of Asia and America,—passed the straits between them, and surveyed the coast on each side, to such a height of northern latitude, as to demonstrate the impracticability of a passage, in that hemisphere, from the Atlantic into the Pacific ocean, either by an Eastern or a Western course. In short, if we except the Sea of Amur, and the Japanese Archipelago, which still remain imperfectly known to Europeans, he completed the hydrography of the habitable globe.

The method which he discovered, and so successfully pursued, of preserving the health of seamen, forms a new era in navigation, and will transmit his name to future ages, among the friends and benefactors of mankind.

Those who are conversant with naval history need not be told at how dear a rate the advantages which are sought through the medium of long voyages at sea, had hitherto been purchased. That dreadful disorder which is peculiar to their service, and whose ravages have marked the tracks of discoverers with circumstances almost too shocking to relate, must, without exercising an unwarrantable tyranny over the lives of our seamen, have proved an insuperable obstacle to the prosecution of such enterprises. It was reserved for capt. Cook to shew the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unusual length of three or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminishing the probability of life in the smallest degree.

Having pointed out the numerous and important advantages which have arisen and may arise from these voyages, both to the discoverers and discovered, the learned editor of the last voyage enquires into the origin of the inhabitants who people this myriad of islands that are scattered over the great Pacific Ocean, and proves, by incontrovertible arguments, founded on the affinity of their language, manners, and customs, that they have all originally sprung from one common stock, and that stock is the Asiatic nation called *Malayans*. He also traces another of the large families of the earth, but whose lot has fallen in far less hospitable climes,—we mean the Esquimaux, known hitherto only on the coasts of Greenland, Labrador, and Hudson's Bay; and who differ in several characteristic marks from the inland inhabitants of North America. They are the same race which peoples the bays and islands on the West coast of North America, and are extended over a space of at least 1500 leagues from east to west, and from the latitude of  $60^{\circ}$ , to the latitude of  $72^{\circ}$  north.

#### TERRA-INCOGNITA, or unknown Countries.

**N**OTWITHSTANDING the amazing discoveries of navigators, and the progress made in geography, since the first voyage of Columbus, anno 1492, there still remain some countries, either absolutely unknown, or very superficially surveyed.

## IN AFRICA.

**O**F this quarter of the globe the moderns are acquainted with little more than the sea-coasts, and these very imperfectly; the internal parts being unexplored; nor have we any satisfactory accounts of their inhabitants, their productions, or their trade. It is well known, however, that the rivers of Africa bring down large quantities of gold; and it is equally certain that the ancients drew prodigious riches from a country blessed with a variety of climates, some of them the finest in the world.

## IN AMERICA.

**I**N North America, towards the pole, are Labrador or New Britain, New North and South Wales, New Denmark, &c. very little known. The inhabitants, like those of Nova Zembla, Greenland, Groenland, and the northern parts of Siberia, are few, and these savage, low in stature, and of an ugly appearance. They live upon the raw flesh of whales, bears, foxes, &c. and go muffled up in skins, the hairy side next their bodies. In these inhospitable regions, their nights (as may be seen in the table of climates in the Introduction) are from one to six months; and the earth is bound up in impenetrable snow; so that the miserable inhabitants live underground great part of the year. Again, when the sun makes his appearance, they have a day of equal length.

All that vast tract on the back of the British settlements, from Canada and the lakes, to the Pacific Ocean which washes America on the west, is altogether unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and situation of the country, it is supposed to be fruitful; it is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom used to resort to the great fair of Montréal, even from the distance of 1000 miles.

In South America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and bounded by the river Oronoque on the north, and the Amazons on the south, is unknown, except a slip along the coast, where the French at Cayenne, and the Dutch at Surinam, have made some settlements, which, from the unhealthfulness of the climate almost under the equator, and other causes, can hardly be extended any considerable way back.

The country of Amazonia is so called from the great river of that name, which rises in Quito, in 76 degrees W. lon. and discharges itself into the Atlantic Ocean: it is computed, that with all its turnings and windings it runs near 5000 miles; and it is generally two or three leagues broad: 500 leagues from the mouth it is 30 fathoms deep; and near 100 rivers fall into it on the North and the South. The country has never been thoroughly explored, though it is situated between the European colonies of Peru and Brasil, and every where accessible by means of that great river and its branches. Some attempts have been made by the Spaniards and Portuguese, but always attended with vast difficulties, so that few of the adventurers ever returned back.

Patagonia, at the southern extremity of America, is sometimes described as part of Chili: but as neither the Spaniards nor any other European nation have any colonies there, it is almost unknown, and is generally represented as a barren, inhospitable

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hospitable country. Some of the inhabitants are certainly very tall, to 6½ and 7 feet high; but others, and the greater part, are of a moderate and common stature. Here, in 54½ degrees south lat. we fall in with the Straits of Magellan, having Patagonia on the north, and the island of Terra del Fuego on the south. These Straits extend from east to west 110 leagues, but the breadth in some places falls short of one. They were first discovered by Magellan, or Magelhaens, a Portuguese, in the service of Spain, who sailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby discovered a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been since considered as the first navigator that sailed round the world; but having lost his life in a skirmish with some Indians before the ships returned to Europe, the honour of being the first circumnavigator has been disputed in favour of the brave sir Francis Drake, who, in 1574, passed the same Strait in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616, Le Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the southward of these Straits, discovered in lat. 54½ another passage, since known by the name of the Straits Le Maire; and this passage, which has been generally preferred by succeeding navigators, is called doubling Cape Horn. The author of Anson's voyage, however, from fatal experience, advises mariners to keep clear of these Straits and islands, by running down to 61 or 62 deg. south lat. before they attempt to set their face westward towards the South Sea; but the extreme long nights, and the intense cold in those latitudes, render that passage practicable only in the months of January and February, which is there the middle of summer.

A NEW  
GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable Places, in the known World. Collected from the most authentic Charts, Maps, and Observations.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i> D. M.	<i>Long.</i> D. M.
<b>A</b> Bbeville,	Picardy,	France,	Europe,	50-07 N.	1-54 E.
Aberdeen,	Aberdeenshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	57-22 N.	1-40 W.
Abo,	Finland,	Sweden,	Europe,	60-27 N.	22-18 E.
Acapulco,	Mexico,	North America,	17-10 N.	101-20 W.	
Achem,	Sumatra,	East Indies,	Asia,	5-22 N.	95-29 E.
Adrianople,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe,	42-00 N.	26-30 E.
Adriatic sea, or Gulf of Ven.	between	Italy and Turkey,	Europe,	Mediterranean Sea.	
Adventure (Ile)	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia,	17-05 S.	144-12 W.
Agde,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe,	43-18 N.	3-33 E.
Agen,	Guienne,	France,	Europe,	44-12 N.	0-40 E.
St. Agnes (lights)	Scillies,	Atlantic ocean,	Europe,	49-56 N.	6-41 W.
Agra,	Agra,	East India,	Asia,	26-43 N.	76-49 E.
Air,	Airshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-30 N.	4-35 W.
Aix,	Provence,	France,	Europe,	43-31 N.	5-31 E.
Albany,	New York,	North America,	42-48 N.	73-30 W.	
Alby,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe,	43-55 N.	2-13 E.
Aleppo,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia,	35-45 N.	37-25 E.
Alexandretta,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia,	36-45 N.	36-25 E.
Alexandria,	Lower Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa,	31-11 N.	30-21 E.
Algiers,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa,	36-49 N.	2-17 E.
Amboyna,	Amboyna Ile,	East India,	Asia,	4-25 S.	127-25 E.
Ambrym Ile,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	16-09 S.	168-17 E.
Amiens,	Ile of France,	France,	Europe,	49-53 N.	2-22 E.
AMSTERDAM,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe,	52-22 N.	4-49 E.
Amsterdam Ile,	Indian	Ocean,	Asia,	21-09 S.	174-51 W.
Ancona,	March of An- cona,	Italy,	Europe,	43-37 N.	13-35 E.
Angra,	Tercera Ile,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	38-39 N.	27-07 W.
Antigua (St. John's Town)	Antigua Ile,	Carib. sea,	N. Ame- rica,	17-04 N.	62-04 W.
Antioch,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia,	36-30 N.	36-40 E.
Antwerp,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-13 N.	04-27 E.
Apæ (Ile)	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia,	16-46 S.	168-32 E.
Archangel,	Dwina,	Russia,	Europe,	64-34 N.	38-59 E.
Archipelago,	Islands of Greece,	Europe,	Mediterranean Sea.		
Ascension Ile,	South	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	7-56 N.	14-27 W.
Astracan,	Astracan,	Russia,	Asia,	46-00 N.	51-00 E.
Athens,	Achaia,	Turkey,	Europe,	38-05 N.	23-57 E.
St. Augustin,	Madagafcar,	South Indian sea,	Africa,	23-35 S.	43-13 E.
AVA,	Ava,	East India,	Asia,	20-20 N.	95-30 E.

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A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i>	<i>Long.</i>
				D. M.	D. M.
Avignon,	Provence,	France,	Europe,	43-57 N.	04-53 E.
Aurora Ile,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	15-08 S.	168-22 E.
<b>B</b> Agdad,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia,	33-20 N.	43-51 E.
Balafore,	Orixa,	East India,	Asia,	21-20 N.	86-05 E.
Balbec,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia,	33-30 N.	37-00 E.
Baldivia,	Chili,	South	America,	39-35 S.	81-10 W.
Baltic sea,	between	Germ. and Swed.	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Barbuda Ile,		Atlantic ocean,	N. Ame-	17-49 N.	61-55 W.
			rica,		
Barcelona,	Catalonia,	Spain,	Europe,	41-26 N.	02-18 E.
Basil,	Basil,	Switzerland,	Europe,	47-35 N.	07-34 E.
Basse Terre,	Guadaloupe,	Carib. sea,	N. Ame-	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
			rica,		
Bassora,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia,	30-45 N.	47-00 E.
Bastia,	Cortica,	Mediterranean,	Europe,	42-20 N.	09-40 E.
Batavia,	Java,	East India,	Asia,	06-10 S.	106-56 E.
Bath,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe,	51-22 N.	02-16 W.
Bay of Biscay,	Coast of	France,	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Bay of Bengal,	Coast of	India,	Asia,	Indian Ocean.	
Bayeux,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	49-16 N.	00-47 E.
Bayonne,	Gascony,	France,	Europe,	43-29 N.	01-25 W.
Belfast,	Ulster,	Ireland,	Europe,	54-30 N.	06-30 W.
Belgrade,	Servia,	Turkey,	Europe,	45-30 N.	21-20 E.
Bencoolen,	Sumatra,	East India,	Asia,	03-49 S.	102-05 E.
Bender,	Bessarabia,	Turkey,	Europe,	46-40 N.	29-00 E.
BERLIN,	Brandenburg,	Germany,	Europe,	52-32 N.	13-31 E.
Bermudas,	Bermuda Isles,	Atlantic ocean,	N. Ame-	32-25 N.	63-23 W.
			rica,		
Bern,	Bern,	Switzerland,	Europe,	47-00 N.	07-20 E.
Berwick,	Berwickshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-48 N.	01-45 W.
Bilboa,	Biscay,	Spain,	Europe,	43-26 N.	03-18 W.
Birmingham,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe,	52-30 N.	01-50 W.
Black, or Euxine	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia,		
sea,					
Bokharia,	Ubec	Tartary,	Asia,	39-15 N.	67-00 E.
Bolabola,	Ile,	Pacific ocean,	Asia,	16-32 N.	151-47 W.
Bologna,	Bolognese,	Italy,	Europe,	44-29 N.	11-26 E.
Boulogne,	Picardy,	France,	Europe,	50-43 N.	1-31 E.
Bolfeheriskoi,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia,	52-54 N.	156-42 E.
Bombay,	Bombay Ile,	East India,	Asia,	18-56 N.	72-43 E.
Boroughston-	Linlithgowshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-48 N.	03-44 W.
necs,					
Boston,	Lincolnshire,	England,	Europe,	53-10 N.	00-25 E.
BOSTON,	New England,	North,	America,	42-25 N.	70-32 E.
Bourbon Ile,	South	Indian ocean,	Africa,	20-51 S.	55-25 E.
Bourdeaux,	Guienne,	France,	Europe,	44-50 N.	00-29 W.
Breda,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-40 N.	04-40 E.
Bremen,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe,	53-25 N.	08-20 E.
BRESLAU,	Silesia,	Bohemia,	Europe,	51-03 N.	17-13 E.
Brett,	Brittany,	France,	Europe,	48-22 N.	04-25 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.
				D. M.	M. D.	
Bridge Town,	Barbadoes,	Atlantic ocean,	N. Ame- rica,	13-05 N.		58-03 W.
Bristol,	Somerfetshire,	England,	Europe,	51-33 N.		02-40 W.
British sea,	between	Brit. and Germ.	Europe,	Atlantic		Ocean.
Bruges,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-16 N.		03-05 W.
Brunswick,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe,	52-30 N.		10-30 E.
Brussels,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-51 N.		04-26 E.
Buda,	Lower	Hungary,	Europe,	47-40 N.		19-20 E.
Buenos Ayres,	La Plata,	Brasil,	South A- merica,	34-35 S.		58-26 W.
Buckaraft,	Wallachia,	Turkey,	Europe,	44-26 N.		26-13 E.
Burlington,	Jersey,	North	America,	40-08 N.		75-00 W.
<b>C</b> abello (Port),	Terra Firma,	South	America,	10-03 N.		67-27 W.
CACHAO,	Tonquin,	East India,	Asia,	21-30 N.		105-00 E.
Cadiz,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe,	36-31 N.		6-06 W.
Caen,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	49-11 N.		0-16 W.
Cagliari,	Sardinia,	Italy,	Europe,	39-25 N.		9-38 E.
Calors,	Guienne,	France,	Europe,	44-26 N.		1-31 E.
Cairo,	Lower	Egypt,	Africa,	30-02 N.		31-23 E.
Calais,	Picardy,	France,	Europe,	50-57 N.		1-55 E.
Calcutta,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia,	22-34 N.		88-34 E.
Callao,	Peru,	South	America,	12-01 N.		76-53 W.
Calmar,	Smaland,	Sweden,	Europe,	56-40 N.		16-26 E.
Cambray,	Cambresis,	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-10 N.		3-18 E.
Cambletown,	Argyleshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-30 N.		5-40 W.
Cambodia,	Cambodia,	East India,	Asia,	13-30 N.		105-00 E.
Cambridge,	Cambridgeshire,	England,	Europe,	52-12 N.		0-09 E.
Cambridge,	New	England,	N. Ame- rica,	42-25 N.		71-05 W.
Canary, N. E. Point,	Canary Isles,	Atlantic ocean,	Africa,	28-13 N.		15-33 W.
Candia,	Candia Island,	Mediterr. Sea,	Europe,	35-18 N.		25-23 E.
Candy,	Ceylon,	Indian ocean,	Asia,	7-54 N.		79-00 E.
Canfo Port,	Nova Scotia,	North	America,	45-20 N.		60-50 W.
Canterbury,	Kent,	England,	Europe,	51-16 N.		1-15 E.
Canton,	Canton,	China,	Asia,	23-07 N.		113-07 E.
Cape Clear,	Irish Sea,	Ireland,	Europe,	51-18 N.		11-10 W.
— Comorin,	On this side Ganges,	of East India,	Asia,	7-56 N.		78-10 E.
— Finisterre,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe,	42-51 N.		9-12 W.
— Florida,	East Florida,	North	America,	24-57 N.		80-30 W.
— of Good Hope,	Hottentots,	Caffraria,	Africa,	34-29 S.		18-28 E.
— Horn,	Terra del Fuego Island,	South	America,	55-58 S.		67-21 W.
— St. Vincent,	Algarve,	Portugal,	Europe,	37-02 N.		8-57 W.
— Verd		Negroland,	Africa,	14-45 N.		17-28 W.
Cardigan,	Cardiganshire,	Wales,	Europe,	52-10 N.		4-38 W.
Carlescroon,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe,	56-20 N.		15-31 E.

Names

Carlisle  
CarthageRuin  
CarthageCarthage  
Cafan,Caspian  
Cassel,Castres,  
St. CathIsle,  
CattagatCavan,  
CayenneCete,  
Ceuta,Chalons,  
ChandernCHARLE  
CharltonChartres,  
CherbourChester,  
ChristmasSound,  
St. ChristIsle,  
Civita Vec

Clerk's I

Clermont,  
Colmar,

Cologne,

Constance,  
CONSTANPLE,  
COPENHACorinth,  
Cork,Coventry,  
Cowes,Cracow,  
Cremfinun

Cummin,

Cummin,  
Cusco,

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i>	<i>Long.</i>
				D. M.	D. M.
Carlisle,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe,	54-47 N.	2-35 W.
Carthage,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa,	36-30 N.	9-00 E.
Ruins,					
Carthage,	Terra Firma,	South	America,	10-26 N.	75-21 W.
Carthage,	Murcia,	Spain,	Europe,	37-37 N.	1-03 W.
Cafan,	Cafan,	Siberia,	Asia,	55-43 N.	49-13 E.
Caspian Sea,	Russia,	Tartary,	Asia,		
Cassel,	Hesse Cassel,	Germany,	Europe,	51-19 N.	9-34 E.
Castres,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe,	43-37 N.	2-19 E.
St. Catherine's	Atlantic	Ocean,	South A-	27-55 S.	49-12 W.
Ile,			merica,		
Cattegat,	between	Swed. & Den.	Europe,	Atlantic	Ocean.
Cavan,	Cavan,	Ireland,	Europe,	54-51 N.	7-18 W.
Cayenne,	Cayenne Isle,	South	America,	4-56 N.	52-10 W.
Cette,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe,	43-23 N.	3-47 E.
Ceuta,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa,	35-04 N.	6-30 W.
Chalons,	Burgundy,	France,	Europe,	46-46 N.	4-56 E.
Chandernagore,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia,	22-51 N.	88-34 E.
CHARLESTON	South Carolina,	North	America,	32-45 N.	79-12 W.
CHARLTON	Ile,	Hudson's Bay,	N. Ame-	52-03 N.	79-00 W.
			rica,		
Chartres,	Orleannois,	France,	Europe,	48-26 N.	1-33 E.
Cherbourg,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	49-38 N.	1-33 W.
Chester,	Chefhire,	England,	Europe,	53-15 N.	3-00 W.
Christmas	Terra del Fuego,	South	America,	55-21 N.	69-57 W.
Sound,					
St. Christopher's	Caribbean	Sea,	N. Ame-	17-15 N.	62-38 W.
Ile,			rica,		
Civita Vecchia,	Pope's Domin.	Italy,	Europe,	42-05 N.	11-51 E.
Clerke's Isles,	Atlantic	Ocean,	South A-	55-05 S.	34-37 W.
			merica,		
Clermont,	Auvergne,	France,	Europe,	45-46 N.	3-10 E.
Colmar,	Alface,	France,	Europe,	48-04 N.	7-27 E.
Cologne,	Elec. of Co-	Germany,	Europe,	50-55 N.	7-10 E.
	logne,				
Constance,	Swabia,	Germany,	Europe,	47-37 N.	9-12 E.
CONSTANTINO-	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe,	41-01 N.	28-58 E.
PLE,					
COPENHAGEN,	Zealand Isle,	Denmark,	Europe,	55-40 N.	12-40 E.
Corinth,	Morea,	Turkey,	Europe,	37-30 N.	23-00 E.
Cork,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe,	51-53 N.	8-23 W.
Coventry,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe,	52-25 N.	1-25 W.
Cowes,	Ile of Wight,	England,	Europe,	50-46 N.	1-14 W.
Cracow,	Little Poland,	Poland,	Europe,	50-10 N.	19-55 E.
Cremfinunster,	Arch-duchy of	Germany,	Europe,	48-03 N.	14-12 E.
	Auftria,				
Cummin,	Ile,	North Pacific	Asia,	31-40 N.	129-09 E.
		Ocean,			
Cummin,	Curassou Isle,	West India,	America,	11-56 N.	68-20 W.
Cusco,	Peru,	South	America,	12-25 S.	70-00 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.	D. M.	D. M.
<b>D</b> acca,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia,	23-30 N.	89-20 E.		
Damascus,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia,	33-15 N.	37-20 E.		
Dantzic,	Polish Prussia,	Poland,	Europe,	54-22 N.	18-38 E.		
Dax,	Gascony,	France,	Europe,	43-42 N.	0-58 W.		
Delft,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe,	52-06 N.	4-05 E.		
Delhi,	Delhi,	East India,	Asia,	29-00 N.	76-30 E.		
Derbent,	Daghistan,	Persia,	Asia,	41-41 N.	50-30 E.		
Derby,	Derbyshire,	England,	Europe,	52-58 N.	1-30 W.		
Derry,	Ulster,	Ireland,	Europe,	54-52 N.	7-40 W.		
Dieppe,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	49-55 N.	0-59 E.		
Dieu,	Guzerat,	East India,	Asia,	21-37 N.	69-30 E.		
Dijon,	Burgundy,	France,	Europe,	47-19 N.	4-57 E.		
Dilbingen,	Swabia,	Germany,	Europe,	48-30 N.	10-19 E.		
Dol,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe,	48-33 N.	1-41 W.		
Dominique,	Windward Islands,	West India,	America,	15-18 N.	61-22 W.		
Dover,	Kent	England,	Europe,	51-07 N.	1-13 E.		
<b>D</b> RESDEN,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe,	51-00 N.	13-36 E.		
Dreux,	Orleannois,	France,	Europe,	48-44 N.	1-16 E.		
<b>D</b> UBLIN,	Leinster,	Ireland,	Europe,	53-21 N.	6-01 W.		
Dumbarton,	Dumbartonshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-44 N.	4-20 W.		
Dumfries,	Dumfrieshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-08 N.	3-25 W.		
Dunbar,	Haddington,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-58 N.	2-25 W.		
Dundee,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe,	56-26 N.	2-48 W.		
Dungeness,	Kent,	England,	Europe,	50-52 N.	1-04 E.		
Dunkirk,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-02 N.	2-27 E.		
Durham,	Durham,	England,	Europe,	54-48 N.	1-25 W.		
<b>E</b> Aoowe Isle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia,	21-24 S.	174-25 W.		
Easter Isle,	Pacific	Ocean,	America,	27-06 S.	109-41 W.		
Eastern Ocean, betw. the N. W. of N. Amer. and N. E. of Asia,		N. Pacific Ocean..					
Edinburgh,	Edinburghshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-57 N.	3-07 W.		
Eddystone,	Eng. Channel,	England,	Europe,	50-08 N.	4-19 W.		
Elbing,	Prussia,	Poland,	Europe,	54-15 N.	20-00 E.		
Embsden,	Westphalia,	Germany,	Europe,	53-25 N.	7-10 E.		
Embrun,	Dauphiné,	France,	Europe,	44-34 N.	6-34 E.		
Enatum Isle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia,	20-10 S.	169-59 E.		
English Channel,	between	England and France,	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.			
Ephefus,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia,	38-01 N.	27-30 E.		
Erramanga Isle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia,	18-46 S.	169-23 E.		
Erzerum,	Turcomania,	Turkey,	Asia,	39-56 N.	42-05 E.		
Ethiopian Sea,	Coast of	Guinea,	Africa,	Atlantic Ocean.			
Evreux,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	49-01 N.	1-13 E.		
Eustatia Town,	Carib. sea,	West India,	N. Amer.	17-29 N.	63-05 W.		
Exeter,	Devonshire,	England,	Europe,	50-44 N.	3-29 W.		

**F** Alkin  
Falt  
Fayal To  
Ferdinan  
ronks,  
Ferrara,  
Ferro (To  
Ferrol,  
Fez,  
Florence,  
Flores,  
St. Flour,  
Fort St. D  
France (In  
Francfort  
Main,  
Frawenbur  
Fuego Isle,  
Funchal,  
Furieux  
**G** AP,  
Gene  
GENOA,  
Genes,  
St. George's  
Isle,  
St. George's  
Fort,  
St. George  
Town,  
Ghent,  
Gibraltar,  
Glasgow,  
Gloucester,  
Goa,  
Goat Isle,  
Gombroon,  
Gomera Isle,  
Good Hope  
Town,  
Gorce,  
Gottenburg,  
Gottingen,  
Granville,  
Gratiosa,  
Gratz,  
Gravelines,  
Greenock,  
Gryphiswald,

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
<b>F</b> alkirk,	Stirling,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-88 N.	3-48 W.
Falmouth,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe,	50-08 N.	4-57 W.
Fayal Town,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	38-32 N.	28-36 W.
Ferdinand Na- ronka,		Brasil,	South A- merica,	3-56 S.	32-43 W.
Ferrara,	Ferrarese,	Italy,	Europe,	44-54 N.	11-41 E.
Ferro (Town)	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	27-47 N.	17-40 W.
Ferrol,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe,	43-30 N.	8-40 W.
Fez,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa,	33-30 N.	6-00 W.
Florence,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe,	43-46 N.	11-07 E.
Flores,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	39-34 N.	30-51 W.
St. Flour,	Auvergne,	France,	Europe,	45-01 N.	3-10 E.
Fort St. David,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia,	12-05 N.	80-55 E.
France (Isle of)	Indian	Ocean,	Africa,	20-09 S.	57-33 E.
Francfort on the Main,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe,	49-55 N.	8-40 E.
Frauenburgh,	Polish	Prussia,	Europe,	54-22 N.	20-12 E.
Fuego Isle,	Cape Verd,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	14-56 N.	24-23 W.
Funchal,	Madeira,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	32-37 N.	17-01 W.
Furneaux Isle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia,	17-11 S.	143-01 W.
<b>G</b> AP,	Dauphiné,	France,	Europe,	44-33 N.	6-09 E.
Geneva,	Geneva,	Switzerland,	Europe,	46-12 N.	6-05 E.
<b>GENOA,</b>	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe,	44-25 N.	8-30 E.
Genes,	Savoy,	Italy,	Europe,	44-25 N.	8-40 E.
St. George's Isle,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	38-39 N.	27-55 W.
St. George's Fort,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia,	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
St. George Town,	Bermudas,	Atlantic Ocean,	North A- merica,	32-45 N.	63-30 W.
Ghent,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-03 N.	3-48 E.
Gibraltar,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe,	36-05 N.	5-17 W.
Glasgow,	Lanerkshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-51 N.	4-10 W.
Gloucester,	Gloucester- shire,	England,	Europe,	51-05 N.	2-16 W.
Goa,	Malabar,	East India,	Asia,	15-31 N.	73-50 E.
Goat Isle,	Indian	Ocean,	Asia,	13-55 N.	120-07 E.
Gombroon,	Farfutan,	Persia,	Asia,	27-30 N.	74-20 E.
Gomera Isle,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	28-05 N.	17-03 W.
Good Hope Town,	Hottentots,	Caffres,	Africa,	33-55 S.	18-28 E.
Goree,	Atlantic	Ocean,	Africa,	14-40 N.	17-20 W.
Gottenburg,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe,	57-42 N.	11-43 E.
Gottingen,	Hanover,	Germany,	Europe,	51-31 N.	9-58 E.
Granville,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	48-50 N.	1-32 W.
Gratiosa,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	39-02 N.	27-53 W.
Gratz,	Stiria,	Germany,	Europe,	47-04 N.	15-29 E.
Gravelines,	Fr. Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-59 N.	2-13 E.
Greenock,	Renfrewshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-52 N.	4-22 W.
Gryphwald,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe,	54-04 N.	13-43 E.



A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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<i>Names of Places,</i>	<i>Provinces,</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i> D. M.	<i>Long.</i> D. M.
Jassy,	Moldavia,	Turkey,	Europe,	47-08 N.	27-34 E.
Java Head,	Java Isle,	East India,	Asia,	6-49 S.	106-55 E.
Jeddo,	Japan Isle,	East India,	Asia,	36-20 N.	139-92 E.
Jerusalem,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia,	31-55 N.	35-25 E.
Immer Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	19-16 S.	169-51 E.
Indian Ocean,		Coast of India,	Asia,		
Ingolstadt,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe,	48-45 N.	11-27 E.
Inverness,	Invernesshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	57-33 N.	4-02 W.
St. John's Town,	Antigua,	Leeward Isles,	N. Amer.	17-04 N.	62-04 E.
St. John's Town,	Newfoundland,	North	America,	47-32 N.	52-21 W.
St. Joseph's.	California,	Mexico,	North A-	23-03 N.	109-37 W.
			merica,		
Irish Sea, between Great Britain and Ireland,			Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Irraname Isle,	South.	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	19-31 S.	170-26 E.
Islamabad,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia,	22-20 N.	91-50 E.
Isle of Pines,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	22-38 S.	167-43 E.
ISPAHAN,	Irac Agem,	Persia,	Asia,	32-25 N.	52-55 E.
Isthmus of Suez	joins Africa to Asia.				
-----	of Corinth, joins the Morea to Greece, Europe.				
-----	of Panama, joins North and South America.				
-----	of Malacca, joins Malacca to Farther India, Asia:				
Ivica Isle,	Mediterr. Sea,	Italy,	Europe,	38-50 N.	1-40 E.
Judda,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia,	21-29 N.	49-27 E.
Juthia,	Siam,	East India,	Asia,	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
<b>K</b> Amtschatka	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia,	57-10 N.	163-00 E.
Kedgere,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia,	21-48 N.	88-55 E.
Kelso,	Roxborough-shire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-38 N.	2-12 W.
Kilmarnock,	Airhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-38 N.	4-30 W.
Kinfale,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe,	51-32 N.	8-20 W.
KINGSTON,	Jamaica,	West Indies,	America,	18-15 N.	76-38 W.
Kiow,	Ukraine,	Russia,	Europe,	50-30 N.	31-12 E.
Kola,	Lapland,	Russia,	Europe,	68-52 N.	33-13 E.
Koningsberg,	Prussia,	Poland,	Europe,	54-43 N.	21-35 E.
<b>L</b> Aguma,	Tenerife,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	28-28 N.	16-13 W.
Lahor,	Lahor,	East India,	Asia,	32-40 N.	75-30 E.
Lancaster,	Lancashire,	England,	Europe,	54-05 N.	2-55 E.
Landau,	Alsace,	France,	Europe,	49-11 N.	8-02 E.
Landseroon,	Schenon,	Sweden,	Europe,	55-52 N.	12-51 E.
Lausanne,	Canton of Vaud,	Switzerland,	Europe,	46-31 N.	6-50 E.
Leeds,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe,	53-48 N.	1-29 W.
Leicester,	Leicestershire,	England,	Europe,	52-38 N.	1-03 W.
Leipic,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe,	51-19 N.	12-25 E.
Leith,	Edinburghshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-58 N.	3-00 W.
Lepers' Island,	S. Pacific Ocean,		Asia,	15-23 S.	168-03 E.
Lerkard,	Corwall,	England,	Europe,	50-26 N.	4-36 W.
Lesperre,	Guienne,	France,	Europe,	45-18 N.	0-52 W.
Levantica,	Coast of	Syria,	Asia,	Mediterranean sea.	

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Leyden,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe,	52-10 N.	4-32 E.
Liege,	Bishopric of Liege,	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-37 N.	5-40 E.
Lima,	Peru,	South	America,	12-01 S.	76-44 W.
Limerick,	Limerick,	Ireland,	Europe,	52-35 N.	8-48 W.
Limoges,	Limoges,	France,	Europe,	45-49 N.	1-20 E.
Lincoln,	Lincolnshire,	England,	Europe,	53-15 N.	0-27 W.
Linlithgow,	Linlithgow- shire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-56 N.	3-30 W.
Lintz,	Austria,	Germany,	Europe,	48-16 N.	13-57 E.
Lisbon,	Estremadura,	Portugal,	Europe,	38-42 N.	9-04 W.
Lisle,	French Fland.	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-37 N.	3-09 E.
Litchfield,	Staffordshire,	England,	Europe,	52-43 N.	1-04 W.
Lizard Point,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe,	49-57 N.	5-10 W.
LONDON,	Middlesex,	England,	Europe,	51-31 N.	1st Meridian
Londonderry,	Londonderry,	Ireland,	Europe,	50-00 N.	7-40 W.
Loretto,	Pope's Terri- tory,	Italy,	Europe,	43-15 N.	14-15 E.
Louisburgh,	Cape Breton Isle,	North	America,	45-53 N.	59-48 W.
Louvain,	Austrian Bra- bant,	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-53 N.	4-49 E.
Louveau,	Siam,	East India,	Asia,	12-42 N.	100-56 E.
Lubeck,	Holstein,	Germany,	Europe,	54-00 N.	11-40 E.
St. Lucia Isle,	Windward Isles,	West Indies,	N. Ame- rica,	13-24 N.	60-46 W.
Lunden,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe,	55-41 N.	13-26 E.
Luneville,	Lorraine,	France,	Europe,	48-35 N.	6-35 E.
Luxemburg,	Luxemburg,	Netherlands,	Europe,	49-37 N.	6-16 E.
Lyons,	Lyonnois,	France,	Europe,	45-45 N.	4-54 E.
<b>M</b> acao,	Canton,	China,	Asia,	22-12 N.	113-51 E.
Macassar,	Celebes Isle,	East India,	Asia,	5-09 S.	119-53 E.
Madeira,	Atlantic Ocean,	Ocean,	Africa,	32-37 N.	17-01 W.
Funchal,					
Madras,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia,	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
MADRID,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe,	40-25 N.	3-20 E.
Magdalena Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	10-25 S.	138-44 W.
Mahon, Port,	Minorca,	Mediterr. sea,	Europe,	39-50 N.	3-53 E.
Majorca,	Isle,	Mediterr. sea,	Europe,	39-35 N.	2-34 E.
Malacca,	Malacca,	East India,	Asia,	2-12 N.	102-10 E.
Malines,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-01 N.	4-33 E.
Mallicola (Isle)	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	16-15 N.	167-44 E.
St. Malo,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe,	48-38 N.	1-53 W.
Malta Isle,	Mediterranean Sea,	Sea,	Africa,	35-54 N.	14-33 E.
Manilla,	Luconia, Phi- lip. Isles,	East India,	Asia,	14-36 N.	120-58 E.
MASTUA,	Mantua,	Italy,	Europe,	45-20 N.	10-47 E.
Mariegallante Isle	Atlantic	Ocean,	S. Amer.	15-55 N.	61-06 W.
Marfeilles,	Provence,	France,	Europe,	43-17 N.	5-27 E.
St. Martha,	St. Martha,	Terra Firma,	America,	11-26 N.	73-59 W.

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 Narva,  
 New York,  
 Newcastle,  
 Newport,  
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 St. Nicholas  
 Mole,

# A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

1055

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i>	<i>Long.</i>
				D. M.	D. M.
St. Martin's Isle,	Caribbean Isles,	West Indies,	America,	18-04 N.	62-57 W.
Martinico Isle,	Caribbean Isles,	West Indies,	America,	14-44 N.	61-16 W.
St. Mary's Isle,	Scilly Isles,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	49-57 N.	6-38 W.
St. Mary's Town,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	36-56 N.	25-04 W.
Maskelyne Isles,	South Indian	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	16-32 S.	168-04 E.
Mauritius,	South	Ocean,	Africa,	20-09 S.	57-34 E.
Maurua Isle,	Lower Rhine,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	16-25 S.	152-37 E.
Mayence,	Cape Verd,	Germany,	Europe,	49-54 N.	8-25 E.
Mayo Isle,	Champagne,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	15-10 N.	23-00 W.
Meaux,	Arabia Felix,	France,	Europe,	48-57 N.	2-57 E.
Mecca,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia,	21-45 N.	41-00 E.
Medina,	between	Arabia,	Asia,	25-00 N.	39-53 E.
Mediterr. sea,	Fez,	Europe and	Africa,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Mequinez,	Sicily Island,	Barbary,	Africa,	34-30 N.	6-00 E.
MESSINA,	Siam,	Italy,	Europe,	38-30 N.	15-40 E.
Mergui,	Mexico,	East India,	Asia,	12-12 N.	98-13 E.
Mexico,	South	North	America,	19-54 N.	100-00 W.
Miatea Isle,	Azores,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	17-52 S.	148-01 W.
St. Michael's Isle,	South	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	37-47 N.	25-37 W.
Middleburgh Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	21-20 S.	174-29 W.
MILAN,	Milanese,	Italy,	Europe,	45-25 N.	9-30 E.
Milford Haven,	Pembrokeshire,	Wales,	Europe,	51-45 N.	5-15 W.
Mocha,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia,	13-40 N.	43-50 E.
MODENA,	Modena,	Italy,	Europe,	44-34 N.	11-17 E.
Montréal,	Canada,	North	America,	45-35 N.	73-11 W.
Montpelier,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe,	43-36 N.	3-37 E.
Montague Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	17-26 S.	168-36 E.
Montrose,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe,	56-34 N.	2-20 W.
Montserrat Isle,	Caribbean Isles,	West India,	America,	16-47 N.	62-12 W.
MOROCCO,	Morocco,	Barbary,	Africa,	30-32 N.	6-10 W.
Moscow,	Moscow,	Russia,	Europe,	55-45 N.	37-50 E.
Munich,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe,	48-09 N.	11-35 E.
Munster,	Westphalia,	Germany,	Europe,	52-00 N.	7-10 E.
NAmur,	Namur,	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-28 N.	4-49 E.
Nancy,	Lorraine,	France,	Europe,	48-41 N.	6-16 E.
Nangafachi,	Japan,	N. Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	32-32 N.	128-51 E.
Nanking,	Kiangan,	China,	Asia,	32-00 N.	118-30 E.
Nantes,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe,	47-13 N.	1-28 W.
Naples,	Naples,	Italy,	Europe,	40-50 N.	14-18 E.
Narva,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe,	59-00 N.	27-35 E.
New York,	New York,	North	America,	40-40 N.	74-00 W.
Newcastle,	Northumberland,	England,	Europe,	55-03 N.	1-24 W.
Newport,	Rhode Island,	North	America,	41-35 N.	71-06 W.
Nice,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe,	43-41 N.	7-22 E.
St. Nicholas Mole,	Hispaniola,	West Indies,	America,	19-49 N.	73-24 W.

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i> D. M.	<i>Long.</i> D. M.
Nieuport,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-07 N.	2-50 E.
Nineveh,	Curdistan,	Turkey,	Asia,	36-00 N.	45-10 E.
Ningpo,	Chekiang,	China,	Asia,	29-57 N.	120-23 E.
Norfolk Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	29-01 S.	168-15 E.
Noriton,	Pennsylvania,	North	America,	40-09 N.	75-18 W.
North Cape,	Wardhus,	Lapland,	Europe,	71-10 N.	26-02 E.
Northampton,	Northampton- shire	England,	Europe,	52-15 N.	0-55 W.
Norwich,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe,	52-40 N.	1-25 E.
Nuremberg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe,	49-27 N.	11-12 E.
Nottingham,	Nottingham- shire,	England,	Europe,	53-00 N.	1-06 W.
<b>O</b> Chotskoi,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia,	59-20 N.	143-17 E.
Ohevahoa,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	9-40 S.	138-56 W.
Ohitahoo Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	9-55 S.	139-01 W.
Oleron Isle,	Saintonge,	France,	Europe,	46-02 N.	1-20 W.
Olinde,	Brasil,	South	America,	8-13 S.	35-00 W.
Olmutz,	Moravia,	Bohemia,	Europe,	49-30 N.	16-45 E.
Olympia,	Greece,	Turkey,	Europe,	37-30 N.	22-00 E.
St. Omer,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-44 N.	2-19 E.
Onateayo Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	9-58 S.	138-46 W.
Oporto,	Douro,	Portugal,	Europe,	41-10 N.	8-22 W.
Oran,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa,	36-30 N.	0-05 E.
Orenburg,	Tartary,	Russia,	Asia,	51-46 N.	55-14 E.
L'Orient, Port,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe,	47-45 N.	3-20 W.
Orleans,	Orleannois,	France,	Europe,	47-54 N.	1-59 E.
Orleans, New,	Louisiana,	North	America,	29-57 N.	89-53 W.
Ormus,	Ormicos Isle,	Persia,	Asia,	26-50 N.	57-00 E.
Orotava,	Teneriffe,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	28-23 N.	16-19 W.
Ork,	Tartary,	Russia,	Asia,	51-12 N.	58-37 E.
Ofnaburg-Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	17-52 S.	148-01 E.
Ostend,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-13 N.	3-00 E.
Otaheite,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	17-29 S.	149-35 W.
O'why'hee,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	22-10 S.	199-00 E.
Oxford Obser- vatory,	Oxfordshire,	England,	Europe,	51-45 N.	1-10 W.
<b>P</b> acific or Ori- ental Ocean,	between	Asia and	America,		
Padua,	Paduano,	Italy,	Europe,	45-22 N.	12-00 E.
Paisley,	Renfrewshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-48 N.	4-08 W.
PALERMO,	Sicily Isle,	Italy,	Europe,	38-30 N.	13-43 E.
Palliser's Idles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	15-38 S.	146-25 W.
Palma Isle,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	28-36 N.	17-45 W.
Palmcrston's Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	18-00 S.	162-52 W.
Palmyna,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia,	33-00 N.	39-00 E.
Panama,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	S. Amer.	8-47 N.	80-16 W.
Paoom Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	16-30 S.	168-33 E.
Paris, (Observ.)	Isle of France,	France,	Europe,	48-50 N.	2-25 E.

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 PETERS.  
 Petropa.  
 Philadel.  
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 Pickerfig.  
 Pico.  
 Pines, Ill.  
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 Placentia,  
 Plymouth,  
 Plymouth,  
 Pollingen,  
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 Ponoï,  
 Porto Belle.  
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 Port Royal.  
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 Portsmouth,  
 Potosi,  
 Prague,  
 Preiburg,  
 Preston,  
 Prince of W.  
 Fort,  
 Providence,

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Parma,	Parmesan,	Italy,	Europe,	44-45 N.	10-51 E.
Patna,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia,	25-45 N.	83-00 E.
Patuxford,	Iceland,	N. Atlan. Ocean,	Europe,	65-35 N.	14-05 W.
Pau,	Béarn,	France,	Europe,	43-15 N.	0-04 W.
St. Paul's Ile,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa,	37-51 S.	77-53 E.
Pegu,	Pegu,	East India,	Asia,	17-00 N.	97-00 E.
Peking,	Petchi-li,	China,	Asia,	39-54 N.	116-29 E.
Pembroke,	Pembrokeshire,	Wales,	Europe,	51-45 N.	4-50 W.
PENSACOLA,	West Florida,	North	America,	30-22 N.	87-20 W.
Penzance,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe,	50-08 N.	6-00 W.
Perigueux,	Guienne,	France,	Europe,	45-11 N.	0-48 E.
Perinaldi,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe,	43-53 N.	7-45 E.
Perth,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	56-22 N.	3-12 W.
Perth-amboy,	New York,	North	America,	40-30 N.	74-20 W.
Persepolis,	Irac Agem,	Perfia,	Asia,	30-30 N.	54-00 E.
St. Peter's Fort,	Martinico,	W. Indies,	N. Amer.	14-44 N.	61-16 W.
St. Peter's Isle,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	America,	46-46 N.	56-12 W.
PETERSBURG,	Ingria,	Russia,	Europe,	59-56 N.	30-24 E.
Petropawloskoi,	Kamtschatka,	Russia,	Asia,	53-01 N.	158-40 E.
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,	North	America,	39-56 N.	75-09 W.
St. Philip's Fort,	Minorca,	Mediterr. Sea,	Europe,	39-50 N.	3-53 E.
Pickersgill Isle,	South	Atlantic Ocean,	America,	54-42 S.	36-53 W.
Pico,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	38-28 N.	28-21 W.
Pines, Isle of,	N. Caledonia,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	22-38 S.	167-43 E.
Pisa,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe,	43-43 N.	10-17 E.
Placentia,	Newfoundland Ile,	North	America,	47-26 N.	55-00 W.
Plymouth,	Devonshire,	England,	Europe,	50-22 N.	4-10 W.
Plymouth,	New England,	North	America,	41-48 N.	70-25 W.
Pollingen,	Swabia,	Germany,	Europe,	47-48 N.	10-48 E.
Pondicherry,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia,	11-41 N.	79-57 E.
Ponoi,	Lapland,	Russia,	Europe,	67-06 N.	36-28 E.
Porto Bello,	Terra Firina,	South	America,	9-33 N.	79-45 W.
Porto Santo Ile,	Madeira,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	32-58 N.	16-20 W.
Port Roynl,	Jamaica,	West Indies,	America,	18-00 N.	76-40 W.
Port Royal,	Martinico,	West Indies,	America,	14-35 N.	61-04 W.
Portland Ile,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	39-25 S.	178-17 E.
Portland Ile,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	63-22 N.	18-49 W.
Portsmouth Town,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe,	50-47 N.	1-01 W.
— Academy,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe,	50-48 N.	1-01 W.
Portsmouth,	New England,	North	America,	43-10 N.	70-20 W.
Potofi,	Peru,	South	America,	21-00 S.	77-00 W.
Prague,	Bohemia,	Bohemia,	Europe,	50-04 N.	14-50 E.
Preiburg,	Upper	Hungary,	Europe,	48-20 N.	17-30 W.
Prellon,	Lancashire	England,	Europe,	53-45 N.	2-50 W.
Prince of Wales Fort,	New N. Wales,	North	America,	58-47 N.	94-02 W.
Providence,	New England,	North	America,	41-50 N.	71-21 W.

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<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat.</i> D. M.	<i>Long.</i> D. M.
Pulo Candor Ile,	Indian Ocean,	East India,	Asia,	8-40 N.	107-25 E.
Pulo Timor Ile,	Gulf of Siam,	East India,	Asia,	3-00 N.	104-30 E.
Pylestaart Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	22-23 S.	175-36 W.
<b>Q</b> uebec,	Canada,	North	America,	46-55 N.	69-48 W.
Queen Charlotte's Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	10-11 S.	164-35 E.
St. Quintin,	Picardy,	France,	Europe,	49-50 N.	3-22 E.
Quito,	Peru,	South	America,	0-13 S.	77-55 W.
<b>R</b> agusa,	Dalmatia,	Venice,	Europe,	42-45 N.	18-25 E.
Ramhead,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe,	50-18 N.	4-15 W.
Ratisbon,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe,	48-56 N.	12-05 E.
Rhée Isle,	Aunis,	France,	Europe,	46-14 N.	1-29 W.
Recif,	Brazil,	South	America,	8-10 S.	35-30 W.
Rennes,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe,	48-06 N.	1-36 W.
Reholution Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	17-23 S.	141-40 W.
Rheims,	Champagne,	France,	Europe,	49-14 N.	4-07 E.
Rhodes,	Rhode Island,	Levant sea,	Asia,	36-20 N.	28-00 E.
Riga,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe,	56-55 N.	24-00 E.
Rimini,	Romagna,	Italy,	Europe,	44-03 N.	12-39 E.
Rochelle,	Aunis,	France,	Europe,	46-09 N.	1-04 W.
Rochefort,	Saintonge,	France,	Europe,	46-02 N.	0-53 W.
Rock of Lis- bon,	Mouth of Ta- gus River,	Portugal,	Europe,	38-45 N.	9-30 W.
Rodez,	Guienne,	France,	Europe,	44-21 N.	2-39 E.
Rodrigues Isle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa,	10-40 N.	63-15 E.
Rome, (St. Peter's)	Pope's Terri- tory,	Italy,	Europe,	41-53 N.	12-34 E.
Rotterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-56 N.	4-33 E.
Rotterdam Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	20-16 N.	174-25 W.
Rouen,	Normandy.	France,	Europe,	49-26 N.	1-00 W.
<b>S</b> aba Isle,	Carib. sea,	West India,	America,	17-39 N.	63-12 W.
Sagan,	Silefia,	Germany,	Europe,	51-42 N.	15-27 E.
St. Augustin,	East Florida,	North	America,	29-45 N.	81-12 W.
St. Domingo,	Carib. Sea,	West Indies,	America,	18-20 N.	70-00 W.
St. George's Channel,	between	England, and Ireland,	Europe,	Atlantic	Ocean.
St. Jago,	Chili,	South	America,	34-00 S.	77-00 W.
St. Salvador,	Brazil,	South	America,	11-58 S.	38-00 W.
Salisbury,	Wiltshire,	England,	Europe,	51-00 N.	1-45 W.
Sal Isle,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	16-38 N.	22-51 W.
Salonichi,	Macedonia,	Turkey,	Europe,	40-41 N.	23-13 E.
Salvage Isles,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	30-00 N.	15-49 W.
Samana,	Hispaniola,	West Indies,	America,	19-15 N.	69-11 W.
Samarcand,	Uibec	Tartary,	Asia,	40-40 N.	60-00 E.
Samaria Ruins,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Asia,	32-40 N.	38-00 E.
Sandwich Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	17-41 S.	168-38 E.
Santa Cruz,	Teneriffe,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	28-27 N.	16-11 W.
Santa Fe,	New Mexico,	North	America,	36-00 N.	104-00 W.

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Siferon,  
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Isles,  
Soloo Isle,  
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Spa,  
Stafford,  
Stockholm  
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Straisund,  
Strafsburgh,  
Straumnefs,  
Suez,  
Sultz,  
Sunderland,  
Surat,

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Savage Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	19-02 S.	169-23 W.
Savannah,	Georgia,	North	America,	31-55 N.	80-20 W.
Saunders's Isle,	South Georgia,	S. Atlantic Ocean,	South America,	58-00 S.	26-53 W.
Sayd, or Thebes,	Upper	Egypt,	Africa,	27-00 N.	31-20 E.
Scarborough,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe,	54-18 N.	0-10 W.
Schwezingen,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe,	49-23 N.	8-45 E.
Seone,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	56-24 N.	3-10 W.
Sea of Afoph,	Little Tartary,	Europe and	Asia,		
— Maritora,	Turkey in	Europe, and	Asia,	Black sea.	
— Ochofsk,	between	Siberia, and Kamtschatka,	Asia,	N. Pacific Ocean.	
—, Yellow,	between Eastern	Tartary, China, and Corea,	Asia,	N. Pacific Ocean.	
Sedan,	Champagne,	France,	Europe,	49-42 N.	5-02 E.
Senegal,		Negroland,	Africa,	15-53 N.	16-26 W.
Seville,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe,	37-15 N.	6-05 W.
Sheerness,	Kent,	England,	Europe,	51-25 N.	0-50 E.
Shepherd's Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	16-58 S.	168-47 E.
Shields (South.)	Durham,	England,	Europe,	55-02 N.	1-15 E.
Shrewsbury,	Shropshire,	England,	Europe,	52-43 N.	2-46 W.
Siam,	Siam,	East India,	Asia,	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
Sidon,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Asia,	33-33 N.	36-15 E.
Si-gham-fu,	Chensi,	China,	Asia,	34-16 N.	108-28 E.
Sisteron,	Dauphiné,	France,	Europe,	44-11 N.	6-01 E.
Smyrna,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia,	38-28 N.	27-24 E.
Sombavera Isles,	Carib. Sea,	West Indies,	N. America,	18-38 N.	63-32 W.
Soloo Isle,	Philip. Isles,	East India,	Asia,	5-57 N.	121-20 E.
Southampton,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe,	50-55 N.	1-25 W.
Spa,	Liege,	Germany,	Europe,	50-30 N.	5-40 E.
Stafford,	Staffordshire,	England,	Europe,	52-50 N.	2-00 W.
Stockholm,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe,	59-20 N.	18-08 E.
Stirling,	Stirlingshire,	Scotland,	Europe,	56-10 N.	3-50 W.
Straits of Babelmandel,	between Africa and Asia,		Red Sea.		
— of Dover,	between England and France,		English Channel.		
— of Gibraltar,	between Europe and Africa,		Mediterranean Sea.		
— of Malacca,	between Malacca and Sumatra,		Asia, Indian Ocean.		
— of Magellan,	between Terra del Fuego and Patagonia,		South America.		
— of Le Maire,	in Patagonia, South America,		Atlantic and Pacific Ocean.		
— of Ormus,	between Persia and Arabia,		Persian Gulf.		
— of Sunda,	between Sumatra and Java,		Indian Ocean, Asia.		
— of Waigats,	between Nova Zembla and Russia,		Asia.		
Stralsund,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe,	54-23 N.	13-22 E.
Strasbourg,	Alsace,	France,	Europe,	48-34 N.	7-46 E.
Straumnefs,	Iceland,	N. Atlan. Ocean,	Europe,	65-39 N.	24-24 W.
Suez,	Suez,	Egypt,	Africa,	29-50 N.	33-27 E.
Sultz,	Lorraine,	France,	Europe,	47-53 N.	7-09 W.
Sunderland,	Durham,	England,	Europe,	54-55 N.	1-10 W.
Surat,	Guzurat,	East India,	Asia,	21-10 N.	72-27 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.	
				D. M.	D. M.	D. M.	D. M.
Surinam,	Surinam,	South	America,	6-00 N.	55-30 W.		
Syracuse,	Sicily Isle,	Italy,	Europe,	36-58 N.	15-05 E.		
<b>T</b> AB L E.	New Hebrides,	South Pacific,	Asia,	15-38 S.	167-12 E.		
Island,							
Tanjour,	Tanjour,	East India,	Asia,	11-27 N.	79-07 E.		
Tanna,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	19-32 S.	169-46 E.		
Taonkna Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	14-30 S.	145-04 W.		
Tauris,	Aderbeitzan,	Perlia,	Asia,	38-20 N.	46-30 E.		
Teffis,	Georgia,	Perfia,	Asia,	43-30 N.	47-00 E.		
Temontengis,	Soloo,	East India,	Asia,	5-57 N.	120-58 E.		
Teneriffe Peak,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	28-12 N.	16-24 W.		
Terceira,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	38-45 N.	27-01 W.		
Tetuan,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa,	35-40 N.	5-18 W.		
St. Thomas's Isle,	Virgin Isles,	West Indies,	America,	18-21 N.	64-46 W.		
Thorn,	Regal Prussia,	Poland,	Europe,	52-56 N.	19-00 W.		
Timor, S. W. Point,		East India,	Asia,	10-23 S.	124-04 E.		
Timorland S. Point,		East India,	Asia,	8-15 S.	131-59 E.		
Tobolski,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia,	58-12 N.	68-17 E.		
Toledo,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe,	39-50 N.	3-25 E.		
Tomske,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia,	56-29 N.	85-04 E.		
Tonga Tabu Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	21-09 S.	174-41 W.		
Tornea,	Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe,	65-50 N.	24-17 E.		
Toulon,	Provence,	France,	Europe,	43-07 N.	6-01 E.		
Trafesond,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia,	41-50 N.	40-30 E.		
Trent,	Trent,	Germany,	Europe,	46-05 N.	11-02 E.		
Tripoli,	Tripoli,	Barbary,	Africa,	32-53 N.	13-12 E.		
Tripoli,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia,	34-30 N.	36-15 E.		
Troy Ruins,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia,	39-30 N.	26-30 E.		
Tunis,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa,	36-47 N.	10-00 E.		
Turin,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe,	45-05 N.	7-45 E.		
Turtle Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	19-48 S.	178-02 W.		
Tyre,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia,	32-32 N.	36-00 E.		
Tyrnaw,	Trentschin,	Hungary,	Europe,	48-23 N.	17-38 E.		
<b>U</b> Litea,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	16-45 S.	151-26 W.		
Upfal,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe,	59-51 N.	17-47 E.		
Uraniberg,	Huen Isle,	Denmark,	Europe,	55-54 N.	12-57 E.		
Ushant Isle,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe,	48-28 N.	4-59 W.		
Utrecht,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe,	52-07 N.	5-00 E.		
Venice,	Venice,	Italy,	Europe,	45-26 N.	11-59 E.		
Vera Cruz,	Mexico,	North	America,	19-12 N.	97-25 W.		
Verona,	Veronesc,	Italy,	Europe,	45-26 N.	11-23 E.		
Verfailles,	Isle of France,	France,	Europe,	48-48 N.	2-12 E.		
VIENNA (Ober.)	Austria,	Germany,	Europe,	48-12 N.	16-22 E.		
Vigo,	Gallicia,	Spain,	Europe,	42-14 N.	8-23 W.		
Vintimiglia,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe,	43-53 N.	7-42 E.		
Virgin Gorda,	Virgin Isles,	West Indies,	America,	18-18 N.	63-59 W.		

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Y Arm  
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York-min  
Greenwic  
Paul's,

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

1061

<i>Names of Places.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarter.</i>	<i>Lat. D. M.</i>	<i>Long. D. M.</i>
<b>W</b> akefield,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe,	53-41 N.	1-28 W.
Prince of Wales Fort,	New N. Wales,	North	America,	58-47 N.	94-02 W.
Wardhus,	Norwegian Lapland,	Lapland,	Europe,	70-22 N.	31-11 E.
Warsaw,	Masovia,	Poland,	Europe,	52-14 N.	21-05 E.
Warwick,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe,	52-18 N.	1-32 W.
Waterford,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe,	52-12 N.	7-16 W.
Wells,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe,	51-12 N.	2-40 W.
Westman Isles,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	63-20 N.	20-22 W.
Whitehaven,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe,	54-38 N.	3-36 W.
Whitfuntide Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia,	15-44 S.	168-25 E.
Williamsburg,	Virginia,	North	America,	37-12 N.	76-48 W.
Willis's Isles,	South Georgia,	Atlantic Ocean,	America,	54-00 S.	38-24 W.
Winchester,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe,	51-06 N.	1-15 W.
Wilna,	Lithuania,	Poland,	Europe,	54-41 N.	25-32 E.
Wittenburg,	Upper Saxony,	Germany,	Europe,	51-49 N.	12-46 E.
Wologda,	Wologda,	Russia,	Europe,	59-19 N.	41-50 E.
Worcester,	Worcestershire,	England,	Europe,	52-09 N.	1-55 W.
Worms,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe,	49-38 N.	8-05 E.
Wollak,		Russia,	Europe,	61-15 N.	42-20 E.
Wurtzburg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe,	49-46 N.	10-18 E.
<b>Y</b> armouth,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe,	52-45 N.	1-48 E.
York,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe,	53-59 N.	1-01 W.
York-minster,	Terra del Fu- ego,	South	America,	55-26 N.	70-03 W.

Greenwich Observatory, Kent, England, Europe, 51° 28' 40" N. 0° 5' 37" E. of St. Paul's, London.

A

# MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE;

The most **COPIOUS** and **AUTHENTIC** that ever was published, of the present State of the **REAL** and **IMAGINARY MONIES** of the **WORLD**.

Divided into Four Parts, viz.

## EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, AND AMERICA;

Which are subdivided into fifty-five Parts, containing the Names of the most Capital Places, the Species whereof are inserted, shewing how the Monies are reckoned by the respective Nations; and the Figures standing against the Denomination of each foreign Piece give the English intrinsic Value thereof, according to the best Assays made at the Mint of the **TOWER of LONDON**.

### E X P L A N A T I O N.

By real Money, is understood an effective Specie, representing in itself the Value denominated thereby, as a **GUINEA**, &c.

\* This Mark is prefixed to the imaginary Money, which is generally made Use of in keeping Accounts, signifying a fictitious Piece which is not in being, or which cannot be represented but by several other Pieces, as a **POUND STERLING**, &c.

All Fractions in the Value English are Parts of a **PENNY**.

= This Mark signifies, *is, make, or equal to*.

Note, for all the Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and Danish Dominions, either on the Continent, or in the West Indies, see the Monies of the respective Nations.

### ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

*London, Bristol, Liverpool, &c.*

*Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, &c.*

				£.	s.	d.	
Europe, Northern Parts.	A Farthing	==	- - - -	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
	2 Farthings	==	a Halfpenny	0	0	0	
	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 Sterling	1	0	0	
	21 Shillings	==	a Guinea	1	1	0	

EUROPE, Northern Parts.  
 \* Penny  
 8 Penny  
 2 Groat  
 6 Stiver  
 20 Stiver  
 2 Florin  
 60 Stiver  
 3 Florin  
 6 Guild  
 20 Florin  
 15 Florin  
 GERMANY.  
 \*  
 2  
 12  
 16  
 2  
 3  
 4  
 120

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

I R E L A N D.

*Dublin, Cork, Londonderry, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Farthing	==	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
2 Farthings	==	a Halfpenny	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Halfpence	==	*a Penny	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
6 $\frac{1}{2}$ Pence	==	a Half Shilling	0	0	6	
12 Pence	==	*a Shilling Irish	0	0	11	$\frac{1}{8}$
13 Pence	==	a Shilling	0	1	0	
65 Pence	==	a Crown	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	==	*a Pound Irish	0	18	5	$\frac{1}{4}$
22 Shillings $\frac{1}{2}$	==	a Guinea	1	1	0	

F L A N D E R S AND BRABANT.

*Ghent, Osend, &c. Antwerp, Brussels, &c.*

* A Pening	==	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{100}$
4 Penings	==	an Urche	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{25}$
8 Penings	==	*a Grote	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{25}$
2 Grotes	==	a Petard.	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{25}$
6 Petards	==	*a Scalin	0	0	5	$\frac{1}{10}$
7 Petards	==	a Scalin	0	0	6	$\frac{1}{10}$
40 Grotes	==	*a Florin	0	1	6	
17 $\frac{1}{2}$ Scalins	==	a Ducat	0	9	3	
240 Grotes	==	*a Pound Flemish	0	9	0	

H O L L A N D AND Z E A L A N D.

*Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburgh, Flushing, &c.*

* Pening	==	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{100}$
8 Penings	==	*a Grote	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{25}$
2 Grotes	==	a Stiver	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{25}$
6 Stivers	==	a Scalin	0	0	6	$\frac{1}{10}$
20 Stivers	==	a Guilder	0	1	9	
2 Florins, 10 Stivers	==	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
60 Stivers	==	a Dry Guilder	0	5	4	$\frac{1}{2}$
3 Florins, 3 Stivers	==	a Silver Ducatoon	0	5	8	$\frac{1}{2}$
6 Guilders	==	*a Pound Flemish	0	10	6	
20 Florins	==	a Gold Ducat, or Ducatoon	1	16	0	
15 Florins	==	a Ducatoon, another sort, called a Sovereign	1	7	0	

H A M B U R G, *Altena, Lubec, Bremen, &c.*

* A Tryling	==	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{100}$
2 Trylings	==	*a Sexling	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{50}$
2 Sexlings	==	a Fening	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{25}$
12 Fenings	==	a Shilling Lubec	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{25}$
16 Shillings	==	*a Marc	0	1	6	
2 Marcs	==	a Sletch-dollar	0	3	0	
3 Marcs	==	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
4 Marcs	==	a Silver Ducatoon	0	6	0	
120 Shillings	==	*a Pound Flemish	0	11	3	

GERMANY.

EUROPE, Northern Parts.  
GERMANY.

**HANOVER, Lüneburgh, Zell, &c.**

		£.	s.	d.	
* A Fening	=	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{16}$
3 Fenings	=	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{16}$
8 Fenings	=	0	0	1	$\frac{7}{16}$
12 Fenings	=	0	0	1	$\frac{7}{16}$
8 Grothen	=	0	1	2	$\frac{7}{16}$
16 Grothen	=	0	2	4	$\frac{7}{16}$
24 Grothen	=	0	3	6	$\frac{7}{16}$
32 Grothen	=	0	4	8	$\frac{7}{16}$
4 Guldens	=	0	9	2	$\frac{7}{16}$

**SAXONY AND HOLSTEIN.**  
*Dresden, Leipzig, &c. Wisnar, Keil, &c.*

* An Heller	=	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{16}$
2 Hellers	=	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{16}$
6 Hellers	=	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{16}$
16 Hellers	=	0	0	1	$\frac{7}{16}$
12 Fenings	=	0	0	1	$\frac{7}{16}$
16 Grothen	=	0	2	4	$\frac{7}{16}$
24 Grothen	=	0	3	6	$\frac{7}{16}$
32 Grothen	=	0	4	8	$\frac{7}{16}$
4 Goulds	=	0	9	4	$\frac{7}{16}$

**BRANDENBURGH AND POMERANIA.**  
*Berlin, Potsdam, &c. Stetin, &c.*

* Denier	=	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{16}$
9 Deniers	=	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{16}$
18 Deniers	=	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{16}$
3 Polchens	=	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{16}$
20 Grothen	=	0	0	9	$\frac{7}{16}$
30 Grothen	=	0	1	2	$\frac{7}{16}$
90 Grothen	=	0	3	6	$\frac{7}{16}$
108 Grothen	=	0	4	2	$\frac{7}{16}$
8 Florins	=	0	9	4	$\frac{7}{16}$

**COLOGN, Mentz, Triers, Liege, Munich, Munster, Paderbown, &c.**

A Dute	=	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{16}$
3 Dutes	=	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{16}$
2 Cruitzers	=	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{16}$
8 Dutes	=	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{16}$
3 Stivers	=	0	0	2	$\frac{7}{16}$
4 Plaperts	=	0	0	8	$\frac{7}{16}$
40 Stivers	=	0	2	4	$\frac{7}{16}$
2 Guilders	=	0	4	8	$\frac{7}{16}$
4 Guilders	=	0	9	4	$\frac{7}{16}$

EUROPE, Northern Parts.  
GERMANY.

A S  
3 Shell  
5 Grof  
3 Couf  
18 Groff  
30 Groff  
90 Groff  
8 Florin  
5 Rix-c

BOHEMIA, SILESIA, AND HUNGARY.

Prague, Breslau, Presburg, &c.

			l.	s.	d.	
A Fening	=	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{100}$
2 Fenings	=	a Dreyer	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{50}$
3 Fenings	=	a Grosh	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{33}$
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{25}$
2 Cruitzers	=	a White Grosh	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{11}$
62 Cruitzers	=	a Gould	0	2	4	
90 Cruitzers	=	*a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
2 Goulds	=	a Hard Dollar	0	4	8	
4 Goulds	=	a Ducat	0	9	4	

AUSTRIA AND SWABIA.

Vienna, Trieste, &c. Augsburg, Blenheim, &c.

			l.	s.	d.	
A Fening	=	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{100}$
2 Fenings	=	a Dreyer	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{50}$
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{25}$
14 Fenings	=	a Grosh	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{14}$
4 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{4}$
15 Batzen	=	a Gould	0	2	4	
90 Cruitzers	=	*a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
2 Florins	=	a Specie-dollar	0	4	6	
60 Batzen	=	a Ducat	0	9	4	

FRANCONIA, Franfort, Nuremberg, Dettingen, &c.

			l.	s.	d.	
A Fening	=	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{100}$
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{25}$
3 Cruitzers	=	a Keyfer Grosh	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{3}$
4 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{4}$
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, Koningberg, &c.

			l.	s.	d.	
A Shellon	=	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{100}$
3 Shellons	=	a Grosh	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{33}$
5 Groshen	=	a Couffic	0	0	2	$\frac{1}{5}$
3 Couffics	=	a Tinfé	0	0	7	
18 Groshen	=	an Ort	0	0	8	$\frac{1}{2}$
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	

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EUROPE, Northern Parts. GERMANY.

LIVONIA. <i>Riga, Revel, Narva, &amp;c.</i>				£.	s.	d.	
A Blacken	==			0	0	0	7
6 Blackens	==	a Groth	- - -	0	0	0	7
9 Blackens	==	a Vording	- - -	0	0	0	7
2 Grothen	==	a Whiten	- - -	0	0	0	7
6 Grothen	==	a Marc	- - -	0	0	2	17
30 Grothen	==	a Florin	- - -	0	1	2	7
90 Grothen	==	*a Rix-dollar	- - -	0	3	6	
108 Grothen	==	an Albertus	- - -	0	4	2	7
64 Whitens	==	a Copper-plate Dollar	- - -	0	5	0	

DENMARK, ZEALAND, AND NORWAY.							
<i>Copenhagen, Sound, &amp;c. Bergen, Drontheim, &amp;c.</i>							
A Skilling	==			0	0	0	10
6 Skillings	==	a Duggen	- - -	0	0	3	10
16 Skillings	==	*a Mark	- - -	0	0	9	10
20 Skillings	==	a Rix-mark	- - -	0	0	11	10
24 Skillings	==	a Rix-ort	- - -	0	1	1	10
4 Marcs	==	a Crown	- - -	0	3	0	10
6 Marcs	==	a Rix-dollar	- - -	0	4	6	10
11 Marcs	==	a Ducat	- - -	0	8	3	10
14 Marcs	==	a Haut Ducat	- - -	0	10	6	10

SWEDEN AND LAPLAND.							
<i>Stockholm, Upsal, &amp;c. Thorn, &amp;c.</i>							
* A Runfick	==			0	0	0	7
2 Runficks	==	a Stiver	- - -	0	0	0	7
8 Runficks	==	a Copper Marc	- - -	0	0	1	7
3 Copper Mares	==	a Silver Marc	- - -	0	0	4	7
4 Copper Mares	==	a Copper Dollar	- - -	0	0	6	7
9 Copper Mares	==	a Caroline	- - -	0	1	2	7
3 Copper Dollars	==	a Silver Dollar	- - -	0	1	6	7
3 Silver Dollars	==	a Rix-dollar	- - -	0	4	6	7
2 Rix-dollars	==	a Ducat	- - -	0	9	4	7

RUSSIA AND MUSCOVY.							
<i>Peterzburg, Archangel, &amp;c. Moscow, &amp;c.</i>							
A Polufca	==			0	0	0	27
2 Polufcas	==	a Denufca	- - -	0	0	0	27
2 Denufcas	==	*a Copec	- - -	0	0	0	27
3 Copecs	==	an Altin	- - -	0	0	0	27
10 Copecs	==	a Grivener	- - -	0	0	5	27
25 Copecs	==	a Polpotin	- - -	0	1	1	27
50 Copecs	==	a Poltin	- - -	0	2	3	27
100 Copecs	==	a Rubie	- - -	0	4	6	27
2 Rubles	==	a Xervonitz	- - -	0	9	0	27

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

SWITZERLAND.

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1  
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60  
108  
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EUROPE, Northern Parts.

SWITZERLAND.

BASIL. Zurich, Zug, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Rap	==	- - - -	0	0	0	1/2
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	6	

St. G A L L. Appenzel, &c.

An Heller	==	- - - -	0	0	0	1/2
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	1/2
5 Cruitzers	==	a Good Batzen	0	0	2	1/2
20 Sols	==	*a Livre	0	2	6	
60 Cruitzers	==	a Gould	0	2	6	
108 Cruitzers	==	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	

B E R N. Lucerne, Neuchatel, &c.

A Denier	==	- - - -	0	0	0	1/2
4 Deniers	==	a Cruitzer	0	0	0	1/2
3 Cruitzers	==	*a Sol	0	0	1	1/2
4 Cruitzers	==	a Plapert	0	0	1	1/2
5 Cruitzers	==	a Gros	0	0	2	1/2
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	

G E N E V A. Pekay, Bome, &c.

A Denier	==	- - - -	0	0	0	1/2
2 Deniers	==	a Denier current	0	0	0	1/2
12 Deniers	==	a Small Sol	0	0	0	1/2
12 Deniers current	==	a Sol current	0	0	0	1/2
12 Small Sols	==	*a Florin	0	0	4	1/2
20 Sols current	==	*a Livre current	0	1	3	1/2
10 1/2 Florins	==	a Patacon	0	3	11	1/2
15 1/2 Florins	==	a Croifauc	0	5	10	1/2
24 Florins	==	a Ducat	0	9	0	1/2

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## A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.

*Lille, Cambray, Valenciennes, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Denier	==	- - - -	0	0	0	1/20
12 Deniers	==	a Sol - - - -	0	0	0	1/20
15 Deniers	==	*a Patard - - - -	0	0	0	1/20
15 Patards	==	*a Piette - - - -	0	0	9	1/20
20 Sols	==	a Livre Tournois - - - -	0	0	10	1/20
20 Patards	==	*a Florin - - - -	0	1	0	1/20
60 Sols	==	an Ecu of Ex. - - - -	0	2	6	1/20
10½ Livres	==	a Ducat - - - -	0	9	3	1/20
24 Livres	==	a Louis d'Or - - - -	1	0	0	1/20

*Dunkirk, St. Omer, St. Quintin, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Denier	==	- - - -	0	0	0	1/20
12 Deniers	==	a Sol - - - -	0	0	0	1/20
15 Deniers	==	*a Patard - - - -	0	0	0	1/20
15 Sols	==	*a Piette - - - -	0	0	7	1/20
20 Sols	==	*a Livre Tournois - - - -	0	0	10	1/20
3 Livres	==	an Ecu of Ex. - - - -	0	2	6	1/20
24 Livres	==	a Louis d'Or - - - -	1	0	0	1/20
24 Livres	==	a Guinea - - - -	1	1	0	1/20
30½ Livres	==	a Moeda - - - -	1	7	0	1/20

*Paris, Lyons, Marfeilles, &c. Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Denier	==	- - - -	0	0	0	1/20
3 Deniers	==	a Liard - - - -	0	0	0	1/20
2 Liards	==	a Dardene - - - -	0	0	0	1/20
12 Deniers	==	a Sol - - - -	0	0	0	1/20
20 Sols	==	*a Livre Tournois - - - -	0	0	10	1/20
60 Sols	==	an Ecu of Ex. - - - -	0	2	6	1/20
6 Livres	==	an Ecu - - - -	0	5	0	1/20
10 Livres	==	*a Pistole - - - -	0	8	4	1/20
24 Livres	==	a Louis d'Or - - - -	1	0	0	1/20

PORTUGAL. *Lisbon, Oporto, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
* A Re	==	- - - -	0	0	0	1/20
10 Rez	==	a Half Vintin - - - -	0	0	0	1/20
20 Rez	==	a Vintin - - - -	0	0	1	1/20
5 Vintins	==	a Testoon - - - -	0	0	6	1/20
4 Testoons	==	a Cruzade of Ex. - - - -	0	2	3	1/20
24 Vintins	==	a New Cruzade - - - -	0	2	8	1/20
10 Testoons	==	*a Milre - - - -	0	5	7	1/20
48 Testoons	==	a Moldore - - - -	1	7	0	1/20
64 Testoons	==	a Johannes - - - -	1	16	0	1/20

EUROPE, Southern Parts.  
F. ASCE and NAVARRE.EUROPE, Southern Parts.  
SPAIN and CATALONIA.

ITALY.

16
2
16
20
21
22
24
60
12
4
30
20
5
115
6
20

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE. 1069

Madrid, Cadix, Seville, &c. New Plate.

			£.	s.	d.
A Maravedie	==	- - -	0	0	0
2 Maravedies	==	a Quartil - - -	0	0	0
54 Maravedies	==	a Rial - - -	0	0	5
2 Rials	==	a Pistarine - - -	0	0	10
8 Rials	==	•a Piafre of Ex. - - -	0	3	7
10 Rials	==	a Dollar - - -	0	4	6
375 Maravedies	==	•a Ducat of Ex. - - -	0	4	11
32 Rials	==	•a Pistole of Ex. - - -	0	14	4
36 Rials	==	a Pistole - - -	0	16	9

Gibraltar, Malaga, Denia, &c. Velon.

•A Maravedie	==	- - -	0	0	0
2 Maravedies	==	an Ochavo - - -	0	0	0
4 Maravedies	==	a Quartil - - -	0	0	0
34 Maravedies	==	•a Rial Velon - - -	0	0	2
15 Rials	==	•a Piafre of Ex. - - -	0	3	7
512 Maravedies	==	a Piafre - - -	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
16 Maravedies	==	a Soldo - - -	0	0	3
2 Soldos	==	a Rial Old Plate - - -	0	0	6
16 Soldos	==	•a Dollar - - -	0	4	6
20 Soldos	==	•a Libra - - -	0	5	7
21 Soldos	==	•a Ducat - - -	0	5	10
22 Soldos	==	•a Ducat - - -	0	6	2
24 Soldos	==	•a Ducat - - -	0	6	9
60 Soldos	==	a Pistole - - -	0	16	9

GENOA. Novi, St. Remo, &c.

CORSICA. Bastia, &c.

A Denaro	==	- - -	0	0	0
12 Denari	==	a Soldo - - -	0	0	0
4 Soldi	==	a Chevelet - - -	0	0	1
20 Soldi	==	•a Lire - - -	0	0	8
30 Soldi	==	a Testoon - - -	0	1	0
5 Lires	==	a Croffade - - -	0	3	7
115 Soldi	==	•a Pezzo of Ex. - - -	0	4	2
6 Testoons	==	a Genuine - - -	0	6	2
20 Lires	==	a Pistole - - -	0	14	4

EUROPE, Southern Parts. SPAIN and CATALONIA.

ITALY.

## A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.

## PIEDMONT, SAVOY AND SARDINIA.

*Turin, Chambery, Cagliari, &c.*

			l.	s.	d.	
A Denaro	==	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{20}$
3 Denari	==	a Quatrino	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{6}$
12 Denari	==	a Soldo	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
12 Soldi	==	a Florin	0	0	9	
20 Soldi	==	a Lire	0	1	3	
6 Florus	==	a Scudo	0	4	6	
7 Florus	==	a Ducatoon	0	5	3	
13 Lires	==	a Pistole	0	10	3	
16 Lires	==	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0	

*Milan, Modena, Parma, Pavia, &c.*

			l.	s.	d.	
A Denaro	==	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{20}$
3 Denari	==	a Quatrino	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{6}$
12 Denari	==	a Soldo	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
20 Soldi	==	a Lire	0	0	8	
115 Soldi	==	a Scudo current	0	4	2	
117 Soldi	==	a Scudo of Ex.	0	4	3	
6 Lires	==	a Philip	0	4	4	
22 Lires	==	a Pistole	0	16	0	
23 Lires	==	a Spanish Pistole	0	16	9	

*Leghorn, Florence, &c.*

			l.	s.	d.	
A Denaro	==	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{20}$
4 Denari	==	a Quatrino	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{5}$
32 Denari	==	a Soldo	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
5 Quatrini	==	a Craca	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{5}$
8 Granes	==	a Quillo	0	0	5	
20 Soldi	==	a Lire	0	0	8	
6 Lires	==	a Pintre of Ex.	0	4	2	
71 Lires	==	a Ducat	0	5	2	
22 Lires	==	a Pistole	0	15	6	

R O M E. *Civita Vecchia, Ancona, &c.*

			l.	s.	d.	
A Quatrino	==	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{20}$
5 Quatrini	==	a Bayec	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
8 Bayecs	==	a Julio	0	0	6	
10 Bayecs	==	a Stamp Julio	0	0	7	
24 Bayecs	==	a Telroon	0	1	6	
10 Julus	==	a Crown current	0	5	0	
12 Julus	==	a Crown Stamp	0	6	0	
18 Julus	==	a Chequin	0	9	0	
31 Julus	==	a Pistole	0	15	6	

EUROPE, Southern Parts.  
I T A L Y.EUROPE, Southern Parts.  
I T A L Y.

NAPLES. *Galeta, Capua, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Quatrino	==	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{12}$
3 Quatrini	==	a Grain	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
10 Grains	==	a Carlin	0	0	4	
40 Quatrini	==	a Paulo	0	0	5	$\frac{1}{3}$
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 Spanish Pistole	0	10	9	

SICILY AND MALTA. *Palermo, Messina, &c.*

A Picchilo	==	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
6 Picchili	==	a Grain	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
8 Picchili	==	a Ponti	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
10 Grains	==	a Carlin	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{10}$
20 Grains	==	a Tarin	0	0	3	$\frac{1}{10}$
6 Tarins	==	*a Florin of Ex.	0	1	6	$\frac{1}{10}$
13 Tarins	==	a Ducat of Ex.	0	3	4	
60 Carlins	==	*an Ounce	0	7	8	$\frac{1}{10}$
2 Ounces	==	a Pistole	0	15	4	

Bologna, Ravenna, &c.

A Quatrino	==	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
6 Quatrini	==	a Bayoc	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
10 Bayocs	==	a Julio	0	0	6	
20 Bayocs	==	*a Lire	0	1	0	
3 Julios	==	a Testoon	0	1	6	
85 Bayocs	==	a Scudo of Ex.	0	4	3	
100 Bayocs	==	a Crown	0	5	0	
105 Bayocs	==	a Ducatoon	0	5	3	
31 Julios	==	a Pistole	0	15	6	

VENICE. *Bergamo, &c.*

A Piccolo	==	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
12 Piccoli	==	a Soldo	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
64 Soldi	==	*a Gros	0	0	2	$\frac{1}{10}$
18 Soldi	==	a Jule	0	0	6	
20 Soldi	==	*a Lire	0	0	6	$\frac{1}{10}$
3 Jules	==	a Testoon	0	1	6	
124 Soldi	==	a Ducat current	0	3	5	$\frac{1}{10}$
24 Gros	==	*a Ducat of Ex.	0	4	4	
17 Lires	==	a Chequin	0	9	2	

TURKEY. *Moraa, Candia, Cyprus, &c.*

EUROPE. S. Parts.			£.	s.	d.	
	A Mangar		-	-	-	0 0 0
4	Mangars		an Aspet	-	-	0 0 0
3	Aspers		a Parac	-	-	0 0 1
5	Aspers		a Bellic	-	-	0 0 3
10	Aspers		an Ollic	-	-	0 0 6
20	Aspers		a Solota	-	-	0 1 0
80	Aspers		*a Piatre	-	-	0 4 0
100	Aspers		a Caragrouch	-	-	0 5 0
10	Solotas		a Xeriff	-	-	0 10 0

ARABIA. *Medina, Mecca, Mocha, &c.*

	A Carret		-	-	-	0 0 0
5	Carrets		a Caveer	-	-	0 0 0
7	Carrets		*a Comathee	-	-	0 0 0
80	Carrets		a Larin	-	-	0 0 10
18	Comathees		an Abyfs	-	-	0 1 4
60	Comathees		*a Piatre	-	-	0 4 6
80	Caveers		a Dollar	-	-	0 4 6
100	Comathees		a Sequin	-	-	0 7 6
80	Larins		*a Tomond	-	-	3 7 6

PERSIA. *Ispahan, Ormus, Gombroon, &c.*

	A Coz		-	-	-	0 0 0
4	Coz		a Bifti	-	-	0 0 1
10	Coz		a Shuhee	-	-	0 0 4
20	Coz		a Mamooda	-	-	0 0 8
25	Coz		a Larin	-	-	0 0 10
4	Shahces		an Abathee	-	-	0 1 4
5	Abathees		an Or	-	-	0 6 8
12	Abathees		a Bovello	-	-	0 16 0
50	Abathees		*a Tomond	-	-	3 6 8

GUZURAT. *Surat, Cambay, &c.*

	A Peeka		-	-	-	0 0 0
2	Peekas		a Pice	-	-	0 0 0
4	Pices		a Fanam	-	-	0 0 1
5	Pices		a Viz	-	-	0 0 2
16	Pices		an Ana	-	-	0 0 7
4	Anas		a Rupee	-	-	0 2 6
2	Rupees		an English Crown	-	-	0 5 0
14	Anas		a Pagoda	-	-	0 8 9
4	Pagodas		a Gold Rupee	-	-	1 15 0

A S I A.  
MOON.

† Major Ren calculating round is equal to a mil

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE. 1073

ASIA.	MALABAR.	<i>Rombay, Dabul, &amp;c.</i>		L.	s.	d.	
		• Budbrook	==	.	0	0	0
		2 Budbrooks	==	a Re	0	0	0
		5 Rez	==	a Pice	0	0	0
		16 Pices	==	a Laree	0	0	5
		20 Pices	==	a Quarter	0	0	6
		240 Rez	==	a Xeraphim	0	1	4
		4 Quarters	==	a Rupee	0	1	3
		14 Quarters	==	a Pagoda	0	8	0
		60 Quarters	==	a Gold Rupee	1	15	0
		<i>Goa, Vijapur, &amp;c.</i>					
		• A Re	==	0	0	0	
		1 Rez	==	a Bazaraco	0	0	0
		2 Bazaracos	==	a Pecka	0	0	0
		20 Rez	==	a Vintin	0	0	1
		4 Vintins	==	a Laree	0	0	5
		3 Larees	==	a Xeraphim	0	1	4
		43 Vintins	==	a Tangu	0	4	6
		4 Tangus	==	a Paru	0	18	0
		8 Tangus	==	a Gold Rupee	1	15	0
		<b>COROMANDEL.</b> <i>Madras, Pondicherry, &amp;c.</i>					
		A Cash	==	.	0	0	0
		5 Cash	==	a Viz	0	0	0
		2 Viz	==	a Pice	0	0	0
		6 Pices	==	a Pical	0	0	1
		8 Pices	==	a Fanam	0	0	3
		10 Fanams	==	a Rupee	0	2	6
		2 Rupees	==	an English Crown	0	5	0
		36 Fanams	==	a Pagoda	0	8	9
		4 Pagodas	==	a Gold Rupee	1	15	0
		<b>BENGAL.</b> <i>Calicut, Calcutta, &amp;c.</i>					
		A Pice	==	.	0	0	0
		4 Pices	==	a Fanam	0	0	0
		6 Pices	==	a Viz	0	0	0
		12 Pices	==	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 English Crown	0	5	0
		56 Anas	==	a Pagoda.	0	8	9

† Major Rennell informs us that we may with ease reduce any large sum in rupees, to sterling, by calculating roundly, at the rate of a lack of rupees to ten thousand pounds; and that a crore of rupees is equal to a million sterling. Introd. p. cxvii. and cxviii.

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.

SIAM. *Pegu, Malacca, Cambodia, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Cori	==	- - - -	0	0	0	
10 Cori	==	a Fettee	0	0	0	7 1/2
125 Fettees	==	a Sataleer	0	0	0	7 1/2
250 Fettees	==	a Sooco	0	0	1	3
500 Fettees	==	a Tical	0	2	0	6
900 Fettees	==	a Dollar	0	4	0	6
2 Ticals	==	a Rial	0	5	0	0
4 Soocos	==	an Ecu	0	5	0	0
8 Sataleers	==	a Crown	0	5	0	0

CHINA. *Peking, Canton, &c.*

A Caxa	==	- - - -	0	0	0	
10 Caxa	==	a Candereen	0	0	0	7 1/2
10 Candereens	==	a Mace	0	0	0	8
35 Candereens	==	a Rupee	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	==	a Dollar	0	4	6	
70 Candereens	==	a Rix-dollar	0	4	4	7 1/2
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	7 1/2
15 Maces	==	an Ounce Silver	0	4	10	7 1/2
20 Maces	==	a Tale	0	6	8	
30 Maces	==	an Ingot	0	9	8	
13 Ounces Silver	==	an Ounce Gold	3	3	0	7 1/2
2 Ounces Gold	==	a Japanefe	6	6	0	
2 Japanefes	==	a Double	12	12	0	
21 Ounces Gold	==	*a Cattee	66	?	0	

EGYPT. *Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.*

An Asper	==	- - - -	0	0	0	
3 Aspers	==	a Medin	0	0	1	7 1/2
24 Medins	==	an Italian Ducat	0	3	4	
80 Aspers	==	*a Piafre	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 Dollar	0	10	0	

AFRICA.

3  
10  
2  
4  
14  
30  
180  
15

AMERICA.  
WEST INDIES.

\* A  
2 H  
7 1/2 P  
12 Pe  
75 Pe  
7 Shi  
20 Shi  
24 Shi  
30 Shi

\* A H  
2 Half  
7 Sols  
15 Sols  
20 Sols  
7 Livre  
8 Livre  
26 Livre  
32 Livre

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.

1075

BARBARY. *Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Una, &c.*

		£.	s.	d.	
	An Asper	=	-	-	-
3	Aspers	=	a Medin	-	-
10	Aspers	=	a Rial old Plate	-	-
2	Rials	=	a Double	-	-
4	Doubles	=	a Dollar	-	-
14	Medins	=	a Silver Chequin	-	-
30	Medins	=	a Dollar	-	-
180	Aspers	=	a Zequin	-	-
15	Doubles	=	a Pistole	-	-

AFRICA.

MOROCCO. *Santa Cruz, Mequinez, Fez, Tangiers, Sallee, &c.*

	A Fluce	=	-	-	-
24	Fluces	=	a Blanquil	-	-
4	Blanquils	=	an Ounce	-	-
7	Blanquils	=	an Octavo	-	-
14	Blanquils	=	a Quarto	-	-
2	Quartos	=	a Medio	-	-
28	Blanquils	=	a Dollar	-	-
54	Blanquils	=	a Xequin	-	-
100	Blanquils	=	a Pistole	-	-

ENGLISH. *Jamaica, Barbadoes, &c.*

	* A Halfpenny	=	-	-	-
2	Halfpence	=	* a Penny	-	-
7½	Pence	=	a Bit	-	-
12	Pence	=	* a Shilling	-	-
75	Pence	=	a Dollar	-	-
7	Shillings	=	a Crown	-	-
20	Shillings	=	* a Pound	-	-
24	Shillings	=	a Pistole	-	-
30	Shillings	=	a Guinea	-	-

AMERICA.  
WEST INDIES.

FRENCH. *St. Domingo, Martinco, &c.*

	* A Half Sol	=	-	-	-
2	Half Sols	=	* a Sol	-	-
7½	Sols	=	a Half Scalin	-	-
15	Sols	=	a Scalin	-	-
20	Sols	=	* a Livre	-	-
7	Livres	=	a Dollar	-	-
8	Livres	=	an Ecu	-	-
20	Livres	=	a Pistole	-	-
32	Livres	=	a Louis d'Or	-	-

AMERICA.  
CONTINENT.

The COINS of the UNITED STATES, as established by law, are

GOLD COINS.			
	Dollars.		
Eagles, value each	10	}	containing
Half Eagles	5		
Quarter Eagles	$2\frac{1}{2}$		
			}
			or
		Grains of fine Gold.	Grains of Standard d <sup>o</sup> .
		247 $\frac{1}{2}$	270
		123 $\frac{1}{2}$	135
		61 $\frac{1}{2}$	67 $\frac{1}{2}$

SILVER COINS.			
Dollars	-	}	containing
Half Dollars	-		
Quarter Dollars	-		
Dimes	-		
Half Dimes	-		}
			or
		Grains of pure Silver.	Grains of Standard d <sup>o</sup> .
		371 $\frac{1}{8}$	416
		185 $\frac{1}{8}$	208
		92 $\frac{1}{8}$	104
		37 $\frac{1}{8}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$
		18 $\frac{1}{8}$	20 $\frac{1}{4}$

COPPER COINS.			
Cent	-	}	value each
Half Cent	-		
			}
			containing
		1—100 <sup>th</sup> of a dollar	Grains of Copper.
		1—200 <sup>th</sup> ditto	208
			104

The following devices are to be engraven on the respective coins, viz. on one side of them an impresson emblematic of liberty, with an inscription of the word LIBERTY, and the year of the coinage; and, on the reverse of each of the gold and silver coins, the figure of an eagle, with the inscription, UNITED STATES OF AMERICA: on the copper, an inscription, expressing its denomination and value.

*Canada, Florida, Cayenne, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
* A Denier	≡	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
12 Deniers	≡	* a Sol	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
20 Sols	≡	* a Livre	0	0	10	
3 Livres	≡	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6	
6 Livres	≡	an Ecu	0	5	0	
10 Livres	≡	a Pistole	0	8	4	

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.

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A

# NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

REMARKABLE EVENTS, DISCOVERIES, AND INVENTIONS,

ALSO,

The **ÆRA**, the **COUNTRY**, and **WRITINGS** of **LEARNED MEN**:

The whole comprehending, in one View, the Analysis or Outlines of  
General History, from the Creation to the present Time.

*Ref. Christ.*

- 4004** **T**HE creation of the world, and Adam and Eve.  
**4003** The birth of Cain, the first who was born of a woman.  
**3017** Enoch, for his piety, is translated to Heaven.  
**2348** The old world is destroyed by a deluge, which continued 377 days.  
**2247** The Tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's posterity; upon which, God miraculously confounds their language, and thus disperses them into different nations.  
About the same time, Noah is, with great probability, supposed to have parted from his rebellious offspring, and to have led a colony of some of the more tractable into the East, and there either he or one of his successors to have founded the ancient Chinese monarchy.  
**2234** Celestial observations are begun at Babylon, the city which first gave birth to learning and the sciences.  
**2188** Misraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which lasted 1663 years, down to its conquest by Cambyfes, in 525 before Christ.  
**2059** Ninus, the son of Belus, founds the kingdom of Assyria, which lasted above 1000 years; and out of its ruins were formed the Assyrians of Babylon, those of Nineveh, and the kingdom of the Medes.  
**1921** The covenant of God made with Abram, when he leaves Haran to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years of sojourning.  
**1897** The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are destroyed for their wickedness, by fire from Heaven.  
**1856** The kingdom of Argos, in Greece, begins under Inachus.  
**1822** Memnon, the Egyptian, invents letters.  
**1715** Prometheus first struck fire from flint.  
**1635** Joseph dies in Egypt; which concludes the book of Genesis, containing a period of 2369 years.  
**1574** Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God first high-priest of the Israelites.  
**1571** Moses, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter, who educates him in all the learning of the Egyptians.  
**1556** Ccerops brings a colony of Saïtes from Egypt into Attica, and begins the kingdom of Athens, in Greece.

1546 Scamander

- 1546 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and begins the kingdom of Troy.  
 1493 Cadmus carried the Phœnician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.  
 1491 Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with 600,000 Israelites, besides children; which completed the 430 years of sojourning. They miraculously pass through the Red Sea, and come to the desert of Sinai, where Moses receives from God, and delivers to the people, the Ten Commandments, and the other laws, and sets up the tabernacle, and in it the ark of the covenant.  
 1485 The first ship that appeared in Greece was brought from Egypt by Danaus, who arrived at Rhodes, and brought with him his fifty daughters.  
 1453 The first Olympic games celebrated at Olympia, in Greece.  
 1452 The Pentateuch, or five first books of Moses, are written in the land of Moab, where he died the year following, aged 120.  
 1451 The Israelites, after sojourning in the wilderness forty years, are led under Joshua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themselves, after having subdued the natives; and the period of the sabbatical year commences.  
 1406 Iron is found in Greece, from the accidental burning of the woods.  
 1372 The Milesians arrived from Spain into Ireland.  
 1263 Argonautic expedition.  
 1198 The rape of Helen by Paris, which, in 1293, gave rise to the Trojan war, and siege of Troy by the Greeks, which continued ten years, when that city was taken and burnt.  
 1048 David is sole king of Israel.  
 1004 The Temple is solemnly dedicated by Solomon.  
 896 Elijah, the prophet, is translated to Heaven.  
 894 Money first made of gold and silver at Argos.  
 869 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by queen Dido.  
 814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.  
 786 Trireme galleys invented by the Corinthians.  
 776 The first Olympiad begins.  
 753 Æra of the building of Rome in Italy by Romulus, first king of the Romans.  
 720 Samaria taken, after three years siege, and the kingdom of Israel finished, by Salmanassar, king of Assyria, who carries the ten tribes into captivity.  
 The first eclipse of the moon on record.  
 658 Byzantium (now Constantinople) built by a colony of Athenians.  
 604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, some Phœnicians sailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.  
 600 Thales, of Miletus, travels into Egypt, consults the priests of Memphis, acquires the knowledge of geometry, astronomy, and philosophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipses, gives general notions of the universe, and maintains that one supreme intelligence regulates all its motions.  
 Maps, globes, and the signs of the Zodiac, invented by Anaximander, the scholar of Thales.  
 597 Jehoiakin, king of Judah, is carried away captive, by Nebuchadnezzar, to Babylon.  
 587 The city of Jerusalem taken, after a siege of 18 months.  
 502 The first comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable scaffold.  
 559 Cyrus, the first king of Persia.  
 538 The kingdom of Babylon finished; that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, issues an edict for the return of the Jews.  
 534 The first tragedy was acted at Athens, on a waggon, by Theſpis.  
 526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library first founded.  
 515 The second temple at Jerusalem is finished under Darius.  
 509 Tarquin, the seventh and last king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two consuls, and other republican magistrates, till the battle of Pharsalia,—being a space of 461 years.  
 504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave occasion to the Persian invasion of Greece.  
 486 Æschylus, the Greek poet, first gains the prize of tragedy.  
 481 Xerxes the Great, king of Persia, begins his expedition against Greece.  
 458 Ezra is sent from Babylon to Jerusalem, with the captive Jews and the vessels of gold and silver, &c. being seventy weeks of years, or 490 years before the crucifixion of our Saviour.  
 454 The Romans send to Athens for Solon's laws.

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## A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

1079

- 451 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the Twelve Tables compiled and ratified.
- 430 The history of the Old Testament finishes about this time.
- 401 Retreat of 10,000 Greeks under Xenophon.
- 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy among the Greeks, believes the immortality of the soul, and a state of rewards, and punishments; for which, and other sublime doctrines, he is put to death by the Athenians, who soon after repent, and erect to his memory a statue of brass.
- 398 Catapults invented by Dionysius.
- 379 The Boeotian war commences in Greece, and finishes in 366, after the death of Epaminondas, the last of the Grecian heroes. After his death, Philip, brother to the king of Macedonia, who had been educated under him, privately set out for that country, seized the liberty of the Greeks by the battle of Cheronæa.
- 336 Philip, king of Macedon, murdered, and succeeded by his son Alexander the Great.
- 332 Alexandria in Egypt built.
- 331 Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius, king of Persia, and other nations of Asia.
- 323 Dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms, after destroying his wives, children, brother, and sisters.
- 291 Darkness at Rome at noon-day.
- 290 Solar quadrants introduced at Rome.
- 285 Dionysius of Alexandria began his astronomical work on Monday June 26, being the first who found the exact solar year to consist of 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes.
- 284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs seventy-two interpreters to translate the Old Testament into the Greek language; which translation is called the Septuagint.
- 269 The first coinage of silver at Rome.
- 264 The first Punic war begins, and continues 23 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marbles composed.
- 260 The Romans first concern themselves in naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at sea.
- 237 Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, causes his son Hannibal, at nine years old, to swear eternal enmity to the Romans.
- 218 The second Punic war begins, and continues 17 years. Hannibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles; but, being amused by his women, does not improve his victories by the storming of Rome.
- 190 The first Roman army enters Asia, and from the spoils of Antioch, brings the Asiatic luxury first to Rome.
- 170 Eighty thousand Jews massacred by Antiochus Epiphanes.
- 168 Perseus defeated by the Romans; which ends the Macedonian kingdom.
- 167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.
- 163 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins, and continues 126 years.
- 146 Carthage, the rival of Rome, is razed to the ground by the Romans.
- 145 An hundred thousand inhabitants of Antioch massacred in one day by the Jews.
- 135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.
- 25 Colchester built.
- 65 Catiline's conspiracy against the liberties of his country detected.
- 52 Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain.
- 47 The battle of Pharsalia between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated.
- The Alexandrine library, consisting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
- 45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself.
- The solar year introduced by Cæsar.
- 44 Cæsar, the greatest of the Roman conquerors, after having fought fifty pitched battles, and slain 1,192,000 men, and overturned the liberties of his country, is killed in the senate-house.
- 43 Brutus, one of the conspirators against Cæsar, and chief of the republicans, being vanquished in the battle of Philippi, kills himself.
- 41 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Antony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæsar.
- 30 Alexandria, in Egypt, is taken by Octavius; upon which Antony and Cleopatra put themselves to death; and Egypt is reduced to a Roman province.

27 Octavius,

- 27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus Cæsar, and an absolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the first Roman emperor.
- 28 Coin first used in Britain.
- 8 Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms.
- The temple of Janus is shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace; and JESUS CHRIST is supposed to have been born on Monday December 25, but, according to many, in September, during the Jewish feast of Tabernacles.

## A. C.

- 12 Christ hearing the Doctors in the Temple, and asking them questions\*.
- 17 ----- is baptised in the wilderness.
- 33 JESUS CHRIST is crucified on Friday, April 3, at 3 o'clock P. M.
- His Resurrection on Sunday, April 5; his Ascension, Thursday, May 14.
- 36 St. Paul converted.
- 39 St. Matthew writes his Gospel.
- Pontius Pilate kills himself.
- 40 The name of Christians first given at Antioch to the followers of Christ.
- 43 Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain.
- 44 St. Mark writes his Gospel.
- 49 London is founded by the Romans; 368, surrounded by them with a wall, some parts of which are still observable.
- 51 Caractacus, the British king, is carried in chains to Rome.
- 52 The council of the apostles at Jerusalem.
- 55 St. Luke writes his Gospel.
- 59 The emperor Nero puts his mother and brothers to death.
- persecutes the Druids in Britain.
- 61 Boadicea, the British queen, defeats the Romans; but is conquered soon after by Suetonius, governor of Britain.
- 62 St. Paul is sent in bonds to Rome; writes his Epistles between 51 and 66.
- 63 The Acts of the Apostles written.
- Christianity is supposed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or some of his disciples, about this time.
- 64 Rome set on fire, and burned for six days; upon which began (under Nero) the first persecution against the Christians.
- 67 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
- 70 Whilst the factious Jews are destroying one another with mutual fury, Titus, the Roman general, takes Jerusalem, which is razed to the ground, and the plough made to pass over it.
- 79 Herculaneum overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius.
- 83 The philosophers expelled Rome by Domitian.
- 85 Julius Agricola, governor of South-Britain, to protect the civilised Britons from the incursions of the Caledonians, builds a line of forts between the rivers Forth and Clyde; defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus on the Grampian hills; and first sails round Britain, which he discovers to be an island.
- 96 St. John the Evangelist wrote his Revelation,—his Gospel in 97.
- 121 The Caledonians reconquer from the Romans all the southern parts of Scotland; upon which the emperor Adrian builds a wall between Newcastle and Carlisle; but this also proving ineffectual, Pollius Urbicus, the Roman general, about the year 144, repairs Agricola's forts, which he joins by a wall four yards thick, since called Antoninus's wall.
- 135 The second Jewish war ends, when they were all banished Judea.
- 139 Justin writes his first Apology for the Christians.
- 140 Dublin built.
- 141 A number of heresies appear about this time.
- 152 The emperor Antoninus Pius stops the persecution against the Christians.

\* "I have often thought (says a judicious commentator) that it is a great injury to the character of our blessed Redeemer, to represent his story, whether in pictures or words, as if Christ, at his tender age, went up into the seats of the doctors and there disputed with them. Not one word is said

of his disputing by the evangelist, but only of his hearing them and asking them questions, which was a very useful thing in these assemblies, and indeed the very end of them. All was conducted with the utmost modesty and decorum."

- 211 Gold and silver coin first used in Scotland.  
The emperor Severus, after having conquered the Scots, and pent them up by a new wall between the Forth of Clyde (since called Graham's Dyke), having also conquered the Parthians in the East, and extended the Roman empire to its utmost bounds, dies at York.
- 217 The Septuagint said to be found in a cask.
- 222 About this time the Roman empire begins to sink under its own weight. The barbarians begin their inroads, and the Goths receive tribute not to molest the empire.
- 260 Valerian is taken prisoner by Sapor, king of Persia, and slayed alive.
- 274 Silk first brought from India; the manufacture of it introduced into Europe by some monks, 551; first worn by the clergy of England, 1534.
- 291 Two emperors and two Cæsars march to defend the four quarters of the empire.
- 306 Constantine the Great begins his reign.
- 308 Cardinals first created.
- 313 The tenth persecution ends by an edict of Constantine, who favours the Christians, and gives full liberty to their religion.
- 314 Three bishops, or fathers, are sent from Britain to assist at the council of Arles.
- 325 The first general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended, against Arius, where was composed the famous Nicene Creed.
- 338 Constantine removes the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is from that time called Constantinople.
- 331 Constantine orders all the heathen temples to be destroyed.
- 363 The Roman Emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem.
- 364 The Roman empire is divided into the eastern (Constantinople the capital) and western (of which Rome continued to be the capital), each being now under the government of different emperors.
- 400 Bells introduced by bishop Paulinus.
- 404 The kingdom of Caledonia or Scotland revives under Fergus.
- 406 The Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, spread into France and Spain, by a concession of Honorius, emperor of the West.
- 410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Visigoths.
- 412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.
- 420 The kingdom of France begins upon the Lower Rhine under Pharamond.
- 426 The Romans, reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return; advising the Britons to arm in their own defence, and trust to their own valour.
- 446 The Britons, now left to themselves, are greatly harrassed by the Scots and Picts; upon which they once more make their complaint to the Romans, but receive no assistance from that quarter.
- 447 Attila (surnamed the Scourge of God), with his Huns, ravages the Roman empire.
- 449 Vortigern, king of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain, against the Scots and Picts.
- 455 The Saxons, having repulsed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to establish themselves in Kent, under Hengist.
- 476 The western empire is entirely destroyed, 523 years after the battle of Pharsalia; upon the ruins of which several new states arise in Italy and other parts, consisting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, under whom literature is extinguished, and the works of the learned are destroyed.
- 496 Clovis, king of France, baptised, and Christianity begins in that kingdom.
- 508 Prince Arthur begins his reign over the Britons.
- 513 Constantinople besieged by Vitalianus, whose fleet is burned by a speculum of brass.
- 516 The computing of time by the Christian æra is introduced by Dionysius the monk.
- 529 The code of Justinian, the eastern emperor, is published.
- 557 A terrible plague all over Europe, Asia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.
- 581 Latin ceased to be spoken about this time in Italy.
- 596 Augustine the monk comes into England with forty monks.
- 606 Here begins the power of the popes, by the concessions of Phocas, emperor of the East.
- 622 Mahomet, a false prophet, flies from Mecca to Medina, in Arabia, in the 54th year of his age, and roth of his minority, when he laid the foundation of the Saracene empire, and from whom the Mahometan princes to this day claim their descent. His followers compute

- pute their time from this era, which in Arabic is called Hegira, i. e. the Flight.
- 637 Jerusalem is taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.
- 640 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by them, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omar, their caliph or prince.
- 653 The Saracens now extend their conquests on every side, and retaliate the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity.
- 664 Gifts introduced into England by Benalt, a monk.
- 685 The Britons, after a brave struggle of near 150 years, are totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
- 713 The Saracens conquer Spain.
- 720 The controversy about images begins, and occasions many insurrections in the eastern empire.
- 748 The computing of years from the birth of Christ began to be used in history.
- 749 The race of Abbas become caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.
- 762 The city of Bagdad, upon the Tigris, is made the capital for the caliphs of the house of Abbas.
- 800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the Western empire; and endeavours to restore learning in Europe; but mankind are not yet disposed for it, being solely engrossed by military enterprises.
- 826 Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his subjects, for being a Christian.
- 828 Egbert, king of Wessex, unites the Heptarchy by the name of England.
- 836 The Flemings trade to Scotland for fish.
- 838 The Scots and Picts have a decisive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kenneth; which begins the second period of the Scottish history.
- 867 The Danes begin their ravages in England.
- 871 The springs at Bath first discovered.
- 886 Juries first instituted.
- 896 Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders (against whom he fought 56 battles by sea and land), composes his body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; erects county courts, and founds the university of Oxford about this time.
- 915 The university of Cambridge founded.
- 936 The Saracen empire is divided by usurpation into seven kingdoms.
- 975 Pope Boniface VII. is deposed and banished for his crimes.
- 979 Coronation oaths said to be first used in England.
- 991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens from Arabia. Letters of the alphabet were hitherto used.
- 996 Otto III. makes the empire of Germany elective.
- 999 Boleslaus, the first king of Poland.
- 1000 Paper made of cotton rags was in use; that of linen rags in 1170: the manufactory introduced into England at Dartford, 1588.
- 1005 All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new manner of architecture.
- 1015 Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England.
- 1017 Canute, king of Denmark, gets possession of England.
- 1040 The Danes, after several engagements with various success, are about this time driven out of Scotland, and never again return in a hostile manner.
- 1041 The Saxon line restored under Edward the Confessor.
- 1043 The Turks (a nation of adventurers from Tartary, serving hitherto in the armies of contending princes) become formidable, and take possession of Persia.
- 1054 Leo IX. the first pope that kept up an army.
- 1057 Malcolm III. king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Duninane, and marries the princess Margaret, sister to Edgar Atheling.
- 1065 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
- 1066 The battle of Hastings fought, between Harold and William (surnamed the Bastard), duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and slain; after which William becomes king of England.
- 1070 William introduces the feudal law.
- Musical notes invented.
- 1075 Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and the pope, quarrel about the nomination of the German

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- German bishops. Henry, in penance, walks bare-footed to the pope, towards the end of January.
- 1076 Justices of the peace first appointed in England.
- 1085 Doomday-book began to be compiled by order of William, from a survey of all the estates in England, and finished in 1086.
- The Tower of London built by ditto, to curb his English subjects; numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduced the Saxon or English language, were protected by Malcolm, and had lands given them.
- 1091 The Saracens in Spain, being hard pressed by the Spaniards, call to their assistance Joseph, king of Morocco; by which the Moors get possession of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
- 1096 The first crusade to the Holy Land is begun under several Christian princes, to drive the infidels from Jerusalem.
- 1107 King's speech first delivered by Henry I.
- 1110 Godwin Sands formed by the sea overflowing 4000 acres belonging to earl Godwin of Kent.
- Edgar Atheling, the last of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reside as a subject.
- Learning revived in Cambridge.
- 1118 The order of the Knights Templars instituted, to defend the sepulchre at Jerusalem, and to protect Christian strangers.
- 1140 King Stephen grants liberty to his nobles to build castles; in consequence of which 1100 were erected in 14 years.
- 1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
- 1163 London bridge, consisting of 19 small arches, first built of stone.
- 1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights begins in Germany.
- 1172 Henry II. king of England (and first of the Plantagenets) takes possession of Ireland, which from that period has been governed by an English viceroy, or lord lieutenant.
- 1176 England is divided, by Henry, into six circuits, and justice is dispensed by itinerant judges.
- 1180 Glass windows began to be used in private houses in England.
- 1181 The laws of England are digested about this time by Glanville.
- 1181 Pope Alexander III. compelled the kings of England and France to hold the stirrups of his saddle when he mounted his horse.
- 1186 The great conjunction of the sun and moon and all the planets in Libra, happened in September.
- 1192 The battle of Ascalon, in Judea, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladin's army, consisting of 300,000 combatants.
- 1194 *Dieu et mon Droit* first used as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.
- 1200 Chimnies were not known in England.
- Surnames now began to be used; first among the nobility.
- 1208 London incorporated, and obtained their first charter for electing their lord mayor, and other magistrates, from king John.
- 1215 Magna Charta is signed by king John and the barons of England.
- Court of common pleas established.
- 1227 The Tartars, a new race of heroes, under Gengis-Kan, emerge from the northern parts of Asia, over-run all the Saracenic empire; and, in imitation of former conquerors, carry death and desolation wherever they march.
- 1233 The inquisition, begun in 1204, is now trusted to the Dominicans.
- The houses of London, and other cities of England, France, and Germany, still thatched with straw.
- 1253 The famous astronomical tables are composed by Alphonso, king of Castile.
- 1258 The Tartars take Bagdad; which finishes the empire of the Saracens.
- 1263 Acho, king of Norway, invades Scotland, with 160 sail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, who are cut to pieces by Alexander III. who recovers the western isles.
- 1264 According to some writers, the commons of England were not summoned to parliament till this period.
- 1269 The Hamburg company incorporated in England.
- 1273 The empire of the present Austrian family begins in Germany.

- 1282 Lewellyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed by Edward I. who unites that principality to England.
- 1284 Edward II. born at Carnarvon, is the first prince of Wales.
- 1285 Alexander III. king of Scotland, dies, and that kingdom is disputed by 12 candidates, who submit their claims to the arbitration of Edward, king of England; which lays the foundation of a long and desolating war between both nations.
- 1293 There is a regular succession of English parliaments from this year, being the 22d of Edward I.
- 1298 The present Turkish empire begins in Bithynia under Ottoman.  
Silver-hafted knives, spoons, and cups, a great luxury.  
Tallow candles so great a luxury, that splinters of wood were used for lights.  
Wine sold by apothecaries as a cordial.
- 1302 The mariner's compass invented, or improved, by Giviva, of Naples. The flower de luce, the arms of the duke of Anjou, then king of Naples, was placed by him at the point of the needle, in compliment to that prince.
- 1307 The beginning of the Swiss cantons.  
Interest of money in England at 4s per cent.
- 1308 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
- 1310 Lincoln's Inn society established.
- 1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert Bruce, which establishes the latter on the throne of Scotland.  
The cardinals set fire to the conclave and separate. A vacancy in the papal chair for two years.
- 1336 Two Brabant weavers settle at York, which, says Edward III. may prove of great benefit to us and our subjects.
- 1337 The first comet whose course is described with an astronomical exactness.
- 1340 Gunpowder and guns first invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologne; 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Créilly; 1346, bombs and mortars were invented.  
Oil painting first made use of by John Vanneck.  
Heralds' college instituted in England.
- 1344 The first creation to titles by patent used by Edward III.  
Gold first coined in England.
- 1346 The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scots is taken prisoner.
- 1349 The Order of the Garter instituted in England by Edward III. altered in 1557, and consists of 26 knights.
- 1352 The Turks first enter Europe.
- 1354 The money in Scotland till now the same as in England.
- 1356 The battle of Poitiers, in which king John of France and his son are taken prisoners by Edward the Black Prince.
- 1357 Coals first brought to London.
- 1358 Arms of England and France first quartered by Edward III.
- 1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to English, as a favour of Edward III. to his people.  
John Wickliffe, an Englishman, begins about this time to oppose the errors of the church of Rome with great acuteness and spirit. His followers are called Lollards.
- 1386 A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands established in London.  
Windsor castle built by Edward III.
- 1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotspur and the earl of Douglas; on this is founded the ballad of Chevy Chase.
- 1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amusement.
- 1399 Westminster Abbey rebuilt and enlarged—Westminster-hall ditto.  
Order of the Bath instituted at the coronation of Henry IV. renewed 1725; consisting of 38 knights
- 1402 Bajazet defeated by Tamerlane, and the power of the Turks almost entirely destroyed.
- 1410 Guildhall, London, built.
- 1411 The university of St. Andrew's in Scotland founded.
- 1412 Denmark united with the crown of Norway.
- 1415 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French, by Henry V. of England.

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- 1428 The siege of Orleans, the first blow to the English power in France, by the celebrated Maid of Orleans. She is afterwards taken prisoner, and basely put to death.
- 1430 About this time Laurentius of Haerlem invented the art of printing, which he practised with wooden types. Guttenuburgh afterwards invented cut metal types; but the art was carried to perfection by Peter Schoeffer, who invented the mode of casting the types in matrices. Frederic Corfellis began to print in Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types; but it was William Caxton who introduced into England the art of printing with fustie types in 1474.
- 1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome.
- The sea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.
- 1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks; which ends the eastern empire, 1123 years from its foundation by Constantine the Great, and 2206 years from the foundation of Rome.
- 1454 The university of Glasgow, in Scotland, founded.
- Otto Guericke, a German, invents the air-pump.
- Duelling appointed in certain cases in France, in order to have the judgment of God.
- 1460 Engraving and etching on copper invented.
- 1477 The university of Aberdeen, in Scotland, founded.
- 1483 Richard III. king of England, and last of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Bosworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII. which puts an end to the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster, after a contest of 30 years, and the loss of 100,000 men.
- 1488 Henry establishes fifty yeomen of the guards, the first standing army.
- 1489 Maps and sea-charts first brought to England by Barth. Columbus.
- 1491 William Grocyn publicly teaches the Greek language at Oxford.
- The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely subdued by Ferdinand, and become subjects to that prince on certain conditions, which are ill observed by the Spaniards, whose clergy employ the power of the inquisition, with all its tortures; and, 1609, near one million of the Moors are driven from Spain to the opposite coast of Africa, from whence they originally came.
- 1492 America first discovered by Columbus, a Genoese, in the service of Spain.
- 1494 Algebra first known in Europe.
- 1497 The Portuguese first sail to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
- South America discovered by Americus Vespucius, from whom it has its name.
- 1499 North America explored, for Henry VII. by Cabot.
- 1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into six circles, and adds four more in 1512.
- 1505 Shillings first coined in England.
- Christ College, Cambridge, founded by Henry VII.'s mother.
- 1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.
- 1513 The battle of Flodden, in which James IV. of Scotland is killed, with the flower of his nobility.
- 1516 Corpus Christi College, of Oxford, founded by bishop Winton.
- 1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
- Egypt is conquered by the Turks.
- 1518 Magellan, in the service of Spain, first discovers the straits of that name in South America, but is killed by savages in the Marianne islands.
- 1520 Henry VIII. for his writings in favour of popery, receives the title of Defender of the Faith from the pope.
- 1529 The name of Protestant takes its rise from the Reformed protesting against the church of Rome, at the diet of Spire in Germany.
- 1532 Christ-church College, Oxford, founded by Henry VIII.
- 1534 The Reformation takes place in England, under Henry VIII.
- 1537 Religious houses dissolved there
- 1539 The first English edition of the Bible authorized; the present translation finished, 1611.
- About this time cannon began to be used in ships.
- 1543 Silk stockings first worn by the French king; first worn in England by queen Elizabeth, 1561; the steel frame for weaving them invented by the rev. Mr. Lee, of John's College, Cambridge, 1589.
- Pins first used in England, before which time the ladies used skewers
- 1544 Good lands let in England at one shilling per acre.

- 1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
- 1546 First law in England establishing the interest of money at ten per cent.  
Ann Askew, a Protestant, cruelly tortured by order of Henry VIII. who, to the utter disgrace of royalty, put his own hands to the rack, as not thinking the executioners sufficiently expert. She endured every thing with patience, and was afterwards burnt.
- 1549 Lords lieutenants of counties instituted in England.
- 1550 Horse guards instituted in England.
- 1554 The Russian company established in England.
- 1558 Queen Elizabeth begins her reign.
- 1560 The Reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.
- 1563 Knives first made in England.
- 1569 Royal Exchange first built.
- 1572 The great massacre of Protestants at Paris.
- 1579 The Dutch shake off the Spanish yoke, and the republic of Holland begins.  
English East India company incorporated—established 1600.  
Turkey company incorporated.
- 1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the first English circumnavigator.  
Parochial registers first appointed in England.
- 1581 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy; the 5th of October being counted 1516.
- 1582 Tobacco first brought from Virginia into England.
- 1587 Mary Queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after 18 years imprisonment.
- 1588 The Spanish armada destroyed by Drake and other English admirals.  
Henry IV. passes the edict of Nantes, tolerating the Protestants.
- 1589 Coaches first introduced into England; hackney act, 1693; increased to 1000, in 1770.
- 1590 Band of pensioners instituted in England.
- 1591 Trinity College, Dublin, founded.
- 1597 Watches first brought into England from Germany.
- 1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
- 1603 Queen Elizabeth (the last of the Tudors) dies, and nominates James VI. of Scotland (and first of the Stuarts) as her successor.
- 1605 The Gunpowder plot discovered at Westminster; being a project of the Roman catholics to blow up the king and both houses of parliament.
- 1606 Oath of allegiance first administered in England.
- 1608 Galileo, of Florence, first discovers the satellites about the planet Saturn, by the telescope, then just invented in Holland.
- 1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris, by Ravaillac, a priest.
- 1611 Barons first created in England, by James I.
- 1614 Napier, of Merchiston in Scotland, invents the logarithms.  
Sir Hugh Middleton brings the New River to London from Ware.
- 1616 The first permanent settlement in Virginia.
- 1619 Dr. W. Harvey, an Englishman, discovers the circulation of the blood.
- 1620 The broad silk manufactory from raw silk, introduced into England.
- 1621 New England planted by Puritans.
- 1625 King James dies, and is succeeded by his son Charles I.  
The island of Barbadoes, the first English settlement in the West Indies, is planted.
- 1626 The barometer invented by Torricelli.
- 1627 The thermometer invented by Drebbelius.
- 1631 The battle of Lutzen, in which Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Protestants in Germany, is killed.
- 1635 Province of Maryland planted by lord Baltimore.  
Regular posts established from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
- 1640 King Charles disobligrs his Scottish subjects; on which their army, under general Lesley, enters England, and takes Newcastle, being encouraged by the malcontents in England.  
The massacre in Ireland, when 20,000 English Protestants were killed.
- 1642 King Charles impeaches five members, who had opposed his arbitrary measures; which begins the civil war in England.
- 1643 Excise on beer, ale, &c. first imposed by parliament.
- 1640 Episcopacy abolished in England.

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- 1649 Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
- 1654 Cromwell assumes the protectorship.
- 1655 The English, under admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
- 1658 Cromwell dies, and is succeeded in the protectorship, by his son Richard.
- 1659 Transfusion of the blood first suggested at Oxford.
- 1660 King Charles II. is restored by Moulck, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.  
Episcopacy restored in England and Scotland.  
The people of Denmark, being oppressed by the nobles, surrender their privileges to Frederic III. who becomes absolute.
- 1662 The Royal Society established in London by Charles II.  
Pendulum clocks invented by John Fromentel, a Dutchman.  
Fire-engines invented.
- 1663 Carolina planted, in 1728, divided into two separate governments.
- 1664 The New Netherlands, in North America, conquered from the Swedes and Dutch, by the English.
- 1665 The plague rages in London, and carries off 68,000 persons.
- 1666 The great fire of London began Sept. 2, and continued three days, in which were destroyed 13,000 houses, and 400 streets.  
Tea first used in England.
- 1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the English the New Netherlands, now known by the name of Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey.
- 1668 Peace of Aix la Chapelle.  
St. James's Park planted, and made a thorough-fare for public use, by Charles II.
- 1670 The English Hudson's Bay Company incorporated.
- 1672 Lewis XIV. over runs great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their sluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their settlements in the East Indies.  
African company established.
- 1678 The peace of Nimeguen.  
The *habeas corpus* act passed.
- 1680 A great comet appeared, and, from its nearness to our earth, alarmed the inhabitants. It continued visible from Nov. 3, to March 9.  
William Penn, a Quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennsylvania.
- 1683 India stock sold from 360 to 500 per cent.
- 1685 Charles II. dies, aged 55, and is succeeded by his brother, James II.  
The duke of Monmouth, natural son to Charles II. raises a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded.  
The edict of Nantes infamously revoked by Lewis XIV. and the Protestants cruelly persecuted.
- 1687 The palace of Versailles, near Paris, finished by Lewis XIV.
- 1688 The revolution of Great Britain begins, Nov. 5. King James abdicates, and retires to France, Dec. 3.
- 1689 King William and queen Mary, daughter and son-in-law to James, are proclaimed February 16.  
Viscount Dundee stands out for James in Scotland, but is killed by general Mackey, at the battle of Killcrankie; upon which the Highlanders, wearied with repeated misfortunes, disperse.
- 1689 The land-tax passed in England.  
The toleration act passed there.  
Several bishops are deprived for not taking the oath to king William.
- 1690 The battle of the Boyne, gained by William against James, in Ireland.
- 1691 The war in Ireland finished, by the surrender of Limerick to William.
- 1692 The English and Dutch fleets, commanded by admiral Russel, defeat the French fleet off La Hogue.
- 1693 Bayonets at the end of loaded muskets first used by the French against the confederates in the battle of Turin.  
The duchy of Hanover made the ninth electorate.  
Bank of England established by king William.  
The first public lottery was drawn this year.  
Massacre of Highlanders at Glencoe, by king William's troops



- 1739 Letters of marque issued out in Britain against Spain, July 21, and war declared, October 23.  
Violent frost for nine weeks after Christmas.
- 1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the English and allies, in favour of the Queen of Hungary.
- 1744 War declared against France. Commodore Anson returns from his voyage round the world.
- 1745 The allies lose the battle of Fontenoy.  
The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
- 1746 British Linen Company erected.  
Electric shock discovered.  
Lima and Callao swallowed up by an earthquake.
- 1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which a restitution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all sides.
- 1749 The interest of the British funds reduced to three per cent.  
British herring fishery incorporated.
- 1751 Frederic, prince of Wales, father to his present majesty, died.  
Antiquarian society at London incorporated.
- 1752 The new style introduced into Great Britain; the third of September being counted the fourteenth.
- 1753 The British Museum erected at Montague House.  
Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, instituted in London.
- 1755 Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake.
- 1756 146 Englishmen are confined in the black hole at Calcutta, in the East Indies, by order of the Nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.  
Marine society established at London.
- 1757 Damien attempted to assassinate the French king.  
Identity of electric fire and lightning discovered by Dr. Franklin, who thereupon invented a method of securing buildings from thunder-storms by metallic conductors.
- 1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the English.
- 1760 King George II. dies, October 25, in the 77th year of his age, and is succeeded by his present majesty, who, on the 22d of September, 1761, married the princess Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Streliz.  
Black-Friars Bridge, consisting of nine arches, begun; finished 1770, at the expence of 152,840*l.* to be discharged by a toll.
- 1762 War declared against Spain.  
Peter III. emperor of Russia, is deposed, imprisoned, and murdered.  
American Philosophical Society established in Philadelphia.  
George Augustus Frederic, prince of Wales, born, August 12.
- 1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris, February 10, which confirmed to Great Britain the extensive provinces of Canada, East and West Florida, and part of Louisiana, in North America; also the islands of Granada, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, in the West Indies.
- 1764 The parliament granted 10,000*l.* to Mr. Harrison, for his discovery of the longitude by his time-piece.
- 1765 His majesty's royal charter passed for incorporating the society of artists.  
An act passed annexing the sovereignty of the island of Man to the crown of Great Britain.
- 1766 April 21, a spot or macula of the sun, more than thrice the bigness of our earth, passed the sun's centre.
- 1768 Academy of painting established in London.  
The Turks imprison the Russian ambassador, and declare war against that empire.  
Electricity of the aurora borealis discovered by Wideburg at Jena
- 1771 Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks, in his majesty's ship the Endeavour, lieut. Cook, return from a voyage round the world, having made several important discoveries in the South Seas.
- 1772 The king of Sweden changes the constitution of the kingdom.  
The Pretender marries a princess of Germany, grand daughter of Thomas, late earl of Aylebury.

- 1772 A dreadful fire at Antigua.  
Twelve hundred and forty people killed in the island of Java by an electrified cloud.  
A revolution in Denmark.  
The emperor of Germany, empress of Russia, and the king of Prussia, strip the king of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themselves, in violation of the most solemn treaties.
- 1773 Captain Phipps is sent to explore the North Pole; but having made 81 degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and his attempt to discover a passage in that quarter proves fruitless.  
The Jesuits expelled from the Pope's dominions, and suppressed by his bull, Aug. 25.  
The English East India company, having, by conquest or treaty, acquired the extensive provinces of Bengal, Orissa, and Bahar, containing fifteen millions of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their servants abroad, upon which government interferences, and sends out judges, &c. for the better administration of justice.  
The war between the Russians and Turks proves disgraceful to the latter, who lose the islands in the Archipelago, and by sea are every where unsuccessful.
- 1774 Peace is proclaimed between the Russians and Turks.  
The British parliament having passed an act, laying a duty of three pence per pound upon all teas imported into America,—the colonists, considering this as a grievance, deny the right of the British parliament to tax them.  
Deputies from the several American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the first general congress, Sept. 5.  
First petition of Congress to the king, Octob.
- 1775 April 19, The first action happens in America between the king's troops and the provincials, at Lexington.  
May 20, Articles of confederation and perpetual union between the American provinces.  
June 16, A bloody action at Bunker's Hill, between the royal troops and the Americans.
- 1776 March 17, The town of Boston evacuated by the king's troops.  
An unsuccessful attempt, in July, made by commodore sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general-Clinton, upon Charleston, in South Carolina.  
The Congress declare the American colonies free and independent states, July 4.  
The Americans are driven from Long Island, New York, in August, with great loss, and great numbers of them taken prisoners; and the city of New York is afterwards taken possession of by the king's troops.  
December 25, General Washington takes 900 of the Hessians prisoners at Trenton.  
Torture abolished in Poland.
- 1777 General Howe takes possession of Philadelphia.  
Lieutenant-general Burgoyne is obliged to surrender his army, at Saratoga, by convention, to the American army under the command of the generals Gates and Arnold, October 17.
- 1778 A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the Thirteen United American Colonies, in which their independence is acknowledged by the court of France, February 6.
- 1778 The remains of the earl of Chatham interred at the public expence in Westminster Abbey, June 9, in consequence of a vote of parliament.  
The earl of Carlisle, William Eden, esq. and George Johnstone, esq. arrive at Philadelphia, the beginning of June, as commissioners for restoring peace between Great Britain and America.  
Philadelphia evacuated by the king's troops, June 18.  
The congress refuse to treat with the British commissioners, unless the independence of the American colonies were first acknowledged, or the king's fleets and armies withdrawn from America.  
An engagement fought off Brest between the English fleet under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet, under the command of the count d'Orvilliers, July 27.  
Dominica taken by the French, Sept. 7.  
Pondicherry surrenders to the arms of Great Britain, Oct. 17.  
St. Lucia taken from the French, December 28.

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- 1779 St. Vincent taken by the French, June 17.  
 Granada taken by the French, July 3.
- 1780 Torture in courts of justice abolished in France.  
 The inquisition abolished in the duke of Modena's dominions.  
 Admiral Rodney takes twenty-two sail of Spanish ships, Jan. 8.  
 The same admiral also engages a Spanish fleet under the command of Don Juan de Lan-  
 gara, near Cape St. Vincent, and takes five ships of the line: one more driven on shore,  
 and another blown up, Jan. 16.  
 Three actions between admiral Rodney and the count de Guichen, in the West Indies, in  
 the months of April and May; but none of them decisive.  
 Charleston, South Carolina, surrenders to sir Henry Clinton, May 4.  
 Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida, surrender to the arms of the king of  
 Spain, May 9.  
 The pretended Protestant Association, to the number of 50,000, go up to the house of com-  
 mons, with their petition for the repeal of an act passed in favour of Papists, June 2.  
 That event followed by the most daring riots in the city of London and in Southwark,  
 for several successive days, in which some Popish chapels are destroyed, together with  
 the prisons of Newgate, the King's bench, the Fleet, several private houses, &c. These  
 alarming riots are at length suppressed by the interposition of the military, and many of  
 the rioters tried and executed for felony.  
 Five English East Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships bound for the West Indies,  
 taken by the combined fleets of France and Spain, August 2.  
 Earl Cornwallis obtains a signal victory over general Gates, near Camden, in South Caro-  
 lina, in which above 1000 American prisoners are taken, Aug. 16.  
 Mr. Laurens, late president of the congress, taken in an American packet, near Newfound-  
 land, Sept. 3.  
 General Arnold deserts the service of the congress, escapes to New York, and is made a  
 brigadier-general in the royal service, Sept. 24.  
 Major André, adjutant-general to the British army, hanged as a spy at Tappan, in the  
 province of New York, Oct. 2.  
 Mr. Laurens is committed prisoner to the Tower, on a charge of high treason, October 4.  
 Dreadful hurricanes in the West Indies, by which great devastation is made in Jamaica,  
 Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Dominica, and other islands, Oct. 3. and 10.  
 A declaration of hostilities published against Holland, December 10.
- 1781 The Dutch island of St. Eustatia taken by admiral Rodney, and general Vaughan, Feb. 3.  
 Retaken by the French, Nov. 27.  
 Earl Cornwallis obtains a victory, but with considerable loss, over the Americans under ge-  
 neral Green, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 15.  
 The island of Tobago taken by the French, June 2.  
 A bloody engagement fought between an English squadron under the command of admiral  
 Parker, and a Dutch squadron under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger-  
 Bank, August 5.  
 Earl Cornwallis, with a considerable British army, surrendered prisoners of war to the  
 American and French troops, under the command of general Washington and count  
 Rochambeau, at York town, in Virginia, Oct. 19.
- 1782 Trincomale, on the island of Ceylon, taken by admiral Hughes, Jan. 11.  
 Minorca surrendered to the arms of the king of Spain, Feb. 5.  
 The island of St. Christopher taken by the French, Feb. 12.  
 The island of Nevis, in the West Indies, taken by the French, Feb. 14.  
 Montserrat taken by the French, Feb. 22.  
 The house of commons address the king against any farther prosecution of offensive war  
 on the continent of North America, March 4, and resolve, that the house would consider  
 all those as enemies to his majesty and this country, who should advise, or by any means  
 attempt, the farther prosecution of offensive war on the continent of North America, for  
 the purpose of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience by force.  
 Admiral Rodney obtains a signal victory over the French fleet, under the command of count  
 de Grasse, near Dominica, in the West Indies, April 12.  
 Admiral Hughes, with eleven ships, beats off, near the island of Ceylon, the French admiral  
 Suffrein, with twelve ships of the line, after a severe engagement, in which both fleets lost  
 a great number of men, April 13.

- 1782 The resolution of the House of Commons relating to John Wilkes, esq. and the Middlesex election, passed Feb. 17, 1769, rescinded May 3.  
The bill to repeal the declaratory act of George I. relative to the legislation of Ireland, received the royal assent, June 20.  
The French took and destroyed the forts and settlements in Hudson's Bay, Aug. 24.  
The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar, Sept. 13.  
Treaty concluded betwixt the republic of Holland and the United States of America, Oct. 8.  
Provisional articles of peace signed at Paris between the British and American commissioners, by which the Thirteen United American colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic majesty to be free, sovereign, and independent states, Nov. 30.
- 1783 Preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic majesty and the kings of France and Spain, signed at Versailles, Jan. 20.  
The order of St. Patrick instituted, Feb. 5.  
Three earthquakes in Calabria Ulterior and Sicily, destroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, Feb. 5, 7, and 28th.  
Armistice between Great Britain and Holland, Feb. 10.  
The first air-balloon let off in Paris, by M. Mongolfier, Aug. 27.  
Ratification of the definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and the United States of America, Sept. 3.
- 1784 The city of London wait on the king with an address of thanks for dismissing the coalition ministry, Jan. 16.  
The great seal stolen from the lord chancellor's house in Great Ormond-street, March 24th.  
The ratification of the peace with America arrived, April 7.  
The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.  
The memory of Handel commemorated by a grand jubilee, at Westminster Abbey, May 26.  
Proclamation for a public thanksgiving, July 2.  
Mr. Lunardi ascended in a balloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields, the first attempt of the kind in England, Sept. 15.  
Ascended at Edinburgh.
- 1785 Dr. Seabury, an American missionary, was constituted bishop of Connecticut, by five non-juring Scotch prelates, Nov.
- 1786 The king of Sweden prohibited the use of torture in his dominions. Cardinal Turlone, high inquisitor at Rome, was publicly dragged out of his carriage by an incensed multitude, for cruelty, and hung on a gibbet 50 feet high.  
Commercial treaty signed between England and France, Sept. 26.  
471,000l. 3 per cent. stock transferred to the landgrave of Hesse, for Hessian soldiers lost in the American war, at 30l. a man, Nov. 21.
- 1786 Mr. Adams, the American ambassador, presented Dr. White, of Pennsylvania, and Dr. Provost of New York, to the archbishop of Canterbury, to be consecrated bishops for the United States. They were consecrated Feb. 4. 1787.
- 1787 Mr. Burke, at the bar of the house of lords, in the name of all the commons of Great Britain, impeached Warren Hastings, late governor-general of Bengal, of high crimes and misdemeanours, May 21.  
The king, by letters-patent, erected the province of Nova Scotia into a bishop's see, and appointed Dr. Charles Inglis to be the bishop, Aug. 11.
- 1788 In the early part of October, the first symptoms appeared of a severe disorder, which afflicted our gracious sovereign. On the 6th of November they were very alarming, and on the 13th a form of prayer for his recovery was ordered by the privy council.
- 1789 His majesty was pronounced to be in a state of convalescence, Feb. 17, and to be free from complaint, Feb. 26.  
A general thanksgiving for the king's recovery, who attended the service at St. Paul's, with a great procession, April 23.  
Revolution in France, capture of the Bastille, execution of the governor, &c. July 14.
- 1790 Grand confederation in the Champ de Mars, July 14.
- 1791 On the 14th of July, in consequence of some gentlemen meeting to commemorate the French revolution, in Birmingham, the mob arose and committed the most daring outrages for some days on the persons and properties of many of the inhabitants of the town and

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556 Æsop, t

548 Thales, t

497 Pythago

474 Anacreo

456 Æschylu

435 Pindar, t

- and neighbourhood; burning and destroying meeting-houses, private dwellings, &c. Peace and security were at length restored, by the interposition of the military power.
- 1792 On the 10th of March, the definitive treaty of peace was signed between the British, and their allies, the Nizam, and Malirattas on the one part, and Tippoo Sultan on the other, by which he ceded on half of his territorial possessions, and delivered up two of his sons to lord Cornwallis, as hostages for the fulfilment of the treaty.
- Gustavus III. king of Sweden, died on the 29th of March, in consequence of being assassinated by Ankerström.
- 1793 January 21st. Lewis XVI. after having received innumerable indignities from his people, was brought to the scaffold, and had his head severed by the guillotine, contrary to the express laws of the new constitution, which had declared the person of the king inviolable.
- On the 25th of March, lord Grenville, and S. Comte Woronzow, signed a convention at London on behalf of his Britannic majesty and the empress of Russia, in which their majesties agreed to employ their respective forces in carrying on the "just and necessary war" against France. Treaties also were entered upon with the king of Sardinia, and the prince of Hesse Cassel.
- The unfortunate queen of France, on the 16th of October, was conducted to the spot, where Louis had previously met his fate; and conducted herself during her last moments with fortitude and composure, in the thirty-eighth year of her age.
- Messrs. Muir and Palmer, having been accused of seditious practices, were tried in the high court of Justiciary in Scotland, and pronounced guilty. Their sentence was transportation for the space of 14 years to such place as his majesty might judge proper.—They have since failed for Botany Bay.
- 1794 On the 1st of June, the British fleet, under the command of admiral earl Howe, obtained a most signal victory over that of the French, in which two ships were sunk, one burnt, and six brought into Portsmouth harbour.
- 1795 In consequence of the rapid progress of the French arms in Holland, the princess of Orange, the hereditary princess and her infant son, arrived at Yarmouth, on the 19th of January: the hereditary prince himself, with his father the stadtholder, landed at Harwich on the 20th. On the 8th of April, his royal highness, George Augustus Frederic, prince of Wales, was married to her serene highness, princess Caroline of Brunswick.
- The trial of Warren Hastings, esq. at length came to a close on the 23rd of April, when the lord chancellor, having put the question to each of the peers, upon the sixteen articles of the impeachment, and finding that a very great majority voted for his acquittal, informed the prisoner that he was acquitted of the charges brought against him by the house of commons, and of all matters contained therein.

## MEN OF LEARNING AND GENIUS.

N. B. *By the Dates is implied the time when the above Writers died; but when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flourished is signified by ft. The names in Italics are those who have given the best English Translations, exclusive of School-books.*

- Ref. Chr.
- 907 **H**OMER, the first profane writer, and Greek poet, flourished. *Popl. Cowper.*
- Hesiod, the Greek poet, supposed to live near the time of Homer. *Cooke.*
- 884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.
- 600 Sappho, the Greek lyric poetess, ft. *Fawkes.*
- 558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens
- 556 Æsop, the first Greek fabulist. *Croxal.*
- 548 Thales, the first Greek astronomer and geographer.
- 497 Pythagoras, the founder of the Pythagorean philosophy in Greece. *Rowe.*
- 474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet. *Fawkes. Addison.*
- 456 Æschylus, the first Greek tragic poet. *Potter.*
- 435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet. *West.*

- 413 Herodotus, of Greece, the first writer of profane history. *Littlebury. Belot. Lempriere.*  
 427 Aristophanes, the Greek comic poet, fl. *White.*  
 Euripides, the Greek tragic poet. *Woodhull.*  
 406 Sophocles, ditto. *Franklin. Potter.*  
 Confucius, the Chinese philosopher, fl.  
 403 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy in Greece.  
 391 Thucydides, the Greek historian. *Smith. Hobbes.*  
 361 Hippocrates, the Greek physician. *Clijton.*  
 Democritus, the Greek philosopher.  
 359 Xenophon, ditto, and historian. *Smith. Spelman. Ahly. Fielding.*  
 348 Plato, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Socrates. *Sydenham.*  
 340 Lyfias, the Greek orator. *Gillies.*  
 336 Isocrates, the Greek orator. *Dimfdale.*  
 332 Aristotle, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Plato. *Hobbes.*  
 313 Demosthenes, the Athenian orator, poisoned himself. *Leland. Francis.*  
 288 Theophrastus, the Greek philosopher, and scholar of Aristotle. *Budgel.*  
 285 Theocritus, the first Greek pastoral poet, fl. *Fawkes.*  
 277 Euclid, of Alexandria, in Egypt, the mathematician, fl. *R. Simfon.*  
 270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philosophy in Greece. *Digby.*  
 264 Zeno, founder of the stoic philosophy in ditto.  
 244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet.  
 208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.  
 184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet. *Thornton.*  
 159 Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comic poet. *Colman. Cooke.*  
 155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the stoic philosopher.  
 124 Polybius of Greece, the Greek and Roman historian. *Hampton.*  
 54 Lucretius, the Roman poet. *Creech.*  
 44 Julius Cæsar, the Roman historian and commentator, killed. *Duncan.*  
 Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the universal historian, fl. *Booth.*  
 Vitruvius, the Roman Architect, fl.  
 43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philosopher, put to death. *Guthrie. Melmoth.*  
 Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, fl. *Rowe.*  
 34 Sallust, the Roman historian. *Gordon. Rose.*  
 30 Dionysius of Halicarnassus, the Roman historian, fl. *Spelman.*  
 19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet. *Dryden. Pitt. Warton.*  
 11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman poets. *Gruinger. Dart.*  
 8 Horace, the Roman lyric and satiric poet. *Francis.*
- Af. C.  
 17 Livy, the Roman historian. *Hay.*  
 19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet. *Garth.*  
 20 Celsus, the Roman philosopher and physician, fl. *Grieve.*  
 25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.  
 33 Phædrus, the Roman fabulist. *Smart.*  
 45 Patriculus, the Roman historian, fl. *Newcome.*  
 62 Persius, the Roman satiric poet.  
 64 Quintus Curtius, a Roman historian of Alexander the Great, fl. *Digby.*  
 Seneca, of Spain, the philosopher and tragic poet, put to death. *L'Étrange.*  
 65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, ditto. *Rowe.*  
 79 Pliny the elder, the Roman natural historian. *Holland.*  
 93 Josephus, the Jewish historian. *Whiston.*  
 94 Epicætes, the Greek stoic philosopher, fl. *Mrs. Carter.*  
 95 Quintilian, the Roman orator and advocate. *Guthrie.*  
 96 Statius, the Roman epic poet. *Lewis.*  
 98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman historian, fl.  
 99 Tacitus, the Roman historian. *Gordon. Murphy.*  
 104 Martial of Spain, the epigrammatic poet. *Hay.*  
 Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.  
 16 Pliny the younger, historical letters. *Melmoth. Orrery.*  
 17 Suetonius, the Roman historian. *Hughes.*  
 19 Plutarch of Greece, the biographer. *Dryden. Langhorne.*

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 254 O  
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 258 C  
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 1400 Geoff  
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 1535 Sir Th  
 1552 John  
 1568 Roger  
 1572 Revere  
 1882 George  
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 1598 Edmun  
 1615-25 Bea  
 1616 William  
 1622 John N  
 1623 William  
 1626 Lord C  
 1634 Lord C

# A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

1095

- 228 Juvenal, the Roman satiric poet. *Dryden.*  
 140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and astronomer, *fl.*  
 150 Justin, the Roman historian, *fl. Turnbull.*  
 161 Arrian, the Roman historian and philosopher, *fl. Rask.*  
 167 Jullin, of Samaria, the oldest Christian author after the apostles.  
 180 Lucian, the philologer, and satirist. *Dinsdale. Dryden. Franklin.*  
 Marcus Aur. Antoninus, Roman emperor and philosopher. *Collier. Elphinstone.*  
 193 Galen, the Greek philosopher and physician.  
 200 Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, *fl.*  
 229 Dion Cassius, of Greece, the Roman historian, *fl.*  
 254 Origen, a Christian father of Alexandria.  
 Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman historian, *fl. Hart.*  
 258 Cyprian, of Carthage, suffered martyrdom. *Masfal.*  
 273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian. *Smith.*  
 320 Lactantius, a father of the church, *fl.*  
 336 Arius, a priest of Alexandria, founder of the sect of Arians.  
 342 Eusebius, the ecclesiastical historian and chronologer. *Hammer.*  
 379 Basil, bishop of Caesarea.  
 389 Gregory Nazianzen, bishop of Constantinople.  
 397 Ambrose, bishop of Milan.  
 415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.  
 428 Eutropius, the Roman historian.  
 524 Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonic philosopher. *Bellamy. Preston.*  
 529 Procopius of Caesarea, the historian. *Holcroft.*
- Here ends the illustrious list of ancient, or, as they are styled, classic authors, for whom mankind are indebted to Greece and Rome, those two great theatres of human glory: but it will ever be regretted, that a small part only of their writings have come to our hands. This was owing to the barbarous policy of those fierce illiterate pagans, who, in the fifth century, subverted the Roman empire, and in which practices they were joined soon after by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet. Constantinople alone had escaped the ravages of the barbarians; and to the few literati who sheltered themselves within its walls, is chiefly owing the preservation of those valuable remains of antiquity. To learning, civility, and refinement, succeeded worse than Gothic ignorance—the superstition and buffoonery of the church of Rome. Europe therefore produces few names worthy of record during the space of a thousand years; a period, which the invention of printing contributed to the revival of learning in the sixteenth century, from which time letters continued to flourish in France, Italy, Germany and England; with the celebrated men of which last country, before and after that period, we shall conclude this table.
- A. C.
- 735 Bede, a priest of Northumberland; history of the Saxons, Scots, &c.  
 921 King Alfred; history, philosophy, and poetry.  
 1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St. Albans; history of England.  
 1292 Roger Bacon, Somersetshire; natural philosophy.  
 1308 John Fordun, a priest of Merns-thire; history of Scotland.  
 1400 Geoffrey Chaucer, London; the father of English poetry.  
 1402 John Gower, Wales; the poet.  
 1535 Sir Thomas More, London; history, politics, divinity.  
 1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.  
 1568 Roger Ascham, Yorkshire; philology and polite literature.  
 1572 Reverend John Knox, the Scotch reformer; history of the church of Scotland.  
 1882 George Buchanan, Dumbartonshire; history of Scotland, Psalms of David, politics, &c.  
 1598 Edmund Spenser, London; Fairy Queen, and other poems.  
 1615-25 Beaumont and Fletcher; 53 dramatic pieces.  
 1616 William Shakspeare, Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.  
 1622 John Napier, of Marcheston, Scotland; discoverer of logarithms.  
 1623 William Camden, London; history and antiquities.  
 1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon, London; natural philosophy and literature in general.  
 1634 Lord Chief Justice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.

- 1638 Ben. Jonson, London; 53 dramatic pieces.  
 1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.  
 1654 John Seldon, Suffex; antiquities and laws.  
 1657 Dr. William Harvey, Kent; discovered the circulation of the blood.  
 1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miscellaneous poetry.  
 1674 John Milton, London; Paradise Lost, Regained, and various other pieces in verse and prose.  
 Hyde, earl of Clarendon, Wiltshire; History of the Civil Wars in England.  
 1675 James Gregory, Aberdeen; mathematics, geometry, and optics.  
 1677 Reverend Dr. Isaac Barrow, London; natural philosophy, mathematics, and sermons.  
 1680 Samuel Butler, Worcestershire; Hudibras, a burlesque poem.  
 1685 Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies, with other poems.  
 1687 Edmund Waller, Bucks; poems, speeches, letters, &c.  
 1688 Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Somersethire; Intellectual System.  
 1689 Dr. Thomas Sydenham, Dorsethire; History of Physic.  
 1690 Nathaniel Lee, London; 11 tragedies.  
 Robert Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers.  
 1691 Honourable Robert Boyle; natural and experimental philosophy and theology.  
 Sir George Mackenzie, Dundee; antiquities and laws of Scotland.  
 1694 John Tillotson, archbishop of Canterbury, Halifax; 254 sermons.  
 1697 Sir William Temple, London; politics, and polite literature.  
 1701 John Dryden, Northamptonshire; 27 tragedies and comedies, satiric poems, Virg.  
 1704 John Locke, Somersethire; philosophy, government, and theology.  
 1705 John Ray, Essex; botany, natural philosophy, and divinity.  
 1707 George Farquhar, Londonderry; eight comedies.  
 1713 Ant. A. Cooper, earl of Shaftesbury; characteristics.  
 1714 Gilbert Burnet, Edinburgh, bishop of Salisbury; history, biography, divinity, &c.  
 1718 Nicholas Rowe, Devonshire; seven tragedies, translation of Lucan's Pharsalia.  
 1719 Reverend John Flamsteed, Derbyshire; mathematics, and astronomy.  
 Joseph Addison, Wiltshire; Spectator, Guardian, poems, politics.  
 Dr. Jon Keil, Edinburgh; mathematics and astronomy.  
 1721 Matthew Prior, London; poems and politics.  
 1724 William Wollaston, Staffordshire; Religion of Nature delineated.  
 1727 Sir Isaac Newton, Lincolnshire; mathematics, geometry, astronomy, optics.  
 1729 Reverend Dr. Samuel Clark, Norwich; mathematics, divinity, &c.  
 Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; four comedies, papers in Tatler, &c.  
 William Congreve, Staffordshire; seven dramatic pieces.  
 1732 John Gay, Exeter; poems, fables, and eleven dramatic pieces.  
 1734 Dr. John Arbuthnot, Merns-shire; medicine, coins, politics.  
 1742 Dr. Edmund Halley; natural philosophy, astronomy, navigation.  
 Dr. Richard Bentley, Yorkshire; classical learning, criticism.  
 1744 Alexander Pope, London; poems, letters, translation of Homer.  
 1745 Reverend Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poems, politics, and letters.  
 1746 Colin M'Lauren, Argyleshire; algebra, View of Newton's Philosophy.  
 1748 James Thomson, Roxburghshire; Seasons, and other poems, five tragedies.  
 Reverend Dr. Isaac Watts, Southampton; logic, philosophy, psalms, hymns, sermons, &c.  
 Dr. Francis Hutcheson, Ayrshire; System of Moral Philosophy.  
 1750 Reverend Dr. Conyers Middleton, Yorkshire; Life of Cicero, &c.  
 Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen; metaphysics, and natural philosophy.  
 1751 Henry St. John, lord Bolingbroke, Surry; philosophy, metaphysics, and politics.  
 Dr. Alexander Monro, Edinburgh; Anatomy of the Human Body.  
 1754 Dr. Richard Mead, London; on poisons, plague, small pox, medicine, precepts.  
 Henry Fielding, Somersethire; Tom Jones, Joseph Andrews, &c.  
 1757 Colly Cibber, London; 25 tragedies and comedies.  
 1761 Thomas Sherlock, bishop of London; 69 sermons, &c.  
 Benjamin Hoadly, bishop of Winchester; sermons and controversy.  
 Samuel Richardson, London; Grandison, Clarissa, Pamela.  
 Reverend Dr. John Leland, Lancashire; Answer to Deistical Writers.  
 1765 Reverend Dr. Edward Young; Night Thoughts, and other poems, 3 tragedies.

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- 1764 Robert Simpson, Glasgow; conic sections, Euclid, Apollonius.  
 1768 Reverend Laurence Sterne; 45 sermons, Sentimental Journey, Tristram Shandy.  
 1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnshire; harmonics and optics.  
 1770 Reverend Dr. Jortin; Life of Erasmus, Ecclesiastical History, and sermons.  
 Dr. Mark Akenside, Newcastle upon Tyne; poems.  
 Dr. Tobias Smollett, Dumbartonshire; History of England, novels, translations.  
 1771 Thomas Grey, professor of modern history, Cambridge; poems.  
 1773 Philip Dormer Stanhope, earl of Chesterfield; letters.  
 George lord Lyttelton, Worcestershire; History of England.  
 1774 Oliver Goldsmith; poems, essays, and other pieces.  
 Zachary Pearce, bishop of Rochester; Annotations on the New Testament, &c.  
 1775 Dr. John Hawkefworth; essays.  
 1776 David Hume, Merse; History of England, and essays.  
 James Ferguson, Aberdeentshire; astronomy.  
 1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; plays.  
 1779 David Garrick, Hereford; plays, &c.  
 William Warburton, bishop of Gloucester; Divine Legation of Moses, and various other works.  
 1780 Sir William Blackstone, Judge of the Court of Common Pleas, London; Commentaries on the Laws of England.  
 Dr. John Fothergill, Yorkshire; philosophy and medicine.  
 James Harris; Hermes, Philological Inquiries, and Philosophical Arrangement.  
 1782 Thomas Newton, bishop of Bristol, Litchfield; Discourses on the Prophecies, and other works.  
 Sir John Pringle, bart. Roxboroughshire; Diseases of the Army.  
 Henry Home, lord Kaims, Scotland; Elements of Criticism, Sketches of the History of Man.  
 1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerkshire; anatomy.  
 Dr. Benjamin Kennicot; Hebrew Bible, &c.  
 1784 Dr. Samuel Johnson, Litchfield; English Dictionary, biography, essays, poetry. Died Dec. 13, aged 75.  
 1785 William Whitehead, Poet Laureat; poems and plays.  
 Reverend Richard Burn, LL. D. author of the Justice of Peace, Ecclesiastical Law, &c. Died Nov. 20.  
 Richard Glover, esq. Leonidas, Medea, &c. Died Nov. 25.  
 1786 Jonas Hanway, esq. Travels, miscellanies. Died Sept. 5, aged 74.  
 1787 Dr. Robert Lowth, bishop of London; divinity and grammar. Died Nov. 3.  
 Soame Jenyns, esq. Internal Evidence of the Christian Religion, and other pieces. Died Dec. 18.  
 1788 James Stuart, esq. celebrated by the name of "Athenian Stuart." Died Feb. 1.  
 Thomas Gainsborough, esq. the celebrated painter. Died Aug. 2.  
 Thomas Sheridan, esq. English Dictionary, works on education, elocution, &c. Died Aug. 14.  
 William Julius Mickle, esq. translator of the Lusiad. Died Oct. 25.  
 1789 Dr. William Cullen; Practice of Physic, Materia Medica, &c. Died Feb. 5.  
 1790 John Howard, esq. Account of Prisons and Lazarettos, &c. Died at Cherson, in Russia, Jan. 20.  
 Benjamin Franklin, esq. electricity, natural philosophy, miscellanies. Died April 17.  
 Dr. Adam Smith; Moral Sentiments, Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations. Died April 17.  
 Reverend Thomas Warton, B. D. poet-laureat; History of English Poetry, poems. Died April 21.  
 Reverend Dr. Robert Henry, Scotland; History of Great Britain, written on a new plan. He died Nov. 24, aged 72.  
 1791 Reverend Dr. Richard Price, Glamorganshire; on Morals, Providence, Civil Liberty, Annuities, Reversionary Payments, Sermons, &c. Died Feb. 19, aged 68.  
 Dr. Thomas Blacklock, Annandale; poems, Consolations from natural and revealed Religion. Died July, aged 70.  
 1792 Sir Joshua Reynolds, president of the Royal Academy of Painting; Discourses on Painting delivered before the Academy. He died Feb. 23, aged 68.

- 1793 Reverend Dr. William Robertson, principal of the University of Edinburgh, and historiographer to his majesty for Scotland; History of Scotland, History of the reign of Charles the Vth, History of America, and Historical Disquisition concerning India. He died June 11, aged 72.
- 1794 Edward Gibbon, esq. Surry; History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. Died Jan. 16.
- 1795 Dr. Alexander Gerard; Essay on Taste, sermons. Died Feb. 22.  
Sir William Jones, one of the judges of India, and president of the Asiatic Society; several law tracts, translation of *Iliad*, and of the *Muallakat*, or seven Arabian poems, and many valuable papers in the Asiatic Researches.

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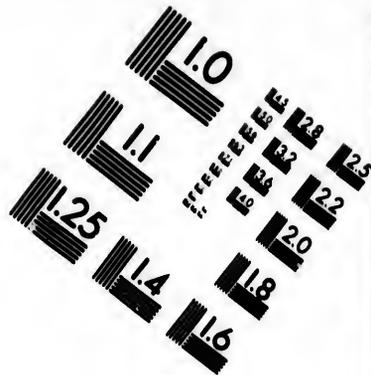
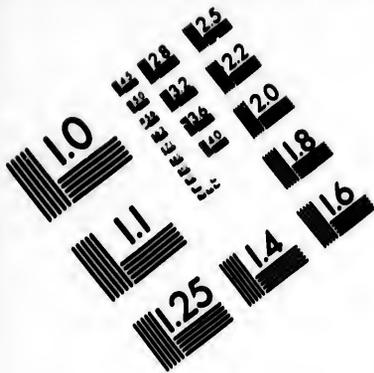
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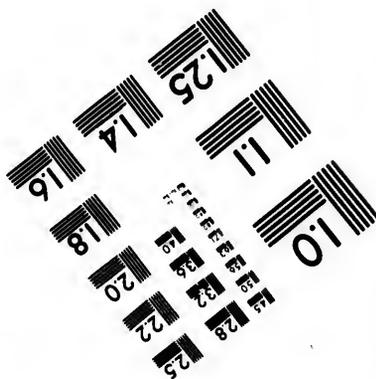
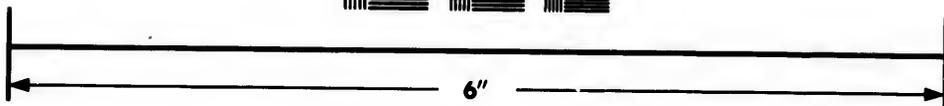
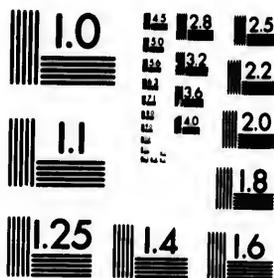
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