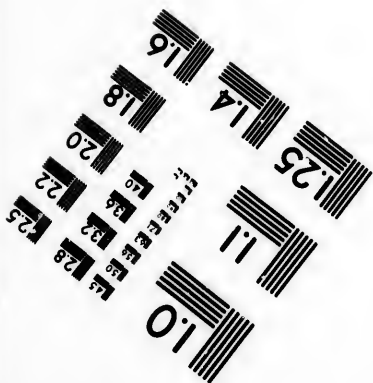
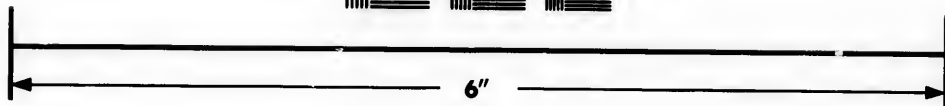
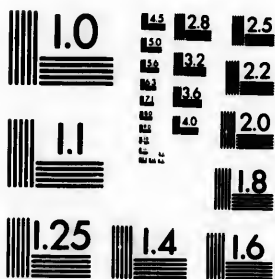


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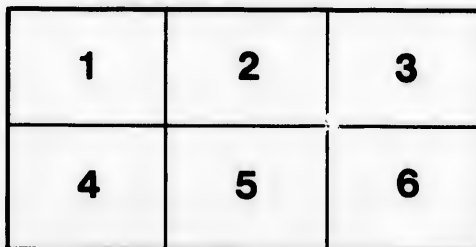
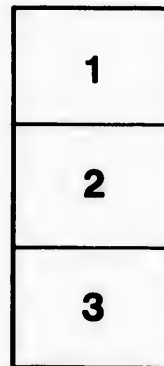
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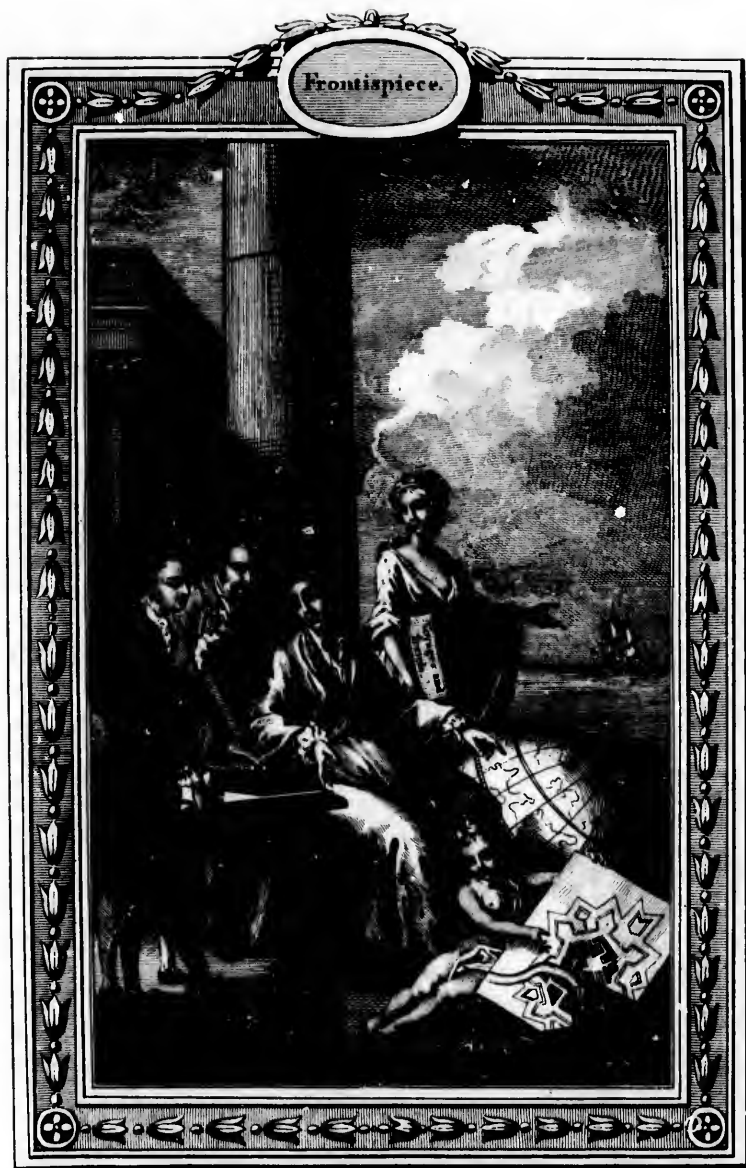
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P R E F A C E.

**N**otwithstanding the various and extensive Information relative to Foreign Countries, communicated by different Authors, no work has hitherto been published, that comprises an Account of the Universe upon such a Plan as is calculated to convey an adequate Idea of the Subject. Books of Travels and Voyages, though the great Repositories of useful Observation, generally abound with tedious and uninteresting Details, which, at the same time that they preclude the Entertainment of the Reader in one of the most delightful Provinces of human Enquiry, never fail to excite such a Disgust, as, if it does not extinguish the Ardour of Research, at least relaxes the Efforts in pursuit of Improvement.

While the Narratives of Travellers and Voyagers consist of a Profusion of Materials injudiciously collected, those Writers who have abridged their Works, have not proved more happy in their Compilations. Averse, for the most Part, to the Duty of examining Facts, and of collating the Recitals of different Travellers with each other, they often sacrifice Truth indiscriminately to the Illusion of plausible Error; and if they sometimes venture to reject the Marvellous, they frequently exclude essential Objects of Attention, by contenting themselves with the Information of a single authority, and even that, perhaps, not the most respectable.

But neither Redundance nor Defect, neither Prejudice nor Inaccuracy, are the only Faults conspicuous in Works of this Kind. The Arrangement is no less confused and desultory than the Materials are frivolous, if



not liable to Refutation : the most unimportant Circumstances frequently forming the principal Subject of the Narrative, while the Government of the various Nations, their Polity and commercial Interests, as not being so obvious to Enquiry, are passed over with very little Notice, or are at least so imperfectly treated, as to afford only faint and unsatisfactory Information. By those Circumstances, the great End of Observation is almost entirely frustrated ; and the Recitals of Travellers and Voyagers, from being rendered a valuable Miscellany of Instruction and Entertainment, are degraded to Vehicles of inaccurate Description, unauthentic Intelligence, and useless and impertinent Detail.

To correct those Errors, and supply those Defects, was the Object of *THE GENERAL MODERN TRAVELLER*, of which had the Publication begun as soon as the greater Part was ready for the Press, it would have anticipated several Productions of a similar Nature, that have appeared within these few Years. But Accuracy of Information being the Editor's principal Aim, and that on which he chiefly depended for the Success of his Undertaking, he was less solicitous either to precede or accompany the other Candidates for public Favour, than to afford such a complete geographical System as was calculated to obtain, not a casual and temporary, but, he hoped, a well-founded, and, therefore, more permanent Reputation.

That uncommon Pains and Attention have been bestowed on collecting Information for this Work, the Editor can affirm with Truth. Not only the Writings of the most approved Travellers and Voyagers have been searched with great Care, but oral Authorities, of unquestionable Credit, been consulted. By the Delay of Publication, the Editor has been enabled to give a fuller Account of the Northern Countries in particular than any preceding Writer, in this Species of Composition, could obtain ; while, by the same Means, he has greatly enlarged his Fund of Observations, respecting the other Parts of the World.

The same Accuracy which has been observed in describing the present State of every Country, has also been extended to a historical Abstract of each. It was, however, thought proper not give any Place to the History of the Romans, or to that of Britain, as a useful Detail of those Subjects could not be comprised within the Limits which seemed necessary to this Work.

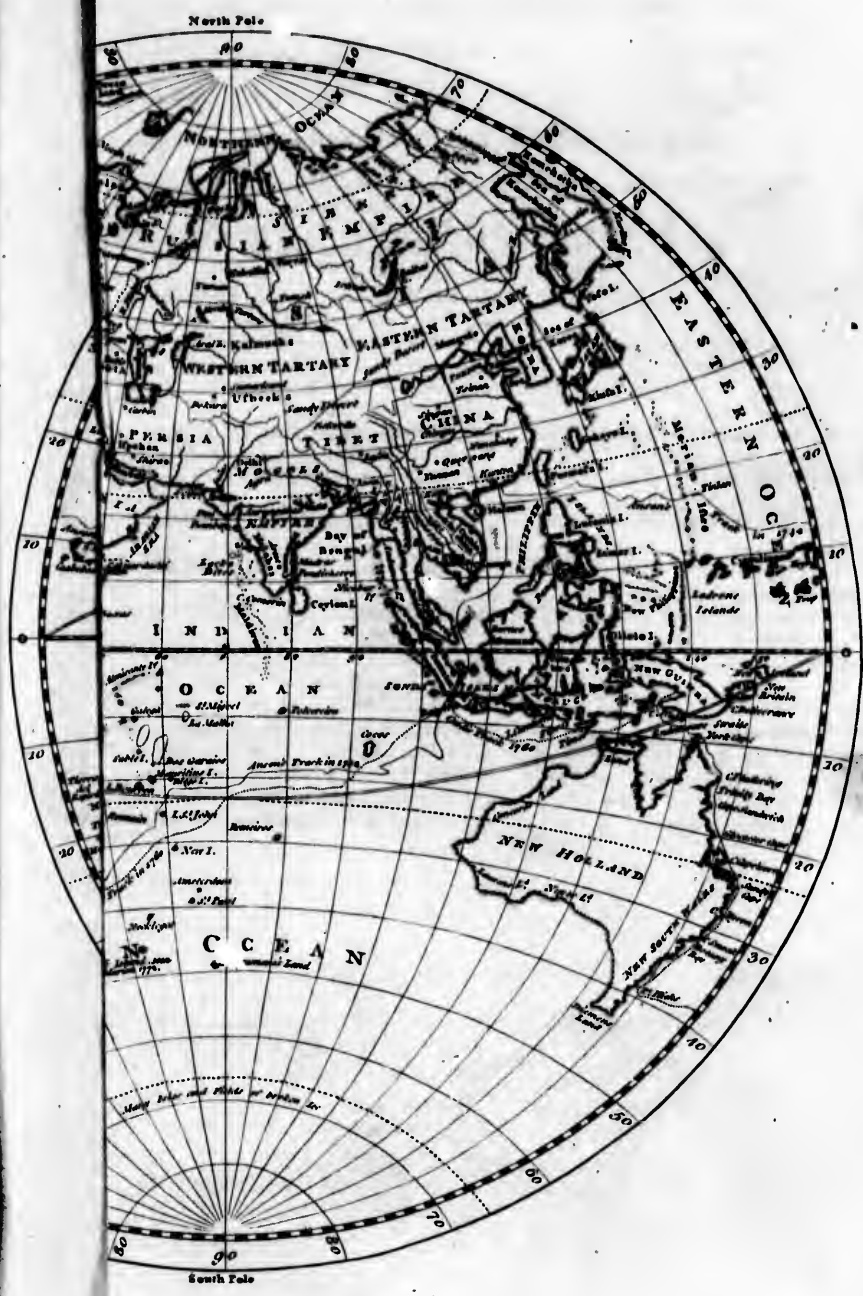
Upon the whole, if the most extensive, the most curious, and the most interesting Information, relative either to foreign Countries, or the Dominions of Great Britain, in the various Departments of elegant and ornamental, or of solid and useful Knowledge; if the utmost Care to procure authentic Intelligence, and the most scrupulous Fidelity in relating it, with the Editor's own Observations, can recommend any Work to the Attention of the Public, *THE GENERAL MODERN TRAVELLER*, it is hoped, will not be disappointed of its Object.

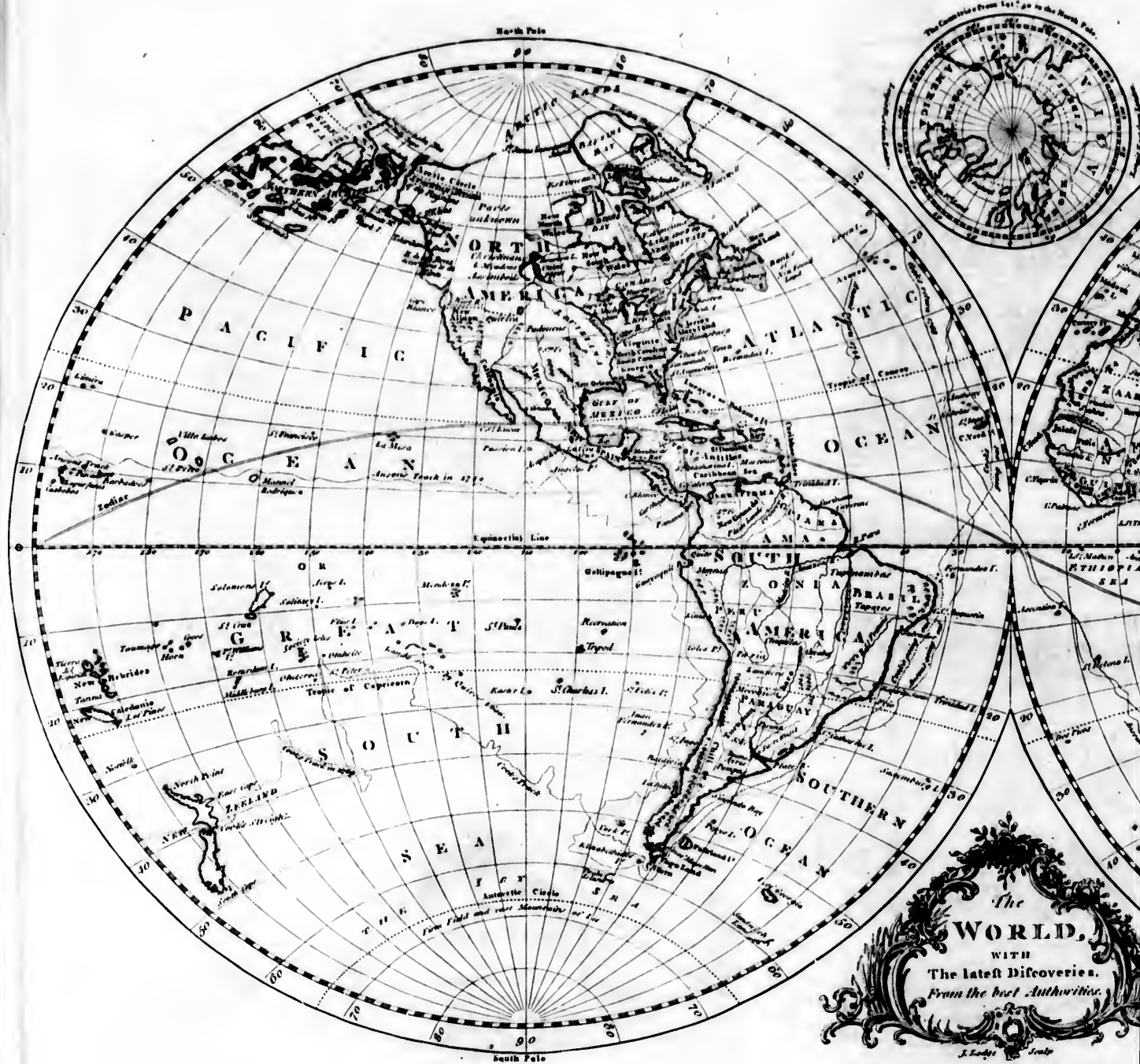
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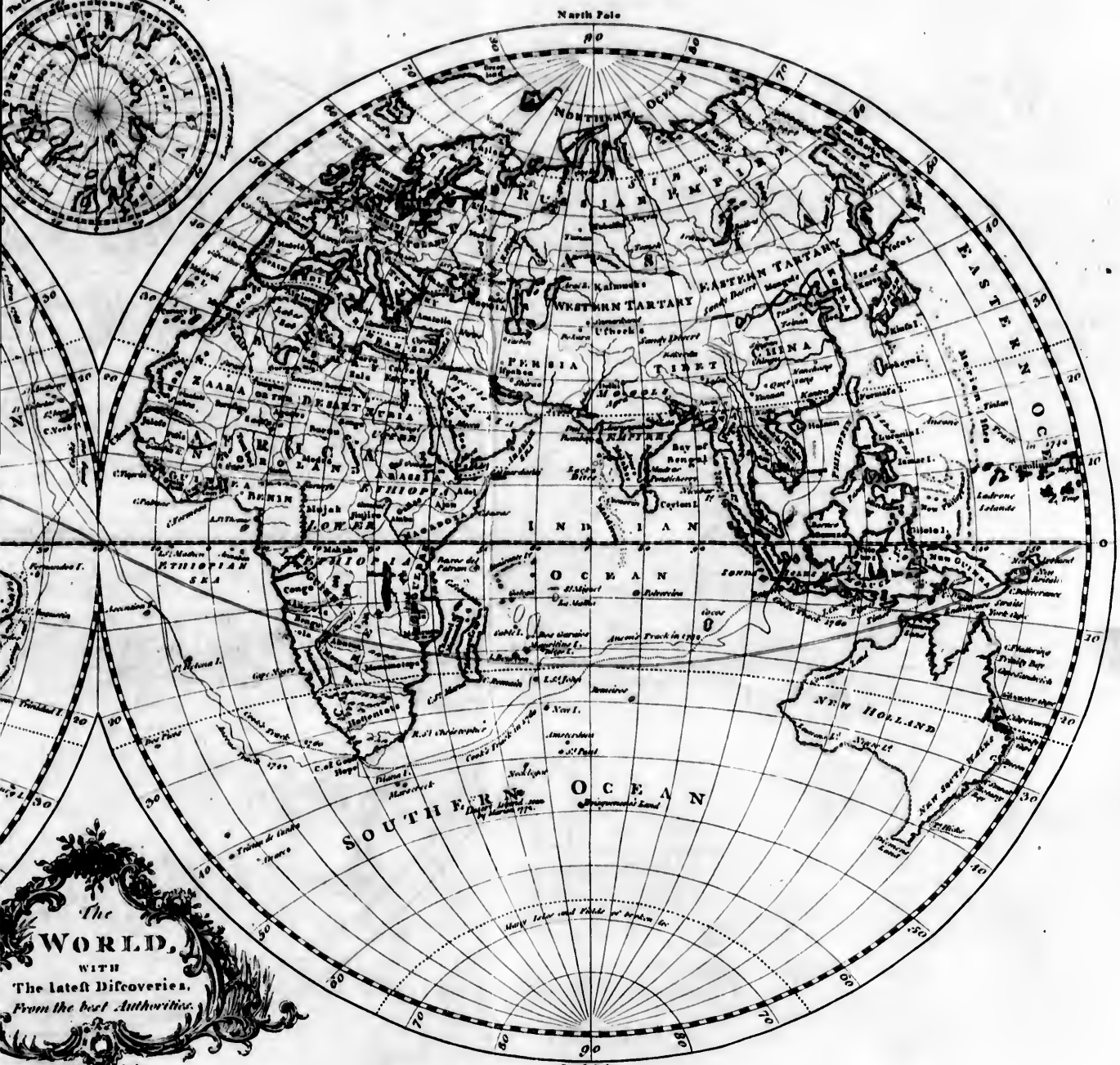
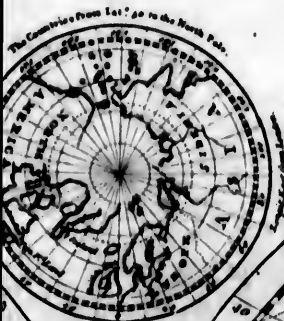


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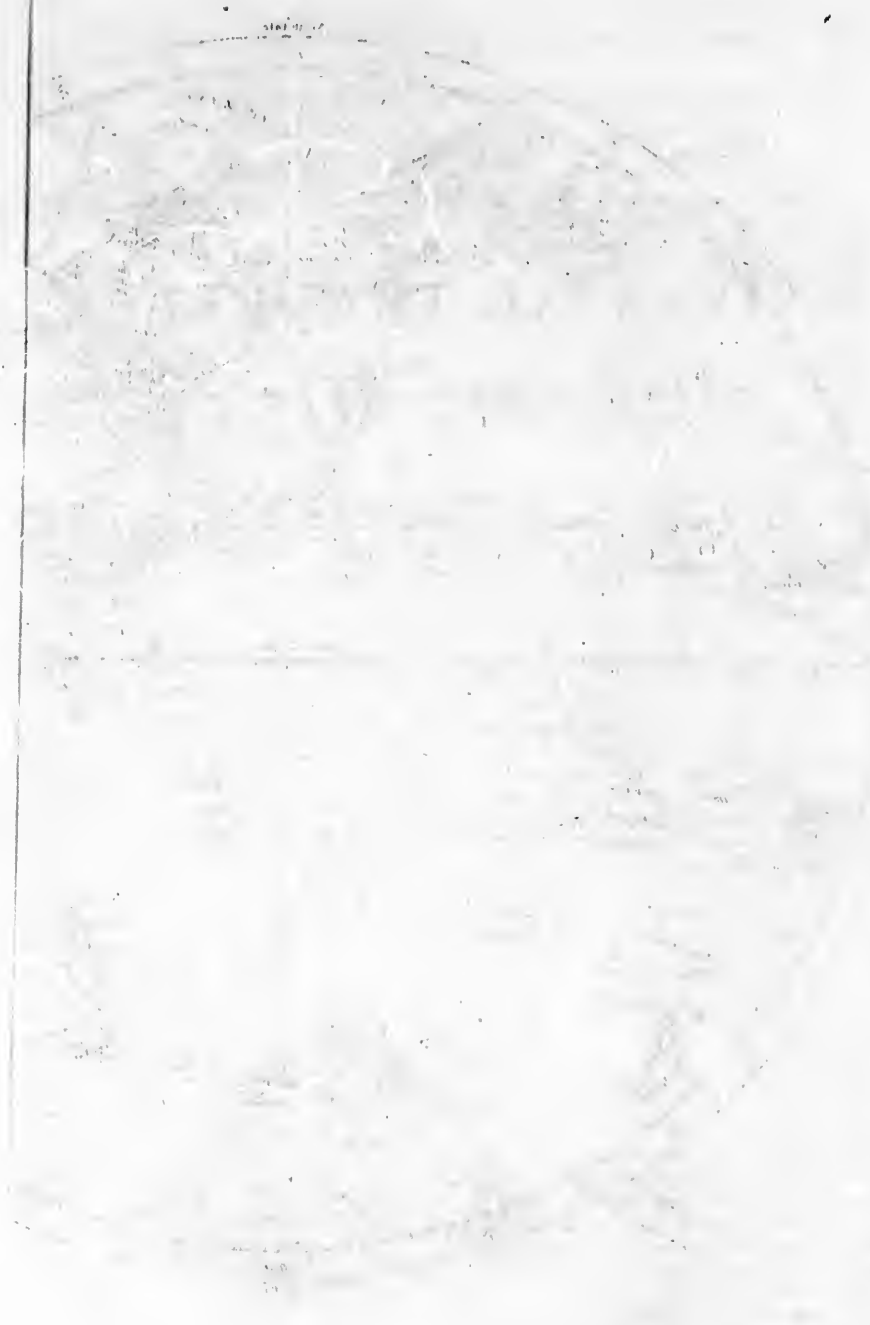
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T H E N E W

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## A S I A.

**O**F the four great parts into which the terraqueous globe is distinguished, that of Asia claims the pre-eminence in point of precedence, whether we proceed on the survey of the world by a geographical or chronological order of arrangement. Situated on the East of Europe, it is the extremity of the universe whence the researches of the traveller ought naturally to begin; and it is also the quarter in which, according to the evidence of history, both sacred and profane, the race of mankind appears not only to have derived its origin, but to have produced the earliest examples of human observation and achievement. The soft and genial temperature of the Asiatic climates in general, with the great variety of delicious fruits which the soil produces without culture, peculiarly dispose the inhabitants to the indulgence of voluptuous gratification. The extremes of luxury and effeminacy, therefore, have ever been regarded as the predominant characteristics of those nations, which, though perhaps more remarkable than any other for magnificence, and

improvements in some of the elegancies of life, have but rarely afforded any illustrious instances of heroic virtue. Nor is mention to be found in the whole annals of Asia, of a people that ever formed a resolution of asserting their right to civil liberty.

Asia is bounded on the north by the Frozen Sea; on the East by the Pacific Ocean; on the South by the Indian Ocean; on the West by the rivers Oby and Don, the Palus Mæotis, the Euxine Sea, the Bosphorus, Hellespont, Egean Sea, or Archipelago; and by the Levant, the Red Sea, and the isthmus of Suez, which separate it from Europe and Africa. It extends between the equator and 72 degrees of north latitude, and between 25 and 148 degrees of east longitude: comprehending, besides islands, the empire of China, the several nations of Tartary, Siberia, India, Persia, Arabia, and a great part of Turkey. We shall proceed to describe these countries in the order in which they have been mentioned.

## C H I N A.

### C H A P. I.

*Of its situation—boundaries—provinces—great wall—rivers—lakes—volcanoes—climate.*

**C**HINA, including Chinese Tartary, lies between 21 and 55 degrees of north latitude, and between 95 and 135 degrees of east longitude; being about 2000 miles long, and 1500 broad. It is bounded on the north by the dominions of Russia, on the east and south by the Pacific Ocean; and on the west by Tonquin, Tibet, and Russian Tartary.

This extensive empire consists of sixteen provinces, viz. Pe che li, Kyang nan, Kyang si, Fo kyen, Che kyang, Hu quang, Ho nan, Shang tong, Shan si, Shen si, Se chuen, Quang tong, Quang si, Yun nan, Qew chew, and Lyau ton.

The Great Wall that divides China from Tartary, is the most extraordinary work of the kind ever projected by any nation; in comparison of which, the Roman ramparts in Britain must appear to have been extremely diminutive. This celebrated mural fortification stretches fifteen hundred miles in length, being carried over mountains and valleys from Mongul Tartary in the west, to the Kang sea in the east. At the latter extremity it is a huge bulwark of stone, jutting a great way into the ocean; but in its progress westward is composed of earth, generally terraced and cased with brick on both sides, but almost every where on the outermost. The height is mostly from twenty to twenty-five feet, and the breadth sufficient for five or six horsemen to travel a-breast with ease. It is paved on the top, and the gates, on the side of China, are defended

A

defended



fended by forts of considerable strength, which are likewise placed at equal distances along the whole extent of the wall. This wall is said to have been erected two hundred and twenty-two years before the Christian æra, with the view of preventing the incursions of the neighbouring Tartars. It answered the intention while those people remained divided by their separate interests; but the union of the Western Tartars, which happened in the beginning of the thirteenth century, surmounted the barrier that had before been impregnable, and over-ran China with an impetuosity which terminated in the total conquest of the empire.

The provinces of China, a few excepted, are remarkably level, and supplied with a great many rivers, of which the most considerable are Kiam or Yance, and Hoamho. The former of those takes its rise in the province of Yun nan, and, running four hundred leagues, discharges itself in the East sea, opposite to the isle of Teoumin, which has been formed by the sand that is carried along by the force of the river. The Chinese are said to have a proverb which imports, that Kiam has no bottom; but from this hyperbole we may at least infer, that, in many places, the river is of extraordinary depth. In its course, which is exceedingly rapid, it forms a great many islands, particularly beneficial to the country, on account of the bull-rushes, ten or twelve feet high, that they produce, and which serve for fuel to all the inhabitants of the adjacent parts, where there is scarce wood sufficient for necessary buildings and ships. From those bull-rushes likewise a great revenue accrues to the emperor.

Such is the rapidity with which this river is sometimes poured from the mountains, that it frequently changes the situation of those islands, or totally destroys them, forms new aggregations in their place. On which account, they are surveyed by the mandarines every three years, in order to adjust the imposts according to the state in which they are found.

The second river of China is called Hoamho, or the Yellow River, because the earth which it washes away, especially in high floods, renders it of that colour. It arises at the extremity of the mountains which bound the province of Se chuen in the west; whence it proceeds to Tartary, directing its course, for a considerable way, along the Great Wall, at which it re-enters China, between the provinces of Shan si and Shen si; and, having flowed about six hundred leagues, discharges itself into the East Sea, not far from the mouth of the Kiam.

This river has, in former times, proved the cause of great desolation in China; and notwithstanding the bulwarks which have been erected in many places to oppose its irruption, the inhabitants of the neighbouring parts live under almost perpetual apprehension of a future encroachment.

Innumerable lakes of a prodigious extent are likewise to be seen in all the provinces of this country, one in particular, named Tong ting hou, is thirty leagues in circumference. Such of them as are produced in winter by the torrents from the mountains, lay waste the fields, which are rendered through the whole summer barren, sandy, and full of stints. Those that arise from springs abound in fish, and yield a considerable

revenue to the emperor by the salt they afford. With respect to fountains, they are not in general very frequent, nor of the best quality; which is perhaps the reason why the Chinese, for the most part, use water that has been boiled.

There are also in China several volcanoes, or burning mountains. The most remarkable of those, which is called Linosing, is of a great height, and often alarms the adjacent country with terrible eruptions.

In a country so extensive as China, it is reasonable to imagine that the air in the different provinces partakes of various degrees of temperature, as well as that the soil is distinguished by a regular declension of fertility. Accordingly in travelling across the empire from south to north, we behold a progressive diversity of vegetation from the luxuriant climate of Quang tong, to the Tartarean frontiers of Pe che li. In the latter of those provinces, though the air be temperate, the rivers are frozen during four months of the year, that is, from towards the end of November, to the middle of March. It is however remarkable, that unless a certain north wind blows, they never feel those piercing colds which the frost produces in Europe; a circumstance probably owing to the nitrous exhalations that arise from the earth, and especially to the clearness of the sky, the sun, even in the winter, being hardly ever covered with clouds. About the end of July and the beginning of August, the province of Pe che li is annually visited by periodical rains, which very seldom happen at any other season, but are compensated by the dew which falls every night, and is succeeded in the morning by a fine dust, that frequently incommodes the inhabitants, not only when abroad, but in their houses. The southern provinces, however, though peculiarly happy in the extraordinary fertility of the soil, are often exposed to pestilential winds, which prove extremely destructive.

#### C H A P. II.

*Of beasts—birds—fishes—plants—fossils—minerals.*

**H**AVING given a geographical account of the country, we proceed to take a view of its natural produce, under the divisions of the animal, vegetable, and mineral tribes.

The indigenous animals of China are, camels, horses, oxen, sheep, hogs, a few elephants, and a prodigious number of all kinds of wild beasts, except lions. Their best horses, however, are brought from Chinese Tartary; those in the south parts of the empire being a small breed, unfit for draught or to carry burthens.

There is a species of camel no higher than an ordinary horse, with two bunches on their back covered with long hair, which forms a kind of saddle. The anterior bunch is upon the shoulder, and the other immediately before the buttocks. This animal has not such long legs in proportion as the common camels, and differs also from those in having a shorter and thicker neck, covered with hair as long as that of goats. They are generally of a yellowish dun colour, but some are inclined to red, and marked with an ash colour in particular places. Their legs are much thicker

thicker than those of the common dromedary, and therefore better accommodated for supporting the weight of a heavy load, and enduring the fatigue of a long journey.

In the mountains near Peking, there is an animal much resembling the roe-buck, which the Chinese call *kiang tchang tse*, that is, the musk roe-buck. It carries no horns, and the hair is of a blackish colour. The musk is included in a bag, composed of a very thin membrane, covered with extremely fine hair; to which it adheres all round the cavity in the form of a salt. The female of this species produces no musk, or such at least as is totally destitute of fragrance. Those animals are said to feed on serpents, which are so much affected by the scent of the musk, at a certain distance, as to be rendered incapable of stirring. The flesh of the buck is reckoned exceeding good, and frequently used at the best tables.

In the southern provinces there are all kinds of parrots, exactly resembling those of America, both in plumage and loquacity. But they are surpassed by the *kni ki*, or golden hen, so named from its superior beauty to every other species of the winged race. The delicate and splendid plumage on the head of this bird, the liveliness of the yellow and red, the inimitable shadowing of the tail, with the variety of colours in the wings, and its well-shaped body, conspire to bestow upon it that unrivalled distinction which it has universally obtained from all the writers on ornithology. Though this bird might seem to be endowed by nature with such qualities as ought for ever to exempt it from falling a sacrifice to the voluptuousness of the human palate, we are nevertheless informed that its flesh is more delicate than that of the pheasant.

Another beautiful bird of this country is the *hai tsing*, which resembles our finest falcons, but is far superior in strength and size. It is chiefly found in the province of Shen si, and in some parts of Tartary.

Here are likewise domestic birds, or poultry, of all kinds, the eggs of which, as in Egypt, are hatched in ovens heated with horse-dung. To which we may add, that the rivers and lakes afford great plenty of water-fowl, especially wild-ducks. The manner of catching those in this country, as well as in India, is very curious, and deserves to be mentioned.

When the fowler spies his game, he wades with only his head above the water, which is covered with a pot full of holes, for the convenience of breathing and seeing his object. The pot is stuck all over with feathers, to deceive the game; so that when he approaches them, either by swimming or otherwise, they discover no marks of apprehension: the fowler then lays hold of them by the feet, drawing them down under the water; and the rest of the fowls, imagining that their companions have only dived, are not in the least disturbed, but continue swimming round the place, till perhaps they are all taken in the same manner.

In the province of Quang tong there is a species of butterfly, which, on account of the size, and the great beauty of the variegated colours, is held in peculiar estimation, and used at court as ornaments.

They lie motionless on the trees in the day time, when they are easily taken; but in the night they flutter about much like our bats, and several of them appear to be not inferior to those in dimensions.

China abounds in all the same kinds of fish that we meet with in Europe, such as sturgeons, carp, soal, trout, salmon, &c. and also in several others of a delicious taste, unknown in this quarter of the world. One of the most remarkable among those is the *tcho kia yu*, or the armour-fish, so named from its being covered with sharp scales, placed in right lines one over another, in the manner of tiles on the roof of a house. The flesh of it is very white, and greatly resembles veal in taste.

Another delicate fish is caught in calm weather, which is distinguished by the name of the meal-fish, on account of its extraordinary whiteness. The fish of this species are found in such prodigious shoals on some parts of the coast, that it is not uncommon to take four hundred weight of them with one draught of the net. A third species, called the *hoang yu*, is likewise described as being of an excellent taste, and some of them are so large as to weigh eight hundred pound.

The gold-fish are generally between three and four inches in length, and proportionably thick. The male is of a beautiful red from the head half way down the body, and the remaining part seems to be gilded in a manner incomparably superior to all the similar performances of art. The female is white, and has the tail, and some part of the body perfectly like silver: their tail is not flat, like that of other fish, but forms a kind of tuft peculiar to this beautiful species. The delicacy of those fish is represented as being correspondent to their elegant and splendid appearance; for we are told that they are much hurt, sometimes killed, by a great noise, such as that of guns or thunder; as they are likewise by a violent motion, or strong smell.

No country produces greater variety of plants than this extensive empire, which abounds not only in the European, but the tropical fruits, and likewise in some plants not to be found in any other part of the world. Among those the following deserve particularly to be mentioned.

The first is the *tsi chu*, or the varnish-tree, more remarkable for the valuable gum which it yields, than for any thing grand in its own appearance. Its size is but small, its bark whitish, and the leaf resembles that of the wild cherry-tree. The gum of this plant is greatly esteemed as a varnish, and universally applied to that purpose. It receives all colours alike, and if well managed, neither loses its lustre by the changes of the air, nor the age of the wood on which it is spread.

The second tree is *tong chu*, from which a liquor is obtained of a similar nature to the varnish. It so nearly resembles the walnut-tree, as sometimes to be mistaken for it. The nut contains a thickish oil mixed with pulp, which, as well as the varnish, is supposed to have a poisonous quality. It is often used alone to varnish wood, which it preserves from the bad effects of rain; and likewise to give a lustre to the floors of the emperor's apartments, and those of the grantees.

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The third remarkable tree is the tallow-tree. It is nearly about the height of a large cherry-tree: the fruit is contained in a rind, which, when ripe, opens in the middle like a chestnut. It consists of white kernels of the size of a hazel-nut, whose pulp has the properties of tallow, and of which candles are accordingly made.

The fourth, which is the most extraordinary of all, is called *pe la chu*, that is, the white wax-tree. It grows not so high as the tallow-tree, from which it also differs in the colour of the bark being whitish, and the leaves of an oblong shape. A small worm fixes itself to the leaves, and forms a sort of comb, the wax of which is very hard and shining, and of far greater value than their common bees-wax.

The different kinds of *fantal* or *fanders-tree* likewise grow here in great plenty, as well as a tree that produces *pease*, and which, for tallness, spreading branches, and thickness, gives place to very few.

The wood in greatest esteem among the Chinese for their buildings is what they distinguish by the name of *nan mon*, and imagine will never decay. The most beautiful, however, is the *tsetam*, of a reddish black, and variegated with numerous veins, which seem as if painted. Of this wood is made the finest sort of their cabinet work.

We may rank in the same class of natural productions a sort of reed or knotty cane, called the *bamboo*, which sometimes grows to such a height that it is often reckoned among their trees. Of those bamboos are often made canoes or wherries, which, on account of the lightness of the cane, are rowed with incredible velocity.

Among the shrubs in China, there are but three or four kinds that bear odiferous flowers; and in the catalogue of herbs we meet with one named the herb of a thousand years, which the natives pretend never dies. But of all the shrubs of this country, the *teaplant* particularly merits attention, on account of the almost universal use in which it seems now to be established. This celebrated exotic, which bears a great affinity to the myrtle, seldom grows beyond the size of a rose-bush, or at most six or seven feet high. Its leaves are about an inch and a half long, narrow, tapering to a point, and indented like those of our sweet briar, which it also resembles in the flower. The shrub is an evergreen, and bears a small fruit, which contains several round blackish seeds, about the bigness of a large pea. The tea leaves are usually gathered at three seasons: the first about the latter end of February, or beginning of March; the second in the beginning of April; and the third about two months later. The method of preparing the tea is by drying the leaves over a furnace, after which they are rolled with the hands in one direction, while some assistants are fanning them, that they may cool the more quickly, and retain longer the curl they have received. This process is performed two or three times before the tea is laid up in the stores. *Kämpfer* is of opinion, that the difference of teas depends upon the soil and culture of the plant, the age of the leaves when gathered, and the particular method of curing them; and that the qua-

lity of tea must be greatly affected by those circumstances is the more probable, as it is affirmed that there is only one species of the tea tree.

The use of the infusion of tea is supposed to have been introduced by the Chinese, for the purpose of correcting the water, which, in many parts of that country, possesses a disagreeable taste. It was first imported into Europe by the Dutch East India Company, about the beginning of the last century, since which time, the use of it has gradually increased, till it has become universally familiar with people of every rank. It is computed, that, exclusive of the immense quantity of tea annually smuggled into these kingdoms, three millions of pounds, at least, are allowed every year for home consumption in England.

Various are the opinions which have been entertained relative to the effects of tea-drinking. That it produces watchfulness in some constitutions, is most certain, when drank in the evening in a considerable quantity. That it enlivens, refreshes, exhilarates, is likewise well known. From these circumstances, it would seem that the tea contains a penetrating principle, speedily exciting the action of the nerves; in very irritable constitutions, to such a degree as to give uneasy sensations, and produce spasmodic affections: in less irritable constitutions it rather affords pleasure, though not without occasionally producing some tendency to tremors, and agitation bordering upon pain. The finer the tea, the more obvious are those effects; which perhaps is one reason why the lower classes of people, who can only procure the most common, are in general the least sufferers.—In judging of the effects of tea, an allowance ought certainly to be made for those of the water in which it is infused, which being generally drank warm, may at least contribute to excite the complaints usually ascribed to the ingredient alone. Should we determine our opinion by an enquiry into the constitutions of the Chinese, who drink it in great quantities, there will appear to be strong reason for concluding that it is actually of a relaxing quality. For inflammatory diseases seem to be less frequent in China than in some other countries; and even in Britain we have authority for the assertion, that disorders of the same kind are much more rare in the present age, than at the time before the use of tea became so general among the inhabitants. It is certain that this beverage is not equally injurious to all constitutions; but from the symptoms it excites in persons of an irritable state of body, and also from the effects of the infusion of tea, when applied to the nerves of living animals, we must admit that it possesses such a sedative quality as is found in narcotic substances, and which seems to exist chiefly in tea of the highest flavour. Those who think otherwise, may find an advocate for their opinion in *Dr. Bontikoe*, a Dutch physician, who maintained that it may be drank with safety to the quantity of one or two hundred cups in a day. It is proper to observe, however, that *Bontikoe's* vindication of tea was published at a time when the Dutch entirely engrossed that trade, and were solicitous to extend the consumption of their new commodity over Europe.

Another plant, of which both the leaves and roots

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are used by the Chinese in the manner of tea, but drank in less quantity, is the ginseng. It is supposed by them to contain the virtues of almost every other simple, and one of the pompous names with which it is dignified, is, *the plant that dispenses immortality*.

In some parts of China there is found a sort of earth, which, being boiled and crystallized, yields a good white salt; and in some places the ground, after rain, exudes a kind of froth, which is made into an excellent soap. The province of Quang si in particular affords that valuable earth or clay of which their porcelain or China ware is made, so universally admired for its elegance. This earth is of two kinds, the one called kaolin, which is full of glittering particles, the other called petunse, which is of an unmixed white, exceeding fine and soft to the touch. The petunse is cut out of the mine in form of bricks, and is much harder than the kaolin, the latter of which, however, is what gives the strength and firmness to the porcelain. Here is also found in considerable quantities the lapis lazuli, together with a species of jasper, small rubies, rock crystal, and quarries of fine marble, equal to the best in Europe, but little used by the Chinese in their public buildings.

The mountains of China abound in great variety of metals and minerals, among which are gold and silver. Their gold mines, however, are not permitted to be opened, on account of the great quantities of that commodity washed down by torrents in the rainy seasons, and which multitudes of people are constantly employed in gathering. In respect of silver, the quantity they have amassed must be prodigious, for what comes once into the country can never go out again, the laws that prohibit it are so severe. They have also in this kingdom mines of copper, iron, quicksilver, and some lead; but the last of these metals is very scarce, as appears by our English lead finding so quick a market in China. Besides these, they have several compound metals, the manner of mixing which they keep as a great secret; particularly the sort called tonbaga, of the colour of very pale brass, to which they ascribe several extraordinary virtues, as those of expelling poison, stopping hemorrhages, and the like, merely by wearing it in the form of a ring or necklace.

### C H A P. III.

*Of the canals—cities—public buildings—populousness—government.*

**A**MONG the improvements which this country has received by means of cultivation and art, the first objects that attract our attention are the great and numerous canals, with which all the provinces are so intersected, that internal navigation is maintained between the different extremities of the empire, and a traveller may be carried by water to almost every town. Over these canals are magnificent bridges, the arches consisting of marble, and so high that vessels may pass through them with their masts standing. The rivers and canals may be said to be inhabited as well as the land; for in many places they are almost entirely

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covered with boats, which are rendered as commodious as houses, and are the perpetual dwellings of great numbers of people. Besides these vessels there are rafts or floats constantly moving along the rivers and canals, upon which are built little huts or cabins, where the men, and sometimes their families live, till they have disposed of the timber; of which great quantities are conveyed from the southern provinces almost to Peking, being upwards of a thousand miles.

The cities are generally built of a square or oblong form, surrounded with great high walls and towers, and furnished with at least one stately gate in each front, though sometimes there are more. The streets run in straight lines, intersected by lanes running parallel to each other, and adorned with spacious piazzas, temples, and other public buildings. Some cities are perfectly round, others oval, but all within side of the same invariable uniformity. They are for the most part well supplied with water, from rivers or artificial canals. The houses are commonly of wood, raised on pillars, and covered with tiles; and are rather commodious than elegant. They have no windows fronting the streets; the gates and principal apartments always face the south, as often as the situation will admit of that aspect.

The most expensive buildings, however, and those in which the Chinese discover a whimsical extravagance, are the temples, which they rear to a considerable height. These are filled with an incredible number of idols, and before them hang lamps continually burning. Of temples of the first rank, they reckon about four hundred and eighty, besides a prodigious number of others, which are served by three hundred and fifty thousand bouzes or priests. The number of bridges almost exceeds belief: one of the most celebrated is that over the river Saffrany, which joins the mountains together: it is four hundred cubits long, five hundred high, and all of one single arch, whence travellers call it the flying bridge. The structure of several of these bridges, for the convenience of traffic, is very extraordinary; of which we meet with an example in that over the city of Chan chew. It is built upon a hundred and thirty barges, chained to one another, yet so as to open in any part, for the passage of vessels which are continually sailing up and down. A third sort stands on pillars, without any arch. Some of these are of considerable length and breadth, particularly one in the province of Fo kyen: it is erected on three hundred pillars, is six hundred and sixty perches in length, and one and a half broad; curiously built and adorned with parapets, containing much sculpture and imagery. A fourth sort are made with arches, likewise of great length, breadth, and beauty. That at Oxu, the capital of Fo kyen, consists of an hundred arches, and is above a hundred and fifty fathoms long.

Among the public buildings the triumphal arches hold a conspicuous place. These are commonly built of square stone, carved with figures of men and beasts, and have panegyric inscriptions to the persons for whom they were erected: the number of these, and the fine towers in every considerable city, is said to amount to one thousand one hundred and fifty-nine; and among

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them are about one hundred and eighty-five mausoleums of exquisite beauty and magnificence. When we consider the great expence that is lavished on these edifices, as well as the purposes for which they were erected, it is surprizing that the Chinese have never yet built them on such a plan as could render their existence more durable. They dig no foundation, as in other countries, but lay the first stone on the surface of the ground; so that the most sumptuous buildings soon decay.

After this general account of the buildings, we shall take a more particular view of the three principal cities, which are, Nanking, Canton, and Peking.

Nanking, once the capital of China, is situate at the end of a deep bay of the river Yangs ke han, which is two leagues broad, and covered with an astonishing number of trading vessels. While it continued to be the residence of the court, this city is said to have been ninety miles in circumference. From the ruins of its old walls, it evidently appears to be greatly diminished in extent, and is now said to be but twenty miles in compass at most. Hardly any remains are left of its ancient magnificent palace, and other sumptuous buildings; and we only see the ruins of some temples, imperial sepulchres, and other monuments. The houses are well built, and filled with inhabitants, who carry on a flourishing commerce. There are still many lofty towers, temples, and other handsome edifices. The streets are paved in the middle with large marble slabs, and on the sides with variety of pebbles and other stones curiously inlaid. By some it has been said that the inhabitants of Nanking amounted to thirty-two millions of souls. This incredible account, however, appears to be greatly exaggerated. According to Kao it contains at present two millions, though others fix the number at one million; but this computation is supposed to fall considerably short of the truth. In the environs of the city there are a vast many temples, palaces, pleasure-houses, and fine gardens; there is particularly, about six miles from the city, a pleasant wood, about twelve miles round, of stately pines, in the middle of which is a mount covered with sepulchral temples of ancient monarchs. About the like distance there is raised on another eminence, a spacious terrace of large square stones, with four flights of marble steps, on which a magnificent temple is erected: the roof is supported by a row of columns finely carved and polished, twenty-four cubits high, and proportionably thick. The gates are curiously carved in bas-relief, and inlaid with gold and silver. The windows are fenced with a kind of gold net, so extremely fine as hardly to be perceptible: within are several thrones, enriched with all sorts of pearls and precious stones of immense value.

The most curious edifice in the city is the high octogon tower, or pagod, covered with porcelain, painted in various colours: it has nine galleries over one another, all adorned with windows, fine balustrades, festoons, and other ornaments in relievo. A bell hangs at every end of the galleries, and the ascent to the top is by a hundred and eighty-four steps. The rooms are richly painted, carved, and gilt; and the

upper gallery is adorned with variety of large figures carved in stone. On the top is a spire, which renders the whole fabric two hundred feet high. The breadth at the bottom is eighty feet, but diminishes gradually upwards. A winding stair-case leads to the top, whence is a most noble prospect of the city and adjacent plain. Among the numerous objects which diversify this landscape, are some hills situate at a distance, and formed into various fantastic shapes, in the manner peculiar to the nation.

The city of Nanking is yet the largest in the empire, and usually the residence of the most eminent mandarines when out of employment. The gates of the city are of iron, and there are four at every entrance, one within another. Here are likewise two of the largest bells in the world, fallen to the ground by their vast weight: the height of one is eleven feet, and the weight, including that of the clapper, is fifty thousand pounds.

In going along the streets of Nanking, a most offensive smell arises from the ordure which the porters are carrying in tubs for manuring the orchards, and sell to the gardeners for greens, vinegar, or money; they giving a better price for that which is come of flesh, than of fish, which they know by tasting it with their tongue. Nothing is more frequent on the river than boats loaded with that filth; and along the roads there are convenient places, whitened, with seats, and covered, for the use of passengers, erected with an economical view of accumulating the same kind of produce.

Canton, or Quang tong, capital of the cognominal province, is situate on the east side of the large river Ta, about fifty miles from its mouth, and is not only the greatest port in China, but the most frequented by Europeans. The city wall is about five miles in circumference, and is entered by seven iron gates, through which no European, if known, is ever permitted to pass. Here are many triumphal arches, and pagods stocked with images; but the houses are not magnificent, consisting generally of one, and none of more than two stories. They have no chimneys, instead of which a shallow iron pot, filled with charcoal, is planted in the middle of the room in winter. The windows are made of cane or rattan. In winter they cut oyster-shells in the shape of lozenges, and set them in wooden frames, which afford a very good light. In the market places, it is common to see dogs, cats, rats, and the most loathsome animals, exposed to sale by the butchers; for such is the taste of the Chinese, that they make no scruple of eating any sort of meat. It is common here to meet with beggars, of both sexes, extremely offensive by their nastiness, and who have lost their sight. It has been imagined by some, that this endemial blindness is the consequence of living so much on rice; but the disease is with more justice ascribed to the hot winds which blow at certain seasons.

About the months of December or January, Canton is subject to very tempestuous and rainy weather, at which time all the streets of the city are overflowed, and the water is in many places so deep that a small boat might be rowed without difficulty. It is computed

puted that there is in this city one million two hundred thousand inhabitants; and the number of trading vessels constantly in the river, is seldom less than five thousand. It is the great mart of the European trade with China, and among those of some other nations, the English have established here a factory.

Peking is situated in a fruitful plain, twenty leagues distant from the Great Wall, and ever since the conquest of China by the Tartars has been considered as the capital of the empire, on account of its being the residence of the court. The walls of this city are much less in circuit than those of Nanking, but greatly superior in beauty. The gates, of which there are nine, are high and well vaulted, supporting large pavilions that consist of nine stories. The streets run in a straight direction at least a league in length, and are about one hundred and twenty feet wide, with shops for the most part on both sides. The houses, however, are far from corresponding with this magnificence, for they are meanly built, and extremely low.

The emperor's palace stands in the centre of the city, fronting the south, inclosed by a double wall of brick; being in length two Italian miles, and half as much in breadth. It consists of a large mass of buildings, with courts and gardens intermixt. Though it possesses neither the symmetry nor beauty of European architecture, yet when we view its numerous arches sustained on massy pillars, the towering roofs shining with gilt tiles, the splendid ornaments of carving, varnishing, gilding, and painting, with the pavements which are almost all of marble, or porcelain, it excites in the mind of the spectator that pleasure which arises from great and magnificent objects, where novelty compensates for the capriciousness of taste, and profusion of embellishment supplies the place of more regular design.

The walls of the cities in China are generally erected so high as to hide the prospect of the buildings, and are so broad that one may easily ride on horseback upon them. Those of Peking, which consist of brick, are forty feet in height, and are flanked with a great number of square towers uniformly disposed at equal distances. In several parts there are likewise staircases to serve for the admission of cavalry.

The multitude of inhabitants in this kingdom is almost incredible. It has been computed that the number of families amounts to upwards of eleven millions, exclusive of beggars, mandarines in employment, soldiers, bachelors, licentiates, doctors, mandarines above age, all who live on the rivers, bonzes, eunuchs, and all persons of the blood royal; because those only are polled who till the land, or pay taxes to the king. There are in the empire, according to the same authority, more than fifty-nine million of men. Some even make them three times the number that there is in all Europe. So astonishing a populousness naturally affords presumption that the government of China must be peculiarly favourable to the domestic interests of the subject. Other causes, however, conspire to this extraordinary multiplication, which are, the great plenty of all sorts of commodities, the indelicate appetite of the people, which can be gratified with food of the vilest kind, the universal practice of marrying at an early

age, the great internal navigation of the country, the reluctance of the inhabitants to emigrate, with their remote and uninviting situation in respect of powerful and ambitious princes; to which we may add, the unrivalled veneration of the Chinese for the parental character.

The constitution of China is that of an absolute monarchy, limited in some particulars by the aristocratical part of the nation; though we may safely affirm that the supposed restriction of the imperial power is in reality rather nominal than operative and efficacious. The emperor, say the Chinese, is invested by the laws with unbounded authority, but he is obliged by the same laws to use that authority with moderation; a distinction too indefinite to be considered as an impregnable bulwark to the public freedom. But even admitting such a coercive principle in the constitution, the probability of its ever being exerted seems hardly to be compatible with the extraordinary influence annexed to the royal prerogative. The veneration in which the emperor is held by his subjects is little short of idolatry: he is styled The Son of Heaven, and Sole Governor of the Earth. All places in the empire are in his disposal: he is the source of honour; by him all taxes are imposed; his authority extends even to the lives of his subjects; and he is the unquestionable arbiter of peace and war. Even the dead, that ought to be exempted from mortal jurisdiction, remain under the vassalage of this unbounded potentate, who either disgraces or honours them, rewards or punishes their families, as his own almighty caprice and uncontrollable will shall determine. The title of duke, count, or others for which our language has no name, he frequently confers when the vanity of human distinction is no more. He may canonize them as saints, or even command his subjects to pay them divine adoration.

The executive government, under the emperor, is lodged in the body of mandarines, who are divided into nine classes, and these subdivided into nine degrees; the rank of mandarine, however, being merely titular, and conferred upon them by the emperor without any regard to their employments. The subordination of those different orders is so perfect, that the obedience and veneration of the inferior for the higher classes, as well as of the highest for the emperor, are totally without example in the institutions of any other country.

The mandarines of the first class are members of the council of state, which is the greatest honour or dignity a learned man can rise to in the empire. This is the supreme court of the kingdom, and is composed of two other ranks of mandarines, besides the first already mentioned. Their business is to examine and judge of all petitions to his majesty upon the most important affairs of the state. When they come to a resolution, they present it to the emperor in writing, who either confirms or cancels it as he thinks proper.

There are likewise eleven other great courts, among which the affairs of the nation are divided. Six of them belong to the learned mandarines, and five to the military. None of those courts, however, can deter-

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mine the affair committed to it without the concurrence of the other: each of them has a superior, who examines all that is transacted, and if he finds any error, presently acquaints the emperor with it. In China, those men are called Mad Dogs, on account of the mischief of which they are frequently the instruments. The peculiar employment of the first of those courts is to furnish all the kingdom with mandarines; to enquire into their merits and demerits, and to represent them to the emperor, that they may either be promoted or degraded, as a reward or punishment for their conduct. The second court is the emperor's great treasury or court of exchequer, which has the management of all the treasuries, revenues, and taxes; as also of the expences. The third court has the inspection of the ceremonies, rites, sciences, and arts: it has the charge of the emperor's music, of the temples, and of the sacrifices which the emperor offers to the sun, moon, heaven, earth, and to his ancestors. It has full power over arts and mechanics, and over all the religions professed in the empire. The fourth sovereign court has the direction of war and military affairs through the whole kingdom: it chooses and prefers all officers, whose station it likewise regulates in the different provinces. The fifth tribunal is the criminal court of the empire: and the sixth is called the court of public works; it has the care of building and repairing the royal palaces and tombs, and the public temples; it also inspects the towers, bridges, canals, and high roads. These six courts have under them forty-four of inferior authority. One court contains a great number of learned mandarines, the members of which are the preceptors of the prince who is to succeed to the imperial dignity. They write all the transactions at court, or in the empire, which deserve to be transmitted to posterity. They compose the general history of the kingdom; and they are properly the emperor's men of learning whom he chooses to be counsellors. Another court is the royal school of the empire. A third court is appointed, the privilege of which is to tell the emperor what faults he commits in government; but notwithstanding the manly freedom which some of the members of this court are said to have exercised on particular occasions, there is reason to think that, if it has not really been instituted for the purpose rather of gratifying the vanity, than controuling the power of the prince, its authority is entirely nominal, and that the language of remonstrance never was held to the emperor with constitutional and inviolable security to the person from whom it proceeded.

Besides the courts already mentioned, resident at Peking, each province has a sovereign court on which all the others depend. The president of this court has the title of viceroy, and acts immediately under the emperor and the six supreme courts in the capital. Some viceroys have the government of two, three, or four provinces, especially on the frontiers of Tartary. Besides the viceroy, there is in every province a visitor, and another officer of great note, who has the command of all the troops in the province. There is likewise no metropolitan city without its civil and criminal court, which acts in the same affairs as the

sovereign courts at Peking. Every province is subdivided into districts, each of which has a mandarine, who is an inspector of all public transactions. It is his business to cause the governors of cities and towns to pay the emperor's duties punctually.

The number of learned mandarines throughout the empire is thirteen thousand six hundred and forty-seven, and that of the military eighteen thousand one hundred and sixty-seven. They are promoted to higher employments by regular progression every three years. When a mandarine's father or mother dies he must resign his office to mourn for the same space of time; sleeping upon a little straw by the tomb, eating for some months nothing but rice boiled in water, and wearing, for the first year, a garment of sackcloth.

The emperor, like other eastern princes, is seldom seen in public; spending his time chiefly in the palace amidst the ladies of his court. He has the liberty to nominate his successor, whom he may not only choose from the royal family, but from amongst his other subjects. We are informed that some of the sovereigns of China, finding none of their own children, though numerous, fit to support the weight of a crown, have chosen for their successors men of obscure birth and fortune, but who were eminent for their virtue and abilities. For many ages, however, it has been the practice to restrict the election to their own family, though it appears that the object of royal favour is not always the oldest.

A few salutary maxims impressed on the minds of the Chinese from their earliest age, seem to be productive of greater influence on the public tranquillity, than the political constitution of the nation is calculated to maintain. One of those is, that the emperor is universally considered as the father of his people, between whom and their sovereign, as head of the great family of the empire, all the reciprocal duty and affection of parent and children are supposed to exist, almost without the possibility of violation on either side. This opinion, so favourable to public order, pervades the whole body of the empire, and is remarkably diffused through all the different degrees of subordination; which it likewise tends to preserve from the meanest subject in the kingdom, to those of the most elevated rank. The same principle that secures the patriarchal authority of the sovereign, enjoins children such love and obedience to their parents, as never was carried in any other country to an equal pitch of enthusiasm; and it is extended with more than common veneration to all who administer the executive department of the state. Another moral principle established among them is, that all people ought to observe towards each other the strictest rules of civility and complaisance, as the most effectual means both of securing obedience to the laws, and restraining individuals from any encroachment on the rights of society. So great is their attention to this object, that certain ceremonies and modes of behaviour are prescribed for the use of the people, almost in every circumstance of life; to neglect or deviate from which etiquette, would be considered as indelible infamy. By the laws of the empire parents are laid under such an inducement to give their children good

good education, that if any of the latter commits a crime, and cannot be taken, the magistrate secures the father, who is severely bastinadoed for not having taught his son good manners. Amidst all the specious restraints, however, which the singular constitution of China appears to have imposed on the inhabitants for the security of public virtue, the administration of government is perhaps the most corrupt that is to be found in any country. From the highest sovereign tribunal, to the mandarines of the lowest rank, venality universally prevails, and the most rapacious speculation is exercised by all orders of the magistrates over every province of the empire. That sedition and popular commotions prove not more frequently the consequence of those flagrant abuses of the state, is to be imputed chiefly to the profusion of all the necessaries and luxuries of life, in which the empire abounds; and we may add, to the dissimulation, mutual distrust, and suppression of the spirit of enterprize, that naturally result from the established mode of education; with the extreme difficulty of moving the springs of revolt, and exciting a general insurrection in so unwieldy and extensive an empire.

## C H A P. IV.

*Of the revenues—military force—high-roads—manner of travelling—agriculture—gardening.*

IT is difficult to ascertain the revenues of China with any degree of precision, because, besides the pecuniary taxes, vast sums are levied on commodities. According to the most authentic information, the treasury receives every year in money about twenty-two millions of Chinese crowns; each of which amounts to six shillings of British coin. But the rice, corn, salt, silk, cloth, and other articles of produce and manufacture, with the customs and forfeited estates, are computed to be upwards of sixty millions of crowns. By a particular calculation, the ordinary revenue of the emperor is said to be at least twenty-one millions six hundred thousand pounds of our money, which is carried to the mandarines by the inhabitants, without the intervention of any officer appointed to collect it.

The military force, as in most other countries, consists of cavalry and foot soldiers. The latter of these is computed at about five hundred thousand, and the number of cavalry, which is usually stationed round Peking about one hundred thousand. This prodigious multitude is constantly kept in pay, for the purpose of suppressing robberies, or extinguishing any sedition that may arise in the empire, rather than as a defence from invasion; and it is said, that upon occasion of any such internal tumult, the cavalry perform their march with extraordinary celerity. Their uniforms are short gowns of blue Nanking stuff, with rattan caps, ornamented with a bunch of red hair.

The common arms of the Chinese are the bow, and a long scymiter. Fire arms have hitherto been little used, yet muskets begin to be more generally carried by the emperor's order. Though cannon had long since been invented in this country, it neither was well cast

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nor proportioned, till the foundery was put under the direction of a person named Verbiert, a Jesuit, who went thither in the quality of a missionary. The profession of soldier here descends from father to son; the emperor not only allowing them competent pay, according to their station, but also rice sufficient for their whole families, which is furnished by the provinces for that purpose. They are instructed in military exercise, though greatly inferior to the dexterity of European troops; and they are far from meriting the character of warlike, especially since their conquest by the Tartars. Their education, it must be acknowledged, is very unfavourable to the spirit either of valour or activity: for their minds, from an early age, are chiefly habituated to subjects of moral speculation; and the perfect security of the empire from abroad, joined to the pacific disposition of the natives, seldom or never affords any opportunity of exerting courage, or improving those talents which constitute the merit of a soldier. The infantry are for the most part stationed in fortresses, of which the number is very great. These are distinguished into seven different orders, and amount to upwards of two thousand, without including the towers, castles, and redoubts of the great wall, which have each their separate garrisons. There are besides more than three thousand towers or castles, called tay, in which are constantly kept centinels and other soldiers on duty, whose business it is to watch the rise of any commotion, and communicate the alarm to the neighbouring forts. On this internal defence of troops and fortresses rests entirely the security of China; for though a maritime country, it possesses not a single vessel which can come into any competition with the lowest order of English frigates.

The tranquility, as well as convenience of the inhabitants, is greatly promoted by the excellence and disposition of the numerous high roads, which stretch from the different extremities of the kingdom, facilitating not only the march of troops on any emergency, but likewise the progress of travellers; though many of the latter, on account of the commodiousness of water carriages, frequently perform their journeys on that element. Over valleys and low grounds, the roads are considerably raised; and, in some places, passages are cut through mountains and rocks. The roads are generally about twenty yards wide, furnished with Mercuries at proper distances to direct the traveller, and likewise with guards of militia, as a protection from robberies. They are kept in good repair, in expectation of the emperor, who annually makes a tour, or at least gives out that he designs it, through some part of his dominions; and if he finds them in bad condition, the governors of the provinces through which he passes are in danger of being severely punished. It is, however, very inconvenient travelling by land in a dry season, on account of the dust which the lightness of the soil occasions to rise in great quantity. The beasts used for this purpose are horses, mules, and camels; and the vehicles either chariots with two wheels, litters, or chairs made of cane; the poles of which are carried by the chairmen on their shoulders, and not in their hands as with us. Upon

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all the roads are houses for the entertainment of the mandarines, going to or returning from their posts, where they live at the public expence, and at every stage have horses and carriages provided for them. Other travellers may be accommodated with the same conveniences, that can procure an order for the purpose, which is not difficult to obtain; or they may be supplied with every thing at their own charge, at a moderate price. A book of the roads is published by authority, containing an account of the distances of towns, and the most convenient stages.

The journeys of the mandarines are performed with particular pomp and solemnity. If he be of the military order, he rides on horseback, but if an officer of the civil department, he is accommodated with a chair. Before them are carried several painted flags, with large characters in gold, expressing their titles and dignities, while they are shaded by splendid umbrellas from the heat of the sun. In the front of the procession walk a number of men, with high crowned hats, making a hideous noise, and calling incessantly to clear the way for the mandarine. These are followed by others with chains in their hands, which they are ready to throw round the necks of such as should not instantly obey the summons, who are dragged in that manner as a punishment for their atrocious offence; while a band of lictors that succeeds, and armed with various implements of torture and execution, exercise the most merciless cruelty on the miserable victims of their resentment. There happens, however, but very few instances of this kind; for the respect which is paid by the people to the mandarines in general, even exceeds the bounds of moderation. When a person of that character admits justice in the courts, he is never addressed but on the knee: and when he takes a journey, all the inhabitants of the towns through which he passes run to to meet him, proffering their services, and conducting him on the road with great solemnity, while tables elegantly covered with sweetmeats, tea, and other liquors, are displayed on each side in honour of the venerated traveller. If he proceeds by water, which is often the case, his retinue is equally magnificent.

In travelling through China neither hedge nor ditch is to be observed, and but few trees, so much are the natives averse to losing the smallest space of ground. Agriculture is here in the greatest esteem, and profecuted with uncommon ardour. Such is the industry of those people that even the mountains are not exempted from cultivation; and it is common to see them cut into terrasses, one above another, from the bottom to the top, which form a most beautiful prospect. The hills indeed are for the most part not rocky, as in Europe, but composed of a light and porous soil; in such as are rocky, however, the Chinese loosen the stones, making of them little walls to support the terrasses, which they afterwards level and sow with grain. The provinces that lie to the north and west produce wheat, barley, several kinds of millet, tobacco, pease which are always green, with black and yellow pease, that serve instead of oats for horses. They also produce rice, but in less quantity, and, in some places, of such a hardness as to require extraordinary boiling.

The southern provinces produce great quantities of rice, as the land lies low, and the country abounds much in water.

One method of watering the ground seems to be peculiar to this country, and affords a striking instance not only of the invention, but the laborious application of the people to the practice of husbandry. The fields which are of the same level are divided into plots, but where great inequalities occur, these are cut into stories in the form of an amphitheatre; and moisture being necessary to the growth of the rice, the farmers make reservoirs at proper distances, to retain both the rain and the water that descends from the mountains, for the purpose of distributing the collection over the adjacent fields. The conveyance is performed by means of a hydraulic engine, extremely simple in construction as well as management. It is composed of a great number of small pieces of board, six or seven inches square placed at equal distances, and strung through the middle in the form of a ring. This chain is laid in a wooden trough made of three planks, in such a manner that the lower part of the ring lies at the bottom of the cavity, which it exactly fills, and passes round a moveable cylinder that turns on an axle: the upper part of the ring is supported by a kind of drum, furnished with small boards, so fixed that they tally with the boards of the chain. This drum, when turned about by a power applied to its axle-tree, puts the chain in motion, the inferior part of which being plunged into the water, and the upper part placed at the same height to which the fluid is to be raised, discharges it in a continued stream, by means of a tube, on the spot that is intended to be watered. This engine is likewise used for the cleansing of canals, on which occasion all the peasants in the neighbourhood assist at the operation.

The soil is so light that they plow with a single buffalo or heifer; after which they clean the ground of all weeds, and if the field be intended for rice, they drench it plentifully with water. They sow the rice in small beds or plots, whence, having attained to the height of six or eight inches, it is transplanted in straight lines, as our gardeners do their beans. The growing crop is constantly supplied with water till it is almost ripe; when, the water being dried up, they cut, and frequently also thresh it out in the field. This species of grain has an ear nearly resembling that of barley, and usually grows four feet, or sometimes two yards high.

They prepare the ground for wheat and barley by grubbing up the grass and roots, and burning them with straw; after which, and having sifted the earth fine, they lay the seed in a straight line in drills, not according to the common practice in other countries.

It is usual with the Chinese to bury in the rice-fields balls of hog's-hair, or that of any other animal, which they imagine enriches the land, and meliorates the crop. On this account, those whose business it is to shave the head, are very careful of preserving the hair for the market. The price of this article is generally a halfpenny a pound, and barks may be often seen loaded with no other commodity.

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When the plant begins to ear, if the land be moistened with spring-water, they mix quick-lime with it, from an opinion that it kills worms and insects, destroys weeds, and increases the fertility of the ground.

It is remarkable that the Chinese have no meadows, natural or artificial, nor have the least conception of fallowing, but sow all their lands with grain. So far, however, is the ground from being exhausted by this uninterrupted course of agriculture, that it annually yields two crops. With manure, as a manure, they are totally unacquainted, but make use of common salt, lime, ashes, and all sorts of animal dung, particularly ordure. Urine also is universally preserved for the same purpose, and sold to advantage. Instead of hay, their horses, buffaloes, and other labouring animals, are fed with straw, roots, beans, and grain of every kind.

Amidst all the attention bestowed on husbandry by this industrious and economical people, their hopes of a plentiful harvest are often disappointed by the prodigious swarms of locusts with which many of the provinces are visited, which happens particularly when great floods are followed by a very dry season.

The peculiar prosperity of agriculture in this country seems to be greatly owing to the high estimation in which it is universally held. We are informed that, through a long succession of ages, it has been the ambition of every emperor to merit the distinction of being the first husbandman in the realm; and two instances are mentioned of persons being nominated to the royal dignity, on no other account than that they had cultivated their humble farms with extraordinary application and success. To honour and protect this useful art appears to be one of the most important objects of government; and the practice of it, as well as receiving encouragement by advantageous privileges, is farther promoted by an annual solemnity, to which the history of no other people affords any similar example. On the fifteenth day of the first moon, in every year, which generally corresponds to the beginning of March, the emperor in person performs the ceremony of opening the ground. In great pomp he proceeds to the field appointed for the ceremony, accompanied by the princes of the blood, the presidents of the great tribunals, and a vast number of mandarines. Two sides of the field are occupied by the emperor's officers and guards; the third is allotted for the husbandmen of the province, who repair hither to behold their art honoured and practised by their sovereign; the fourth is reserved for the mandarines.

The emperor entering the field alone, prostrates himself on the ground, and nine times strikes his head against it in adoration of Tien, the God of heaven. Afterwards, in a prayer composed by the tribunal of public rites, he invokes the blessing of the Almighty on his labour, and that of his people; when, in quality of grand pontiff of the empire, he sacrifices a bullock, which he offers up to Heaven, as the origin of all happiness. While the assistants cut the victim in pieces, and place it on the altar, the emperor is presented with a plough, to which are yoked a pair of bullocks magnificently caparisoned: then laying aside his royal robes, he takes hold of the handle of the

plough, and turns up several furrows the whole length of the field; when, with a complaisant air, resigning the instrument to the mandarines, they successively follow his example, emulating each other in performing this honourable labour with the greatest dexterity. The ceremony ends with distributing money, and pieces of stuff, among the husbandmen present; the most active of whom finish the remaining labour, before the emperor, with great alacrity and address.

Some time after, when the lands are sufficiently prepared, the emperor returns to the field in procession, and begins the sowing of the grain, in the presence of his usual retinue and the husbandmen of the province.

Similar ceremonies are performed on the same day in all the provinces of the empire, by the viceroys, assisted by all the magistrates of their departments.

As a farther incitement to agricultural industry, the viceroys of the several provinces send every year to Peking the names of such husbandmen as have particularly distinguished themselves in their employment. These names are presented to the emperor, who confers on those who bear them some honourable title, as a mark of the royal approbation. But if any person has made an useful discovery, which tends to the improvement of husbandry, he is invited to the capital, his journey being defrayed at the public charge, where he is introduced to the emperor, who, after a reception full of the most attentive affability, sends him home, not only distinguished by honourable titles, but loaded with benefits and favours.

The Chinese ascribe the invention of the plough, and several instruments of agriculture, with the proper method of sowing wheat, rice, barley, and other grains, to some of their emperors; whose successors are said to have written treatises on tillage, the nature of soils, and the manure proper for each, which serve to this day as the standard of practice on those subjects. It is certain, however, that the patronage shewn by the monarchs of this country is productive of the most beneficial effects to the state, and merits the imitation of other sovereigns.

The gardening of the Chinese appears to be regulated by the same fantastic taste that is observable in the style of their buildings. The beauties of nature are those which they justly admire; but in endeavouring to copy her, they constantly deviate into the finical intricacies of art. We seldom meet here with avenues or spacious walks, as in our European plantations; but the ground is laid out in a variety of scenes, where the visitant is led by winding passages cut in the groves, to the several points of view, each of which is marked by a seat, a building, or some other object. The perfection of their gardens consists in the number, beauty, and diversity of those scenes, to which they give the different appellations of pleasing, horrid, and enchanted. Their enchanted scenes answer, in a great measure, to what we call romantic, and in those they make use of several artifices to excite surprize. Sometimes a rapid stream or torrent is conducted under ground, the noise of which strikes the ear of a stranger, who is at a loss to know whence it proceeds. At other times the rocks, buildings, and other objects

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which form the composition, are disposed in such a manner that the wind, passing through various interstices and cavities, causes strange and uncommon murmurs; while different kinds of trees, plants, and flowers, with a variety of the rarest birds and animals every where occur, and complicated echoes, from innumerable places, reverberate the mixt modulation of vocal and inanimate sounds.

In their scenes of horror, they introduce impending rocks, dark caverns, and impetuous cataracts rushing down the mountains from all sides; the trees are apparently shattered by the violence of tempests; some are thrown down, and intercept the course of the torrents; others seem as if blasted by lightning: the buildings are some in ruins, others half consumed by fire; and some miserable huts scattered in the mountains serve both to indicate the existence and wretchedness of the inhabitants. Those scenes are generally succeeded by such as are of a pleasing kind, for the sake of producing the stronger contrast.

When the ground is extensive, and a multiplicity of scenes is to be introduced, they generally adapt each to one particular point of view; but where there is not room for variety, they endeavour to remedy this defect by such a disposition of the objects, that being viewed at different stations, they afford appearances totally distinct. In their large gardens they contrive different scenes for morning, noon, and night, erecting, at the proper points of view, buildings adapted to the recreation of each of the seasons. The climate being generally exceeding hot they employ a great deal of water in those scenes of amusement; with which the smaller gardens are frequently so much covered, that nothing is to be seen but some islands and rocks: the latter of these are formed of a kind of stone found on the southern coasts of the country; the manufacture of them gives employment to a great number of people, and is particularly cultivated by the Chinese.

A large Chinese garden may be considered, in some degree, as an epitome of the universe; consisting of a multiplicity of uncommon objects, disposed in innumerable modes of arrangement, it is particularly calculated to gratify the spectator with those perceptions of pleasure which arise from novelty and surprize; though it seems to be rather the offspring of exuberant whim and conceit, than of a great and regular imagination.

#### C H A P. V.

*Of the persons of the Chinese—dress—diet—diversions—festivals—salutations—miscellaneous customs.*

**I**N the southern provinces of China, the men are generally a good deal under middle size, and of a tawny colour; but towards the north both their stature and complexion are improved. They have flat broad faces, black hair, little dark eyes, short noses, and thin beards; pulling off the greater part of them with tweezers, instead of shaving, and reserving only whiskers, with some long hairs on the bottom of the chin. The nail on the little finger of the left hand is suffered to grow upwards of an inch and a half long by people of condition, and scraped and polished with great care,

being universally considered as one of the distinguishing marks of a gentleman. Before their conquest by the Tartars, the Chinese used to wear their hair of great length, and tie it up as our women do in a roll; but since that period they have been commanded to cut it off upon pain of death, and to go after the Tartar fashion with their heads shaved, leaving only one long lock hanging from the crown, over which they wear a cap in the form of a bell. This covering, however, not coming so low as their ears, they carry a fan in their hands to defend them from the sun. Their garments consist of a long vest, that reaches to the ground, having one lapel folded over the other towards the right side, where it is fastened with five or six gold or silver buttons. The sleeves, which are large towards the shoulder, grow narrower by degrees, and, ending in the shape of an horse shoe, leave nothing to be seen but their fingers. They gird themselves with a large silken sash, the ends of which hang down to the knees. They never appear abroad without hoots, but the form of those is different from ours, having neither heel nor top: such as are used on a long journey are made of leather or black pinked cotton, but in the towns they are generally made of satin, with a border of plush or velvet upon the knee. Within doors, instead of shoes, they wear pattins of black linen, or silk, which flick close to the feet by means of a border that covers the heel. In summer they wear a pair of linen drawers under the vest, which is sometimes covered with another pair of white taffety; and during the winter they use fatten breeches, with cotton or raw silk quilted in them; but in the more northern parts these are generally made of skins. Their shirts are made of different kinds of cloth, according to the season, and are very wide and short; under which, in summer, to prevent them from sticking to the skin, some wear a silken net. Their vest in the winter is generally lined with sheep-skin, or sable imported from Tartary. When they visit any person of quality, or go abroad, their dress is a long silk gown, for the most part blue, girded about the loins; over which they wear a black or violet cloak, that reaches almost to the knees, and is accommodated with wide and short sleeves. These, with a pyramidal cap, for the most part covered with tufts of silk or red hair, a fan in their hands, and stuff boots on their legs, are the usual habiliments of a Chinese man of fashion. The outward appearance of those people is exceedingly grave and modest, in so much that an air of levity, or the style of gallantry, would be considered by them as offences of a very criminal nature; but such indeed is the chastity of the nation, that their language hardly contains one word which expresses the most delicate emotion of virtuous love, far less a lascivious idea.

The features and complexion of the women approach much more to the European comeliness than those of the men, and though they have small eyes lying deep, and flat noses, they are for the most part highly agreeable not only in their faces, but their shape. Little sect, however, they esteem their principal beauty; to attain which, those parts are so fettered in their infancy, that they never grow to their natural size; the foot of a woman being no bigger than that of a child of three

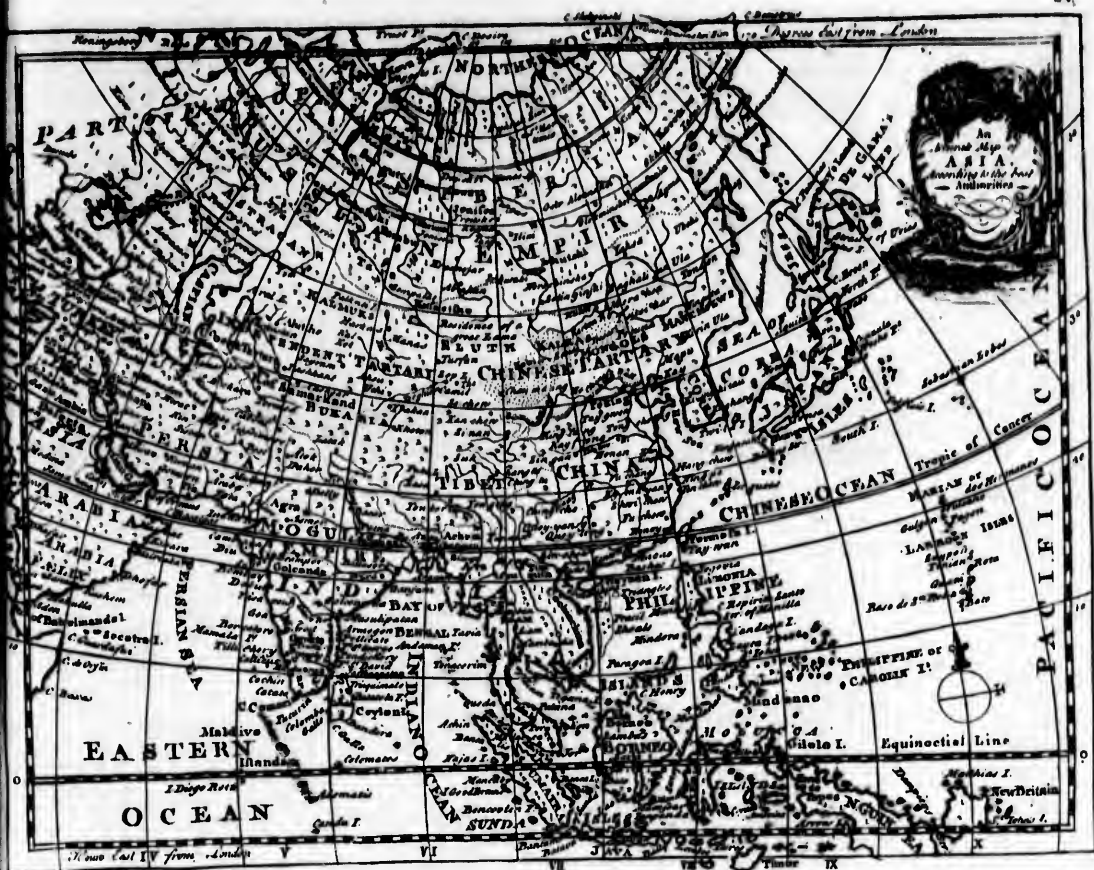
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...society company, but only used in dressings. They use  
neither table-cloth, napkins, spoons, knives nor forks,  
but instead of those, two little short sticks of ebony  
tipped with silver, with which they lift their meat very  
dextrously. Their tables and chairs are remarkably  
high; and at an entertainment, each person sits at a  
separate table, on which meat and rice are served in  
plate, or China cups and saucers. They eat their meat  
cold, but drink their liquor hot: of the latter, tea is  
the principal, which they always drink without sugar.  
In the morning a large tin vessel is made full of it, to  
serve the family for the day.

In the manner of conducting an entertainment they  
are of all people the most ceremonious. A person stands  
No. 2.

to grave and industrious a people, and they practise all  
the kinds with which we are acquainted in Europe;  
such as cards, dice, chess, &c. Of those the latter  
is so fashionable, that it is reckoned a necessary part of  
the education of young women, with whom it seems  
to occupy the place of dancing. This extraordinary  
propensity is the more surprizing, as the indulgence of  
it is prohibited by the laws; notwithstanding which  
there are instances of men who have so immoderately  
given way to their passion, as to play away their estates,  
wives, and children, at hazard upon a card, or a single  
cast of the die.

The greatest festival in the country is that of the  
lanthorns, which is celebrated by all ranks of the people  
with



*Physiognomy—Manners—Institutions—Customs*

**I**N the southern provinces of China, the men are generally a good deal under middle size, and of a tawny colour; but towards the north both their stature and complexion are improved. They have flat broad faces, black hair, little dark eyes, short noses, and thin beards; pulling off the greater part of them with tweezers, instead of shaving, and reserving only whiskers, with some long hairs on the bottom of the chin. The nail on the little finger of the left hand is suffered to grow upwards of an inch and a half long by people of condition, and scraped and polished with great care,

indeed is the chastity of the nation, that their language hardly contains one word which expresses the most delicate emotion of virtuous love, far less a lascivious idea.

The features and complexion of the women approach much more to the European comeliness than those of the men, and though they have small eyes lying deep, and flat noses, they are for the most part highly agreeable not only in their faces, but their shape. Little feet, however, they esteem their principal beauty; to attain which, those parts are so fettered in their infancy, that they never grow to their natural size; the foot of a woman being no bigger than that of a child of three years

years old. This capricious custom obliges them to move very awkwardly; but by the no less arbitrary custom of being entirely excluded from public life, and all social intercourse with the other sex, it is not much that they indulge themselves in walking. The head-dress of the Chinese ladies consists of several curls, interspersed with little tufts of gold and silver flowers, or other ornaments of the same substance. The young ladies wear for the most part a kind of crown made of pasteboard, and covered with fine silk, the front of which rises in a point above the forehead, and in some covered with diamonds. In those, the upper part of the head is adorned with flowers, either natural or artificial, mixt with small bodkins, the ends of which shine with jewels. Elderly women, however, particularly of the lower class, are contented with a piece of fine silk wrapt several times round the head. Their gowns are very long, and cover them from head to foot in such a manner, that nothing but their face can be seen. Their hands are always concealed under long wide sleeves, which almost drag on the ground. Their garments are of different colours, red, blue, or green, according to their fancy; but violet or black is worn only by elderly women. On their feet they wear embroidered shoes, with long piqued toes. The whole dress of the Chinese ladies is such as sets off the uncommon modesty which appears in their looks and deportment.

In the dress of the Chinese, especially the men, the ear is always left bare, and it is remarkable that among this people, this part of the body is universally long, broad, dangling, and of a substance rather fleshy than cartilaginous. To the custom of the ears being constantly exposed, is probably owing the kind of deafness so common in the country, that a Chinese who has attained his fortieth year, is seldom free from it. The nails of the ladies' fingers are never paired, but kept very clean: they allow them to grow more than two inches in length, to shew that they are not employed in servile work.

The Chinese not only use the same kinds of flesh, fish, and fowl as the Europeans, but even such as we should reckon abominable. In general, however, their food consists chiefly of rice, roots, and garden-stuff, with, frequently, broths and soups. Their meat is either broiled or boiled, and instead of bringing a joint to table, it is previously cut into square bits, of the size of dice. Salt or pepper are likewise never brought before company, but only used in dressing. They use neither table-cloth, napkins, spoons, knives nor forks, but instead of those, two little short sticks of ebony tipped with silver, with which they lift their meat very dextrously. Their tables and chairs are remarkably high; and at an entertainment, each person sits at a separate table, on which meat and rice are served in plate, or China cups and saucers. They eat their meat cold, but drink their liquor hot: of the latter, tea is the principal, which they always drink without sugar. In the morning a large tin vessel is made full of it, to serve the family for the day.

In the manner of conducting an entertainment they are of all people the most ceremonious. A person stands

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in the room, whose business it is to keep time, and regulate the motions of the company in the exercise of the table. At a signal given by him they all lift the meat to their mouths at once, and afterwards drink by the same direction; in performing which they take the cup in both hands, first carrying it as high as the head, and then put it to their lips, without expressing any compliment to each other either in word or gesture. Not to observe punctuality in these motions is reckoned extremely rude. When a fresh dish appears, the company again flourish their chopsticks, and having taken two or three mouthfuls, the master of the ceremonies makes a sign for them to conclude the repast; at which they all lay down their instruments with the same exactness of discipline. The liquor is next presented, of which they sip a little: by the etiquette, however, they are not obliged to drink unless they please, though it be absolutely necessary that they accompany each other in the motion of the cup. They remain silent at table three or four hours, till the master gives the signal to rise; when they walk into the garden, and afterwards return to a desert, consisting of dried fruits and sweet meats, which they eat with their tea.

They use no wine, though they have plenty of grapes; but they make a strong liquor, resembling mum, by an infusion of wheat in boiling water; and a distilled spirit from rice, which is always drank hot, and reputed by our European sailors to be of a very innocent quality.

When the ceremonies of the table are concluded, it is usual to introduce a set of players for the entertainment of the company. No women are allowed to bear any part in those theatrical performances, but the female character is personated by young men or boys of an effeminate air and countenance. The exhibitions are either of the tragic or comic kind, but generally of both in succession; the subjects of the former being chiefly taken from the life and heroic actions of some brave man among their ancestors. The players are habited in sumptuous dresses, and are said to perform with great propriety both of gesture and expression; often sensibly affecting an European spectator, though ignorant of the language with which the action is accompanied. The public plays are generally concluded either with tumbling, and combating with wild beasts, or by some humorous pantomime.

The Chinese are wonderfully addicted to gaming, for so grave and industrious a people, and they practise all the kind's with which we are acquainted in Europe; such as cards, dice, chess, &c. Of those the latter is so fashionable, that it is reckoned a necessary part of the education of young women, with whom it seems to occupy the place of dancing. This extraordinary propensity is the more surprising, as the indulgence of it is prohibited by the laws; notwithstanding which there are instances of men who have so immoderately given way to their passion, as to play away their estates, wives, and children, at hazard upon a card, or a single cast of the die.

The greatest festival in the country is that of the lanterns, which is celebrated by all ranks of the people

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with a profusion of expence. On this occasion, a multitude of idols are set up in different quarters of the towns and villages, round which the inhabitants assemble in fantastic habits and masks. Thus dressed, a great number make the circuit of the place, either riding upon asses, or a-foot, while before them marches a long procession of lanterns carried on poles. Those vehicles, which are of various forms, are lighted with many lamps, and accompanied with the discordant rattling of drums and instruments of brass. The chief solemnity, however, is to be seen in the pagodas and the palaces of the great mandarines, where some of the lanterns cost no less than two or three hundred crowns. They are hung up in the stateliest halls, some of them being twenty cubits square, and illuminated by a vast number of lamps and candles, the light of which displays the paintings, while the smoke communicating motion, the figures within the lantern are variously agitated in a thousand different directions: there may be seen horses galloping, carts drawn, ships under sail, armies marching, and innumerable deceptions too tedious to be mentioned. This splendid festival is celebrated on the fifteenth of February, when the whole extent of China appears as a general conflagration, from the multitude of illuminated lanterns, and of the curious fire-works, in which the inhabitants of this country excel all the nations of the world.

Another great festival is kept at the conclusion of the old year, and the beginning of the new, which always commences with the first new moon subsequent to the fifth of February. On the last night of the old year, in all houses, the sons kneel before their fathers, the younger brothers before the elder, the servants before their masters, &c. touching the ground with their heads, in token of the highest respect. The same ceremony is performed by the women among themselves. Previous to this scene, the masters of the families prostrate themselves before the pictures of their ancestors, touching the ground likewise thrice with their heads. The whole family meet afterwards together, and a great feast is made. Such is the superstition of some, that on this occasion, they will not admit a stranger among them, nor even one of their nearest relations who is not of the household, from an apprehension that the happiness of the family might incur the danger of being transferred. The morning of the new year is ushered in with burning incense to the idols in the pagodas, after which every house-keeper rejoices at home with his family; but on the next of the following days during the space of a whole month, they visit their friends, which is sufficiently performed by leaving it written on a piece of red paper, that they had been to wait on them. All the shops are shut, and the inhabitants, in their gayest dress, universally employed in feasts, sports, and plays. In a word, the whole empire is in motion, and nothing is heard but demonstrations of pleasure and joy.

The usual way of salutation in China is to lay the hands across the breast, and bow the head a little; but when extraordinary respect is to be shewn, the hands are joined, and carried almost to the ground, the body being at the same time bent forward in an attitude of

the profoundest reverence. In passing by a person of eminent quality, or receiving such into the house, the custom is to bend one knee, and remain in that posture, till he who is saluted puts an end to the compliment, by vouchsafing to raise the other party, which is always immediately performed. But when a mandarine in office appears in public, it would be reckoned a mark of great insolence to accost him with any salutation, unless when there is occasion to speak with him. The rule in such cases is, stepping a little aside, to keep the eyes on the ground, and the arms across the sides, till he be gone past.

Very intimate acquaintances are permitted to make visits without ceremony, but those who are not on this footing must conform to certain modes which arbitrary custom has prescribed from time immemorial. The visitor dispatches his servant before with a piece of red paper, on which are written his own name, and a great many marks of respect to the person he visits, according to the rank he maintains. The message being delivered, the visitor enters the house, where, if the host be of superior quality, he is generally received with much state; but if otherwise, when they come into view, they run towards each other, and make a low bow. Very few words are interchanged by the parties during the whole visit, and such compliments as pass are entirely in the established form. Should it happen that they meet without doors, they make a halt at every gate, where the ceremonies begin afresh, and mutual bows are renewed to decline the honour of precedency. On this occasion they only use two ways of speaking: these are, *tsin*, "pray be pleased to enter," and *ponkan*, "it must be so." Each repeats his word four or five times, when the stranger, suffering himself to be persuaded, goes on to the next door, where the ceremony commences anew.

When they arrive in the room where the interview is to be held, if the company consists of several persons, they stand in a row, and every one makes a low bow. Then follow the ceremonies of kneeling, and retiring to different sides of the apartment to give each the right hand. The chairs are next saluted with compliments, to which they likewise are entitled by the inviolable laws of ancient usage; when, after another stated ceremony in mutually declining the first place, the company at length take their seats, which are ranged in such a manner that one is opposite to another. The next part of the ritual is to sit straight, with the eyes fixed on the ground, the hands stretched on the knees, the feet even, not across, a grave composed behaviour, and not to be over forward to speak. The Chinese think that a visit consists not so much in conversation, as in formal compliment and ceremony; and so much are they governed by this opinion, that it is positively affirmed some visits are made without a word being spoken on either side.

During the visit, the tea goes round two or three times, when different ceremonies are also to be used, at taking the dish, carrying it to the mouth, and returning it to the servant. The same forms which preceded the seating of the company are punctiliously repeated at their rising. In a word, their visits are equally

equally ceremonious as the r feasts, which seem to be not so much intended for eating as the making of grimaces; and it is with good reason that, at the court of Peking, ambassadors are allowed forty days to prepare for an audience of the emperor, lest they should omit any of the numerous and whimsical evolutions necessary to be practised on that occasion.

The grandees in China follow the example of the western Asiatics, in keeping eunuchs to attend them; who also are their counsellors, and chief confidants. Their principal business is to take care of the women, who employ themselves in painting, embroidery, and needle work. Castrating is here a frequent trade; and many parents, when apprehensive of not being in a condition to maintain their male children, subject them to this operation, as the means of obtaining a livelihood.

There are no barristers or lawyers in China; every man is permitted to manage his own cause, and if he thinks himself aggrieved by an inferior, he may apply to a superior court. It appears, however, that in all the tribunals, from the highest to the lowest, bribery is notoriously practised; and its influence extends to the most flagrant evasion of justice, even in crimes of the highest enormity. The common punishment for small offences is the bastinado; but of the capital kind, there are several. Persons of mean rank have their heads cut off, while on the contrary those of eminence are strangled; and in cases of treason recourse is even had to the torture.

#### C H A P. VI.

##### *Of Arts—Manufactures—Commerce—Money.*

**A**MIDST all the invention of the Chinese, they discover but an indifferent capacity for any of the elegant arts. Their genius seems to be ill adapted to poetical composition; their music is the most rude and barbarous that can be conceived; their paintings of human figures are rather caricatures than beautiful copies of nature; and their architecture is no less destitute of sublimity of design, than redundant in those fantastic embellishments that characterize a puerility of taste. In such arts, however, as are more immediately useful to society, they have doubtless made considerable progress; and in the discovery of that of printing in particular, though their method be both peculiar and defective, they seem to have preceded the Europeans by the space of many centuries.

Their usual manner of printing is thus: the manuscript being previously executed by a good writer, upon a fine, thin, and transparent paper; the engraver passes every sheet upon a plate of smooth wood, following the traces with his instrument, and carving out the characters in bas relief. They make no use of a press, both on account of the nature of their plates and the thinness of their paper; and likewise for the latter of those reasons, they only print one side.

They make their paper either of cotton, or the inner bark of the bamboo, and other trees: the former

of those is reckoned the most durable, but they are all exceedingly subject to the moth. Instead of pens, the Chinese use a pencil made of the hair of some animal, especially of rabbits, as being softest. This they hold perpendicularly, not obliquely as painters, beginning at the top, but writing from the right to the left in the manner of the Hebrews. Their ink, known likewise by the title of Indian, is not a fluid, but solid substance. It is made of lamp black, of several kinds, but the best is that obtained from hogs grease; with which they mix a sort of oil, to render it more smooth, and add some odorous ingredients.

The staple manufacture of the Chinese is that of silk, with which, besides their home consumption to a prodigious amount, they furnish several both of the Asiatic and European nations. Plain silks are the kind to which they chiefly confine themselves, though they also make cloth of gold; but they do not fabricate the gold into wire, as in Europe, being contented with gilding a long sheet of paper, afterwards cut into small pieces, with which the silken threads are ingeniously covered. When this cloth first comes from the workman's hands it is very elegant, but does not last long, and is unfit for garments; because the lustre of the gold is soon tarnished by the air. For furniture, however, it is found to answer sufficiently well.

The Chinese have likewise a great number of other silks unknown in Europe, as well as gauzes, damasks of all kinds and colours, striped satins, taffeties, grograms, &c. Although wool be very plentiful in China, especially in the provinces of Shan si and Shen si, which abound with sheep, yet they make very little cloth; blankets, and a sort of russet woollens, of which their students have gowns for the winter, being almost their only manufactures of this kind. English cloth is much esteemed among them, and sells dearer than the richest silks.

They manufacture a great deal of cotton, and make a kind of linen of a plant called co, found only in the province of Fo kyen, and is a species of the former. One of their principal commodities, however, is the porcelain manufacture, so well known by the name of the country in which it is produced. It is almost inconceivable what a number of people are employed in this manufacture; there being hardly a piece of porcelain that does not pass through more than sixty hands before it is brought to perfection. In smoothness of polish, and elegance of shape, it is not inferior to any production of human dexterity; and it is only to be regretted that its painting is not equally excellent. The flowers and landscapes indeed are sometimes executed with elegance, and the borders are prettily variegated; but the human figures appear to be the designs of a wild and extravagant imagination. Several circumstances contribute to keep the price of this manufacture much higher than might be expected, considering the vast quantity that is annually made by those people. One reason is, the miscarriage which frequently happens in the baking of it: another, the increasing scarcity of the materials, and the wood made use of for burning. To which may



may be added, as not the least considerable, that the porcelain ware intended for Europe is generally formed on new models, executed often with great difficulty, which yet for the smallest defects are returned upon the hands of the manufacturer; who not being able to sell them to the Chinese, because not to their taste, is obliged to put a higher price upon the porcelain he vends, to indemnify himself for what is refused.

Japanned works are likewise a capital production of the Chinese, though in this article they are excelled by the inhabitants of Japan; not however from any defect of ingenuity, but on account of their executing this kind of work with too much expedition, which ought to be done with leisure, that the varnish may appear to advantage.

The internal trade of China is so great, on account of the facility of transporting merchandize by means of the rivers and canals, that they maintain but very little commerce with any nation far distant from their own; though since the conquest of the Tartars, their ports have been open to all foreigners. Japan however is a kingdom which they often frequent, and commonly set sail for it in the month of June or July. They likewise carry on a trade with Camboye or Siam; to which they export such commodities as are proper for those countries, bartering them with others that there is a demand for at Japan. By this trade it is usual to make two hundred per cent. on the voyage. They also carry on a great trade to Manilla, and a yet more flourishing commerce with the island of Batavia.

In respect of the commerce maintained with China by European nations, that of England is very considerable. The profit of the English in this traffick arises chiefly from the goods imported from that empire, and not from what are carried thither: we pay with silver the greater part of what we purchase. Lead is almost the only commodity for which our merchants get more than prime cost. We also export scarlets, blue, black, green, and yellow broad cloths; but the remnants procured cheap in England, turn to better account than whole pieces. Of those the Chinese make long purses, which hang by the side from their girdles.

The following goods turn also to considerable account, if they can be conveyed ashore without paying the duties, otherwise the charge and trouble will be equal to the profit. These are, large looking glasses, coral branches, flint ware for cups, ordinary horse pistols with gilt barrels, old wearing apparel of scarlet or blue cloth, sword blades about fourteen shillings a dozen, spectacles set in horn, about eight shillings and sixpence a dozen, clocks and watches of small price, small brass tweezer cases, and any new toy not before imported.

The commodities imported from China, are teas, porcelain, quicksilver, vermilion, and other fine colours; china root, raw and wrought silks, copper in bars of the size of sticks of sealing wax, camphire, sugar-candy, fans, pictures, lacquered wares, soy,

borax, lapis lazuli, galingal, rhubarb, gold, with many things made of mother of pearl.

To trade to China with success, a great deal depends on a person's knowledge of what things are likely to sell in England, and the usual price at which they are furnished. Previous to such a voyage therefore, an adventurer ought to consult with the hard-ware, china or toy merchants in London, as being the persons best qualified to give information on those subjects.

Particular care ought to be taken in dealing with the Chinese to avoid imposition; for of all people they are the most addicted to cheating. Their weights and measures are generally false, and their balances so formed, that with dexterity in the use of them, the stipulated quantity of goods will be greatly diminished to the purchaser. They have been known to cram their poultry with stones and gravel; they have sold for a gammon of bacon, a piece of wood covered with the skin of a hog; and where they have been trusted in package, damaged goods, or things of no value, have been artfully substituted in the room of secreted commodities, and the deception not discovered till the unpackage in England.

The only coin in China is the li or cash, made of the scum of copper mixed with other coarse metal: it is a little broader than our English farthing, but not so thick, with some Chinese characters on the sides, and in the center of each is a square hole, in order to put them on a string for the ease of numbering. When convenience will not permit the use of this small coin, they have recourse to plates of gold or silver, which they clip with a pair of scissars, weighing afterwards the quantity, and usually practising in this operation no less artifice and deceit than in other parts of their commerce.

#### C H A P. VII.

*Of Marriages — Funerals — Confucius — Religion — Language — Sciences — History — Character.*

ONE of the institutions in China most unfavourable to domestic happiness, is the manner in which marriages are conducted. The bridegroom is not permitted to see the woman he marries, till the instant of solemnization arrives. Before that time, his inquiries concerning her person and accomplishments can only be gratified by her parents, whose interest it may be to deceive him; or he must take the report of old women, who are no less mercenary than the former. The custom of the Chinese is to buy their wives, for whom they pay various prices, according to particular circumstances. When the parties are agreed, the contract is made, and the stipulated sum paid down. On the day of marriage, the bride is carried in a sumptuous chair, before which proceeds a band of music, accompanied with the particular friends of her family. All the portion she brings is her marriage garments, and household furniture, with which she is presented by her father. The bridegroom stands at his door, richly attired, to receive

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receive her. He opens the sedan in which she is carried, and having conducted her into a chamber, introduces her to several women invited for that purpose, who spend there the day in feasting and merriment, while the husband in another room entertains his friends and acquaintance. There are some instances of the bridegroom having sent immediately the bride back to her relations, when upon opening the chair he has been disgusted with her personal appearance; but on such occasions he has no claim to a restitution of the money which he had paid.

By the laws of China, the husband is allowed to divorce his wife only for adultery, and a few other exceptions, for which there is rarely any foundation. In such cases, he is at liberty to sell her, and purchase another; but if the transaction takes place without just reason, both the buyer and seller are severely punished, yet the husband is not obliged to take her again.

A man is permitted but one wife, but may have as many concubines as he pleases. All the children have an equal claim to the father's estate, though the mothers of the illegitimate be entirely under the authority of the wife.

The Chinese in general are so jealous of their wives, that they suffer them not to speak in private even with their own brothers. Some husbands, however, there are, who allow their spouses to commit adultery with perfect freedom; and sometimes a grant of this liberty is stipulated by the female before marriage. But such families are usually held in abhorrence, and their children, however deserving, can obtain no degree, or be employed in any honourable office.

Among the Chinese, the being well buried is considered as a matter of the highest importance: for which reason, every man, while living, takes care to provide his own coffin. The size of this must be large, and the outside of it sumptuously adorned, if his circumstances allow. A fortunate place must likewise be fixed upon for the interment, the choice of which is usually referred to the fortune-teller; but no person can be buried within a city.

As soon as the father is dead, the son in a furious manner tears down the curtains of the bed, and with them covers the body. He then prostrates himself with his hair all dishevelled, and soon after sends his servants to the kindred and friends, informing them by letter of what has happened. To receive them, the largest apartment is covered with mats or white hempen cloth, that being the colour of their mourning. The body mean while being wrapt up in fine thin silk, is put into the coffin, which is afterwards shut; when placing it at the upper end of the room, the son stands by it, clad in white hempen cloth, with two girdles of thick rope round his body, the ends hanging down to the ground. It is indispensable, that for several months he lie every night close by the coffin, upon no other bed than some straw. Luxury, particularly flesh, must be totally banished from his table, and he is obliged to continue the appearance of mourning for the space of three years.

The religion of the Chinese may be distinguished into three principal sects, namely, that of the literati  
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or learned, the professors of the doctrine of Lanza, and thirdly that of the commonalty. In respect to the first of those, the object of their institution appears to be of a mixed nature, comprehending both the public good of the kingdom, and the happiness of individuals; the latter of which they consider as the result of virtuous actions, governed by the dictates of reason, and therefore give particular application to the science of moral philosophy. The origin of this sect is ascribed to Confucius, of whom it may not be improper to deliver a general account.

This celebrated personage is said to have been born in one of the provinces of China, about five hundred and fifty-one years before the birth of Christ. By his father he claimed descent from an emperor of the race of the Chang, and his wife was likewise sprung from one of the most illustrious families in the kingdom. He appears however to have enjoyed no other inheritance than that of an honourable ancestry. His improvement in knowledge is said to have been amazingly rapid; and by an uncommon gravity in deportment, he gave prefaces in his earliest years, of the great proficiency in moral science to which he should afterwards attain. But what chiefly distinguished him was an extraordinary degree of piety. He never eat any thing, but he first prostrated himself on the ground, and paid adoration to the supreme Lord of the universe. He greatly honoured his relations, and particularly endeavoured to imitate his grandfather, who was then alive in China, and reputed a most holy man. After the death of this venerable progenitor, Confucius applied himself to Teem-se, an eminent doctor of his time, under whose direction he made great progress in the study of antiquity, which he considered as the source from which all genuine knowledge was to be derived.

At the age of nineteen Confucius married, and had by his wife a son, named Pe-yu. He divorced her however, after a cohabitation of four years, that he might devote himself more entirely to the propagation of his philosophy over the empire, which he meditated to reform from the corruption of manners in which it was at that time involved. He began by enforcing the great virtues of temperance and justice; he recommended the contempt of riches and outward pomp; he endeavoured to inspire magnanimity and greatness of soul, and to reclaim his countrymen, by every argument, from voluptuousness to a life of reason and sobriety. His extensive knowledge and great wisdom soon rendered him universally celebrated; and he was no less beloved for his extraordinary virtues, than admired for the endowments of his understanding. Kings were governed by his counsels, and the people revered him as a saint. Several high offices in the magistracy were repeatedly offered to him, which he sometimes accepted with the view of being serviceable to the state; but he never failed to resign them, as soon as he perceived that the exercise of his authority could be productive of no public advantage. It appears however, that during a very short space in which he administered the affairs of the kingdom, a great reformation was effected. He corrected many frauds  
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and abuses in the mercantile transactions of life: he reduced weights and measures to a determinate standard: he inculcated fidelity and candour among men, and exhorted women to chastity and a simplicity of manners. But the severity of the precepts which he taught, not proving acceptable to the temper of a dissolute prince, he quitted his employment at court, and retired a voluntary exile into the neighbouring provinces, each of which was then a separate kingdom. He continued, however, to propagate the principles of his philosophy wherever he went; for which purpose he likewise sent a great number of his disciples into the various parts of China. Those he divided into four classes. The first were to improve the mind by meditation, and purify the heart by virtuous precepts; the second were to cultivate the arts of reasoning justly, and of composing elegant and persuasive discourses: the study of the third was to be employed on the rules of good government; and the fourth class was to deliver to the people the doctrines of morality, in a concise and polished style.

Confucius is said to have composed many valuable books, yet extant, on the subjects of moral science, in which, however, he modestly acknowledged, that he had only collected into a body the scattered fragments of preceding legislators and philosophers. According to the most authentic account, he died at the age of seventy-three, of a lethargy, occasioned by sorrow for the obstructions he had experienced in his endeavours to reform the manners, and promote the happiness of mankind. His death was universally lamented in all the provinces of China, the inhabitants of which have ever since honoured him as a saint, and established such a veneration for his memory, as never before was attained by a philosopher in any other age or nation. His sepulchre is visited at certain times by all the learned men in the empire, with almost enthusiastic idolatry; a thousand edifices, with inscriptions that mark the highest respect, have been erected in honour of his name; and his posterity, to this day, enjoy the peculiar distinction of being the only persons in China, except princes of the blood, who are entitled to the rank of nobility, in virtue of hereditary right.

With respect to the most essential doctrine of religion, the immortality of the soul, it appears that the followers of Confucius do not entertain uniform sentiments. The greater part of them regard the precepts of morality no farther than as they contribute to the happiness of the present life; while others, though not regarding immortality as a natural property of the soul, consider it, however, as the destined reward, and just retribution of virtue. This sect use neither temples, priests, idols, sacrifices, nor any sacred rites.

The second sect, which has at present but few followers, is denominated of Lanzu, from a philosopher of that name, contemporary with Confucius, and who, they pretend, was carried in his mother's womb during the term of eighty years. They believe that the sovereign God is corporeal, and governs other deities with authority similar to that of a king

over his subjects. They are much addicted to the same ridiculous notions respecting chemistry, which were the foible of those who cultivated that species of natural knowledge in Europe, about two centuries ago; believing that by means of a certain liquid, men may be rendered immortal. The priests of this sect particularly employ themselves in exorcism, arrogating likewise an uncontrollable dominion over the weather, with the additional power of averting both private and public calamities.

The third sect is that of the Bonzes, who have idols and deities represented in strange and monstrous figures; and among the rest, two famous through all the East, namely Amida and Schiaca. It is the principle of this sect, contrary to that of the learned, to take no care of the public, and only be mindful of their own interest. In some respects they bear a resemblance to the Epicureans of old; maintaining that the excellence of morality consists in avoiding vehement desires, and that the chief attention of a wise man ought to be, to pass his life without solicitude. They allow, however, the soul's immortality, and that it is rewarded or punished after death, according as it deserves; but they condemn matrimony, and live in common.

From these three sects have originated many others of inferior note; and an incredible multitude of idols proceeds from the erecting statues to men, who, for some memorable actions, deserved the gratitude of their country; as also from their opinion, that there are particular spirits in the woods, hills, rivers, and seas, to whom they consecrate representations of the same kind, in testimony of their pious attachment.

The Christian religion seemed once on the point of receiving the imperial sanction in China, through the indefatigable zeal of some missionaries. The prospect of such an event, however, is now totally vanished, though Christianity be tolerated in the empire, and the number of those who profess it is computed at two hundred thousand.

The Chinese are in nothing more remarkable, than for the singular nature of their language and alphabet, which are entirely different from those used in every other nation. In the language of this country, there is not an alphabet of a few characters, of which to compose words, but the latter have each a particular symbol, by which no other word is represented. Another peculiarity in this tongue is, that all the words are monosyllables, and are not originally above three hundred and twenty; yet, considered with their accents, they are sufficient to express all the ideas of the people. For this purpose, in writing, no less than fifty-four thousand four hundred and nine characters are used.

A few years ago Mr. Turbeville Needham, a fellow of the Royal Society, endeavoured to evince that there was a great connection between the hieroglyphical writing of the ancient Egyptians, and the characters which are in use at this day among the Chinese. What suggested this hypothesis, was the inscription on the bust of Turin, of which a cast was sent to England by the late Mr. Montague, and pre-

presented by his majesty to the British Museum. In order to determine the point, application was since made by the Royal Society to the Jesuits at Peking, in China, to consult the literati of that country, for their opinion on the subject. The result of the inquiry was, that the characters were not Chinese; having no connected sense, nor proper resemblance to the different forms of writing in that country.

The Chinese, we are informed, have two kinds of language, or perhaps they may be reckoned more properly different dialects of the same. The one, which varies in the several provinces, is spoken by the common people, and the other by mandarines and persons of rank. To these some add a third language, namely, that which is used in books composed in an elevated style. The style used by the Chinese in writing, is said to be concise, allegorical, and sometimes obscure, to such as are not perfectly skilled in the characters. Their expressions are animated, and interspersed with bold comparisons and metaphors.

From the representation here given of the language of China, it might seem to be extremely well adapted to poetry in particular, especially the lyric, which is the only kind used in the country. Of this species of composition they are said to have two sorts, one in measure, and the other without any regularity, in respect of the number of syllables. The latter consists entirely in the antithesis or opposition of thoughts; so that if the first thought be concerning the spring, the second shall be upon the autumn, or if the one relates to fire, the other must of consequence to water. It will readily be acknowledged, that sonnets written upon such a plan, afford too strong indications of childish conceit, to be considered as genuine productions of poetical genius; and we may safely conclude, as has been hinted on a former occasion, that the Chinese have very little pretension either to the ivy or the bay.

If the people of China were justly distinguished for any kind of literary composition, history seems the province to which they have the most plausible claim, at least in respect to the accuracy with which they are said to register the public events in their own country. According to the most candid opinion, however, which we can form on this subject, their most approved chronicles hardly deserve the name of history. They appear to be only jumble and incoherent materials, selected without judgment, and arranged without regularity; which neither awake the fancy, nor improve the understanding, and of which even the authenticity is greatly liable to suspicion.

The knowledge of the Chinese in medical subjects has been represented as extremely profound, owing perhaps to the air of mystery with which it is particularly distinguished. But though this circumstance may impose upon such as are unacquainted with the art, it affords to others the strongest presumption, that under the apparent mask of learning, ignorance is actually concealed. The multiplicity of frivolous distinctions relative to the pulse alone, it may be affirmed, were never drawn from faithful obser-

vations on nature; not to say that the fantastic and unintelligible jargon, in which they are described, characterize in the liveliest colours the chimerical proficiency and skill of a people, to whom even the elements of genuine science are almost utterly unknown. It is not however meant to insinuate, that the Chinese have never derived from experience any of the most simple observations, respecting the use of particular remedies in the endemic diseases of their country. Some degree of empirical knowledge in medicine is naturally acquired by every people, but such attainment can never be considered as any evidence, that the principles of the art are really cultivated amongst them.

The Chinese are said to have studied astronomy with particular success, and have made many hundred observations on eclipses, comets, and conjunctions. It is however an unquestionable fact, that they were obliged to the Romish missionaries for reforming the calendar: and though they likewise pretended to astrology, it appeared that their boasted accomplishment in that visionary art, amounted to no more than what a common juggler may perform. With some rude literature, of the moral kind, it must be acknowledged that they are not unacquainted: they have a great number of universities, and reckon two hundred and seventy-two libraries, well stored with books.

As China was totally unknown to the inhabitants of Europe before the fifteenth century, we can procure no other historical evidence, respecting their ancient state, than what is to be obtained from their own records; the first part of which is palpably fabulous, as themselves acknowledge; the originals of those of later date having been lost or destroyed. They pretend however, that their first monarch Fohi, who is supposed to have lived about the time of the flood, was sent down from heaven to instruct and govern mankind; and to him they ascribe the invention of cloathing, characters, and music. Having reigned a hundred and fifteen years, he was succeeded by Chint-ong, who taught them agriculture and physic; after whom are mentioned a long series of successive kings, who likewise proved each the author of some useful invention or improvement. Almost the only authenticated transaction, we find in their history, is the conquest of China by the Tartars, about the year 1644; since which time no event of importance occurs in their country.

From the account which has been delivered, of the manners and customs of the Chinese, the striking lineaments of their national character, may readily be traced. Trained up from infancy to the external command of their passions, and incumbered through life with an intolerable load of oppressive ceremonies, they contract towards each other a latent antipathy, the consequence of which is universal dissimulation, which breaks forth in a propensity to every species of artifice and fraud. Let it be acknowledged at the same time, that while, on account of the great extent of their empire, they live under such various climates, they are neither infected with the rude barbarity of the one extreme, nor the effeminate luxury of the other.

## O F T H E T A R T A R E A N N A T I O N S .

## C H A P . I .

*Of Chinese Tartary.*

Quitting the extensive empire which has hitherto employed our attention, we next enter Tartary, the ancient Scythia, a country that occupies the whole northern part of the Asiatic continent, and is divided into several distinct nations. The first of those we shall mention is the Niuche, Manchew, or Chinese Tartary, usually distinguished into the provinces of Keching Tartary on the East, and Tigurran and Solun Tartary on the West. It is situate between 105 and 135 degrees east longitude, and between 41 and 55 degrees north latitude; being bounded on the south by China, on the west and north by Russian Tartary, and on the east by the Pacific Ocean.

This country, which is naturally mountainous and barren, has been much deserted since the conquest of China, the seat of government being removed thither, and all the Tartars of distinction having followed the court. The inhabitants are generally of a robust constitution, and spend most of their time in hunting or fishing, which they practise rather as a necessary employment than diversion. Their game is chiefly wild deer, and those they hunt in a peculiar manner. Their method is to surround a large tract of country, driving the animals into a narrow compass, when they shoot or take them with nets, which are purposely made very strong.

The air of this country is excessively cold in the winter, occasioned by the wind blowing over the large tract of frozen territory, which extends towards the north. The Tartars eat all kinds of meat, except hogs; but are particularly fond of the flesh of horses, which the country produces in great numbers, and which are likewise preferred by the Chinese for their cavalry, as being much superior to their own breed. The common drink of the inhabitants is water, or mare's milk. They have very little wheat or rice; oats being almost the only grain which they cultivate; and of this they make their bread, as well as a species of fermented liquor. Notwithstanding their connection with China for upwards of a century, they seem hardly yet to have formed the smallest idea of civilization; continuing still to lead an itinerant pastoral life, without industry, arts, or commerce. Some towns, however, or rather mud-built villages, they have among them; the principal of which is Kirinula, situate in 44 degrees of north latitude, on the slope of a mountain. This was anciently the seat of their kings; and here are yet to be seen the tombs of the royal family, who governed the country before the conquest of China.

The brutal ignorance and depravity of these Tartars is in nothing more conspicuous, than for the adoration which they pay to the Great Lama, or priest of priests, a man, whom they ridiculously consider as a true and living God. It is the opinion of the people, that this personage is endowed with immortality; and, in

order to support the deception, a young man of a similar appearance, and secretly procured, is constantly in training by the inferior priests, with a view of succeeding to the divine honour, on the demise of the present incumbent; an event which is known only to those who officiate about his person. This wretched idol, however, is seldom permitted to end his days by a natural death: for as soon as he verges towards the decline of youth, he is usually dispatched by the priesthood, in order to preserve in the votaries a belief of his unfading age and eternal duration. Nor is the shortness of his life accompanied with any circumstance, which can compensate for his almost total exclusion from every human enjoyment; being one continued scene of solitude, imprisonment, and misery.

## T H I B E T .

The next nation of Tartars is that of Thibet. This country is bounded on the north by the land of the Calmucs, on the east by China, on the south-west by India, and on the west by Usbec Tartary. It is situate in a fine climate, between 30 and 40 degrees of north latitude; but is extremely mountainous, and on that account obstructs the passage between India and China by land. The people are governed by a cham or chan, the denomination of a sovereign prince in that part of the world; but whether his power be absolute or limited, we are not clearly informed. Those of the inhabitants who lie next China usually profess the common religion of that country; while such as border upon Usbec Tartary are generally Mahometans.

## U S B E C T A R T A R Y .

Usbec or Mogul Tartary is bounded by the country of the Calmucs on the north, by Thibet on the east, by India on the south, and on the west by Persia and the Caspian sea. It is a fine fruitful country, lying between 35 and 45 degrees of north latitude, and carries on a flourishing trade both with the eastern and western parts of Asia, by means of the two great rivers Oxus and Sihun. The capital of this country formerly was Samarcand, situate in 66 degrees of east longitude, and 40 degrees of north latitude, the birth-place of Avicenna the physician, and once the residence of the great Tamerlane; but the chief town at present is Bochera, lying on the river Oxus, about sixty miles south-west of the ancient metropolis. The people here, as in the other nations of Tartary, are divided into a great many hords or tribes, but subject to one monarch, their grand Cham; and they have acquired, by means of their extensive commerce, a considerable degree of civilization.

The achievements of the Usbec Tartars, previous to Tamerlane, are veiled in great obscurity, but under the conduct of that celebrated leader, the nation attained a degree of military renown, that is hardly to be surpassed in the history of any other people. This great personage was the son of Cham, the

the chief of all the Mogul tribes, and was born about the middle of the fourteenth century. He married the daughter of his uncle, another cham of the Moguls, to whose dominions he afterwards succeeded in virtue of his alliance. The first action by which he distinguished himself, was repulsing the Russians, who had invaded his country; when, after a total defeat, he obliged them to submit to such terms as he thought fit to impose. He treated with the like success an invasion of the Chinese; but not content with repulsing them, he pursued their army within the limits of their own country; demolished part of the great wall which they had erected for its defence; and making himself master of the capital city of Peking, reduced the emperor to the necessity of suing for peace, at the expence of a great yearly tribute.

The fame of his actions having reached the western parts of Asia, ambassadors were thence dispatched to him, imploring his protection against the furious Bajazet, emperor of the Turks, who was at that time the dread and scourge of all the contiguous nations. Tamerlane, listening to their proposals, set out on the expedition in a short time, accompanied by a numerous army of Tartars, and a great body of Russian auxiliaries. It is computed by some writers, that his force amounted to near a million of men. He first directed his route through the countries north of the Caspian sea, and then bending southward, passed mount Caucasus, continuing his march through Circassia, Georgia, and the territories situated between the Caspian and Euxine seas. The order and regularity maintained among the troops, during the whole of this march, deserves to be mentioned. If a soldier took but an apple, or bowl of milk, without paying for it, he was put to death: so strict a regard was paid by their leader, that nothing should be taken by violence in the countries through which he passed. To preclude the necessity of this resource, provisions for the army were carried by sea, besides such as were voluntarily furnished by the people through whose dominions they marched.

Having arrived at Sebastia, in Armenia, he summoned the city to surrender; but the garrison not complying, and also returning an insolent answer, he immediately invested the place, delaying however any attack for the space of a week. At the end of that time, the inhabitants, who had considered their situation as impregnable, were struck with amazement, at seeing the walls and towers, which had been undermined by the enemy, fall down on a sudden, and themselves reduced to the necessity of surrendering at discretion. According to the Turkish accounts, Tamerlane caused the soldiers of the garrison to be bound hand and foot, and thrown into pits that were dug for the purpose, where they were buried alive. So barbarous an act, however, seems not to be consistent with the general character of this prince, though resentment perhaps induced him to transgress, on this occasion, the bounds of moderation and humanity.

On the approach of Tamerlane, Bajazet advanced towards him with an army equally numerous, and, it

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is said, superior in horse. The battle between them was fought at mount Stella, where Bajazet and his son Musa were made prisoners. At first the conqueror treated his royal captives with great lenity; till being provoked by the insolent language of the father, he is said to have put him in an iron cage, and exposed him to the ridicule of the soldiers; not exempting even the wives of the unfortunate tyrant from violation, and other marks of the most humiliating abuse. Since which time, for the sake of avoiding such ignominious accidents, it has been the custom of the Turkish emperors not to marry. In this wretched captivity Bajazet lingered two years, when, as some relate, he put an end to his miserable life by beating out his brains against the bars of the cage. The greater part of the Less Asia submitted to Tamerlane on this victory, among which was Prusa, the capital of the Turkish dominions; whither, while he remained at that place, the Christian emperor of Constantinople resorted, to congratulate him on the success of his arms.

Tamerlane afterwards made a visit to the emperor at Constantinople, and added several provinces of Asia to his dominions; restoring likewise to the little Mahometan princes, the territories of which Bajazet had deprived them. He next marched to attack the dominions of the sultan of Egypt, who was then possessed of Syria and Palestine, and had sent strong reinforcements to Bajazet's army. The first city which he besieged was Damascus, where meeting with an obstinate resistance, he put most of the garrison to the sword. Thirty cities of Syria opened to him their gates, in consequence of the general terror excited by this transaction; and arriving at Jerusalem, where the inhabitants had just before expelled the Egyptian garrison, he visited all the holy places frequented by the pilgrims, and made considerable presents to the church of the sepulchre. Proceeding afterwards to Egypt, he made himself master of Damietta, a strong city at the mouth of the Nile, and advancing to Grand Cairo, laid siege to the capital, in which was the sultan, with a garrison, as is said, of a hundred thousand men. After a long defence, the sultan retired to Alexandria, whence he fled to the desarts of Lybia, while the conqueror took possession of the city. During his residence at this place, above twenty princes from the coast of Barbary, and other parts of Africa, came and made their submission to him, at the same time giving him hostages as pledges of their inviolable fidelity. Leaving garrisons in all the chief towns, he returned towards his own dominions, by the way of Mesopotamia and Persia, which had been reduced to obedience by his generals, while he was in Egypt.

Upon the retreat of Tamerlane, Mahomet's sons reassembled an army, and recovered many places that had submitted to the arms of the conqueror; of which receiving advice, he prepared to return into Turkey, with the resolution of extirpating the whole Ottoman family; but death soon put a period to his victories, in the month of January, 1402. This prince was unquestionably one of the greatest generals of modern

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times; and, excepting a few excesses, into which the heat of conquest, and personal provocation, betrayed him, he was no less conspicuous for the humanity of his temper, than either his valour or success. Though educated in paganism, he was entirely above the influence of religious prejudices, and he seemed to be actuated more by a regard to liberty and human happiness, in the prosecution of his great undertakings, than either by thirst of dominion, or an ungovernable desire of martial glory.

Tamerlane left one of his sons emperor of Usbec Tartary, and another sovereign of India, whose descendants have since swayed the sceptre of that country, under the title of the great mogul. Usbec Tartary was conquered by the famous Kouli Kan, and united to Persia; but whether it has entirely recovered its independency since his death, appears to be matter of doubt. Under the government of Tamerlane, the Usbec Tartars were pagans, but were soon afterwards converted to Mahometanism, which they continue to profess.

## C H A P. II.

### *Of Astracan Tartary.*

THE kingdom of Astracan is bounded by European Russia on the north; by Siberia and the Calmuc land on the east; by the Caspian sea on the south; and by Circassian Tartary on the west. Astracan, the metropolis, is situate in the latitude of 47 degrees north, and 52 degrees of east longitude, in an island named Dolgoi, on the eastern shore of the Volga, about sixty miles from the Caspian sea. It was for many ages subject to the Tartars, from whom it was taken by Ivan Wassilowitz, czar of Muscovy, in 1557 retaken by them in 1668; and again reduced by the Russians, under whose dominion it remains. It is computed to contain about seventy thousand inhabitants, among whom are many Armenians and Tartars of various denominations, with a few Persians and Indians.\* The city is about two miles and a half in circumference, but including the suburbs, near five miles. It is surrounded by a brick wall in a ruinous condition, about two hundred years old. The houses are of wood, and most of them very mean. The Volga here spreads itself near three miles. In summer the inhabitants are generally disposed to sickness, on account of the marshy grounds in the neighbourhood. The adjacent country, however, being impregnated with salt, which appears on the surface, is extremely fertile, and the city is surrounded by gardens and vineyards, which lie about two miles from it, producing almost every kind of vegetables known in England, except potatoes, collyflowers and artichocks. Among the fruits of this place, the water-melon is particularly celebrated for its delicious flavour. The wine of Astracan is indifferent, but the grapes which it produces are so much esteemed as to be transported to Petersburg, at great expence, by land-carriage. The summers here being generally dry, they are obliged to water

their gardens. This they perform by means of large wheels, some of which are moved by horses, others by the wind. These wheels are of a sufficient height to throw the water into the highest part of the gardens, whence it runs in trenches to the root of every tree and plant. The chief game in the neighbouring country is hares and partridges; and in summer there is plenty of quails. Here are also water and wild fowl of all sorts, in great abundance.

In one circumstance the country adjacent to Astracan is particularly unfortunate, which is, that from the latter end of July to the beginning of October, it is frequently infested with locusts, which fly in such prodigious numbers as to darken the air, and appear at a distance like a heavy cloud. Whenever they fall, they eat up every thing that is green. In order to prevent this calamity, the gardeners, upon their first appearance, endeavour to keep them off, by making as much smok and as great noise as possible; but in spite of all their art, those destructive insects, after flying as long as they are able, sometimes fall in their gardens, on the tops of houses, and even into the fires. Their bodies, compared with the smallness of their wings, are very large. Their size is generally from two to two and a half inches long, and about three quarters of an inch in diameter.

The commerce of Astracan is very considerable, though much diminished by the troubles in Persia, with the frequent revolts of the Tartars. Not many years ago the city traded to Khieva and Bokhara, in Usbec Tartary, but at present its traffic is confined to the empress's dominions and Persia. The foreign trade of the Russians at this place consists in red leather, linens, woollen cloths, and European manufactures, which they export to Persia, chiefly on account of the Armenians. In return, they import several manufactures of Persia, particularly those of Casan, as silk sashes intermixed with gold, for the use of the Polanders, wrought silks and stuffs mixed with cotton; rice, cotton, a small quantity of drugs, and especially raw silk.

For several miles round this city, where the soil admits of cultivation, there are settlements of an industrious people, of the race of the Crim Tartars, who are tributary to the Russians. In the summer they improve their land, the chief products of which are manna, oats, musk-melons, and water-melons; but they reckon that their principal treasure consists in their wives and children, with their sheep, horses, and cattle. When any of their daughters become marriageable, they cover her tent with white linen, and put a painted cloth on the top, which, with a painted waggon, constitutes the whole of her dowry. Those men who design to marry observe this signal, and the girl is usually given to him who offers the father the most valuable present. In religion those people are Mahometans, and are remarkably nice in their burial-places. They dig their graves very deep, and after lining them with bricks dried in the sun, and white-washing them in the inside, they build a cover over them. They also raise thick walls of mud round each tomb, on the top of which

is fixed one or more white flags, according to the quality of the deceased.

The tents which compose the Tartar camps in the neighbourhood of Astracan, are of a circular form, covered with a hair-cloth. The fire hearth is placed in the middle, over which is an opening to let out the smoke. This they cover close in the night, and the tent is then as warm as a stove. The floor is spread with mats or carpets, with a sofa round it, a little raised, after the manner of the Turks. Their tents are kept very neat, and the furniture consists of cabinets, cupboards, trunks, and kitchen utensils. The people are generally reputed very hospitable, but the women extremely lewd.

## C H A P. III.

*Of Circassia.*

CIRCASSIA is situate between 45 and 50 degrees of north latitude, and between 40 and 50 of east longitude. It is bounded by Russia on the north; by Astracan and the Caspian sea on the east; by Georgia and Dagistan on the south; and by the river Don, the Palus Meotis, and the Black Sea, on the west. This country has long been celebrated for the extraordinary beauty of its women; and here it was that the practice of inoculating for the small-pox first began. The chief town is Terki, situate on the Caspian Sea, in 43 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and 52 degrees of east longitude. It is surrounded by a wall, and has usually a numerous garrison. The government of Circassia is a kind of republic, but the people generally put themselves under the protection of one or other of the neighbouring powers, namely, Persia, Turkey, or Russia. The face of the country is pleasantly diversified with mountains, valleys, woods, lakes, and rivers; and though not much cultivated is far from being unfruitful. In summer, the inhabitants quit the towns, and encamp in the fields like the neighbouring Tartars; occasionally shifting their station along with their flocks and herds. Besides game, in which the country greatly abounds, the Circassians eat beef and mutton, but that which they prefer to all others, is the flesh of a young horse. Their bread consists of thin cakes of barley meal, baked upon the hearth, which they always eat new; and their usual drink is water or mare's milk, from the latter of which they distill a spirit, as most of the Tartar nations. They allot no fixed hours for the refreshments of the table or sleep, which they indulge irregularly, as inclination or convenience dictates. When the men make excursions into an enemy's country, they will pass several days and nights successively without sleeping; but, at their return, devote as much time to repose as the space in which they had before with-held from that gratification. When they eat, they sit cross-legged on the floor, the skin of some animal serving them instead of a carpet. In removing from one part of the country to another, the women and children are carried in waggons, which are a kind of travelling houses, and drawn by oxen or camels, they never using horses for

draught. Their breed of the latter, however, is reckoned exceeding good, and they are accustomed to swim almost any river on horseback. The women and children smoke tobacco as well as the men; and this is the most acceptable commodity, which a traveller can carry with him into the Tartar countries. There are here no public inns, which indeed are unnecessary, for so great is the hospitality of the people, that they will contend with each other who shall entertain any stranger that happens to come among them.

The principal branch of their traffic is their own children, especially their daughters, whom they sell for the use of the seraglios in Turkey and Persia, where they frequently marry to great advantage, and make the fortune of their families. The merchants who come from Constantinople to purchase those girls, are generally Jews, who, as well as the mothers, are said to be extremely careful of preserving the chastity of the young women, knowing the value that is set by the Turks upon the marks of virginity. The greater part of the Circassians are Christians, of the Greek church; but there are also both Mahometans and Pagans among them.

## C H A P. IV.

*Of Siberia.*

SIBERIA is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the east, by China and the Pacific Ocean; on the south, by various nations of the Tartars and the Caspian Sea; and on the west, by European Russia. It is situate between 40 and 72 degrees of north latitude, and between 60 and 130 degrees of east longitude; being upwards of two thousand miles in length, and fifteen hundred in breadth. This country comprehends several inferior tribes of the Tartars, such as the Barabinski Tartars, the Calmucs, the Bratshi, and the Samoïds. The northern part of this immense territory is a barren uninhabited country, covered with snow during eight or nine months in the year; but the southern provinces are more fruitful, and in summer extremely hot. In general, however, the inhabitants lead the same vagrant life with the other Tartars, subsisting chiefly by hunting and fishing, or the produce of their flocks and herds. There are not in the whole country above six or seven towns of any note, and very little of the land is cultivated, except near Tobolski, the capital. This town is situate at a small distance from the confluence of the rivers Tobol and Irtysh, in 63 degrees of east longitude, and 57 and a half of north latitude, about a thousand miles east from Petersburg. It is a large and populous place, defended by a wall, the see of an archbishop, and hither the Russians generally send their convicts into exile. In ancient times, this country was inhabited by the race of Huns, who, under their leader Attila, ravaged Italy as far as Rome; and from some sepulchral monuments and ruins yet remaining, it is supposed to have been formerly better peopled than at present, especially towards the south. It can hardly be said to possess any trade or manufac-  
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fature, furs and the skins of martens being almost the only produce which it affords. In this article, the principal traffic of the people of Siberia is by sledges, over the lakes and frozen country, to China in the winter. Attempts have been made to penetrate into the sea of Japan and China, by the rivers which fall into the Frozen Ocean; but hitherto without much success. Some rich mines of silver and copper are said to be discovered in the mountains of Siberia, which they have begun to work.

Instead of bread, of which Siberia is entirely destitute, the inhabitants make use of dry-fish, with which they even feed their dogs, that are kept for drawing their sledges. In cold weather, when other provender fails, it is also given to the cows; by which the milk acquires a disagreeable taste. They have sleds of a very large size, and the Chinese merchants have taught them to drink tea, which they consider as exceeding good against the hypochondria, indigestion, and all disorders of the lungs.

Their sledges are drawn by thirty or forty large dogs; and in those they go a-hunting, wrapped up in skins. They will stay out six or seven weeks together, lying whole nights in the open fields, when the frost is very severe. On these occasions, however, they make stroug fires to keep themselves warm, and broil their fish. Their dogs are exceeding good at starting the marten, which is to be had no where else, and is the chief commodity of the country. The tenderest part of this animal is his nose; for which reason, and that the skin may not be damaged, it is here they commonly bit him, which they have learned to do very dexterously.

The people who inhabit the northern parts of Siberia are reported to eat their prisoners of war, on which account they have acquired the name of Samoieds or Tafambeidans, which signify cannibals or man-eaters. They live in round tents, covered with mats or stag-skins, with a hole at the top to let out the smoke from their fires, about which, being made in the middle of the tent, they lie flat on the ground. In summer they fix their residence on the bank of some river, where they subsist entirely by fishing, and often eat their prey raw. Nor do they scruple feeding likewise on young puppies, of which they are extremely fond. They are much addicted to magic, the knowledge of which is accounted amongst them very honourable.

In the south of Siberia there is a forest five hundred miles in length, in which is a prodigious quantity of red cherries, but of a fourth taste. The trees on which they grow are not above two or three feet high; their dwarfish size being owing to the frequent conflagration of the surrounding grass, which, when kindled in any part by travellers, it is difficult to extinguish, on account of its length and dryness. The riches of those people consists in herds of stags and elks, which are larger than elsewhere, and draw sledges eighty miles a day with ease: they are likewise so tame, that they will stand still to be harnessed.

It is usual for parents to sell their female children at six or seven years old; nor is there wanting a number of merchants ready to purchase them at that age, for the sake of receiving them in the state of virginity. When the men go a-hunting they lock up their wives, and are said to make use of a mechanical device for preventing their infidelity.

The whole country of Siberia is subject to the Russian empire, and the Caarina monopolizes all the trade, particularly that to China, whither caravans go every year with furs, and in return bring gold dust, silks, and other rich merchandize of that country.

In the chief towns of Siberia the Greek church is established; but the most general religion of the country is Paganism. They are said to believe in the supreme God, but worship the sun, moon, and stars, with several kinds of beasts and birds. They have also some rudely carved images in human shape. There is no particular order of priests among them, nor any stated days assigned for divine worship; but the heads of families usually perform the sacerdotal office, and sacrifice to their idols; the offering being afterwards publicly eaten by the people, who sing on the occasion the hymns and songs of the country, which, as may readily be supposed, are extremely barbarous. They do not burn, but bury their dead, in the cloaths which they wore when alive; hanging their arms and instruments of husbandry and trade upon some neighbouring tree.

With respect to the persons of the people of Siberia, those of the north are very different from the southern tribes; the latter being generally more handsome, but the former short in stature, with flat faces, little eyes, a copper complexion, and hardly any beards. They wear their hair at full length, and are clothed with furs from head to foot. Though a rude and ignorant people, they are extremely offensive, and reputed particularly ingenious in contriving methods to catch their game, which they sometimes even pursue on foot, in their snow shoes, with amazing velocity.

#### C H A P. V.

##### *Of the Islands on the Coast of Tartary.*

Quitting for a little time the continent of Asia, we proceed to give an account of the principal islands contiguous to the coasts of those countries which have already been described; and shall begin with such as lie on the east of Siberia, in the sea of Anadyr, denominated by the latest voyagers the Northern Archipelago.

This cluster of islands was first discovered in a voyage performed under the patronage of the late empress of Russia, between the beginning of the year 1764, and the end of 1767. On this expedition the navigators passed the sea of Ochotkoi; went round the southern cape of Kamtschatka into the Pacific ocean; steered along the eastern coast, keeping northward; and at last came to an anchor in the harbour

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*A Chinese Lady of Quality.*

Peter Paul, and wintered in the ostrog, or pallisadoed village belonging to it. Thus far they proceeded the first year; and continuing their voyage, they gradually discovered a great number of islands of different sizes, which became more frequent between the 56th and 67th degrees of north latitude. To mention the extent of some of them, and their distance from each other: the island of Afak is about 150 wersts [*about two thirds of an English mile*] in circumference; the island of Kanaha, distant from the former about twenty wersts, is nearly two hundred wersts in circumference; Tschepchina, lying forty wersts from the second, is about eighty wersts in circumference; Tahalan, which lies ten wersts from the last mentioned, measures upwards of forty wersts round; Atcha, distant forty wersts from the former, is said to be about three hundred wersts in circumference; and the extent of Amlai, which is situate five wersts more remote, is found that greater than that of the preceding.

The inhabitants of those six islands live in green huts, which they call jurts, and never use any fire in them, even in winter. But if the weather be uncommonly cold, they kindle a heap of the hay of strong sea-grass, in the open air, and let the warm vapour penetrate beneath their undergarment. Both sexes wear the same kind of cloaths, which are usually made of the skins of sea-fowls, but sometimes of that of the beaver. Their common food is raw fish, of which if they be at any time deprived, on account of contrary winds, they have recourse to sea-kail, and oysters. The men sleep with their wives in their huts, in a cellar dug in the ground, which they strew with grass; but have no other covering than the cloaths which they wear in the day-time. They appear to be entirely void of religion, and have not the least notion of a future state.

Among the many islands discovered by the same voyagers in those remote seas, two others are also considerable; one of which is named Kodjak, and the other, Umanak. The inhabitants, especially of the former, appeared to be extremely numerous, and betrayed a hostile disposition when the Russians landed on their coast. Their common weapons are bows and arrows, lances and knives made of the reindeer's bones, and hatchets of a hard black stone. Of their manners, customs, and history, nothing as yet has been learned; but the inhabitants, like those of the islands before mentioned, are to the last degree rude and uncivilized.

#### C H A P. VI.

##### *The Islands of Japan.*

THE principal islands comprehended under the title of Japonese are usually reckoned three, namely, Nippon or Japan Proper, Saccock, and Tonfa. It has indeed been doubted by some geographers, whether Nippon be not immediately connected with the Asiatic continent, but the most general opinion is in favour of its being surrounded by the sea. The islands of Japan are situate between 30 and 40 degrees of north latitude, and between 130 and 144 degrees of east longitude.

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Nippon, or Japan Proper, by far the largest, is six hundred miles long, and upwards of a hundred broad. Jeddo, which is the metropolis of it, and likewise the capital of the whole empire, is situate in a bay of the sea, in the north-east part of the island, and reckoned one of the most beautiful cities in that part of the world. In the middle of it stands the imperial palace, which, including the gardens, occupies a square of five miles in circumference, and is said to be extremely magnificent in the stile of that country. There are in the island two other cities of great note; one of which, named Meaco, is situate on a lake about three hundred miles south-west of Jeddo; and the other, called Saccal, in the south of the island.

The island of Saccock is parted by a very narrow channel from Japan, lying south of it: it is about five hundred miles in circumference, and the capital city is Bongo. The third, or that of Tonfa, is divided from the two former by similar channels: its extent is about four hundred miles in circumference, and the capital city of its own name.

The islands of Japan are under the government of a prince, to whom European voyagers have given the title of emperor, and who is said to be the superior of fifty vassal kings in different parts of his dominions. The half of those vassals attend the lord paramount in their turns, as well as the eldest sons of the principal inhabitants; and to prevent conspiracies, we are informed, that it is the policy of the court always to keep their subjects employed in some public work. A standing army is constantly maintained, of a hundred thousand men; which, in time of war, is sometimes increased to four hundred thousand: but it is probable that such an emergency must very seldom happen, on account of their great distance from any other nation than China, with which they are generally at peace. The revenues of the emperor have been represented as so extremely great by the Portuguese, that the sum exceeds all belief; but the country is generally esteemed one of the richest in Asia, especially in gold.

The persons of the Japonese resemble those of China, who live under the same parallel, and their habits are likewise the same; but they wear no covering on the head, which is half shaved; screening themselves from the sun either with a fan, which they constantly carry, or with umbrellas held over them by their slaves. Every gentleman, when he goes abroad, wears a dagger in his sash, and a great broad sword on his thigh.

The houses in Japan, as for the most part in China, consist only of a ground story. The apartments are divided by skreens; and the floors paved, and covered with mats; the doors and door-cases are varnished; the cycling painted and gilded; and in every house is an arched stone vault, where they keep their most valuable effects, to secure them from fire. They have no glass windows, but instead of them use sliding shutters. Neither have they chairs or tables like the Chinese, but sit cross-legged on mats or carpets, on which they lie at night. The rooms are hung with pictures or painted paper, and furnished with cabinets, skreens, broad swords, and other arms.

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The better sort of families eat chiefly venison, fish, and wild fowl of their own taking. Water and tea are their usual liquors; and some indulge themselves in strong beer, made of wheat and mixed with spirits. Others, however, of certain religious sects, eat no meat, nor use any strong drink, but live entirely upon rice, roots, herbs, and fruit. The diversions in the towns are plays and masquerades; the subjects of the former, as in most of the eastern nations, being taken from the history of some hero or personage of their country.

The Japanese have not an uniformity in religion amongst them, any more than their neighbours on the continent. In general, however, they believe in a Supreme Being and the immortality of the soul; some sects likewise placing faith in the doctrine of transmigration. They worship the sun, moon, and stars, besides the images of famous men; with several others, partly in human shape, and partly in that of various animals. Here nunneries and convents are also said to be known, in which they perform the severest penances. It is reported that they practise auricular confession as well as the Roman Catholics; during which ceremony they are seated on the top of a precipice, whence the bonze or priest, if suspicious of the person's sincerity, tumbles down the sinner to receive the reward of his guilt.

On a mountain near Meaco, stands a magnificent temple with an arched roof, in which is a colossal idol seated, whose chair is seventy feet high; and the head of the image is said to be large enough to contain the bodies of fifteen men. The ascent to the temple is decorated on each side with fifty pillars, on which, in the night-time, are hung lighted lanterns, affording a very agreeable prospect. There are in Meaco sixty other temples, and above three thousand images richly gilt and adorned.

Near Jeddo, on the road side, is erected an image of copper, twenty-two feet high, representing the god Dabis, sitting cross-legged, with extended arms. In a temple at Tencheda the bonzes affirm, that one of their gods appears to them in a human shape. At the new moon he is provided with a young virgin, whom, they relate, he embraces, and sometimes impregnates; but as all the lights are extinguished during the transaction, it is difficult to attain any certainty with respect to the person of the lover. The girl however afterwards is held in the highest veneration, and generally pretends to be endowed with the gift of prophecy.

Polygamy and concubinage are both permitted in Japan; but the consent of the betrothing parties is seldom asked here, any more than in China. It is usual for children to be disposed of in marriage by their parents at a very early age, the young persons ratifying the treaty as soon as they come to years of maturity. On this occasion they are led to the temple, where a bonze places them before an image of some of their gods, putting in their hands a lighted torch, which they hold while he repeats the words of the contract. Oxen or other animals, according to the quality and circumstances of the married pair, are afterwards

sacrificed to the idol; and the ceremony is concluded by a grand procession to the bridegroom's house, where the guests are entertained for several days.

The custom of the wife having no fortune prevails in Japan as in China; and after marriage she is entirely in the power of her husband, who may even punish her with death for a misdemeanour, especially conjugal infidelity. It is not uncommon for the women here to procure abortion; and if they be poor, or bring too many daughters, the mothers will strangle them with their own hands; but the boys are always provided for at the expence of the sovereign.

Prostitutes are tolerated, and no mark of infamy is fixed upon procurers in their life-time; but they are treated as criminals after death, and their bodies prohibited from funeral rites. The Japanese do not inter their dead as the people of China, but burn the corpse, and afterwards put the ashes into an urn. The family and friends of the deceased attend the body to the funeral pile, with lighted torches in their hands; and the eldest son or nearest of kin sets fire to the pile, into which are thrown sweet wood and aromatic gums, to perfume the air; a practice which renders the funerals of people of condition vastly expensive.

By the laws of Japan, theft, lying, and gaming, are usually punished with death; and in cases of treason, murder, and embezzling the royal revenue, all the relations are considered as partaking of the guilt, and punished equally as the principal, except the women, who are reduced to perpetual slavery. The vassal princes or governors are seldom put to death, but banished to a distant island, and forced to work at hard labour, as common felons.

The punishment of convicts in Japan is extremely severe and barbarous. Those unhappy persons are either crucified with their heads downwards, torn in pieces with horses, or burnt alive. If any should fly from justice, an order is published, enjoining that whoever meets with the offender, shall instantly kill him. If the person condemned be a soldier, he may choose whether he shall die by his own hands, or those of the executioner.

The Japanese are reputed to be fair dealers, and an ingenious people, but we are not informed that they discover any knowledge in the liberal arts. They are however excellent mechanics, as appears from their cabinets, screens, pagods, and other manufactures of the country. At present they trade with no foreign nation, except China and the Dutch; the latter having obtained this privilege, either upon the merit of renouncing Christianity, or pretending to discover a plot of the Portuguese against their state. The traffic consists chiefly in gold dust, the articles above specified, and in tea, of which those islands produce a great quantity.

The natives of this country make annually a grand procession to the tomb of their ancestors. It commences at mid-night, when all the houses in the towns are illuminated; and after spending some hours at the tombs in eating, drinking, and festivity, the people present themselves in the morning before the

temple

of their idols, and the houses of persons of distinction; beating upon their drums and brazen vessels, with other noisy and jarring instruments, which are not however unaccompanied with tolerable good voices. Among the Japonese the night is the usual season both for feasting and diversions; and they sleep away the middle of the day, as is the custom in most hot countries. They take off their shoes when they enter either the temples, or the houses of the great, and they approach their princes and magistrates upon their knees. Incredible instances are mentioned by some travellers, of the slaves of this country voluntarily killing themselves at the request of their lord, for the entertainment of him and his company; a savage spectacle, if real, and exceeding in horror that of the devoted gladiators in ancient Rome. It is also related, that the slaves kill themselves on the death of their master, with the view of attending him in another state.

The Japonese islands were utterly unknown in Europe for upwards of forty years after America was discovered by Columbus; when Antonio de Mota, a Portuguese commander, in a voyage towards China, was driven hither by a storm, in the year 1542. The Portuguese began soon after to trade with the people of that country, and continued to monopolize the commerce for more than sixty years, till some English and Dutch vessels likewise failed to those parts. The merchants of Portugal, however, not restricting their views entirely to the objects of traffic, took occasion to introduce their missionaries, and made great numbers of proselytes to the Romish religion, until the year 1630; when the Japonese government suspecting that the Portuguese had formed a conspiracy against the state, massacred or banished all the Christians, and determined thenceforth never to admit into their country any people of that religion, except the Dutch. The exemption of the latter from this prohibition, afforded just ground to imagine that the apprehensions of the Japonese had been fomented, if not entirely excited, by their means. It is probable that their purpose was effected by representing the supremacy of the pope, which was inculcated by the missionaries, as not only derogatory to the dignity of the emperor, but even subversive of his authority. It has been affirmed, that to insinuations of this nature, the Dutch added the impiety of disclaiming the name of Christians, trampling upon the cross, and expressing the utmost detestation of the Christian religion, in order the better to secure the confidence of those islanders. Be this as it may, the Dutch are the only European nation that carries on at present any trade with Japan; though, from the extreme vigilance with which they are watched in that country, it is evident that the opinion entertained of them by the natives is far from being favourable. When any Dutch vessel arrives on the coast, the Japonese immediately take off her rudder, sails, and guns, which are kept on shore till her departure. Not a man is permitted to come on shore, till an express is sent to court and returned, and then the crew are mustered before the Japonese commissary; after which

they are restricted to the island of Dinsia, where the inhabitants are not allowed the use of fire and candle in the night-time, and prohibited from visiting the city of Bongo or Nagasacke for eight months in the year. So great is the jealousy entertained by the Japonese of the Dutch, owing probably to the excesses which have been committed in some of the Indian islands, by the subjects of that republic. The commodities which the Hollanders import to Japan are chiefly cinnamon, nutmegs, mace, and cloves, which renders the trade with that country more profitable to them than it could be to any other nation, whose settlements produce none of those spices.

## C H A P. VII.

*Of the Ladrone Islands.*

**DIRECTING** our course southward from Japan, and passing the islands Lekeyo and Formosa, with others of small extent, adjacent to the coast of China, and subject to that empire, we arrive at the Ladrone or Marian islands. They are situate in the Pacific Ocean, between 12 and 28 degrees of north latitude, and in 140 degrees of east longitude. Their names are, Guam, Sarpanta, Tinian, Sefpara, Anatan, Sarignan, Guagam, Alamaguan, Pagon, the burning mountain of Griga, Magna, Patas, Discocida, and Malabrigo.

Guam, which is the largest, is about twelve leagues long, and four broad, lying north and south. In the middle of the island the ground is high, but slopes gradually to the coast. It produces rice, pine-apples, oranges, and most of the tropical fruits. Among those is the lime, a sort of crab-lemon with a thin rind, containing a very acid juice, and much used in punch in the West Indies. The bread-fruit grows on a tree resembling that which bears our largest apples. When fully grown, it is equal in size to an ordinary foot-ball. It has a dry thick rind, but the inside is soft, white, and crummy, like bread, with a sweet pleasant taste, if eaten in less than twenty-four hours after it is plucked; for then it becomes dry and fizzly. The natives, after baking it in an oven, scrape off the outside. This fruit is in season eight months in the year, during which time it is the only bread used in the island.

The cocoa, which also grows here, is a very hardy tree, thriving almost in every soil, and rising to a very great height. The nut grows at the end of the branches, which are some inches in diameter. It is generally as large as a man's head, and has a rind two inches thick inclosing the shell, which is black, thick, and hard, being manufactured into cups, spoons, and other utensils, which are much esteemed, particularly in Europe. Within the shell is a kernel, which, before it is ripe, tastes sweet, and resembles thick cream; but as it advances in maturity, it becomes of a firm consistence, and is then not easy of digestion. This kernel is hollow, and contains a liquor which is very wholesome, sweet, and refreshing. The outside rind or husk is full of small strings or threads, which, being beaten, become soft, and are

spun

spun into a yarn of which are made cable ropes, and sometimes a coarse sort of sail-cloth. In the South Seas, the Spaniards use it to tow instead of caskum to caulk their ships, and it is said to possess the quality of not rotting.

A liquor is also procured from the cocoa-tree, called toddy, which has the appearance of whey, and is publicly sold, morning and evening, in almost all the towns of the East Indies. The branch which is opened for this purpose produces no fruit, but the discharge from it is said not to affect the vegetation of that which grows on the others. This liquor is vastly agreeable, but turns sour in twenty-four hours. A sort of arrack is distilled from it, which makes excellent punch, but must be put into a brandy cask, to give it spirit, not being sufficiently strong in itself. It is known by the name of Goa arrack, because chiefly used at that place, and is entirely different from the arrack distilled from rice and sugar, which is the most common, as well as the strongest kind.

The inhabitants of Guam are of a good stature, strong bodied, and well shaped, with long black hair, small eyes, high noses, thick lips, and a copper complexion. They have stern countenances, but are courteous and affable. The island is visited with periodical, though not violent rains from June to October. The country however is reputed healthful, especially in the dry season; but sometimes the inhabitants are afflicted with a kind of leprosy.

The people of Guam are particularly ingenious in constructing their sloops, which are the admiration of all voyagers. The keel is of one piece, made in the form of a canoe, twenty-eight feet in length, built sharp at both ends. One side of the vessel is flat, the other rounding with a pretty large belly, being four or five feet broad, with a mast in the middle. Their method of sailing is to turn the flat side to the wind; and having a head at each end, they can sail with either of them foremost, and have never any occasion to tack. It has been computed, that those vessels will sail twenty-four knots an hour: it is certain, however, that they go with prodigious velocity.

Guam, with the other Ladrone islands, was first discovered by Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese, who was employed by the emperor Charles the fifth, to find a way to the East Indies by the west. The island remains under Spanish jurisdiction, and in it are several Indian villages, where priests reside, who instruct the inhabitants in the Christian religion; that of the country being the Chinese paganism, of which nation those islanders are descended. The Spaniards have two castles on the shore, viz. St. Angelo, a trifling fortress, where the Manila ship usually anchors, and the castle of St. Lewis, distant from the former about four leagues. Besides those forts, there is a battery of five cannon on an eminence near the shore. The military force usually kept in the island is three companies of soldiers, consisting of fifty men each; and the number of inhabitants is computed to be about four thousand. Sixty years ago, Guam, Tinian, and Sarpanta, were supposed to contain in all above fifty thousand inhabitants, and the rest were peopled in

proportion; but by a pestilential disease which broke out about that period, the greater part of the inhabitants was destroyed. Those in the neighbouring island who survived this calamity, were removed to Guam, whence they never were permitted to return to their former settlements, which have since continued desolate. Many of the inhabitants are still dissatisfied with this restriction; and so apprehensive are the Spaniards of a revolt, that the natives are not suffered to carry arms.

The island of Tinian or Bonavista, which lies north of Guam, is twelve miles in length, and six in breadth. According to the account delivered of it by the writer of Anson's Voyage, the soil is dry and sandy, and the air healthful. The land rises in gentle slopes, from the shore to the middle of the island, interrupted by vallies of an easy ascent, which are beautifully diversified by woods and lawns intermixed. The turf of the lawns was clean and uniform, composed of fine trefoil, blended with a variety of flowers; and the woods consisted of tall spreading trees, delightful in their appearance, or rich in delicious fruits, free from bushes and underwood, and affording the most elegant prospects.

The cattle on the island were computed to amount to ten thousand, all perfectly white, except their ears; besides which, there were hogs and poultry without number. The fruits produced here are cocoa nuts, guavaes, limes, sweet and bitter oranges, and cabbages growing at the tops of trees. There is no rivulet or running stream in it, but excellent well-water, which lies near the surface. With all those advantages, Tinian is not constantly inhabited, and only serves as a plantation to supply the Spaniards in Guam with provisions.

This description of Tinian has been suspected to border on romance, and the supposition may seem to derive some degree of authority from the very different account of the subject delivered in Mr. Byron's Journal. We are there informed, that the island was almost a thicket of bushes and briars, intermixed with swamps and marshes: that the water was brackish and full of worms; the rains violent, and almost incessant; the heats so great as to threaten suffocation; which was likewise almost the consequence, on opening the mouth to speak, on account of the prodigious swarms of flies with which the air abounded. It is remarkable, that Mr. Byron's description of Tinian was drawn in the same season and month of the year, in which the island had been visited by the former voyagers: but it ought to be remembered, that more than twenty years had elapsed between the departure of the Centurion, and the arrival of the Dolphin at this island; and it is well known how much, in that space, particularly in a warm climate, the salubrity and face of a country may be changed, by a total neglect of cultivation.

The habit of the men in the Ladrone islands is a linen frock and drawers, with a small piece of the same cloth tied about their heads. The women likewise wear a similar frock, distinguished only by large sleeves, which come down to their hands; with the  
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addition of a piece of cloth round their waists. Both sexes go bare-foot; and the women tie up their hair in a roll at the hinder part of the head, while the men, like the Chinese, have their heads shaved, all except a lock that is left in the middle of the crown. Persons of figure are clothed in silk or fine callico, and the women of this rank wear bracelets and rings on their arms and fingers.

C H A P. VIII.  
*Of the Philippine Islands.*

**WESTWARD** of the former, in the Pacific Ocean, are situate the Philippine Islands, between 5 and 19 degrees of north latitude, and between 114 and 127 degrees of east longitude. There are some hundreds of them, and several very large. The chief and the most northerly is Manila or Luceña, lying between 13 and 19 degrees of north latitude; about four hundred miles long, and a hundred miles broad in most places. The capital of this island, and of all the rest, is the city of Manila, situate on a bay in the south-west part of the island, and upwards of two miles in circumference, surrounded by a wall and other works. The harbour, of which a castle defends the entrance, is very commodious, but of difficult access, on account of the rocks and sands which lie before it.

The principal buildings of the city are the cathedral, which is large, with the parish churches and convents; to which may be added the college of the Jesuits, where students were, lately, instructed in humanity, philosophy, and divinity. The houses are ornamented with galleries in the Chinese stile, and the streets are spacious, but greatly damaged by earthquakes, which have spoiled their uniformity. The city is supposed to contain about three thousand inhabitants; but the suburbs, which are extensive, a much superior number. Of the Chinese alone, there are said to be here not less than twenty thousand persons, in the different employments of servants, manufacturers, and brokers; for the Spaniards and Indians applying themselves to no business, the labour and trade of the place depend entirely on those industrious people, over whom, however, their tyrannical and impolitic masters exercise great severity.

The adjacent country is full of fine plantations, farms, and villas, belonging to the principal inhabitants. Upon the mountains in the middle of the country, the people live in tents and huts, under the spreading trees; but those who reside in the plains, dwell in houses erected upon high pillars, in order to avoid the periodical inundation caused annually by the rains which fall from the month of June to September. In this season, the people have no communication with those in their neighbourhood, but by boats; the horror of their solitary state is farther aggravated by the terrible storms of wind and thunder, which frequently happen at the same time, accompanied likewise with frequent earthquakes, and the eruption of numerous volcanos. The fair season, however, is usually exceeding pleasant, and the water

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in the island accounted the best in the world. Being situate in the torrid zone, the air is extremely hot, but the island nevertheless reputed healthful.

The fertility of the soil, and the beautiful face of the country, seem to vie with each other, for the gratification of the inhabitants. While the fields are clothed with perpetual verdure, the trees are seldom without fruit; and the people in many places live upon what the earth spontaneously produces. The fruits are mangoes, plantains, bananas, coconos, tamarinds, cassia, and the cacao or chocolate nut which has been imported from Mexico, oranges, lemons, and all kinds of tropical produce. The cinnamon and nut-meg trees have been planted here, but do not generally thrive. Here is likewise a great deal of good timber and dying woods. One of those, named the calamba or sweet-wood, a kind of cane which grows in the mountains, yields wholesome water when cut, and often supplies the natives with that element.

Various kinds of flowers and sweet herbs also grow without culture, among which are many of a medicinal, as well as a poisonous quality. Of the latter, the camandag is so virulent a nature, that with the juice of it they poison their darts and arrows. Medicinal and sweet gums, likewise, issuing from the bodies of trees, are part of the produce of the country.

The neat cattle run wild on the mountains, and are hunted in the same manner as deer, wild hogs, and goats. The bees produce such quantities of honey as might almost subsist the natives; and wax is so plentiful; that nothing else is used for making candles. Serpents of various kinds are likewise frequently met with.

The greater part of the people of Manila are of Chinese or Malayan extraction, intermixed with a number of blacks; and the complexion of the different tribes corresponds, in general, with that of the nation from which their race is derived. The blacks are equal in deepness of colour to the Caffres of Africa, but differ from them in respect of their features and long hair, and therefore are supposed to claim an Indian descent. As they possess the mountainous and inaccessible parts of the island, it is probable that they were the original inhabitants of the country, and afterwards restricted to those limits by the superior power of invaders. The descendants of the Malays (inhabitants of Malacca) are very tawny; the Chinese of a complexion less dark; and the Spaniards nearly similar to the Chinese. Besides those, there is here another nation, denominated that of Pintados, on account of the custom which prevails among them of painting their bodies. The natives are for the most part of a middle stature, with regular features. The more civilized islanders have adopted, in great measure, the Spanish habit; but the blacks only tie a cloth about their loins and head, and usually go bare-foot.

Such of the inhabitants as live near the sea-coast, feed chiefly on rice and fish, while the mountaineers subsist on the flesh they take in hunting, and the fruits of the earth, which grow spontaneously in great plenty.

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Their drink is water, which they commonly use warm, as the Chinese. They have also palm wine, and spirituous liquors distilled from the sugar-cane, rice, &c. They practise cold-bathing twice a day, either for health or recreation; and their diversions consist of rude plays, or of rustic dances and mock fights, in which they discover great agility; but their chief delight is in cock-fighting.

The Chinese custom of purchasing their wives prevails in the Philippine islands, and the marriage is performed by a priestess, who sacrifices some animal on the occasion; after which the bride is conducted home, and the ceremony, as in other places, concludes with an entertainment. They generally marry in their own tribe, and with their nearest relations, except the first degree. Some of the tribes are restricted to one wife, while others permit a plurality of women, and divorces for reasonable causes on either side. In the burial of the dead, and the ceremonies of interment, they likewise copy the Chinese.

The trade between Manila and the adjacent continent consists chiefly in such commodities as are intended to supply Mexico and Peru, namely, spices, Chinese silks, and manufactures, particularly silk stockings, Indian stuffs, calicoes and chints, with other small articles in the hard-ware branch, wrought in the island by the Chinese; all which are transported annually to the port of Acapulco in Mexico. This trade, however, at least formerly, was not open to all the inhabitants of Manila, but was restrained to the convents of the Jesuits, as a fund to support the missions, for the propagation of the Catholic faith.

The trade is limited by the royal edicts to a certain value: according to some, it ought not to exceed 600,000 dollars, but it has been known to amount, on several occasions, to five times that sum. It is carried on by means of a vessel, which sails from the port of Cabite in Manila about the middle of July, taking the advantage of the westerly monsoon, which sets in about that time, and generally arrives at Acapulco about Christmas: in performing this voyage, as soon as they have got clear of the Philippine islands, they stand a little to the northward, till they arrive in 30 degrees, where they expect to meet with a westerly wind that will carry them to California. But it is the opinion of the writer of Lord Anson's Voyage, that if they stood farther north, they might reach the place of their destination in half the time, which the course they now take requires for accomplishing that purpose.

Having disposed of the cargo at Acapulco, and received on board the silver and other commodities from Mexico, the ship quits that port in the March following, and sails in the latitude of 13 or 14 degrees, till she comes in sight of Guam, one of the Ladrone islands; the road of which being very dangerous, ships are ordered to be made on the high lands, all the month of June, for the benefit of the navigation. After refreshing at this place, she continues her course to Cape Spirito Santo or Samar, one of the Philippine islands, whence, if no signal is made of an

enemy being upon the coast, she proceeds to the same port in Manila from which she set out.

Notwithstanding the protection which the Manila trade has received from the Spanish court, it is evidently very prejudicial to the interests of that nation. For the Chinese silks, and cottons from the coast of Coromandel, being afforded much cheaper at Acapulco than European manufactures, the silks and linens sent thither from Cadiz are greatly injured in the sale; at the same time that the traffic drains Mexico and Peru of silver, which would otherwise be brought to Europe, and center in Old Spain; while it has likewise the farther effect of rendering those colonies less dependent on the mother-country. The only advantages arising from the Manila trade, is the enriching some private persons in that part of the world.

Not far from Manila is Capul, three leagues in compass, a pleasant and fruitful island. Eight leagues north-west from the mouth of the frait is Ticao, an island eight leagues in compass, inhabited by Indians. Hence four leagues westward is Burin, five leagues in circumference; south of which is Masbata, thirty leagues in compass, rich in gold mines, inhabited likewise by Indians, who pay tribute in wax, salt, and civet. Fifteen leagues from Manilla is the island of Marinduque, which is eighteen leagues in compass, high, and abounding in cocoa and other fruit trees. Mindora is about eight leagues from Manila, and five from Madrinuque. This island is seventy leagues in compass, likewise mountainous, and produces the same commodities as the preceding. Next to Mindora is Luban, another small island, five leagues in compass; beyond which are the Calamines, consisting of seventeen small islands. The next are the five islands of Cuyo, not far distant from each other; succeeded by that of Panay, an hundred leagues in compass, containing about sixteen thousand tributary Indians, and fourteen parishes belonging to the fathers of St. Augustine. One of the greatest islands next to Manila, is Samar, one hundred and thirty leagues in compass, and inhabited by about five hundred families. It is generally mountainous and craggy, but the plains are fruitful. Another considerable island is Leyte, thirty leagues in compass, and well peopled on the east side, by reason of the fruitful plains, which are said to yield from a hundred to two hundred fold. The inhabitants were under the immediate care of the Jesuits, before the extinction of that order. Another under the patronage of the same body is Bohol, about forty leagues in compass. But the largest of all the Philippine islands, except Manila, is Mindanao, which is likewise the most southerly. It is about two hundred miles in length, and a hundred and fifty in breadth. It is inhabited by people of different nations and religions; but the Mahometans, who occupy the sea-coast, are much the most numerous, whose sovereign is stiled the sultan of Mindanao. Those who possess the middle of the island are called Hillaloons; and another nation styled Solognes, on the north-west coast. The air of this island is not so hot as might be expected, considering its latitude; being frequently refreshed

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refreshed by the sea-breezes, and the periodical rains, which lay the flat country under water. The monsoons or trade-winds, which prevail here, blow from the east, from October to May, when they shift about and set westerly; the next month regularly introducing rains and storms. At first there are not more than two or three moderate showers a day; but they afterwards increase both in duration and violence, accompanied frequently with loud thunder and hurricanes, so that trees are blown up by the roots. In June and July the sun and stars are sometimes not seen in the course of a week; about August the air is very cool, the rain and wind are moderate in September; and in October, the wind returning to the east, the weather continues fair till the usual term of its change.

The soil of Mindanao is fruitful, being well watered with rivers, and the mountains afford excellent timber. There are on this island large groves of the libby or sago tree. The granulated form of the sago has occasioned its being generally considered by the Europeans as a seed, but it is the pith of a tree, and is eat by the natives instead of bread, though the country also produces rice, which is one of the staple commodities in those parts. Beasts of prey are totally unknown in Mindanao, but it is furnished with almost every other useful animal, such as horses, cows, buffalos and hogs, with bunches over their eyes. Here are also snakes, scorpions, and other venomous insects; and among the birds, which in all the Philippine islands generally consist of the same species, are parrots, cacatoes, tavans, and faligans.

The general language in the Philippine islands is the Malayan tongue, besides which every people have a language peculiar to themselves. In Manila the natives write on cocoa-nut leaves, with an iron style, and the arts and sciences have been there introduced by the Spaniards; but in Mindanao and the other islands they are to ignorant of the liberal arts, that they are under the necessity of employing the Chinese to keep their accounts for them.

The bulk of the inhabitants, both in the Ladron and Philippine islands, have nearly the same religion with the Chinese, from whom they are descended. They worship one Supreme God, and their ancestors, paying adoration likewise to the sun and moon, and almost every visible object, whether animate or inanimate. One kind of tree particular they reckon it is sacrilege to cut down; believing the souls of some of their friends may reside in it, which to wound would be the height of impiety. Instead of temples, they place their idols in caves, where sacrifices are likewise offered. Some beautiful virgin first wounds the victim with a spear, after which the priests dispatch the animal, and having dressed the meat, it is eaten by the company. They are remarkably observant of lucky and unlucky days, and so extremely superstitious, that if certain animals cross the way when they are going upon any business, they will immediately return home, and go out no more that day. In the island of Mindanao, particularly along the sea-coast, there are many Mahometans.

In all those islands, it is computed that there are about two hundred and fifty thousand Spaniards and Indians, subject to the crown of Spain, though scarce the twelfth part of the inhabitants be conquered. The governor, who is styled captain-general, has under him a number of deputies, and the same civil and criminal jurisdiction prevails as in Old Spain. Ecclesiastical causes are determined by the archbishop of Manila, the bishop, and commissaries; but there lies an appeal from them to the pope's delegate, who resides in one of the islands. The tribunal of inquisition has also a commissary here.

The city of Manila is the seat of government for all the Philippine islands, except Mindanao and Paragoa; the governor's salary is thirteen thousand three hundred pieces of eight, exclusive of great perquisites, and his authority lasts eight years. Four judges and a solicitor hold their places for life, which are also very profitable. At the expiration of his office, every governor is subjected to a judicial trial, in which a strict inquiry is made into his management of public affairs, which relates, however, more to speculation than any other part of misconduct, and is accordingly never punished but by a pecuniary fine. On this occasion, sixty days are allowed the islanders, after proclamation made through the provinces, to bring in their complaints, and thirty days to prosecute before the judge, who is generally the successor in the government, by special commission from the king and his supreme council of the Indies; when having received all informations, without deciding any thing, he submits the proceedings to court. It is affirmed, that since the conquest of those islands, only two of the governors have returned to Spain, the rest having either died of chagrin at their trial, or of the hardships endured in their subsequent passage home.

It is apparent that with respect to the Philippine islands, the court of Spain is actuated by the same pernicious principles which has misguided her American commerce. For notwithstanding the taxes levied on the inhabitants, there is an annual deficiency of two hundred and eighty thousand pieces of eight, to defray the expence of government, which is remitted every year from New Spain for that purpose. Married men are generally taxed ten reals, others from eighteen to sixty years are rated at five reals, and the same is likewise paid by maids, from the age of twenty-four to sixty. The whole included, the king's revenue is not quite four hundred thousand pieces of eight, while the pay of the military kept at Manila, and the enormous salaries of the civil officers of the crown, amount to an excess of near three fourths of that sum.

Those islands are reputed rich in pearls, cotton, civet, and particularly gold, which is not only found in mines, but mixed with the sand of rivers. Of this commodity, it is said, there is to the value of two hundred thousand pieces of eight a year gathered, without the help of fire.

The Philippine islands received their present name in the year 1543, from the general Luis Lopez de Villa Lobos, in honour to prince Philip, then heir to the Spanish crown. On account of their remote situation

situation, they have remained since that time totally unmolested by any foreign power; till, during the last war between Great Britain and Spain, the city of Manila was reduced by some ships of our navy, but immediately afterwards restored to the Spanish crown, for a stipulated ransom, which has not hitherto been paid, and is probably now fully relinquished.

#### C H A P. IX.

*Of the Molucca Islands, with those of Banda, Amboyna, and others adjacent,*

**P**ROCEEDING southward from the Philippine islands, we arrive at the Moluccas, which are situate between one degree south, and two degrees north latitude, and in 125 degrees of east longitude. The first of them is Ternate, about twenty-four miles in circumference; in which is a burning mountain that has done great mischief by its eruptions. Two leagues from Ternate is the island of Tidora, about twenty miles in compass, enjoying a better soil, and reputed more healthy than the former. The inhabitants are warlike, and can put to sea twenty or thirty large vessels, with six or seven thousand men. The third of those islands is Mutiel or Timor, lying directly under the line. The fourth is Machien, which has a burning mountain like that in Ternate. The fifth is Bachian, about twelve leagues in compass, containing likewise a volcano.

The general produce of those islands is cocoa and sago, with almonds, oranges, lemons, and other tropical fruits; but their greatest riches consisted formerly in cloves, on which account they obtained the name of Spice Islands. The tree which produces this commodity resembles the bay. The cloves grow in clusters at the end of the branches. They are first white, then green, afterwards red, and when full ripe they turn brown, but when gathered and dried become almost of a black colour.

The inhabitants of the Moluccas live chiefly upon sago, made into cakes, having neither corn nor rice, and hardly any meat but goat's flesh. Their drink is water, and the milk of the cocoa-nut, or toddy, drawn from the body of that tree.

The Portuguese and Spaniards were the first Europeans that found the way to those islands, the former sailing eastward, and the other directing their course west. The English and Dutch afterwards traded with the inhabitants, but the Dutch erecting fortresses here, in the beginning of the last century, expelled every other nation; when they even eradicated the cloves, to preclude the inducement to any attack, and planted them in the adjacent island of Amboyna, which they secured with strong fortifications.

The Banda Islands are situate between 127 and 128 degrees of east longitude, and between three and five degrees of south latitude. They are five in number, viz. Pooloway, Rosingen, Genapi, Polezron, and Lantor or Banda Proper. In extent they are generally small, the largest, which is Banda, not exceeding sixty miles in circumference; but they are valuable on account of the nutmeg, which, it is said, will grow

no where else. Pooloway is represented as a most delightful country, the nutmeg and other fruit trees being cut into pleasant walks through the island, which forms one beautiful garden. It is subjected, however, to the great inconvenience of having no springs or rivulets; on which account the inhabitants preserve in cisterns the water that falls in the rainy season of the year. In several of those islands there are volcanos, and in most of them fortifications. The chief town of Banda is situate on an inaccessible rock, the natural strength of which is improved by the works which the Dutch have erected round it.

The same tree that produces the nutmeg is also the parent of the mace, which encloses the fruit as a husk. The Arabs were the first who introduced those spices to the west, by importing them to Egypt and the coasts of the Levant, whence they were distributed over Europe. On the discovery of the East Indies by the Portuguese, about the year 1500, that nation monopolized the trade for upwards of a century, till the Dutch invaded those islands in 1609. The inhabitants put themselves under the protection of the king of England, whom they acknowledged as their sovereign; but the Dutch maintaining their conquests, they ever since enjoyed the exclusive benefit of that important acquisition.

Amboyna is situate in three degrees 40 minutes south latitude, and in 126 degrees of east longitude. This island, which is about seventy miles in circumference, is now the only country that produces cloves, since the Dutch transplanted them hither from the Moluccas, for the more secure possession of that spice. Besides cloves, it likewise abounds in most of the tropical fruits and fish, nor is there here any deficiency of good water, but flesh is very scarce. This scarcity, however, proceeds more from the policy of the Dutch, than either the intemperature of the climate, or the barrenness of the soil. For excepting cloves, they have, in Amboyna as well as the Moluccas, industriously discouraged the cultivation of every esculent commodity, with the view of withholding subsistence from those who might be tempted to invade them. But as a greater security from any hostile attack, the approaches to the island are defended by a strong fortress, in which is constantly kept a garrison of seven or eight hundred men. In the beginning of the last century, the trade of Amboyna was divided between the English and Dutch, who had each their factories in the island; but the latter perfidiously attacking the other settlements, in time of profound peace, rendered themselves masters of the country, after committing such acts of horror and barbarity, as hardly ever were perpetrated by any people, even in a contest with their most inveterate enemies. This dominion, however, so infamously acquired, they have hitherto been allowed to retain, and at present monopolize the cloves, as well as that of the other valuable spices.

The islands of Celebes or Macassar, Gilolo, Ceom, Bourou and Bouton, though situate near the Molucca and Banda islands, produce none of the fine spices; but being of consequence on account of their proximity,

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Celebes, or Macassar, is situate between 116 and 124 degrees of east longitude, and between two degrees north, and six degrees south latitude. It is five hundred miles long, and for the most part two hundred broad. The air is hot and moist, the rainy season lasting the greatest part of the year; but the mornings usually are fair. During the rains, innumerable torrents pour down from the hills; but at other times, there is only one navigable river, which runs from north to south, and discharges itself into the bay of Macassar, near the city of that name.

Macassar is the capital of the island, situate on the south-west part of it, and consists of spacious streets, planted on each side with evergreens. The houses are generally built of wood, but the palaces and mosques of stone. It formerly contained upwards of a hundred thousand men, able to bear arms; but since the conquest of the Dutch, who now monopolize the trade, it is reckoned that there is not more than half that number of inhabitants. The republic has here a strong fort, garrisoned with seven or eight hundred men.

Another port-town of the island is Jampadan, about fifteen miles south of Macassar, one of the best harbours in India. This was the first town which the Dutch took from the natives, and here they seized or destroyed all the Portuguese vessels, when they were in full peace with that nation. The other towns and villages which lie in the flat country, are generally built with wood or cane, and raised upon high pillars, to preserve them from the annual flood; at which time the inhabitants have no communication but by boats.

The natives are of a middle stature, and a deep copper complexion, having for the most part high cheek bones, flat noses, and black teeth, though the colour of the latter is rather seditious than natural. Their shining black hair they tie up in a roll, wearing on their heads a white cloth, or small turban. They anoint their bodies with oil from their infancy, and the men use hardly any other covering than a linen cloth wrapped about their loins. The princes and great men, however, wear a vest, tied with a sash, in which they carry a dagger, knife, crice, and other trinkets. People of figure dye the nail of the little finger of the left-hand red, and allow it to grow to a great length. The women wear a shift, or rather a waistcoat, close to their bodies, and a pair of breeches, which reach down to the middle of the leg, made of silk or cotton, having no other head-dress than a roll to tie their hair, of which some curls hang on their neck. When they go abroad, they throw a loose piece of linen or muslin over them, with a gold chain about the neck, which is their only ornament.

They are an ingenious people, and seem to be actuated by more refined sentiments of honour and friendship, than are usually met with among those who have not attained to a considerable degree of civilization. They discovered an ardent love of liberty,

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by the brave resistance which they so long maintained against the whole power of the Dutch, being the last nation in the Indian seas who were reduced to their subjection: and as the men are warlike, the women are remarkably chaste.

The furniture of their houses consists chiefly of carpets, cushions, and the couches on which they sleep; and, like most of the Asiatics, they sit cross-legged. They are particularly fond of a fine equipage, and a great many servants to attend them; of whom, if they have not enow of their own, they will hire or borrow, to make up the number, when they are to appear in public.

Their food is chiefly rice, fish, herbs, fruit, and roots; for of flesh they eat but little, and their principal meal is made in the evening. What they drink is tea, coffee, sherbet, or chocolate, and they have likewise palm wine, arrack, and other spirits; in which they sometimes indulge themselves, though contrary to the precepts of their religion. They loll upon carpets at their meals, and eat off dishes made of china, wood, silver, or copper, which are set before them on little low lacquered tables; taking up the rice with their hands instead of spoons, of which there is none amongst them. They chew betel and arek, or smook tobacco mixed with opium most part of the day.

Young men of condition here are taught to ride, shoot, and handle the crice and scymetar; also to blow their little poisoned darts through a tube or hollow cane, about six feet long, which is called a sampit. Their armour consists of a light shield made of cane, and covered with a buffalo's hide, a sword, dagger, and the sampit. The latter being furnished with a dagger at the end, serves likewise as a spear, and is used as such, after the missive weapon has been discharged through it, the wound inflicted by which is said to be irrecoverably mortal.

The produce of the island is rice, sugar, oranges, the tropical fruits, and pepper plant; but they chiefly cultivate the poppy, which affords opium. There are here also bamboos, of a great length and thickness, with other kinds of cane; likewise cotton trees, ebony, calambac, sanders, and other dying woods, with timber proper for building houses. No country abounds more with poisonous plants and herbs, whence is procured the liquor into which they dip their darts and daggers.

Here are most kinds of animals, except sheep. Monkeys may be seen in great numbers, some of which are as large as mastiffs, and frequently attack travellers. They hunt in packs, and will run down a wild beast; being afraid of nothing but serpents, by which tribe they are often pursued, even to the tops of trees, and sometimes wounded. There are no elephants in the island, but there is a small breed of horses, on which the natives ride, using, instead of a saddle, a painted cloth, without stirrups, and, for a bridle, a cord, to which is fastened a wooden bit. They also ride in the same way upon oxen and buffaloes.

The principal manufacture of the country is cotton linen, of which the women, who are taught to spin

and weave, make their own and their husbands cloaths, as well as those of their children. The men make their own arms and utensils; there being no particular trades, but every family working for themselves.

Before the invasion of the Dutch, Macassar had a great foreign trade, supplying the Moluccas and Banda with rice and other provisions, and taking their nutmegs and cloves in return; which they again exported to India, Persia, Arabia, and Egypt.

Their common language is the Malayan; but the religion of the island being Mahometanisin, the Alcoran is written in Arabic; and in consequence of their principles, the same marriage rites, as well as the practice of polygamy and concubinage, prevail here as in other Mahometan countries, which will be afterwards more particularly mentioned in treating of Turkey.

There are no written laws in this country, except those contained in the Alcoran. The judges, or cadis, who are Mahometan priests, interpret them, and every man pleads his own cause. In several cases, the party aggrieved is allowed to do himself justice; as in adultery, robbery, and the murder of a relation, when the offender is taken in the fact.

Before the conquest of the Dutch, the island was governed by a prince, whose authority was absolute; and the crown descended by collateral, not lineal succession. The forces of the kingdom were a well-disciplined militia, never chargeable to the government, but when they were called out to actual service. The first Europeans that invaded them were the Portuguese, whom the natives opposed with great vigour; but after being assisted by the Dutch in expelling that enemy, they were at length subdued by their auxiliaries, who now exercise over them an authority unbecoming the spirit of a free republic.

The island of Gilolo is situate between 3 degrees north, and 2 degrees south latitude, and between 125 and 128 degrees of east longitude. The chief town is Tochina, the name by which the island is frequently called. The climate, soil, produce, and inhabitants, differ so little from those of Celebes, that they require no particular description.

Ceram is almost contiguous to the islands of Amboyna and Banda, while those of Bourou and Bouton are situate between Ceram and Macassar; in all which, as well as Gilolo, the Dutch have erected fortifications, to defend the avenues to the Spice Islands.

From the early mention made of spices in sacred writ, it is evident that the islands which produce them were visited by the people on the continent of Asia, at a very remote period, though they remained entirely unknown to the Europeans, till the Portuguese discovered the way to India by the Cape of Good Hope. This memorable event happened in the year 1498, in the reign of Don Emanuel, king of Portugal, under the conduct of the enterprising Vasco de Gama, to whom the charge of the expedition was entrusted. On his arrival at Calicut in India, the admiral was opposed by the Moors or Arabians, and Egyptians, who then monopolized the trade of that coast. Returning to Europe however, the Portuguese

equipped a stronger fleet, with which they made themselves masters of several places on the continent of India. In 1511, Albuquerque, the Portuguese general, took the cities of Goa and Malucca, after which he dispatched Antonius Ambrus in search of the Spice Islands. This officer arriving at the Moluccas, found the two kings of Ternate and Tydore engaged in a war; when most of the adjacent islands being in alliance with one or other of them, and each party courting the friendship of the Portuguese, the latter were permitted to build forts in those territories, where they soon established a settlement, as they likewise did afterwards in the Banda Islands, and monopolized the whole trade of cloves and nutmegs. This traffic they enjoyed without interruption till the year 1520, when Magellan being employed by the Spaniards to discover a way to India by the west, passing the straits in South America, which go by his name, arrived at the Philippines. Here Magellan happening to be killed, John Sebastian del Cano took upon him the command, and established a factory on the clove island of Tydore. Leaving behind him one of his ships, he returned in the other to Spain, by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, with the glory of being the first commander that ever furrounded the globe.

In consequence of an agreement between the two nations, confirmed by the pope, all the discoveries westward were allotted to Spain, as were those eastward to Portugal. The Spaniards therefore considered themselves as justly entitled to a share of the spice trade. Mean time the Portuguese demolishing the Spanish factory upon the island of Tydore, and making prize of the vessel which had been left, a quarrel ensued between the two nations. The rupture however was at length accommodated, on the Portuguese agreeing to lend the Spaniards, or rather Charles the fifth, 350,000 ducats to relinquish their pretensions, a debt which was never discharged. The Portuguese again enjoyed the sole trade to the Spice Islands, till Sir Francis Drake passing the Straits of Magellan, arrived at the island of Ternate on the 14th of November, 1579; when the king of that country, weary of the oppression of the Portuguese, desired his protection, and acknowledged the queen of England as his sovereign, sending also to her majesty his signet, in confirmation of his fidelity. The admiral encouraged him in the hope of returning with a greater force, and having taken in a loading of cloves, set sail, by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, for England, where he arrived on the 3d of November, 1580, being then the second commander that had furrounded the globe.

A multiplicity of other objects engaging the English court, the Indian trade was neglected until the year 1591, when the captains Lancafter, Kendal, and Raymond, were sent on a voyage thither. Captain Lancafter, in one of the ships, arrived in the Straits of Malacca, but lost his vessel on his return home, and the other two never reached India.

In 1596, three other ships were sent to China, under the command of captain Wood, with the view

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of opening a commercial intercourse with that nation; but the whole crew died on the voyage, except four, who were cast away on a small island near Hispaniola, and murdered by the inhabitants. Notwithstanding those disasters, however, another effort was soon afterwards made by the merchants of London, for carrying into execution the project of establishing a trade with the East Indies. For this purpose they formed themselves into a company, and were incorporated by queen Elizabeth, by a charter dated the 30th of December, 1600. Thus protected by the royal authority, they immediately equipped four ships, the command of which was given to the same captain Lancaster above mentioned, now promoted to the rank of admiral. They set sail from Dartmouth, April 22, 1601, and arrived at Achin, in the island of Sumatra, June 5, 1602. After taking on board as much cinnamon, cloves, and pepper, as could be procured at that port, and having delivered the queen's letter, he proceeded to Priaman, on the west coast of Sumatra, where he took in a greater loading of cloves and pepper. He next directed his course to Bantam, in the island of Java, where he settled a factory; and after dispatching a vessel to the Molucca and Banda Islands, for the purpose of likewise establishing a commerce with those parts, he set sail for England, where he arrived on the 11th of September, 1603.

Mean while the Dutch were not inactive in prosecuting commercial enterprizes of the same nature with those which now engaged the attention of other maritime powers of Europe. In 1595, the city of Amsterdam fitted out four ships, which arrived next year at Bantam, in the island of Java. Here, at the instigation of the Portuguese, the governor having made prisoners some Dutchmen who were on shore, the ships belonging to the latter immediately seized several Portuguese vessels which lay in the harbour, and fired upon the town. Sailing afterwards to Jacatra, now Batavia, a little to the eastward of Bantam, they there took in a cargo of spice and other merchandize, and returned to Holland in August, 1597. The republic, however, incited by the extensive prospect of commerce which now opened to their view, fitted out eight ships in 1598, under the command of admiral Neccius, who arrived the year following at Bantam; at which place, loading four of his vessels with pepper, he sent the other four to trade with the Moluccas, Amboyna and Banda, where they settled factories, and having taken on board a cargo of cloves, nutmegs, and mace, returned to Holland in 1600. Encouraged by this success, the spirit of enterprize became yet more general among the Dutch, and many new companies were established, for maintaining a commerce with India. But the states foreseeing the great advantage which would accrue to their country, from monopolizing the spice trade, formed all those separate companies into one body, that they might be the more able to contend with such European powers, as should attempt to rival them in so interesting a branch of commerce. For this purpose they proceeded to raise a stock of six millions of florins (600,000l. sterling), and fitting out strong fleets for India, at-

tacked the Portuguese settlements in those parts, making prizes also of their ships wherever they met with them, upon the pretext that the kingdoms of Spain and Portugal being under the same prince, the Portuguese were naturally to be considered as enemies to the Dutch, between whom and the Spaniards a war at that time subsisted.

In 1602, the Dutch equipped another fleet to India, under the command of admiral Neccius, who attacked the Portuguese in the Moluccas the following year, but without much success. In 1605, however, admiral Van Hagen being dispatched with a fleet to the Spice Islands, proved more victorious over the enemy, and reduced the castle of Amboyna. After which he attacked a fort belonging to them in the island of Tydore, when the magazine of powder blowing up, and destroying great part of the wall, the besieged were forced to surrender. But during this enterprize, the Spaniards in the Philippines fitting out a fleet, recovered the forts which the Dutch had taken in the Moluccas.

The Dutch continuing to pursue their favourite object with unremitting ardour, sent a fleet of men of war, with land forces on board, to the Banda Islands, requiring of the orancayas, or states of those islands, permission to erect a fort on the island of Nero; but this request being denied, the Dutch landed a body of troops, and massacred great numbers of the natives, who finding it impossible to defend themselves, submitted to the terms which had been demanded. The Hollanders, however, farther insisting that they should exclude all other nations from any share of their traffic, the Bandanese, under pretence of a treaty, drew the admiral Vanhoof, with several of his officers, into an ambuscade, where falling upon them, they retaliated the slaughter which had lately been committed by the enemy.

Open war being now carried on between the natives and the Dutch, the former invited to their assistance the English, who traded thither at that time, accompanying the invitation with a formal surrender of their country to James I. In consequence of this transaction, captain Keelyng set sail from England on board the Hector, and arrived at the island of Banda the 8th of February, 1608. With the approbation of the orancayas, he erected here a house for the use of the English company's factors, and agreed upon articles of trade; as he likewise did with the government of the island of Pooloway, from which he received 225 cantees of mace, and 1307 pounds of nutmegs. The Dutch admiral, however, soon afterwards landing more men in the island of Banda, laid siege to the town of Sabatata, which he took, and destroyed several Bandanese vessels which he found in the harbour; commanding the English captain at the same time to quit the island. Keelyng nevertheless staid at Banda till he had taken in his loading of spice, whence he proceeded to Bantam, and, having there established a factory, returned to England in May, 1600.

In the year 1616, we find two English vessels again arriving at the Banda Islands, under the command of captain Courthope, when the orancayas of Pooloway and Pooleron ratified the treaty, by which the

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sovereignty of the island had formerly been surrendered to the English crown; the like cession being also made by the islands of Rosinaing and Wayre, by their respective oracayas.

Soon after this transaction, several Dutch ships approached the island of Pooleron, and hoisting a bloody flag, seemed to threaten an attack on the English vessels, when the crews of the latter landing some pieces of cannon, erected a battery with a view of commanding the road. Three other large Dutch ships arriving in a few days, the English informed them of the cession which had been lately made, and demanded that Polloway might be delivered up to them. The Dutch, so far from pretending at that time to any prior grant of those islands, acknowledged they had none; and discovering the English batteries on the shore, dissembled their hostile intentions. But captain Davis, who commanded the Swan, going over to the island of Wayre, which was not then in the power of the Dutch, two ships belonging to the latter poured in their broadsides upon him, and after some resistance made him prisoner, in open violation of the peace which subsisted between the two nations.

After the loss of the Swan, captain Courthope finding it impracticable to defend himself against the Dutch at sea, landed his guns, and erected a fort on the shore, with the design of maintaining his security, till he should be reinforced from England or Bantam. But his men deserting, carried the ship to the Dutch, who plundered it of every thing that was valuable, and threw the rest over-board. The men they loaded with irons, imprisoned them in the most horrible dungeons, and wantonly treated them with every brutal mark of indignity that could reflect reproach on the English name. Captain Courthope, in this situation, dispatched Mr. Spurway, factor to the East India company, to Bantam, with several of the oracayas of the Banda Islands, to represent the state of affairs to the factory at that place. But they not being in a condition to afford any assistance, Mr. Spurway wrote to the company in England, informing them of the outrages that had been committed, and strongly urging the necessity of the interposition of government, both for retrieving the honour of the nation, which had been so flagrantly violated, and for maintaining possession of the Spice Islands, which must otherwise entirely be lost.

This outrage committed by the Dutch, was succeeded by another in March following, when with four large ships they attacked two English vessels, that had come within sight of the port of Pooleron; on which occasion the latter were taken, after a smart engagement which lasted seven hours, and many of the crew were afterwards massacred in cold blood.

Notwithstanding all these misfortunes, the natives continued faithful to the English, and maintained the town of Lanter, in opposition to the whole force of the invaders, whom they frequently attacked with success. They were animated to this resistance, not only by their hatred of the Dutch, but by the gallant example of captain Courthope, who in January, 1628,

received an express from sir Thomas Dale, commander of a strong fleet of English ships, informing him that he was arrived at Bantam, and had defeated the Dutch fleet, which he had compelled to quit the coast of Java; adding that he would be speedily with him at Banda, and oblige the Hollanders to relinquish their unjustifiable enterprise. In expectation of those succours, as well as others from England, a complete year had elapsed, when news was received, that sir Thomas Dale was dead, and that the rest of the captains being divided among themselves, had dispersed to several parts of India, by which unaccountable conduct, seven of their ships had been taken by the enemy. In spite of this mortifying disappointment, and the scarcity of provisions, the brave Courthope resolved to defend his little garrison at Pooleron to the last extremity, the fortifications of which he repaired and improved in the most advantageous manner possible. But unfortunately, as this gallant commander was going over to one of the neighbouring islands to regulate some affairs, he was met by two Dutch vessels on the 26th of October, 1619, when, after an obstinate defence, receiving a shot in the breast, he threw himself in the sea, whether with the view of swimming to the shore, or to prevent his falling alive into the hands of the Dutch, is uncertain. He perished however on the occasion, leaving behind him a name which, for heroic courage, and an inviolable attachment to the interest of his country, has never been surpassed by any of the most celebrated commanders.

In consequence of this fatal event, Mr. Hayes, with the consent both of the English and Bandanese, took upon him the command of the fort of Pooleron, and two or three days after intercepted a Dutch packet, by which it appeared that a treaty of peace had been concluded between England and Holland, in relation to the spice trade. This important information he immediately dispatched to the Dutch governor at Nero, that he might have no pretence for committing any farther acts of hostility. The latter, however, without paying the smallest regard to this intelligence, required the Bandanese to acknowledge themselves subject to the United States, which the natives refusing, the Dutch hoisted a red flag, and attacked the town of Lanter; but they were again repulsed by the Bandanese, who cut many of them to pieces in the pursuit.

In February, 1620, notwithstanding the treaty above mentioned, another Dutch fleet arrived in the Indian seas, with land forces on board, for the purpose of making an entire conquest of the Spice Islands. The oracayas refusing to surrender the town of Lanter to this armament, the admiral took the place by storm, and having plundered and massacred many of the natives, reduced it to ashes. After wreaking his resentment on the English factors, in the most unmanly and illiberal manner, by corporal severities, he caused them to be tied hand and foot, and carried on board his ships, where they were laid in irons. He then seized their effects, consisting of 23,000 weight of mace, and 120,000 weight of nutmegs, besides their money, cloth, and other merchandize.

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In order to give the more specious colouring to the violent seizure which they meditated of the island of Amboyna, they made use of the false pretext of a conspiracy being formed by the English and Japonese, to dispossess them of one of their forts in this place. The plot, it was alledged, had been confessed by a Japonese and Portuguese in the English service, who were most inhumanly tortured, till they should answer in the affirmative such interrogatories as

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The whole of the transaction affords the most irrefragable testimony that it was founded entirely upon a political fiction of the Hollanders, who had themselves formed the design of monopolizing the trade of the Spice Islands; for the accomplishment of which they perpetrated, about the same time, a similar tragedy at Pooleron, where they put to the torture a hundred and sixty-two of the natives, whom they likewise charged with a pretended conspiracy. It may justly be reckoned singular in the fortune of this commercial republic, that they have ever since been permitted to enjoy in peace those invaluable islands, which were originally obtained by such atrocious infringements of humanity, and the laws of nations, as will stain the Dutch annals, to the latest ages, with indelible infamy.

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The Dutch next proceeded to attack Pooleron, threatening the natives with inevitable ruin, if they did not immediately surrender. They answered, they were subjects of the king of England; and as there was peace between the two nations, they hoped the Hollanders would not now commit any acts of hostility; but if the English neglected to defend them, they must of necessity submit. In consequence of this declaration, the Dutch took possession of the island, and caused the natives to demolish the fortifications, while the English tamely suffered themselves to be idle spectators of the havoc, from an opinion that they ought not to act in a hostile manner, as peace had lately been ratified in Europe between their nation and the Dutch. Mean while the aggressors compelled all the other islands to submit to their dominion, prohibiting likewise the natives, under the severest penalties, from selling any more spice to the English. They even refrained not from sacrificing to their cruelty, those among the orancayas or magistrates, who had discovered the greatest attachment to their rivals, causing them to be inhumanly massacred in cold blood, under pretence that they were in a conspiracy against the rights of the republic.

The treaty which had been concluded by the English and Dutch, was not that of a pacification, as no acts of hostility had preceded between the two nations in Europe, but a treaty of commerce between the English and Dutch East-India companies, mutually ratified by the sovereign power of each country, and in the framing of which, the interests of the former were apparently relinquished by a weak or corrupt administration, by whom the articles had been dictated. By this treaty, it was agreed that the English should enjoy only a third share of the trade to the Moluccas and Banda, but yet bear half the expence in defending that commerce. It was also stipulated, that each party should remain in possession of the towns and forts which they respectively held at that time. The treaty was signed the 7th, and ratified at London on the 16th of July, 1619.

The English East-India company, not doubting the design of the Dutch to perform their part of the contract so advantageous to the republic, proceeded to settle factories in the Moluccas, Amboyna, and Banda, with a view of carrying on the trade in the stipulated proportion. It is evident, however, from the repeated outrages of the Dutch, already mentioned, that from the beginning they never entertained any resolution of preserving the treaty inviolate; and this is farther confirmed by the horrible transactions at Amboyna, which happened in less than three years after.

In order to give the more specious colouring to the violent seizure which they meditated of the island of Amboyna, they made use of the stale pretext of a conspiracy being formed by the English and Japonese, to dispossess them of one of their forts in this place. The plot, it was alledged, had been confessed by a Japonese and Portugese in the English service, who were most inhumanly tortured, till they should answer in the affirmative such interrogatories as

might favour the secret design of those cruel inquisitors. Upon the injurious evidence of this constrained declaration, they immediately accused the English factors of the pretended conspiracy. Some of them they imprisoned, and others they loaded with irons, and sent on board their ships; seizing at the same time all the English merchandize, with their writings and books.

These acts of violence were followed by a scene of horror unexampled in the punishment of the most atrocious offenders. Some of the factors they tortured, by compelling them to swallow water, till their bodies were distended to the utmost pitch. Then taking the miserable victims down from the boards to which they had been fastened, and causing them to disgorge the water, if they did not acknowledge the imputed guilt the process of torture was repeated.

Others of the English they consumed by burning them gradually from the feet upwards, in order to extort the confession of a conspiracy, which was only pretended by the infernal policy of those savage tormentors. Some had the nails of the fingers and toes torn off, and in some they made holes in their breasts, filling the cavities with inflammable materials, to which they afterwards put fire. Those who did not expire under the agonies of torture, were consigned to the hands of the executioner.

The allegation of this pretended conspiracy was equally void of probability and truth. The Dutch had a garrison of three hundred men in the fort, besides the burghers in the town, and several other forts and garrisons in the island, while the number of the English did not amount to twenty men; nor were even those provided with arms or ammunition, to effect such a design as that with which they were charged. There likewise was not one English vessel in the harbour, whereas the Dutch had eight ships riding near the town: neither, when the Dutch broke open the desks and trunks of the factors, was there found a single paper or letter, which could be construed into the most distant relation to any conspiracy. Add to all this, that such of the unhappy sufferers as could speak to be heard, declared in the most solemn manner their innocence of the plot with which they were charged.

The whole of the transaction affords the most irrefragable testimony that it was founded entirely upon a political fiction of the Hollanders, who had themselves formed the design of monopolizing the trade of the Spice Islands; for the accomplishment of which they perpetrated, about the same time, a similar tragedy at Pooleron, where they put to the torture a hundred and sixty-two of the natives, whom they likewise charged with a pretended conspiracy. It may justly be reckoned singular in the fortune of this commercial republic, that they have ever since been permitted to enjoy in peace those invaluable islands, which were originally obtained by such atrocious infringements of humanity, and the laws of nations, as will stain the Dutch annals, to the latest ages, with indelible infamy.

## C H A P. X.

*Of the Sunda Islands, New Guinea, and New Holland, with the Nicobar, and Adaman Islands.*

**T**HE Sunda Islands are so denominated from lying near the straits of that name, and the principal of them may be reduced to Borneo, Sumatra, and Java.

## B O R N E O.

The island of Borneo is situate in the Indian Ocean, between 7 and 4 degrees north, and 4 degrees south latitude, and between 107 and 117 degrees of east longitude. It is reckoned the largest island in the world, being about seven hundred miles long, and near as much broad. As the sun is here vertical a considerable time, the air must of consequence be hot. It is qualified however by the rains, which continue upwards of six months every year, laying the flat country under water, and by the sea breezes, which blow through the day. On the subsiding of the waters, the coasts are annually flooded for several hundred miles; when the surface being covered with mud, and the sun shining upon it with perpendicular rays, thick fogs are usually occasioned, which are not dispersed till nine in the morning. This season is also rendered particularly disagreeable by an offensive smell, arising from the putrid vermin, and insects which have been left behind by the waters. Besides those disadvantages, the hottest days are generally succeeded by chilling winds, which greatly affect the salubrity of the climate.

From September to April the winds here are westerly, and this is the rainy season, there hardly being two hours fair weather in the four and twenty, and the whole melancholy period likewise accompanied with terrible storms of thunder. Even during the other months of the year, there is almost every day a shower at the rising of the sea breeze.

The interior part of Borneo is mountainous and woody, but round the whole island the coast is flat and level, producing likewise extensive forests of excellent timber. The chief rivers are Banjar, Tatas, Java, Succadanea, and Borneo; the former of which is navigable for several hundred miles.

The produce of this island is rice, cocoa nuts, oranges, citrons, plantains, melons, banana, pine-apples, mangoes, and all kinds of tropical fruits; with cottons, canes, rattans, and plenty of very fine timber; to which may be added, gold, precious stones, some iron mines, camphire, bezoar, load-stone, and pepper. Of this there are three kinds, the first and best of which is the Molucca, or Lont pepper; the second is called Caytongee pepper, and the other Negaree, which is the worst sort, but in the greatest plenty. This species of pepper is small, hollow, and light. The white pepper is said to grow on the same tree which produces the black, but the former bears double the price. It is conjectured to be the best of the fruit which drops of itself, and is gathered by the

poor people in small quantities, before it changes its colour; but of this we are not informed with certainty.

There are here the same animals as on the continent of India, such as elephants, buffaloes, deer, &c. but the most remarkable animal, and which is almost peculiar to this island, is the celebrated oran-outang, or man of the woods, which is reckoned by some naturalists to be of the human species, but seems to belong more properly to that of the monkeys. He is usually described as being near six feet high. He walks upon his hinder legs, has no tail, but a face which resembles the human, and with hair only on the same parts of the body that are distinguished in men by that covering.

The natives of Borneo consist of two different classes of people, namely the Banjareens and Byayos; the former of whom inhabit the sea coasts, and the latter the mountainous parts of the island. The Banjareens are of a low stature, very swarthy, with bad features, resembling most the negroes of Guinea, but their complexions not so dark. They are well proportioned, however, and have black hair, which is kept continually shining with grease. The features and complexion of the women are much better than those of the men, and they are said to move with a good grace.

The common people wear no other covering but a bit of cloth, which hangs down before from a girdle, and a piece of linen tied about their heads. The better sort of the inhabitants however wear drawers, but no shirt; and on days of ceremony they appear in a vest of red or blue silk, with a piece of silk or fine linen tied round their loins, and loosely thrown over their left shoulder. Their legs and feet are bare; their hair is bound up in a roll, and a piece of muslin or calico tied over it. When they go abroad, they always carry a cruce or dagger in their gash, and are reputed to be a hospitable and friendly people.

The Byayos or mountaineers are much larger bodied men than the former, and on account of their more active life, are likewise far superior in point of strength. They generally go naked as the Banjareens, but paint their bodies blue, and like other inhabitants of the hot climates, anoint themselves with oil, which smells extremely offensive.

With respect to the food of the natives of this country, it chiefly consists of rice; but they likewise eat venison, fish, fowl, and almost all kinds of meat, except hog's flesh. Persons of distinction are served in gold or silver plate, but others use only brass or earthen dishes. It is universally the custom to sit cross-legged upon mats or carpets at their meals, and almost the whole day, chewing betel and arek, or smoaking tobacco, which is mixed with opium, and greatly used by both sexes. They are so much addicted to this practice, that they often continue it till they become stupid. The whole company usually smoak with one pipe, which after passing through the service of the master of the feast, is lent to the rest in order. Their rural sports are hunting, shooting, and fishing; but they sometimes perform rude comedies, and have been taught to game by the Chinese.

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Their common mode of salutation is the salam, or lifting their hands to their heads, and bowing their bodies a little; but before their princes they throw themselves prostrate on the ground. No person pretumes to speak to a superior without being desired. In the level country, they usually travel in covered boats upon the rivers; but the great men, who live in the interior parts, make use of elephants or horses.

The Banjareens are generally Mahometans, and the Byayos all pagans, differing little in their rites from the same religion on the continent. Both tribes of the inhabitants are extremely superstitious, pretending to charm away diseases, to foretell future events, and the like, each also allowing a plurality of wives and concubines. Their arms are the cruce or dagger, with the lance, and the weapon called the sampit, formerly mentioned in the account of Celebes.

The chief town in Borneo was formerly Banjar Masseen, which once lay about twelve miles up the Banjar, and was built on floats or rafts in the river, but it is now removed to Tatas, six miles farther from the coast. This floating capital forms one long street; each house consisting only of a single floor, divided into apartments, according to the number of the family. The walls and partitions are made of split cane, and the roofs covered with palm branches, the eaves reaching within five feet of the bottom, to defend them from the heat of the sun. The several houses lie at anchor, and are fastened together with hooks and rings, but joined in such a manner as to be easily detached, upon the alarm of a fire having broke out in any part of the town. The tide of ebb is so strong at Tatas, that sometimes the houses on those floats break loose from their moorings, and are driven out to sea. Besides the floating town which is stationed in this part of the river, there is one built of more substantial materials on shore, and others that stand upon pillars, several feet above the surface, and have no communication but by boats during the rainy season. The most noted towns next to Tatas are Caytongee, now the residence of the greatest prince in the island, and lying about two hundred miles up the river Banjar; Metapora, about ten miles from the former, the abode of the prince of Negaree, where there is a good magazine of fire arms, and some great guns mounted before the gates of the palace; Borneo, situate on a fine bay of the sea, in the north-west part of the island, once the residence of the most powerful prince in the country, but now a place of little trade; and Succadanea, lying in a commodious bay in the south-west part of the island, and formerly more resorted to by the Europeans than any other port.

The island of Borneo is divided into a great many governments, which have each their sultan or sovereign, the most powerful at present being the emperor of Caytongee, in whose territories lies the greatest part of the pepper plantations, whither a multitude of foreign merchants resort every year for this commodity. Here are no ships of war, and but few trading vessels belonging to the country. Some however they have, which, like those in the Ladrone Islands, will

sail above twenty miles an hour. The land forces of the sultan consist of militia, embodied as necessity requires. But possessing neither discipline nor courage in an eminent degree, they are far from being formidable; and the fortifications of the towns and castles are likewise too weak to afford defence.

The commodities chiefly imported from Borneo by the Europeans are, pepper, gold, diamonds, camphire, bezoar, aloes, maffick and other gums; and those most proper to be carried thither, besides bullion and treasure, are small cannon, from a hundred to two hundred weight, lead, calimancoes, cutlery wares, iron bars, small steel bars, hangers, nails, red leather boots, spectacles, clock-work, small arms with brass mountings, horse pistols, blunderbusses, gun-powder, and looking-glasses.

It is imagined that the trade to Borneo might be rendered as advantageous as that to any other country of India, by means of the China fleet which lies here great part of year, and could supply the merchants with the goods of that empire, almost as cheap as at Canton; especially considering the far greater length of the voyage to China, with the customs, port charges, and extortions of the revenue officers, with which it is attended. Here the Europeans also meet with the Macassar praws, which, notwithstanding all the vigilance of the Dutch, bring hither cloves, nutmegs, mace, gambuge, cassia, aloes wood, and many other sorts of rich merchandize.

In the beginning of the present century, an attempt was made by the English to establish a factory in this island; but through the mismanagement of those who were appointed to conduct it, the design proved abortive. Should the project be revived, however, and more prudent measures adopted, it probably might be carried into execution with facility and success.

#### S U M A T R A.

Sumatra, another of the Sunda Islands, is situate between  $5\frac{1}{2}$  degrees north, and  $5\frac{1}{2}$  degrees south latitude, and between 93 and 104 degrees of east longitude; being nine hundred miles in length, and about one hundred and fifty in breadth. The air in this island is generally unhealthy near the coast, not only on account of the great heat and moisture, but of the sudden vicissitudes from sultry heat in the day-time, to cold chilling winds in the night. To those causes of infalubrity may be added, the salt stinking ouze, which emits an extremely noxious vapour, so injurious particularly to foreigners, that such as are exposed to it seldom survive three years. A chain of mountains extends along the whole length of the country, from the north-west to the south-east, where the air is considerably more wholesome than in the skirts of the island; and about forty miles south-east of Bencoolen, there is a mountain called Singledemond, which is a mile in height perpendicular. Here are a great many small rivers, but few of them navigable much beyond their mouths, on account of the rapidity with which they are precipitated from the mountains. The rainy season, as in most places near the equinoctial, continues

tinues upwards of six months every year, and no where with greater violence. The waters of all the rivers which overflow the low countries are foul and unwholesome, not fit to be drank till they have been boiled and settled, and been farther corrected by an infusion of tea or some other herb; a circumstance which adds not a little to the insalubrity of the climate.

The produce of Sumatra is pepper, rice, sugar, camphire, gold-dust, bezoar, canes, and cotton. Their fruits are cocoa-nuts, limes, oranges, mangoes, plantains, guavas, jacks, durions, pine-apples, mango-steens, and such others as are indigenous in the tropical climates. Here are also melons, peas, beans, potatoes, yams, radishes, and plenty of all kinds of garden-stuff. The island likewise produces a plant called bang, which nearly resembles hemp, and being taken in infusion, exhilarates the spirits, sometimes even to a degree of madness; on which account it is used by the natives before they go to battle, with the same view as opium by the Turks.

The staple commodity of this island, next to gold, is pepper, of which none produces greater abundance. This plant is cultivated in the level plains, near the banks of rivers. The stalk being slender, it is supported by a thorny tree, and the berries hang from it in clusters, in the same manner as those of the elder. The vine produces no fruit till the fourth year, and from this time to the eighth the quantity annually increases. After which period the crop declines, and about the tenth year totally ceases. The usual time of gathering the crop is about Michaelmas, but there is a small crop in March.

The animals in Sumatra are a small breed of horses, buffaloes, deer, goats, hogs, tygers, monkeys, squirrels, guanoes, porcupines, alligators, serpents, scorpions, with musktoes and other insects. Here are also hens, ducks, and other poultry; with pigeons, parrots, paraquets, maccaws, and small birds. Sea and river fish are likewise in great plenty. Elephants, though some they have, are said not to be natives of the island.

In their persons and habits the natives of Sumatra very much resemble those of Borneo. They are of a moderate stature, and swarthy complexion, with black hair and eyes, flat noses, and high cheek bones. Besides anointing their bodies with oil, they die their teeth black, and let some of the nails of the left hand grow as long as their fingers, scraping them till they become transparent, and tinging them with vermilion. Round their heads they generally tie a piece of blue or white linen, or wear a cap not much unlike the crown of a hat. The better sort wear drawers or breeches, with a piece of callico or silk wrapped about their loins, and thrown over the left shoulder. They wear sandals in the towns, but usually travel bare-foot. In respect of genius and disposition, they are reckoned proud, heavy and indolent.

Rice generally constitutes the greatest part of their diet, with which they eat soup made of flesh or fish, and a very little meat high seasoned.

The Mahometan religion is professed upon all the coasts of Sumatra, but the people are not great zealots,

and their mosques so meanly built, that many of them are no better than cottages. The inhabitants of the mountains are pagans, who are said to venerate a bull, as one of the objects of their worship; on which account they abstain from eating of beef.

The Mabometans speak and write the Malayart tongue, but the mountaineers have a language peculiar to themselves. The former write from the right hand to the left, using ink and a coarse brown paper; but the latter proceed in the contrary direction, and engrave with a stile on the outside of a bamboo cane.

Sumatra is divided into a great number of different kingdoms or states, among which that of Achen is the most considerable. The capital of this kingdom, and of the whole island, is a town of the same name, situate in 5 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, and in 93 degrees 30 minutes east longitude. It stands in a plain, at the distance of a mile from the sea. In circumference it is about a mile and a half, defended by a few small forts, but chiefly by the woods and bogs with which it is surrounded. The middle is occupied by the king's palace, round which, instead of a wall, there are great banks of earth, planted with canes and reeds, that render the place inaccessible. A rivulet runs through the city, lined with stone, in which the inhabitants usually bathe.

It is computed that this metropolis contains upwards of seven thousand houses, which are generally detached at a little distance from each other, and surrounded with pallisadoes; except in some streets where the markets are kept, or where foreigners inhabit, who choose their dwellings to be more contiguous, as a security against theft and robberies, which are here very frequent. Most of the houses are erected upon pillars, ten feet high, the waters overflowing the streets in the rainy season. They are built of split cane or bamboo, with which they are also floored; every house being accommodated with a stone vault, to serve as a repository for their most valuable effects, which would otherwise be frequently exposed to the injuries of fire. Factors both from the European and Asiatic countries reside here, but the Chinese are far the most numerous.

Thirty miles east of Achen is situate Pedir, beyond which, farther to the south-east, lie Pacim and Dely, once capitals of kingdoms, but now extremely declined. On the east coast are the towns of Polambam and Jamby, the latter of which, situate on a river about fifty miles from the sea, is the capital of all the Dutch settlements on this coast.

Proceeding from the south along the west coast of Sumatra, the first settlement we meet with is Sillebar, which stands at the mouth of a river on a fine bay, in about four degrees of south latitude.

At a little distance thence is Bencoolen, the principal English settlement on the coast. This town, which is extremely unhealthy, is two miles in circumference, inhabited chiefly by the natives; the English, Chinese, and Portuguese, having each their respective quarters. It was taken by the French in the last war, but detained only a very short time.

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Three miles from Bencoolen, stands fort Marlborough, in a dry elevated situation, and therefore much more healthy than the former. Northward on this coast there are several other port towns, particularly Bantall, likewise an English settlement; Indrapour and Padang, Dutch settlements; with Tecon and Passaman, almost under the equinoctial.

In the north part of Sumatra, there are several orang-cayas or great lords, who exercise sovereign authority in their respective territories, but acknowledge the king of Achen as their superior. The throne of this prince is hereditary, not elective; yet he can nominate to the succession one of his younger children, in preference to the eldest son, even though the latter be born of a wife, and the other of a concubine. The south part of the island is likewise divided into a great number of small territories, which are governed by their respective pangarans or rajahs, with the advice of the proatens or principal men of the state. There are some towns upon the coast vested with sovereign power, and governed by their own magistrates, called datos, whose jurisdiction is totally independent of the pangarans or rajahs. Twelve citizens of this class preside over Bencoolen, and four have the direction of Sillebar. The inhabitants of the mountains acknowledge subjection to the chiefs of their respective tribes, who, though mutually independent of each other, maintain a firm alliance, for the preservation of their common security, against the numerous powers which surround them.

In respect of military force, the constitution of Sumatra is exactly the same with that of Borneo; none of the princes having any standing army, a few guards excepted, but depending entirely upon the militia; under which denomination are included all the men capable of bearing arms, who are obliged, whenever they are summoned, to repair to the standard of their leader.

There appears to be no written laws in this country, except those of the Alcoran, and the comments by the priests, which are only received among the Mahometan part of the inhabitants; the decisions in other cases being governed by custom and precedents. For murder and adultery, the usual punishment is death, which is not inflicted by a professed executioner, but jointly by every person who happens to be within reach of the criminal; and the common weapon is a crice or dagger. Women, however, for capital offences, are strangled with the bow-string. Theft is for the most part punished either with the amputation of the fingers or toes, or sometimes of the limbs, according to the aggravation of the crime; but for the third transgression of this kind, the delinquent is put to death, by beheading, impaling, or the like.

Among the foreigners that resort to Sumatra for the sake of traffic, the Chinese are the most numerous. Ten or twelve sail of their junks arrive here annually in the month of June, which bring with them rice and other produce of the country. In this fleet there likewise comes a number of artizans, who immediately go to work in making tables, cabinets, and chests of drawers, with various other articles of household

No. 4.

furniture, utensils and toys, which they expose to sale in one of the streets of Achen, distinguished by the name of the Chinese camp. The fair continues for three or four months of the year, during which time it is greatly crowded, not only by the natives but the Europeans, who resort hither to drink hockshew, a kind of strong beer made of wheat, and preferred by strangers to any liquor which the country affords.

The pepper brought to the English factory at Bencoolen grows in the territories of two rajahs, or Indian princes, one of whom has his capital at Singledemond, ten miles north of the settlement, and the other at Bufar, about as far east from the same. Both these have houses at Bencoolen, where they reside occasionally when they have any business to transact with our people, who pay them two soocas, or half a dollar custom for every bahar, containing five hundred and sixty pounds weight of pepper. In consideration of this acknowledgment, the rajahs undertake to promote the cultivation of the commodity, and to bring their fruit to the English factories. When the pepper is weighed and delivered to the purchasers, it is paid for at the rate of ten molocos or Spanish dollars for every bahar.

The island of Sumatra is supposed by some to be the Ophir mentioned in scripture, whence Solomon imported his gold. It is certain, however, from the Mahometan religion being established on the coasts, that the Arabians afterwards traded hither, though no account is to be found of the commercial transactions of the country, till it was discovered by the Portuguese, about the year 1500 of the Christian era, who enjoyed the exclusive traffic with this, and the adjacent islands, during almost the whole succeeding century.

In the year 1600, the English East-India company having obtained a charter, empowering them to trade to those parts, they fitted out four ships for Sumatra, which arrived at Achen on the 5th of June, 1602, carrying with them a letter from queen Elizabeth to the king of that country. This overture of commencing a traffic between the two nations was received by the latter with particular marks of cordiality, in consequence of which the English erected several forts in the island, and continued to carry on the trade without interruption, till the beginning of the present century. In the year 1719, however, the natives formed a resolution of driving the English from their coasts; being induced to this measure by some impolitic acts of violence exercised by the governor of Bencoolen, who put in the stocks two rajahs or sovereign princes in that neighbourhood, because their people had not brought down pepper to the fort so quickly as he expected. An insurrection immediately succeeded, which was begun by setting fire to the company's plantations, when there being only a hundred and twenty-five English in the fort, most of them unexperienced or disabled men, it was judged proper for the company's service, to put their treasure on board a vessel which then lay in the road. The greater part of the garrison likewise embarking saved their lives, while those who could not effectuate their escape, were cut to

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pieces by the enemy. A year had not elapsed, however, after this unfortunate event, when the English were again invited by the natives to return to their settlements on the island, with the view of preventing it from becoming a prey to the Dutch, the severity of whose government they dreaded more than that of the other. The proposal was accordingly accepted by the company, who have ever since maintained a regular traffic with this island, which, considering the great importance of the pepper trade, it would be highly imprudent to abandon.

#### J A V A.

Java, the next of the Sunda Islands, is situated between 5 and 8 degrees of south latitude, and between 102 and 113 degrees of east longitude; being seven hundred miles long, and upwards of a hundred broad. The climate is nearly the same with that of the other islands in this class. The air on the sea-coast is generally unhealthy, where the bogs are not drained, and the lands cultivated, but farther up in the country it is much better. A range of mountains runs along the middle of the island from east to west, which are covered with fine woods, the low lands all round being flooded during the whole of the rainy season.

This island was anciently divided into a number of petty governments, which are at present reduced to a few. The north coast is under the dominion of the Dutch; and the south is subject to the kings of Palambang and Matran. The chief towns are Bantam, and Batavia or Jacatra.

Bantam, which was formerly the capital, is situated in 6 deg. 30 min. south latitude, and in 105 deg. east longitude, in a fine plain at the foot of a mountain, whence run three rivers, two of which surround the town, and the other passes through the middle of it. While this place continued to be the mart of the island, it was twelve miles in compass, and exceeding populous, but it is now greatly declined both in extent and the number of inhabitants.

Batavia, the present capital, lies 40 miles east of Bantam, on a bay of the sea. Before the bay are several islands, that cover it from the winds, so that a thousand sail may ride here securely; the navigation being farther facilitated by two large moles projecting half a mile into the sea, where vessels may lie close to the keys. The town is almost of a quadrangular form, built with white stone, and laid out in spacious streets, through the principal of which run canals, lined with stone, and planted with ever-greens. The town is defended by a fort which commands the harbour, and surrounded by a wall with twenty-two bastions; the suburbs extending a mile and half farther, where there are large gardens and orchards, for the security of which, as well as to guard the avenues to the city, little forts are erected on every side, for the space of six or seven miles round. Most of the great towns in this island, especially such as are subject to the Dutch, are situated on the north coast. Those east of Batavia are Charabon, Samarang, Japara, Roomboing, Tuban, Sidaya, Jortan and Surabija; at the

east end of the island are the towns of Passarvan and Panarucan; and on the south coast, Palembang and Matran.

The principal grain that grows in the island is rice, besides which there are plantations of sugar, tobacco, and coffee. Garden-stuff is likewise in great plenty, and the various sorts of Indian fruit, such as plantains, bananas, mangoes, oranges, &c. with gums of different kinds, particularly benzoin. Here are also good timber, cotton, and other trees natural to the climate, besides oak, cedar, and several kinds of red wood. The cocoa tree in particular is extremely common, and no less useful than frequent. It affords meat, drink, oil, and vinegar; of the fibres of the bark they make cordage; with the branches they cover their houses; on the leaves they write with an iron file; making likewise their houses, boats, and other vessels, of those and the great Bamboo cane.

The indigenous animals of the country are buffaloes and some oxen, with a small breed of horses. The sheep are few, their covering rather hair than wool, and their flesh dry. The hogs, both wild and tame, are esteemed excellent, as is also the venison. The island produces tygers and other wild beasts, crocodiles, porcupines, serpents, scorpions, locusts, and innumerable insects, with monkeys, and poultry of a small breed.

The inhabitants of Batavia, and the island in general, are a compound of different nations, among whom the Dutch are the most powerful and wealthy. Next to those may be reckoned the Chinese, who likewise resort hither in great numbers. They farm the excises and customs, and are more or less concerned in all the civil, as well as commercial business of the country. Such of them as reside in Batavia live under a governor of their own, retaining their native dress, with the difference only of wearing their hair long and neatly twisted, an indulgence from which they are prohibited within the territories of China. A great part of the inhabitants likewise consist of Malaysians, who have very tawny complexions. They wear a short coat with strait sleeves, and a cloth about their loins, binding their temples with a piece of linen, in which they enclose part of their hair, the rest hanging down. The women wear a waistcoat and a cloth about their loins, which reaches half way down their legs. They use no covering on their heads, and go bare-foot. Many of the natives of Amboyna are also to be found in this country. They are for the most part carpenters, and reckoned very dexterous in that employment.

The native Javanese wear a kind of skull-cap, but their bodies are naked from the middle upwards. A piece of silk or callico surrounds their loins, and reaches below the middle of their legs, which are bare. The women cover their bodies with a close robe of silk or callico, wearing about their loins a piece of the same stuff, and dressing in their hair. The men are usually employed in husbandry or fishing, or in building country boats.

Besides the people above mentioned resident in Batavia, there are likewise many natives of other  
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Indian nations, who have migrated hither, which renders the place at present one of the most populous cities in Asia. It is computed that of the Chinese alone, there are not less than a hundred thousand in the island of Java, and of those the greater part live either in the capital or its environs. By such a multitude of this industrious people, the trade of Batavia is not only greatly increased, but a considerable addition is also made to the revenues of the Dutch; every Chinese inhabitant being obliged to pay a poll-tax for the privilege of wearing their hair, exclusive of so much for every silver and gold bodkin in it.

The Dutch permit no European nation to trade with the island of Java; but from China there usually come hither every year fourteen or fifteen junks of two or three hundred tun, which arrive in the month of November or December, and return home in June. By means of this fleet, the island is supplied with all the merchandize of China, upon easier terms than they could purchase it in the ports of that country. The Dutch however import in their own bottoms the produce of Japan, the Spice Islands, Persia, and India, besides the merchandize of Africa and Europe. To so great an extent is this traffic carried, that we are told there are no where such magazines of goods as in Batavia, except in Amsterdam itself. Their trade with the coasts of India is much more advantageous than that of any other European nation, to the same parts. For subsisting entirely by barter, it is so far from diminishing their treasure, that it brings them more gold and silver than any other article of commerce.

The island of Java is constantly guarded by the Dutch, with a force sufficient for the security of so important an acquisition. They have usually here a standing army, consisting of upwards of twenty thousand men, partly Hollanders, and partly natives of India; but, excepting the guards, their cloathing is mean, and not uniform. As a farther protection to this and the other islands in those parts, they also have for the most part a fleet of thirty or forty men of war in the Indian sea; a force not only capable of defending their settlements, but even of obstructing, against other European nations, the passage to China through the Straits of Sunda and Malacca, should they ever be inclined to monopolize the trade to that country.

The governor of Batavia is invested with great authority, and the state which he assumes is correspondent to the idea of his power. A troop of horse-guards precedes his coach when he goes out; the vehicle is attended by halbardiers, who march on each side, and followed by a company of foot-guards, cloathed in yellow satin, enriched with silver lace and fringe. His lady is likewise accommodated with guards, and treated in all respects with the attention paid to regal dignity.

The princes of the island who are vassals to the Dutch, are permitted the full enjoyment of their former splendor and ostentation. When the king of Bantam goes in or out of his palace, the great guns are fired; four men of the most gigantic stature and

fierce countenances that can be procured, with their shields and broad swords, begin the procession. These are followed by two companies of Javanese soldiers, and a body of Dutch; behind whom rides the king, mounted on a Persian horse caparisoned with gold. A great number of women surround him on foot, carrying golden vessels, with fruits and flowers; and the procession is closed with two companies of soldiers, the one Dutch, and the other natives of Java.

This island, like most of the other countries of India, was discovered by the Portuguese about the end of the fifteenth century, who were the only European nation that traded hither for a hundred years after, when the English and Dutch began likewise to obtain a share of the commerce. Bantam was at this time the most flourishing city in all India: but a misunderstanding happening between the king of this district and the Hollanders, the latter removed to Jacatra, now Batavia, which soon afterwards became the mart of the island. Here the Dutch erected forts, and introduced so many troops, that in a short time they were able to give law to most of the sovereigns in the country. The most formidable of those was the king of Bantam, who continued to dispute the superiority with the new invaders. In order to subdue this antagonist, who was then at variance with his son, the Dutch assisted the latter, and enabled him to usurp his father's throne. By the succours which they lent on this occasion, however, they made themselves entire masters of the new king, taking into their own hands the administration of government, and permitting him only the nominal possession of the crown. Soon after, they expelled all European factors and merchants from the coasts, particularly the English, who enjoyed a very great trade hither so late as the reign of James II. The Dutch are therefore at present the only power in Java, except the kings of Materan and Palambang, whose territories are situate beyond the mountains on the south-east part of the island, from whom they apprehend no disturbance. This unmolested security, however, has not prevented the Hollanders from exercising in Java the same barbarous expedient by which they gained possession of the Spice Islands. In the year 1740, under the pretence that the Chinese who were settled at Batavia, meditated a conspiracy, they inhumanly massacred thirty thousand of that nation, without producing the smallest evidence in justification of so atrocious an act. It must be acknowledged that the States of Holland disavowed their having ever granted to the governor of Batavia any authority for this outrage; but the general suspicion that the conductor of this horrible tragedy was removed by poison, to prevent any inquiry into the affair, with the excesses formerly committed at Amboyna and other places, too palpably under the sanction of the States; these considerations must for ever greatly invalidate the credit due to this profession of innocence, the truth of which is contradicted by circumstances of so unfavourable a nature.

With respect to the two kingdoms of Materan and Palambang, they produce nearly the same commodities with the northern part of the island, but are at present



sent little resorted to by any other people than the Chinese.

Near to Java, is the island of Bally, or the Less Java, separated only by a strait; eastward of which lie the islands of Lomboy, Combova, Flores, Solor, Timor, and several others, where the Dutch have forts, and consider the natives as their subjects. The largest of those is Timor, being about two hundred miles in length, and fifty in breadth. It is divided into a number of petty states, which the Dutch set against one another, and by that means govern the whole. The Portuguese had formerly colonies here, whose descendants are now so intermixed with the natives, as hardly to be distinguished from them. The inhabitants are extremely swarthy. They use no cloathing but a little piece of silk or callico round their loins; and the better sort wear a kind of coronet about their temples, adorned with little thin plates of gold or silver: the others have caps made of palmetto leaves. Their arms are swords, darts, and lances or spears, with which they kill their game. The inhabitants are chiefly Christians, though there are still some Pagans and Mahometans. The produce of these islands, both in fruits and animals, is the same as that of Java; the Dutch, however, seem to derive but little advantage from them, their inducement to build forts here being only the protection of the Spice Islands.

South-east of those islands lie Papous Terra or New Guinea, and New Holland; of both which neither the extent nor internal state is known with any degree of accuracy. According to the report of the Dutch, by whom they were discovered, they are barren inhospitable countries, with few inhabitants. Whether this be really the case, however, or that the Hollanders, who have already as many settlements in those seas as they can well maintain, have industriously propagated such an account, with the view of discouraging other European nations from navigating hither, there may be some reason to doubt. About the year 1700, a vessel was fitted out from England, under the command of captain Dampier, to discover the true situation of those countries. According to his account, the natives were not so barbarous as the Dutch had represented them. He treated with them about entering into an alliance with the English, and received from one of their princes, as a confirmation of their friendly disposition, a crown and sceptre, which were made of wood. Of the discoveries made of this voyage, however, no other circumstances being ever published, we cannot determine whether the design of prosecuting any settlement in those seas, was laid aside on account of the war into which the nation was then entering, or from an improbability that such an enterprize should be attended with success.

Returning from the south towards the coast of India, the principal islands we next meet with are those of Nicobar, at the entrance of the bay of Bengal; situate between 92 and 94 degrees of east longitude, and between 7 and 10 degrees of north latitude. The largest of those islands, which lies most to the south, is forty miles long, and fifteen broad. Towards the southern extremity it is mountainous, but in the

other parts low, and covered with wood; where the soil is esteemed rich, and fit for producing almost any grain, if properly cultivated. It abounds particularly with groves of cocoa-nut trees, which are said to be exceeding pleasant.

The natives are of a middle stature, and have a deep olive complexion, with long black hair, and black eyes. The men wear no cloaths; but a girdle of lines about their loins. That of the women reaches below their knees, and they pull the hair of their eye brows off by the roots. They live chiefly on fish, and the tropical fruits, which the island produces spontaneously. Their houses are built in clusters, each consisting of five or six, erected on bamboo pillars, eight or nine feet above the surface of the ground, and covered with palm branches. The people of this and the other Nicobar islands are said to worship the moon; but some of them have been converted to Christianity by the Danish missionaries, who have reached hither, and for whose protection a fortress has been erected. The inhabitants have little commerce either with any other island or the continent, but furnish ships that sail this way from the straits of Malacca, with hogs, poultry, and such fruits as the country affords, for tobacco, linen, and other articles in return.

Proceeding towards the north, we arrive at the Andaman Islands, situate in 92 degrees of east longitude, and between 10 and 15 degrees of north latitude. The Andaman Islands differ little from those of Nicobar, except in producing rice, which with the fruits of the country, and fish, constitutes the food of the inhabitants. It has been reported by some voyagers, that the natives both of the Andaman and Nicobar Islands were cannibals; but it appears from the most authentic accounts, that this imputation is entirely groundless; they being so far from devouring their own species, that they hardly eat any fish at all.

#### C H A P. XVIII.

*Of Ceylon, and the Maldiva Islands.*

**C**EYLON, which is one of the Spice Islands, is situate between 78 and 82 degrees of east longitude, and between 6 and 10 degrees of north latitude, lying about thirteen leagues south-east of the peninsula of the Hither India. It is computed to be two hundred and fifty miles long, and two hundred broad.

This island is for most part mountainous and covered with wood, but it contains likewise many fertile plains and valleys, which are well watered with rivulets. The most remarkable mountain is that which is named by the natives Hamalet, and by the Europeans, Adam's Peak. It is of a pyramidal form, terminating at the top in a narrow rocky plain, on which there is the print of a man's foot, near two feet long. The islanders relate that this impression was made by their god Buddon, at his ascending hence to heaven; and they come hither in pilgrimage annually to worship the sacred spot. From this mountain the principal rivers in the island derive their source; but they run with such rapidity, and are so full of rocks, that none of them are navigable. The country is generally healthful,

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#### VIII.

##### of the Islands.

the Spice Islands, is  
 degrees of east longi-  
 tudes of north latitude,  
 east of the penin-  
 sula computed to be two  
 hundred broad.  
 mountainous and covered  
 with many fertile plains  
 watered with rivulets.  
 that which is named  
 the Europeans, Adam's  
 terminating at the  
 which there is the  
 about a foot long. The  
 was made by their  
 ascent to heaven; and  
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 the principal rivers  
 but they run with  
 rocks, that none of  
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 ful,

ful, except near the sea, and the north part of the  
 island, where having no springs or rivers, the inha-  
 bitants suffer great inconveniences from a defect of  
 water in the dry seasons.

The capital of the island is Candy, situate about the  
 middle of it. This, though an open town, and not  
 fortified, is yet almost inaccessible, on account of the  
 rocks and thick woods with which it is encompassed,  
 prohibiting entrance all round, except through some  
 lanes, which are fenced with gates of strong thorn.

Columbo, the capital of the Dutch settlements, is a  
 great port-town, in the south-west part of the island,  
 lying in 78 degrees of east longitude, and 7 degrees  
 of north latitude. The harbour, which is large and  
 commodious, is defended by a castle, and several bat-  
 teries of guns. In this fortress resides the governor,  
 with the merchants, and troops belonging to the East  
 India company; the space between the castle and the  
 sea being occupied by huts, which contain about four  
 thousand slaves.

On the same coast, twenty-five miles north, is  
 situate Negumbo, another port-town, whence twenty  
 miles farther lies Chilao, remarkable for an excellent  
 harbour. On the east side of the island are, Trinco-  
 male, and Batacalao, at the latter of which there is  
 a fortress. Jaffnapatan, the capital of the province of  
 that name, is also regularly fortified by the Dutch, to  
 prevent any other nation from sending colonies hither,  
 though there grows no cinnamon in this part of the  
 island.

The natives of Ceylon are of a moderate stature,  
 and well proportioned. Their complexions are dark,  
 but far inferior in blackness to those of the Indians on  
 the adjacent continent. They have good features,  
 black hair and eyes, and the men wear long beards.  
 The dress of the male sex is a waistcoat of callico,  
 with a girdle of the same, in which they put their  
 knife and a few trinkets. They wear a hanger by their  
 side, in a silver scabbard; every man likewise carrying  
 in his hand a cane, and being attended by a boy with  
 a box, which contains his betel and arek nut. Young  
 men of figure wear their hair long and combed back,  
 but those of a more advanced age, use caps in the  
 form of a mitre.

The dress of the women is nearly the same with that  
 of the men. They wear a callico waistcoat, exactly  
 fitting their body, and a girdle which hangs in general  
 below the knees, but is longer or shorter, according  
 to the quality of the person. On their head they use  
 no covering, except a piece of silk when they go  
 abroad, and their hair hangs down loose at full length.  
 They bore holes in their ears, which are frequently so  
 much enlarged by the weight of jewels depending from  
 them, as easily to admit a half-crown. Their necks are  
 likewise loaded with heavy ornaments, which fall upon  
 their breasts; their arms are furnished with bracelets;  
 and on their fingers, and even toes, they wear a great  
 number of rings, with a girdle of silver wire and plate  
 round their waists.

The inhabitants of this island, like those of the hot  
 climates in general, are addicted to indolence, but not  
 luxurious. Though grave, and of an even temper,

they possess acute understanding, and have an agreeable  
 address. Their social qualities, however, are much  
 tarnished by a propensity to lying, but their disinge-  
 nuity seems not to be attended with any unfavourable  
 opinion of the virtue of others; for in regard to con-  
 jugial fidelity in particular, the men are seldom jealous  
 of their wives.

The common salute here, as in other parts of India,  
 is the salam, or the carrying one or both hands to their  
 heads, according to the quality of the person to whom  
 the compliment is paid. For the nearest relations and  
 friends to talk much on a visit, is considered as a mark  
 of levity, and people of this character are generally  
 held in little esteem.

In Ceylon, as well as other hot countries, rice  
 constitutes a principal article in the diet of the inha-  
 bitants, and in the cultivation of this grain they display  
 remarkable industry, not only in levelling the grounds,  
 but banking them round so that they may contain  
 water. It is not unusual to supply their fields with this  
 element by means of artificial conduits from the tops  
 of mountains; and in those parts of the island where  
 there are neither springs nor rivers, as is the case in  
 the north, they preserve the rain-water in great refer-  
 voirs in the time of the monsoons, conveying it gradu-  
 ally in rills to their fields and gardens, until the rice has  
 attained its full growth. As soon as the grain is ripe,  
 they tread it out with oxen and buffaloes in the field;  
 previous to which operation, they always pay their  
 devotion to some idol, and intreat a blessing on their  
 labours.

Other kinds of grain are likewise used in the country  
 for bread, especially toward the end of the year, when  
 there is a scarcity of rice. The principal of those is  
 the coracan, which is a very small seed. This grows in  
 a sandy soil, and comes to maturity in a short time.  
 Another grain, named tanna, not much different from  
 the preceding, is also used for bread, but it is dry  
 and insipid. Of the feed tolla they use only the oil,  
 with which they anoint their bodies.

Among the fruits of this country, is the betel nut  
 already mentioned, of which the inhabitants used for-  
 merly to export a great quantity to the coast of Coro-  
 mandel, till the Dutch put an entire stop to this traffic.  
 The fruit jack, which is much used in this country,  
 is of a round form, and as large as a peck loaf, covered  
 with a green prickly rind, containing kernels resem-  
 bling the chestnut. They generally gather this  
 fruit before it arrives at maturity, and boil it, in which  
 condition it eats like cabbage; but when allowed to  
 become ripe, it is brought to the table without  
 any preparation. Another indigenous fruit called  
 jambo, tastes like an apple, and has a beautiful ap-  
 pearance on the tree. Besides these several kinds,  
 they have also fruits resembling plums and cherries,  
 with mangoes, cocoas, oranges, and the various pro-  
 ductions natural to the tropical climates.

It is usual in this island to dedicate their fruit trees  
 to some demon, with the view of preventing, as they  
 imagine, the depredation of thieves; and so great is  
 the dread of punishment apprehended from this invi-  
 sible guardian, that the expedient generally proves

successful. Before the owner eats any of his fruit, he always offers a part of it to an idol.

There is here also a great number of flowers, of various colours and exquisite fragrance, that grow spontaneously in the fields, and with which the young people of both sexes adorn their hair. One species, resembling the jessamine, is so highly esteemed, that no subject is permitted to wear it, being reserved for the use of the king.

Among their trees, the tallipot, which grows tall and straight, is remarkable for the size of its leaves. Each of those is so large as to cover fifteen or twenty men, and will fold up like a fan. The natives wear a piece of it on their heads when they travel, to screen them from the sun; and it is likewise frequently used in the way of tents, to lie under in the fields.

Another tree called *issule*, is a kind palm, growing as high as a cocoa-tree, from which they draw a liquor that is pleasant, but not strong. Of this beverage an ordinary tree yields three or four gallons a day, and when boiled, makes a kind of brown sugar, called *jaggory*.

But the most valuable tree in Ceylon is the cinnamon, which is peculiar to this country, and grows commonly in the woods, on the south-west part of the island. This tree is of a middle size, and bears a leaf resembling that of the laurel. When the leaves first appear, their colour is as red as scarlet, and when rubbed between the fingers, they emit the smell of the clove. The fruit, which is similar to an acorn, neither smells nor tastes like the bark; but if boiled in water, a fragrant oil swims on the top, which they use for their lamps, and an ointment in several distempers. The tree having two barks, they strip off the outside bark, which is of little use, and cut the other round the tree with a pruning knife; dividing it afterwards into slips, which they lay in the sun to dry, and roll up in the usual manner. The body of the tree is white, and serves for building and other purposes, but has neither the smell nor the taste of the bark. When the wind sets off the island, the cinnamon groves perfume the air for many miles out at sea.

The animals in Ceylon are oxen, buffaloes, deer, hogs, and goats, with some wild beasts, but neither any lions nor wolves. Horses, asses, and sheep, were likewise unknown here, till they were imported by the Europeans. The island produces an animal which resembles a deer, but is no bigger than a hare. Monkeys also are in great abundance, with black faces, and white beards, having much the appearance of old men. The elephants of the country are of a very large size. They feed upon the tender shoots of trees, corn, and grass, and do great mischief to the husbandmen, not only by eating but trampling upon the produce of the fields. The island is also infested with alligators, and serpents of a monstrous size, and is almost over-run with vermin and insects, especially ants, to the depredations of which it is said that scarce any thing but iron is so hard as not to be subjected. To such a degree do those insects swarm, even in the houses, that if a dish of meat is set down, it is immediately full of them. In

the fields they raise hillocks six feet high, of a pure white clay, so hard that a pick-ax penetrates their substance with difficulty. Those insects are not long-lived: when arrived at maturity they have wings, and fly up in such clouds as to intercept the light of the sun. Soon after which they fall down dead, and are eaten by fowls; the latter, happily for the natives, devouring them likewise at other times.

Besides the common bees, which are in great plenty in the island, and generally build in hollow trees, there is here a larger species, of a much more lively colour, which form their combs on the high boughs.

At the season when the rain begins to fall, the inhabitants are much annoyed with small red leeches, which at first are not much bigger than a hair. They run up peoples legs, on which they fix, and are with difficulty disengaged. Their bite, however, is not dangerous, and the bleeding which ensues is reckoned salutary, when not immoderate.

The fowls of the island are geese, ducks, turkeys, hens, pigeons, partridges, woodcocks, snipes, wild peacocks, and paroquets, with a beautiful sparrow, whose colour is white, except the head, which is black, and ornamented with a plume of feathers standing upright. The tail of this bird is about a foot long.

The natives of Ceylon use chiefly for diet soups made of flesh or fish and garden-stuff, which they eat with rice, seldom having at their tables any solid animal food. When such however is produced, it is cut into little square pieces, and two or three ounces of it laid on the side of the dish by the rice, to which, being high seasoned, it serves to give a relish. They use neither knives nor forks, but have ladles and spoons, made of the cocoa nut shell. Their plates are of brass or China ware: but instead of those the poor people are content with the leaf of a tree, or sometimes several leaves sewed with bents. Their common drink is water, which they pour out of a cruise or bottle, holding it more than a foot above their heads. Some, it is said, will swallow near a quart of water in this manner, without once gulping. Neither wine nor beer is made in the island, but of arrack they draw a great quantity.

The domestic comforts of the table are unknown to the natives of Ceylon. The man eats alone, and is waited upon by his women, who afterwards eat in company with the children.

When a man here is favoured with a visit from one of superior rank, it is usual for the host at night to compliment his guest with his wife or daughter, to sleep with him; but an offer of this kind to an inferior would be considered as a crime; and the violating of a man's wife, without his consent, is severely punished by the laws.

With respect to the nuptial ceremony, it is thus conducted. When a contract has been made by the parents of the young couple designed to be married, the bridegroom sends the bride a piece of callico, and a flowered linen waistcoat. A time being then appointed for the commencement of their cohabitation, he goes the evening before with his friends to her father's,

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father's, where he entertains her with the greatest delicacies he can procure. After supper the betrothed parties sleep in the same room, and having dined next day, they set off in a procession to the house of the husband. A marriage in Ceylon, however, is but a temporary agreement, the parties being at liberty to dissolve their connection, if after a trial they find not the happiness they had expected. It is not uncommon for the men to change their spouses in this manner several times, before they fix upon a person with whom they can think of spending their lives. But in such cases the portion received with the woman must be returned to her father.

The women of Ceylon never receive any obstetrical assistance in the time of delivery, and they think it no crime to procure abortion. At the birth of a child, a pretended astrologer is sent for and consulted, whether it is like to prove fortunate. If his opinion is in the negative, they either expose or drown the infant, or sometimes give it to a neighbour; for by such a renunciation, they think that its natural destiny may be altered. Children, during their minority, are called by what name the parents please; but when grown up, they lay aside this appellation, and either assume the name of the family, or the place where they reside.

They burn the dead in this island, as in the adjacent country of India. The corpse is carried on an open bier to some neighbouring eminence, where being laid upon a pile of wood, it is covered with an additional quantity of fuel. If the deceased be a person of distinction, an arch is erected over the pile, and adorned with flags and streamers. When the body has been consumed in the flames, the ashes are collected, and a little wall built round them. Some days after, a priest is sent for to the house in which the person died, when a melancholy dirge is sung; the women, at the same time, with their hair dishevelled, bewailing their loss, and the male relations testifying their grief in sighs and groans. This ceremony is repeated morning and evening, for several days. The laws in this country do not require the woman to be burnt with her husband, as on the continent of India. On the contrary, widows are exempted from all taxes; and it is not uncommon for them to marry again, in a very short time after nature has dissolved the nuptial tie.

The natives, we are informed, worship the Supreme Being, but neither make any image of him, nor dedicate any temples to his name. They have idols, however, the supposed representatives of some great men that formerly lived on the earth, and who, as they imagine, are now mediators for them in heaven. The chief of those demi-gods is Buddon, who is said to have come originally from heaven, to procure the happiness of men, and rescended thither from the hill named Adam's Peak, where he left the impression of his foot. They also pay adoration to the sun and moon, and other planets. Every town has likewise its tutelary demon, and every family their household god, to whom they build chapels, in which they sacrifice and perform their devotions every morning. There are three classes of idols, with corresponding orders of priests, who have their several temples,

and to the maintenance of which certain portions of land are appropriated. Among the several sacerdotal tribes, the people of Buddon are held in the greatest esteem. They wear a yellow vest or mantle, with their heads shaved, and beards that grow to a considerable length. Their disciples fall down on their faces before them; and wherever they visit, a stool is brought for them to sit on, an honour in which only princes and magistrates participate. Those priests are prohibited from all commerce with women, drink no strong liquor, and eat only one meal a day; at which, however, they are permitted to use every kind of meat, except beef; the flesh of oxen, as animals which superstition has here rendered sacred, never being tasted either by the priesthood or laity. In every other respect, an unbounded licence is allowed to persons of this order, and they are not cognizable by the temporal power for the perpetration of any crime.

In regard to the second order of priests, that officiate in the temples of other idols, they are allowed to profess any secular employment, and are not distinguished from the laity by any peculiar habit; but they have a yearly stipend. Every morning and evening they attend the service of their temples, where when the people sacrifice rice and fruits, the priest presents them before the idol, delivering them afterwards to the pontifical assistants, and the attending poor, who eat the provision. To the idols of this class no flesh is ever sacrificed.

The third order of priests enjoys no revenues, but subsists by voluntary contribution. They build temples for themselves, to which they resort every Wednesday and Saturday. At the new and full moon, they offer sacrifice to the god Buddon, as they do also on new-year's day, in the month of March, with great solemnity, on a high mountain, or under a spreading tree, which is esteemed sacred. This tree, according to tradition, like the chapel of Loretto, has travelled through several countries, and passing the sea, at length planted itself in this island, where under its shade the god Buddon used often to repose himself.

The figures of many of their idols are extremely fantastic, representing imaginary creatures, partly human, and partly the resemblance of some fish or quadruped. Those in the temples of Buddon are only the images of men sitting cross-legged in yellow vests, such as are worn by the priests. Before the image is furnished with eyes, it is not accounted sacred, but thrown about like a common block; when those are completed, however, it becomes an object of adoration.

At the new moon in July, every year, a solemn festival is celebrated, which lasts till the full moon. On this occasion forty or fifty elephants, magnificently accoutered, march through the principal streets of the cities, followed by people in the masque of giants, who according to their tradition formerly inhabited the earth. Next come the music and dancing girls, dedicated to the temples, who are succeeded by one of the priests of Buddon, mounted on an elephant of an extraordinary size, covered with white cloth, and the richest trappings, adorned with streamers and flowers.

Over

Over the head of this personage, who represents the *Allat near Dis*, or the Supreme God, another priest lighted an umbrella, and on the right and left are two priests of the inferior deities, mounted likewise upon elephants. Immediately in the rear of those is a crowd of ladies of the first quality, carrying in their hands lighted lamps, and the procession is closed by the military, with the courtiers and officers of state. This ceremonial is regularly performed once in the day-time, and once in the night, during the continuance of the solemnity; the intervals being spent in feasting, singing, and dancing, with a total interruption of all business.

There are in the island great numbers of Christians, descended from the proselytes made by the Popish missionaries, while the Portuguese were masters of the country, and those have some churches near the sea-coast, but none in the interior parts.

The Portuguese tongue is spoken among the Christians in Ceylon, but the vernacular language of the island is a dialect of that which is used on the Malabar coast. There is likewise a dead language spoke only by the bramins or priests, in which the books relating to their religion are written.

They write upon the leaves of the talipot with a steel style or bodkin. The only science they are acquainted with is astronomy, which they have learnt from the Arabian colonies that settled on their coasts, and they can foretel eclipses with a tolerable degree of exactness. To astrological learning they are also great pretenders, entertaining the most superstitious credulity in favour of predictions of that nature. Their year is divided into three hundred and sixty-five days; every day into thirty pavs or parts, and the night into the same number. Having neither clock nor dials, they measure time by means of a small copper vessel with a hole in the bottom, which being placed in a tub of water, is filled in the space of a day, when it sinks and determines the period. It is then immediately emptied for the purpose of renewing the process.

The chief manufacture of the country is callico, or cotton cloth. They also make brass, copper, and earthen vessels, swords, knives, and the implements of various trades, with goldsmith's work and fire-arms. Even painting and carving are said to be executed with a degree of dexterity and taste, beyond what might be expected among a people where the state of civilization is not such as can greatly favour the advancement of the elegant arts.

The foreign trade of this island, in the article of cinnamon, is doubtless of great antiquity. In little more than five hundred years after the flood, we read of this valuable commodity, among other spices, being brought into Egypt through Arabia. Of the history of the country, however, in any remote period, we have no information. The first European nation who possessed themselves of it was the Portuguese, from whom, like the other Spice Islands, it was afterwards taken by the Dutch, who to this day enjoy exclusively the cinnamon trade over the world.

#### M A L D I V A I S L A N D S .

The Maldiva Islands are situate in the Indian ocean, between 68 and 76 degrees of east longitude, and between the equator and 7 degrees of north latitude. They are extremely numerous, consisting of near a thousand little islands or rocks, and are difficult to be approached, but at three or four inlets. Their produce is the tropical fruits, especially the cocoa-nut; with the little sea-shells, or cowries, called black-amoor's teeth, which serve instead of small money on the Indian continent. Those islands abound in fish, but with rice they are supplied from the Hither India. They are all governed by one king; and the inhabitants, who are descended from the Arabs, retain the religion and customs of their mother-country.

Before we leave the Indian Ocean, it may not be improper to subjoin the learned Dr. Edmund Halley's account of the winds that blow in that part of the world, whether the constant trade-winds, or those which are periodical, and go under the name of monsoon. The following is the information he gives on this subject, which he appears to have collected with great pains and industry.

"In the Indian Ocean, the winds are partly general, as in the *Æthiopic* (part of the Atlantic Ocean) partly periodical, that is, half the year they blow one way, and the other half year upon the opposite points; and these points and times of shifting are different in different parts of the ocean. The limits of each tract of sea, subject to the same change or monsoon, as the natives call it, are certainly very hard to determine; but the diligence I have used to be rightly informed, and the care I have taken therein, has in a great measure surmounted that difficulty; and I am persuaded, that the following particulars may be relied upon. That between the latitude of 10 and 30 degrees south, between Madagascar and New Holland, the general trade-wind about the south-east and by east, is found to blow all the year long to all intents and purposes, after the same manner as in the same latitude in the *Æthiopic* Ocean. That the aforesaid south-east winds extend to within two degrees of the equator, during the months of June, July, &c. to November, at which time, between the south latitude of 3 and 10 degrees, being near the meridian of the north end of Madagascar, and between 2 and 12 south latitude, being near Sumatra and Java, the contrary winds from the north-west, or between the north and west, set in and blow for half the year, viz. from the beginning of December till May; and this monsoon is observed as far as the Molucca Isles. That to the northward of 3 degrees south latitude, over the whole Arabian or Indian sea or gulph of Bengal, from Sumatra to the coast of Africa, there is another monsoon, blowing from October to April, upon the north-east points; but in the other half year, from April to October, upon the opposite points of south-west and west-south-west, and that with rather more force than the other, accompanied with dark rainy weather, whereas the north-east blows clear. It is likewise to be noted, that the west winds

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*A Chinese Mandarin in a Summer Habit.*



are not so constant, either in strength or point, in the gulf of Bengal, as they are in the Indian sea, where a certain and steady gale scarce ever fails. It is also remarkable that the south-west winds in these seas, are generally more southerly on the African side, more westerly on the Indian. That as an appendix to the last described monsoon, there is a tract of sea to the southward of the equator, subject to the same changes of the winds, viz. near the African coast, between it and the island of Madagascar, or St. Laurence, and thence northwards as far as the line, wherein, from April to October, there is found a constant fresh south-south-west wind, which, as you go northerly, becomes still more and more westerly, so as to fall in with the west-south-west winds, mentioned before in those months of the year, to be certain to the northward of the equator. What winds blow in those seas for the other half year, from October to April, I have not yet been able to obtain to my full satisfaction; for that our navigators always returned from India without Madagascar, and so are little acquainted with this matter. The account that has been given me is only this, that the winds are much easterly hereabouts, and as often to the north of the true east, as to the southward thereof. That to the eastward of Sumatra and Malacca, to the northward of the line, and along the coast of Cambodia and China, the monsoons blow north and south, that is to say, the north-east winds are much northerly, and the south-west are much southerly: this constitution reaches to the eastward of the Philippine Isles, and as far northerly as Japan; the northern monsoon sitting in those seas in October or November, and the southern in May, blowing all the summer months. Here it is to be noted, that the points of the compass, whence the winds come in those parts of the world, are not to be fixed as in those lately described; for the southerly will frequently pass a point or two to the eastward of the south, and the northerly as much to the westward of the north, which seems to be occasioned by the great quantity of land which is interspersed in those seas. That in the same meridians, but to the southward of the equator, being that tract lying between Sumatra and Java to the west, and New Guinea to the east, the same northerly monsoons are observed, but with this difference, that the inclination of the northerly is towards the north-west, but the southerly towards the south-east. But the *plaga venti* are not more constant here than in the former, viz. variable five or six points; besides, the times of the change of those winds are not the same as in the Chinese seas, but about a month or six weeks later. That those contrary winds do not shift all at once, but in some places the time of the change is attended with calms, in others with variable winds; and it is particularly remarkable, that the end of the westerly monsoon on the coast of Coromandel, and the two last months of the southerly monsoon in the Chinese seas, are very subject to be tempestuous. The violence of those storms is such, that they seem to be of the nature of the West-India hurricanes, and render the navigation of those parts very unsafe, about that time of the year. Those tempests are by our seamen

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usually termed the breaking up of the monsoons. By reason of the shifting of these winds, all those that sail in these seas are obliged to observe the seasons proper for their voyages, and so doing they fail not of a fair wind and speedy passage; but if they outstay their time till the contrary monsoon sets in, as it frequently happens, they are forced to give over the hopes of accomplishing their intended voyages, and either return to the port from whence they came, or else put into some other harbour, there to spend the time till the winds become favourable.

## C H A P. XII.

*Of the Kingdom of Tonquin.*

**R**ETURNING to the continent of Asia, we land in the kingdom of Tonquin. This country is bounded by China on the north and east, by the Bay of Cochinchina on the south, and by Laos on the west. It is situate between 101 and 109 degrees of eastern longitude, and between 21 and 27 degrees of north latitude; being about 500 miles long, and 400 broad. Towards the north and west the territory is mountainous, but level and fruitful in the other parts. The year, as in other tropical countries, is here divided into the wet and dry seasons, the rains beginning in April or May, and continuing till September; during which time, however, there are frequent intervals of fair weather, especially in the mornings. For some weeks before and after the autumnal equinox, the country is much exposed to violent hurricanes, usually called tufoons, which happen for the most part about the new and full moon. The course of those phenomena is generally in this manner: it is fine, fair weather, and little wind, twelve hours before the storm begins. The wind having blown with great fury for twelve hours from the north-east, attended with thunder, lightning, and heavy rain, it suddenly ceases, but shifting to the south-west, in the space of an hour, it blows from that quarter with equal violence.

The produce of the country is cocoa-nuts, guavas, mangoes, oranges, and the other tropical fruits, with the betel and arec nut. Rice is almost the only grain that is cultivated. Here are great numbers of elephants, some horses, oxen, buffaloes, and hogs, with fish and poultry in great abundance, but hardly any sheep or wild beasts. Reptiles and insects, however, are extremely troublesome as in other hot countries; but no species is more destructive than the ants, which march here in large bodies, consuming the fruits of the earth, as well as the manufactures of the inhabitants with incredible havoc.

Tonquin is divided into eight provinces, in which there are several towns. The capital city is Cachao or Keccio, situate on an eminence, about a hundred miles up the river Domea, in 105 degrees of east longitude, and 22 degrees 30 minutes north latitude. It is not defended either by a wall or moat, but contains about twenty thousand houses, which, a few excepted, built of brick, are only mean cottages. The streets are wide, but ill paved, and in the dry season the air

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is much contaminated by offensive exhalations from muddy ponds. The king's palace stands in the middle of the city, which, including the parks and gardens, is computed to be eight miles in circumference. At a small distance from the royal palace is another meanly built, in which the chona or general resides. Before it is a large parade, for exercising the soldiers, and a house which serves as an arsenal, containing fifty or sixty iron guns, and some mortars. Near the parade, there is likewise a stable of war elephants, and another of the king's horses.

The town of Domea is situate about sixteen or eighteen miles up the river of the same name. Here the Dutch vessels which trade to this country have their station; but the English ride three miles higher. On the same river, about eighty miles from the sea, stands Hlean, which consists of near two thousand houses, and is furnished with a garrison of soldiers. At this place the Chinese have factors, who carry on a trade with Japan. Besides these cities, there is a great number of villages in the flat country, surrounded with walls and banks of earth, to defend them against the annual floods.

The natives are of a middle stature, and tawny complexion, with long black hair falling down on their shoulders, black eyes, and their teeth dyed of the same colour. After the manner of the Chinese, they wear the nail on the little finger of the left hand as long as the finger. They are reputed to be more honest in their dealings than the people last mentioned, and are good mechanics.

In this country the sexes are hardly distinguished by their dress. The usual habit is a gown girt about with a sash. Persons of condition wear either English cloth or silk of their own manufacture, but the common people use cotton or callico. All ranks, however, universally wear drawers of cotton, which reach down below their knees. Their caps, which resemble the crown of a hat, are made of the same materials with the gown.

The language of Tonquin is a dialect of the Chinese, to which nation this country had formerly appertained as a province. The same characters are likewise common to both; and their learning consisting chiefly in the knowledge of those rudiments of writing, they are examined with respect to their proficiency in it, when they stand candidates for any office. In mathematics, astronomy, and other sciences, they appear to be upon the level with their neighbours before mentioned; from whom they also differ but little in point of religion. The name of Confucius is here held in equal veneration as in China, but the natives pay adoration to some images unknown in that empire, particularly the elephant and the horse. Their temples and pagodas are frequently so small, as hardly to contain a larger space than is necessary to accommodate the idol. Around those buildings are situate the cells of the priests, who attend to offer up the prayers of such as resort hither for devotion. The petition being delivered in writing, it is read aloud by the priest before the idol, while the person by whom it is presented lies prostrate on the

ground, in the attitude of the most humble supplication. People of figure, however, seldom come to the pagoda, but perform their devotions in a part of their own houses, appropriated to that use, where one of their domesticks officiates instead of the priest. In the written forms of prayer presented on those occasions, the usual mode is to enumerate several instances of good fortune, for which the petitioner returns thanks to Heaven, and concludes with intreating a continuance of its favour through life. When the paper has been read, it is burnt in a pan of incense, and the poor neighbours and dependants are called in, to partake of the entertainment which the master has provided for them; the practice of this hospitality being considered as of no small consequence towards procuring an auspicious regard to the prayers which have been offered.

Superstition is universally predominant among the people of this country. They never undertake any thing of moment, without consulting an astrologer; and have likewise their lucky and unlucky days. Every hour of the diurnal revolution is distinguished by the name of some animal, as the horse, the lion, &c. and the beast which marks the hour of a man's birth, is ever avoided by him.

A plurality of women is allowed here, as in most other pagan countries, and very little difference is made between a wife and a concubine. The children of both are equally entitled to a division of the paternal inheritance. So far are the men from being scrupulous in respect to the fidelity of their females, that they will frequently, for a trifling consideration, indulge the European merchants with the free access to their beds. The Dutch who trade to the country are allowed the use of temporary wives, to transact their business in their absence; by which commerce those women sometimes acquire great fortunes, and afterwards marry the most considerable men in the kingdom.

The men are permitted to divorce their wives upon the most trifling pretext, but they are obliged to restore the effects of which she was possessed at the time of marriage, and likewise to maintain the children. The same indulgence, however, is not allowed to the other party; for a wife cannot be repudiated from her husband, unless he is charged with some very atrocious crime. The punishment of a woman convicted of adultery, is to be thrown to an elephant, who taking her up with his trunk, tosses her in the air, and when she falls, tramples her under his feet, and crushes her to pieces; the animal being bred up for the purpose of such executions.

A man may sell both his wife and children in Tonquin, which not only saves him the trouble of a divorce, but the burdensome consequence attending it. This practice, however, is not very common from motives of resentment or passion, though, in times of scarcity, poor people make no scruple of selling their children to any purchaser, or even of transferring them, without receiving the smallest consideration.

The funerals in this country nearly resemble those of the Chinese, in respect of the procession and mourning; only here they burn the corpse, and deposit the ashes

in an urn. Over the tombs of people of condition, they erect a wooden tower, four or five and twenty foot high, and the priest ascending to the top of it, makes a funeral oration in praise of the deceased. This being concluded, he comes down, and sets fire to the structure; and the people who attend the ceremony are entertained on the spot, with a feast provided for the occasion.

When a king dies, the royal corpse lies in state sixty-five days, and during this time his table continues to be served as when he was alive; the meat being distributed every evening among the priests and poor people. A splendid procession is then begun towards the burying place of his ancestors, which is about two days journey from Cachao: but they seldom reach the tomb in less than seventeen days. The great officers and magistrates are obliged to mourn three years on the occasion, the gentry six months, and the common people three; and no public diversions are permitted for three years after the funeral.

Notwithstanding the great respect which is paid to the king or boua, after his death, he enjoys little more in his life-time than a titular dignity. The person invested with the power of the state is the general, who makes the king a kind of prisoner in his own palace, permitting him only to appear in public at certain times, and receive the homage of his subjects. To qualify in some measure this usurpation, the general affects an air of the most dutiful obsequiousness and awe, declaring that he assumes the reins of government with no other view than to ease his sovereign of the trouble, and afford him leisure to enjoy his pleasures without interruption. This officer has the entire disposal of all places, civil and military, even those of his majesty's household, whose servants he prohibits from suffering any subject to have access to the king. The general's guard consists of two hundred elephants, besides horse and foot. He usually keeps in the neighbourhood of the capital a standing army of thirty thousand men; and in other parts of the kingdom, especially the frontiers of China, about sixty or seventy thousand. When the troops march, the principal officers are mounted on elephants, a large apartment, made of timber being erected on the back of this huge animal, for their accommodation. There is no naval force in the kingdom, except a few insignificant vessels, which never venture to proceed far from the coast.

The chief magistrates and officers of state are generally eunuchs, who revenge by their avarice the operation they had suffered in their infancy. Though incapable of having any offspring, and debarred from the privilege of all testamentary dispositions, they are so extremely oppressive to the lower classes of the people, as hardly to permit them the enjoyment of the necessaries of life. Whatever those tyrants have amassed by their rapaciousness, becomes at their death the property of the governor in whose district they had lived, who considering them as instruments of his own aggrandizement, never fails to connive at their extortion, for which he is also occasionally gratified with a share of the spoil,

The commercial articles of this country are chiefly silk, and lacquered ware; with turpentine, fine perfumes, lignum aloes, and wood for dying, much like logwood: but the trade of the country is not extensive.

## C H A P. XIII.

*Of Cochinchina, Siam, Pegu, Ava, and Arracan.*

COCHIN-CHINA, including Triampa, is situate between 104 and 110 degrees of east longitude, and between 10 and 17 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded by Tonquin on the north, by the Indian Ocean on the east and south, and by Cambodia on the west; being about four hundred miles long, and a hundred and fifty broad. The mountains of Kemois run the whole length of it from north to south, dividing it from Cambodia; but in the other parts, the country is generally level. Though it lies nearer the equator than Tonquin, the temperature of the air is not so hot; for which several reasons may be assigned. In the first place, this country is more advantageously situate, being cooled by breezes from the ocean. In the second place, it is observed, that the regions which extend towards the tropics, as the kingdom of Tonquin, are much hotter than those which are situated near the equator; the sun being vertical in the former almost three months, but in the latter a much shorter time. In the third place, the days are an hour and half longer at the tropics than at the equinoctial, at the same time that the rains and cloudy weather are of shorter duration.

From the account of different travellers, it does not appear that there is any considerable town in the whole country. We are informed, however, that the king resides in the most northern province, and at a town called Touran-Fairo, situate in 16 degrees of north latitude, and 106 degrees of east longitude. They build their houses in this country chiefly with the bamboo cane, and one story high; but during the whole time of the periodical flood, which lasts near half the year, they can live only in the upper apartments, and have no communication with their neighbourhood but by means of boats.

In their persons and habits, the natives of Cochinchina differ little from those of Tonquin; but their complexions are generally more dark, and their teeth remarkably bad, occasioned by the corrosive nature of the materials with which they die them black, and their excessive chewing of betel and arek.

## S I A M.

Siam, in which is comprehended Malacca, Cambodia, and Lao: is situate between 97 and 107 degrees of east longitude, and between 1 and 25 degrees of north latitude; being bounded by Acham and a province of China on the north; by Tonquin, Cochinchina, and the Bay of Siam, on the east; by the Straits of Malacca and Sincapora, on the south; and by the Bay of Bengal, Pegu, and Ava, on the west. It extends

in length about fifteen hundred miles, and its greatest breadth is three hundred.

There are two ridges of mountains that run through the country from north to south, which conduce to moderate the heat of the air in the adjacent parts, and the same effect is produced by the sea-breezes, in the territory contiguous to the coast; but the vallies which lie beyond the influence of either of those salutary causes, are excessive hot, and would be almost uninhabitable were it not for the annual rains, by which the torrid state of the atmosphere is considerably qualified. The monsoons, or periodical winds and rains, prevail here as well as in the Hither India, and the latter are heaviest about Midsummer. The fairest season is in December, when the sun is at the greatest distance from them, and the most stormy weather at the shifting of the monsoons, which usually happens about the equinoxes, or within a month before or after those periods; at each of which seasons the shipping gets into harbour, to avoid the danger of being destroyed.

The two principal rivers are the Menan and the Mecon, which rise in the mountains of Tartary, and run to the south; the former passing by the city of Siam, falls into the bay of the same name, in 13 degrees of north latitude; and the latter running through Laos and Cambodia, discharges itself in the Indian ocean, in 9 degrees of north latitude.

The capital of the country is Siam, called by the natives Siyothoya, situate in 101 degrees of east longitude, and in 15 degrees of north latitude, being almost encompassed by the branches of the river Menan. It is about ten miles in circumference, within the wall, but not a sixth part of the ground is occupied by buildings. In the vacant spaces there are near three hundred pagodas or temples, round which are scattered the convents of the priests, and their burying places. The streets of the city are spacious, and some have canals running through them, over which is a great number of bridges. The houses stand on pillars of the bamboo cane, and are built of the same materials; the communication between different families, during the winter season, being carried on, as in other tropical countries, by means of boats. The grounds belonging to the several tenements are separated by a palisado, within which the cattle are housed in barns, erected likewise upon pillars, to preserve them from the annual inundation.

The royal palace at Siam is encompassed by three walls, with intervening courts or spaces of considerable extent. The innermost court, in which the king resides, is called the veng, and is furnished with spacious gardens, groves, and pieces of water. Whoever passes in or out of this boundary, falls down on his face before the gate; but none is permitted entrance who is armed, or has lately drank any arrack or spirituous liquor; of which the officer of the guard must judge, by smelling the person's breath. There are seven floors in the royal palace, and generally three in the houses of people of distinction; but the dwellings of the other inhabitants consist for the most part of a single story.

The furniture of the houses in this country is extremely simple, there being neither beds, chairs, nor tables. The people of the greatest figure lie on mattresses spread on couches, with a sheet under them, and covered with a quilt or piece of callico; the poorer sort using only a mat on the floor, and their upper garment as a covering.

The Siamese are of a middle stature, well proportioned, and very swarthy. Their faces are broad, and they have high cheek bones; but their foreheads and chins are contracted, and terminate in a point. They have small black eyes, large mouths, and thick pale lips. Like their Indian neighbours, they carefully dye their teeth black, and have a vanity in wearing the nails of some of their fingers of extraordinary length; those being considered, as the personal marks which distinguish people of condition from the vulgar. Their hair, which is generally black, is worn so short by both sexes, that it does not come below their ears; but the women for the most part make it stand upright on their foreheads. It is the custom of the men to pull their beards by the roots. Before they go out, they either bathe, or have water poured upon their heads for the space of an hour.

Men of the rank above the vulgar wear a callico or muslin shirt, with a piece of cotton linen, called a payne, about their loins, and in the rainy season a mantle of chint, or painted callico. The king is habited in a vest of brocaded satin, and wears a cap of a pyramidal form, with a coronet of precious stones about his temples. The great officers and nobility have also coronets, but of inferior value. In time of war, and during the exercise of hunting, their cloaths are generally red. No subject is permitted to wear a vest, without a special licence from the king; neither can a cap be worn, except in his majesty's presence, or when the person presides in a court of justice. Slippers are sometimes used, but always taken off at entering either the temples or houses.

The women wear a linen cloth about their loins, which on those of superior rank reach down almost to the knee, and serves instead of a petticoat. They cover their necks with a loose piece of linen, which likewise spreads over their breasts. A cap makes no part of the female dress; but they adorn themselves with bracelets on their arms and legs, and as many rings on three fingers of each hand as they can put on.

The Siamese are esteemed an ingenious people, and though rather indolent than active in disposition, they are not addicted to the voluptuous vices which often accompany a state of ease; being remarkably chaste and temperate, and even holding drunkenness in abhorrence. They are, however, accounted insolent towards their inferiors, and equally obsequious to those above them; the latter of which qualities appears to be particularly inculcated from their earliest youth. In general, their behaviour is extremely modest, and they are averse to loquacity. Like the Chinese, they avoid speaking in the first person, and when they address a lady, it is always with some respectful epithet, insinuating personal accomplishments.

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The common form of salutation here, as in most Indian nations, is the salem, or the lifting one or both hands to the head, and inclining the body; but to a person of much superior rank, it is the custom to fall prostrate on the face. When in a recumbent state, the usual posture is to fit on their heels, with their heads a little reclined. The ceremonies used at visits are nearly the same as in China.

The general food in this country is rice and fish, sometimes fresh, but more frequently dried or pickled, and seldom eat before it is stinking. The flesh of all animals is likewise used without distinction, even that of the vilest reptiles, as among the Chinese; but every thing is so highly seasoned with spice, that the taste of the several dishes is almost uniformly the same. The common drink is water, or tea, which is used by all the inhabitants.

Among their public diversions is a rude sort of comedy, and a martial dance, in performing the latter of which, being masked and armed, they counterfeit a battle, at the same time reciting in songs the heroic achievements of their ancestors. Mock fights of elephants are also frequently exhibited, as cock-fighting had formerly been, till an order was procured against it by the priests, who considered it as a criminal entertainment. Here are likewise rowing matches on the rivers, and races, not of horses but oxen. To games of chance the people are as much addicted as the Chinese; playing away not only their wives and children, but venturing their own persons and liberties on the cast of a die. A festival is kept annually when the waters retire; on which occasion they sail on the rivers several evenings successively, their barges being illuminated with painted paper-lanterns. Another festival is kept after harvest, as a thanksgiving for the fruits of the earth; when the streets as well as the boats are illuminated, and a grand fire-work is played off. They admit no diversions at the new and full moon, but keep a strict fast, making offerings to the priests in their convents, and giving alms to the poor.

The vegetable produce of the country is chiefly rice, with some wheat, and European fruits, but mostly those of the tropical climates. The hills are covered with good timber, of which the most valuable for domestic use is the bamboo. The cotton-tree is also very common. It bears a fruit of the size of a walnut, which opens when ripe, and contains within it the cotton.

There is no country in which elephants abound more than in Siam, or where they are held in greater veneration; the Siamese being of opinion that they are animated by illustrious souls. The longevity of this animal is proportioned to its enormous bulk; for it is supposed to be a hundred years old before it attains its full growth. Being both too strong and unwieldy to be governed by force, it is managed entirely by signs, in the apprehending of which it is said to be extremely docile and quick. There are here but few horses, sheep, or goats, and those of an indifferent quality, as well as their venison; the flesh of the hogs being the best of their animal provision. Oxen and

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buffaloes are used in their ploughs and carriages. Poultry and wild-fowl are in great plenty, but their flesh is generally dry. Of singing birds there is none; but there are some macaws, parrots, and other birds of beautiful plumage, which are so tame, by never being molested by the natives, that they will often come into the houses.

No man in this country learns any particular trade, but has a general knowledge of all that are commonly practised, and every one works six months for the king by rotation; at which time, if he should be found perfectly ignorant of the business he is set about, he is doomed to suffer the bastinado. The consequence of this burdensome service is, that no man endeavours to excel in his business, lest he should be obliged to practise it as long as he lives, for the benefit of the crown.

The government of this country is extremely oppressive, the king being not only sovereign, but proprietor of all the lands, and chief merchant likewise; by which means he monopolizes almost the whole traffic, to the great prejudice of his subjects. The crown is said to be hereditary, but it is often transferred by revolutions, on account of the exorbitant abuse of power in those who exercise the royal office. In his palace, the king is attended by women, who not only prepare his food, and wait on him at table, but even perform the part of valets, and put on all his cloaths, except his cap, which is considered as too sacred to be touched by any hand but his own. He shews himself to the people only twice a year, when he distributes his alms to the talapoins or priests; and on those occasions, he always appears in an elevated situation, or mounted on the back of an elephant. When he takes the diversion of hunting, he is, as usual, attended by his women on foot, preceded by a guard of two hundred men, who drive all the people from the roads through which they are to pass; and when the king stops, all his attendants fall upon their faces on the ground.

The king's favourite wife is styled queen, who is generally one of his nearest relations; and so much is proximity of blood considered as a title to this honour, that not many years since, the royal consort was the king's own daughter by his sister.

The governors of the provinces are generally appointed by the crown every three years, and knowing that the duration of their offices is limited, they never fail to exercise it with great rapacity. In the province of Patan, however, the people elect their own governor, and for the most part make choice of an old woman, who is called queen, but is obliged to have the concurrence of the chief men, in all transactions of importance. As an acknowledgement of his superiority, she sends annually to the king, two small trees of gold and silver.

By the laws of Siam, submission to parents and governors is as strictly enjoined as in China, and particular reverence is always shewn to the aged. Lying is held in so great detestation, that it is branded with the same infamy as perjury in this part of the world; and a person who has been guilty of theft is

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abandoned by his nearest relations. No man is suffered to prosecute another, either in a civil or criminal cause, without giving security to make the charge good; and every judicial process is managed by the parties themselves, or their relations, no such profession as that of a lawyer being allowed.

In doubtful cases, the justice of a cause is determined by the same superstitious methods which were formerly practised by our British ancestors. Both the prosecutor and the defendant are sometimes commanded to walk over burning coals, and he that escapes this ordeal with impunity, is held to have the right on his side. Another method is by diving into deep water, on which occasion the verdict is given in favour of the person, who continues immersed the longest time.

A third mode of trial is conducted by vomits. The priest administers to each of the parties a pill, which is supposed to consist of materials of an emetic quality; and the testimony of the person who retains the pill without vomiting, is considered as unquestionably true.

Sometimes both the plaintiff and defendant are thrown to a tyger, when the cause is likewise decided by the superior good fortune of either of the contending parties.

The methods of punishing criminals are no less severe in several cases, than those of judicial determination. The convicts are sometimes thrown to an elephant, and trampled to death. A person who has robbed the public, has melted metals poured down his throat; and he who has been proved guilty of lying, is doomed to perish by having his mouth sewed up. For less atrocious crimes, they fasten a square board about the offender's neck. Some are set in the ground up to the shoulders, and every person is at liberty to buffet him; a mode of punishment which is considered as extremely ignominious. It is not uncommon for superior officers to be punished for the transgression of their inferiors; and parents and masters of families are amenable for those of their children or dependents.

The military force of Siam consists chiefly of militia, from which service, on extraordinary occasions, except the priests, no man who can bear arms is exempted. The king has likewise a battalion of guards, amounting to twelve hundred men, who are instructed in European discipline.

The inhabitants of this country maintain the doctrine of transmigration, believing in a pre-existent state, and that they shall pass into other bodies, till they are sufficiently purified to be received into paradise. They believe likewise that the soul is material, but not subject to the touch; that it retains the human figure, after quitting a body of that species; and that when it appears to persons with whom it was acquainted, which they suppose it to do, the wounds of one that has been murdered, will then be visible. They are of opinion, that no man will be eternally punished; that the good, after several transmigrations, will enjoy perpetual happiness; but that those who are not reformed, will be doomed to transmigration to all eternity. They believe in the existence of a Supreme Being, but the objects of their adoration are departed

saints, whom they consider as mediators or intercessors for them; and to the honour of this numerous tribe, both temples and images are erected.

The talapoins or priests have their residence contiguous to the temples, adjoining to which are likewise the cells of the talapoinesse, or females who devote themselves to the service of religion. The latter, however, are not admitted into these convents till the decline of life, and even then they are at liberty to forsake their retirement when they please.

The talapoins vow celibacy, and lead very austere lives, the punishment for the transgression of their rules being no less than burning. However severe this penalty, it is said to be rigorously insisted by the king, with a view of restraining too many of his subjects from embracing the sacerdotal life, to which they might otherwise be inclined, on account of the immunities attending it; the priests being obliged to pay no duties, and contributing nothing to the defence or support of the state. They are not, however, entitled to any fixed emoluments, except glebes, to cultivate which they are allowed slaves; nor enjoy a stipend in consequence of their office, but profit largely by the alms of the people, in the manner of begging friars. On this establishment, they are very hospitable to strangers, Christians as well as others, and have accommodations for them adjoining to their own. The priests preach every new and full moon, and during the inundation, every day, from morning to evening, sitting cross-legged on a raised floor, and relieving one another in rotation; at which times they often experience great liberality from the people. At certain seasons, especially after harvest, they are obliged to watch as well as pray, and their vigils are kept in the fields, in the night. They shave their heads, beards and eyebrows, and carry in their hands a talapat, or broad leaf, which serves them for an umbrella. The superior shaves himself, because no other is reckoned worthy to touch his head. Among the rest, the elder always shave the younger, except in case of great age, when the latter are permitted to have the honour of exercising the employment on those who are more advanced in years. They wear a yellow cloth about their loins, and another about their shoulders.

They perform ablution in the morning, as soon as they can see, in doing which they are extremely careful not to destroy an insect. They next proceed to the temple, where they sing their devotions, sitting in a recumbent posture; but on entering and coming out of those places of public worship, both the priests and people prostrate themselves three times before their idols. After this ceremony, they go to the towns and villages, where they place themselves at the doors of those whom they know to be the most liberal, and wait in expectation of their alms. It being criminal in the talapoins to touch money, they take care to be prudently accommodated with servants, in whom it is accounted no fault to accept of pecuniary donations.

The moral duties required of the talapoins, are, that they do not kill, steal, commit uncleanness, drink strong liquor, or tell lies. The first of those injunctions is understood in such a latitude, as extends

to the prohibition not only to the destroying animals, but vegetables, and even the seed of this class. They eat, however, of the fruit, which does not affect the life, and contrive means to evade the precepts in various ways. For, though they do not themselves boil rice, as being a feed, and therefore exposing them to the penalty of murder, yet if others boil it, they esteem the eating of it innocent. In the same manner, though they affirm the making water on the earth to be a sin, as tending to corrupt it, yet if they make use of a vessel, and their servant pours it on the earth, they think themselves not answerable for the crime.

Besides the injunctions above mentioned, there are several others peculiar to the order of priests; such as the avoiding all public diversions, making use of perfumes, touching gold or silver, wearing shoes, or fine cloaths, and being carried in any sort of vehicle. Amidst all their profession of severity and abstinence, they are reckoned extremely proud, taking place of the laity on every occasion, and not deigning a salutation to any but a brother talapoin.

The men of this country are allowed a plurality of women, but excepting one, who is a wife by contract, the others are only concubines, and their children deemed incapable of any legal inheritance. Previous to every nuptial contract, an astrologer must be consulted, who calculates the nativity of the parties, and determines, whether their union is likely to prove fortunate, or otherwise. When his prognostication is favourable, the lover is permitted to visit his mistress three times, at the last of which interviews, the relations being present, the marriage portion is paid, when, without any religious ceremony performed, the nuptials are reckoned complete, and soon after consummated. A few days after, the talapoin visits the married couple, sprinkles them with water, and repeats a prayer for their prosperity.

The Siamese wives are reputed to be extremely chaste, and so industrious, that they often maintain their families by their labour, during the absence of their husbands in the king's service, which is always the half of the year. Divorces, however, are allowed, though they seldom happen, on which occasions the man returns the wife's fortune, and the children are divided between them.

The practice in Siam respecting funerals is both to burn and bury the dead. The corpse being laid upon the pile, it is suffered to burn, till a considerable part is consumed, when the remainder is interred in a burying place, contiguous to some temple. The reason which they give for not burning it entirely to ashes is, that they suppose the deceased to be happy, when part of his remains escapes the fire. Instead of a tombstone, they erect a pyramid over the grave. It formerly was the custom to bury treasure with the corpse; but longer experience evincing, that the sacrilegious light in which robbing the graves was considered, did not prevent the crime, they now discontinue the ancient practice, and instead of treasure, bury only painted papers, and other trifles.

In this country two languages are spoken, namely, the Baly and the Siamese. The former has thirty-

three letters, and the latter thirty-seven, all consonants. The vowels, which are said to be very numerous in both, are certain characters, ranged sometimes above the consonant, sometimes below, in particular cases before it, and in others after. In each of these tongues, the pronunciation depends much upon the tone of the voice, which is modulated in such a manner, that the people rather sing than speak. The Baly is used only by those who are accounted the learned; but this character seems to be unjustly applied to any of the nation, as they pretend to no science but that of astrology, in which, the natives being extremely credulous, the country abounds with impostors.

The history of Siam, before it was discovered by the Portuguese, is, like that of all the other Indian nations, involved in impenetrable darkness. That it was known to the ancients, however, is highly probable, though there seems to be no ground for concluding, that it is the country mentioned by the Greek and Roman geographers, under the name of the Aurea Chersonesus, as gold is not its produce at this day. Since the end of the sixteenth century, the kingdom of Siam and that of Pegu have often been engaged in war, and alternately conquered; but both nations having now abandoned the right of tribute, which they formerly exacted in consequence of their respective victories, are at present independent of each other. The Portuguese continued masters of the coasts of Siam, from the year 1511, to the year 1640, when they were expelled by the Dutch, who have ever since excluded all other foreign nations from the country, which is now considered as in effect entirely subject to their controul.

#### Of PEGU, AVA, and ARRACAN.

These kingdoms are situate between 92 and 100 degrees of east longitude, and between 16 and 22 degrees of north latitude; bounded on the north by Tipra and Acham, on the east by Laos, on the south by Siam, and on the west by the Bay of Bengal. On account of their situation between the tropics, the air in the valleys is excessive hot; but it is generally qualified by breezes, which blow from the sea during a considerable part of the day.

The produce of these countries is rice, sugar-canes, furs, skins, salt-petre, mangoes, tamarinds, cocoanuts, and other tropical fruits; with rubies, sapphires, and the same sorts of animals as in Siam; from the inhabitants of which country, the natives of the three former seem to differ very little, either in their persons or customs, notwithstanding the many fables invented by travellers, of their worshipping the devil, and other ridiculous stories. The sovereignty of these countries appears to be extremely fluctuating; sometimes the three kingdoms have been united under one and the same prince, while at other times, the power has been contended, and successively enjoyed by each country. Amid these internal divisions, however, they have hitherto reaped the happiness of remaining unmolested from abroad, being seldom visited, even in the way of commerce, by the subjects of any maritime nation.

## I N D I A, O R H I N D O S T A N.

## C H A P. I.

*Of the situation—rivers—provinces—settlements.*

**I**NDIA Proper, or Hindostan, is situate between 66 and 92 degrees of east longitude, and between 7 and 40 degrees of north latitude; being bounded on the north by Usbeck and Tibet Tartary; on the east by Acham, Ava, and the Bay of Bengal; on the south by the Indian Sea; and on the west by the same sea and Persia; extending about two hundred miles in length, and fifteen hundred in breadth, in the broadest part.

The principal rivers are, 1. The Ganges, which rises in Mount Caucasus, and, running to the east, divides into several branches, that discharge themselves into the Bay of Bengal; the most easterly of those being the limits between this country and the Farther India. In so great esteem is this celebrated river held by the Indians, that they worship it as a god. 2. The Indus, a river as large as the preceding, and which, were it not for the bar at the mouth, is sufficiently deep to be navigable. It rises likewise in the mountains of Caucasus, and, running south-west, falls into the Indian Ocean. 3. The Attock, or Hydaspes of the ancients, has its source in the same mountains as the Indus, with which, after running parallel almost to the mouth, it unites, and the mixed stream is discharged into the Indian Sea. 4. The Jemmima, which runs southward by the cities of Delhi and Agra, and then turning eastward, falls into the Ganges at Halibas. 5. The Guenga; this river rises in the Baligate Mountains, and running eastward, discharges itself into the western branch of the Ganges, near the Bay of Bengal. 6. The Christena, which rising in the same mountains with the Guenga, runs first to the southward, and then turning to the east, falls into the Bay of Bengal. 7. The Tapte rises likewise in the Baligate Mountains, and running westward to Surat, discharges there its waters in the Bay of Cambaya.

Besides those, there are many other rivers of inferior note, with innumerable torrents in the time of the rains, most of which are dried up in the fair season.

This extensive country may be distinguished into three great divisions; the first comprehending those provinces which lie north of the tropic of Cancer; the second, those that lie under the tropic, or partly north, and partly south of it; and the third, those which lie south of the tropic, in the Hither Peninsula.

The first of the divisions above-mentioned comprehends Cabul, Cassimere, Gor or Gourite, Haican, Attock, Penkab, Bankish, Naugrecut, Multan, Lahor, Jangapour, Janba, Buckor, the Hindoo's country, Delhi, Sambal, Mevat, Patan, Tata or Sinda, Jesselmere, Afmer, or Bando, Agra, Gualoor, Halabas, Patna, Jesuat, Rejapour, Soret, Narvar, and Rotas.

The provinces in the second division are, Guzarat or Cambaya, Chitor, Malva, and Bengal,

Those which lie south of the tropic are, Candich, Bahar and Orixa, Decan or Vinapour, Golconda, Bismagar, Tanjour, and Madura.

After this enumeration of the provinces, we shall proceed to give an account of the maritime parts of the country, in which the European powers have now established so many settlements; beginning at the peninsula of Cambaya, and directing our course along the Malabar coast, to Cape Comorin, the southern extremity of India.

In the province of Guzarat, at the bottom of the Gulph of Cambaya, lies Surat, the most considerable port-town of trade in India. It is situate in 72 deg. 25 min. east longitude, and 21 deg. 10 min. north latitude, on the river Tapte, ten miles east of the sea; being about three miles in circumference, defended only by a slight wall, and some antique forts. The city and castle were taken by the English in 1759; and the next year the latter was ceded, with the revenues annexed, by the Great Mogul, to the English East India Company. Various European nations have here their factors, and trade very largely; but the most considerable merchants are the Moors, Armenians, Banians, Arabs, and Jews. The city is under the jurisdiction of a governor, appointed by the Mogul, and who lives in great splendor; but notwithstanding the almost boundless extent of his authority, the respect that is paid to him by the inhabitants is nearly equalled by the high esteem in which they hold the English president, who maintains the state of a prince, and is usually governor of Bombay, and all the English settlements on the west coast of India.

About a hundred and thirty miles south of Surat, lies the island of Bombay, twenty miles in circumference; the chief town of which is a mile in length, meanly built, and defended by a fort at a little distance. The inhabitants are chiefly British, Portuguese, and Indians, amounting to about fifty thousand. This place is exceedingly well situate for trade with the continent of India, and may be reckoned the principal English settlement in the country. It is attended, however, with the disadvantage of being extremely unhealthy, though in this respect, it has been greatly improved by governor Bohun, who drained the adjacent bogs and swamps, to which the insalubrity of the air had been principally owing. This settlement formerly belonged to the crown of Portugal, but was ceded to Charles the second, on his marriage with the infanta Catherine, and by him presented to the English East India Company, who have ever since been in possession of it. Bombay has an excellent harbour, but the soil of the island is barren, and the water bad, on which account they preserve the rain-water in cisterns.

On the same coast, in 15 deg. 31 min. north latitude, and 73 deg. 5 min. east longitude, is situate Goa, an island of the river Mandoua, about eight miles

miles from the sea. This island is about twenty four miles in circumference, and rendered very hot and unhealthy by the hills, which enclose it at a little distance, on the neighbouring continent. The town, which is likewise named Goa, is about two miles in length, and half a mile in breadth, being the capital of the Portuguese settlements in India. It is not only fortified with walls and ramparts, but the whole island is surrounded by a wall, bastions, and other modern works; and for farther security, the Portuguese have even fortified the banks of the river from the very mouth, with redoubts and batteries of guns; on which account it may be considered as more impregnable than any other town of India. The buildings of this town are of stone, and very magnificent; among which are many convents and nunneries, the place abounding likewise in monks, and other popish ecclesiastics, whose severity has rendered it unhappily celebrated for all the horrors of the inquisition. To the archbishop of Goa, the clergy in the Portuguese towns and settlements in Asia, and the east coast of Africa, are subject; and the viceroy, who resides at this place, is supreme governor of all the settlements of that nation, from the Cape of Good Hope to China, which are very numerous. Though the air of Goa is unhealthy, the island is pleasant, and especially on the side towards the sea, being full of country-seats and villages, and well planted with all kinds of tropical fruits.

Passing several inferior settlements on the coast of Malabar, belonging to different European nations, we turn Cape Comorin, to take a survey of the principal of those on the coast of Coromandel.

The first place of note on this coast, is the town of Pondicherry, situate in 80 deg. 32 min. east longitude, and 11 deg. 57 min. north latitude. It is defended by a fortress, which was besieged by admiral Boscawen, in September 1748, when the periodical rains, that fall annually at this season, obliged him to abandon the enterprize. In the year 1761, however, after a blockade and siege of several months, it surrendered at discretion to colonel Coote and admiral Stephens; but was restored to the French by the peace of 1763.

Sixty-three miles north of Pondicherry, lies Madras a Patan, or the fort and town of St. George, the capital of the English settlements on the coast of Coromandel, and no less healthful than pleasant in situation. The town is distinguished into the White and Black; the first of which, with the adjoining fort, are inhabited only by English, and are not above half a mile in circumference, surrounded by a stone wall. The outward or Black Town, which is now likewise surrounded by a wall, is in circumference about a mile and a half, inhabited by people of every Asiatic nation, some of whom are very rich. In general, however, it consists only of thatched cottages; but the White Town is pretty well built with brick, the houses flat-roofed, and the apartments lofty. In the latter is an elegant English church, with another for the Portuguese catholics; and in the former there is an Armenian Christian church, and several pagodas or Indian temples.

No. 5.

The English East India Company purchased this settlement, with a small territory adjacent, of the king of Golconda; but the Mogul afterwards making a conquest of the country, claims a right to this, as well as the other towns of that kingdom. His generals therefore sometimes visit the settlement, demanding a tribute from the governor, which he is obliged to comply with, for the sake of preserving the communication with the country; where the English purchase callicoes, chintzes, muslins, and sometimes diamonds.

The various commercial settlements of the English East India Company, as well as the ceded provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, from which an immense revenue may be produced, are under the direction of a governor-general and four counsellors, of the presidency of Fort William in Bengal, in whom the whole civil and military government is vested. Their commission continues five years from their arrival in India; but they may be removed at any time by the crown, on a charge of any misbehaviour presented by the directors of the Company. The salary of the governor-general is twenty-five thousand pounds a-year; and each of the council ten thousand pounds.

A supreme court of justice is also established at the same place, consisting of a chief justice, and three other judges; the first of whom has a salary of eight thousand pounds a year, and the others six thousand pounds each.

#### C H A P. II.

*Of the principal cities—houses—pagodas—caravanseras—reservoirs—mosques—and tombs.*

HAVING delivered an account of the European settlements in India, we shall next describe the four royal cities of Agra, Delhi, Lahor, and Cassimere, the capitals of the provinces of the same name, which lie near the middle of the northern division of the country.

The city of Agra, which was formerly the capital of the empire of the Great Mogul, is situate in 79 degrees of east longitude, and 26 degrees of north latitude, on the river Jemma or Jemina. It is about eight miles in length, but not proportionally broad, nor defended by any wall. The houses of the greater part of the inhabitants are generally mean, but those of the omrahs, with the numerous Mahometan mosques, caravanseras, bagnios, and stone reservoirs, make a grand appearance. The emperor's palace stands at some distance from the city. It is about four miles in circumference, surrounded by a wall, having a moat on one side, and on the other the river Jemma. This magnificent structure is built of red stone, resembling polished marble, and is divided into several squares. The palace is surrounded with beautiful gardens, and between it and the city lies a spacious plain, on which the rajahs, or Indian princes tributary to the Mogul, used to draw up their troops, when they mounted his guard, as they did every week, with fifteen or twenty thousand men, while he held his court at this place. From the city of Agra to that of Lahor, there runs a grand alley of trees, computed to be no less than five hundred miles in length.

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Delhi, at present the metropolis of the empire, is situate in nearly the same degree of longitude with Agra, and in 28 degrees of north latitude, lying on the side of the river Jemma, in the form of a crescent, and about ten miles in circumference. The chief public buildings are, a grand mosque or Mahometan temple, covered with extensive marble domes; a caravanera, built by a mogul princess, for the accommodation of travellers; and the tomb of the emperor Amayom. In a grand square, in the middle of the city, stands the palace of the Mogul, fortified in the manner of a castle, and consisting of several large courts, in one of which he gives audience to his subjects. In this court there are three divisions, the outermost allotted to the inferior people, who resort hither with their petitions; the second division, which has a raised floor, being appropriated to those of better quality; and the third, on a floor raised higher, to the omrahs and persons of the first rank. Above the level of the last of those divisions is erected the royal gallery, containing a magnificent throne, almost covered with diamonds, on which the emperor, amidst a symphony from a band of music, places himself on those occasions.

Lahor is situate in 75 degrees of east longitude, and 33 degrees of north latitude, on the river Rava or Ravionc, which afterwards unites its waters with the Indus. It is about three hundred miles north-west of Delhi, and eight hundred north of Surat. By Amayom, who built this city, it was made the capital of the empire, and is yet of considerable extent, evincing its former grandeur by the ruins of several magnificent palaces, mosques, and reservoirs.

Cassimere lies in 75 degrees of east longitude, and 35 degrees of north latitude, on the banks of a lake four hundred miles north-west of Delhi. The province, to which it gives name, is exceedingly fertile in corn and fruits, and on account of the mild temperature of air, is denominated the paradise of India. It has been usual for the Moguls to retire hither with their court, in the hot season.

Among the Pagans in India, the houses of the common people are extremely mean buildings, not exceeding an ordinary English cottage. Even those of their great men are entirely void of elegance. They are constructed almost universally on the same model; consisting of one floor, ranged about a square, into which the several rooms open. They are surrounded on each side by mean sheds, under which, on banks of earth two or three foot in height, the inhabitants sit upon mats or carpets great part of the day, where they either transact business, or receive visits. The interior apartments, being destitute of windows, have no light but what they receive from the door.

The principal edifices of those people are their pagodas or temples, caravaneras, and reservoirs. The former are built of stone, consisting of one long room, likewise without any window; over which is erected a pyramid or steeple of a great height. Within are many images, and a great number of lamps perpetually burning, which, added to the natural heat of the climate, makes those places extremely suffocating.

In the front of the temple is a shed, similar to those in the dwelling houses, where the people sacrifice, and perform their devotions: and here it is common to see monkeys running up and down, who are adored and fed by the superstitious inhabitants.

The *faras* or caravaneras are long buildings, enclosed on three sides, having the front open, and supported by pillars. They supply the place of inns, of which there is none in the country, and are resorted to by travellers, who dress their provision and sleep in them.

The greatest structures among the Indians are their tanks or reservoirs, in which they collect water during the rainy season, to serve them the other part of the year. Some of those basons are very grand and extensive, being almost half a mile in circumference, lined with hewn stone, and furnished all round with several rows of steps. Not a few of them have summer-houses, erected on a mount in the middle, for the purpose of bathing; a privilege, which though desirable in a hot climate, affords an instance of the little delicacy of those by whom the practice is permitted. The water thus preserved, however, by being exposed to the influence of the sun, is constantly tepid, and therefore much inferior, either for drinking or bathing, to well-water; on which account, where the latter can be obtained, it is always preferred by the inhabitants.

The houses of the Moors, or Mahometans of India, differ but little from those of the Pagan tribes, in respect of accommodation and form; only their materials are better, being either stone or brick, while the others, for the most part, use nothing but thatch and clay.

The grandest buildings of the Mahometans are their mosques and tombs, which are both erected of hewn stone. The mosque is in the form of an oblong square, supported on one side by pillars, the intervals of which supply the place of windows. Over the middle of the building there is usually a dome or cupola, and at each corner a minaret or slender tower. The tombs are generally placed in a green field, planted with trees and flowers, and furnished with artificial ducts or reservoirs of water. To have a magnificent tomb, is the great ambition of a Mahometan of figure, and he usually begins to erect it at an early age.

#### C H A P. III.

*Of the air—winds—seasons—soil—and produce.*

THE northern part of India, or that which lies between the latitude of thirty and forty degrees, is exceeding healthful and pleasant, but the southerly provinces are excessive hot in the fair season, especially during the months of April and May. At this time the rivers and waters are mostly dried up, and the wind blowing over a long track of burning sand, is said to resemble the mouth of an oven in heat, from eight o'clock in the morning to eleven.

In this country, the land and sea breezes succeed each other alternately every twelve hours; the former prevailing from about midnight till towards noon, when the latter begins and continues till late in the evening.

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evening. During the prevalence of the hot winds in the two months above mentioned, it is usual for the inhabitants to hang up wet cloths against the wind, and to sprinkle water on the floors, not omitting to refresh themselves by the same application to their heads.

In June the use of those means becomes unnecessary, the sun being then obscured by the clouds, and the rainy season commencing, which generally continues four months, or till the end of October; not beginning and ending exactly at the same periods every year, but seldom exceeding three weeks in the term of variation. At first the rains are moderate, and often intermit, but afterwards become more heavy and incessant; till at last they decline, by the same gradation in which they had advanced. The heaviest rains in India are in August and September, at which time they are accompanied every evening with terrible thunder, and the whole flat country is overflowed. When the fair season returns, lightning, without thunder, is very frequent; and on account of the serenity of the sky, so great is the lustre of the stars, during four or five months, that people easily see to travel by their light.

The northern provinces of India produce wheat, barley, pease, and beans; but in that part of the country, which lies within the tropic of Cancer, the only grain that is cultivated, is rice. This is sown in beds, as trees in a nursery, whence it is transplanted into strait trenches, when the blade has attained the height of about half a foot, which usually coincides with the period when the rains begin to fall. In November or December the season of harvest arrives, at which time, the sun having exhales all the water, the earth is hardened, and the rice, after being cut, is for the most part threshed out in the field. When this grain is in the state of vegetation, its appearance is nearly similar to that of oats. The straw, however, is not hollow, but stiff and hard, as may be seen by the whisks or brushes made of it, and imported into Europe. The rice is covered with a thick brown skin, which must be separated by beating in a mortar, and sifting, before it assumes the white colour. It might be imagined, that the tediousness of this process would much inhanse the price of the commodity; but so great is the quantity produced, that enough may be purchased for three-pence, to feed a family of nine or ten persons a whole day, though an Indian will eat three times as much rice as an European, at a meal.

The southern parts of the country produce all kinds of tropical fruits, such as mangoes, guavas, pomegranates, pine-apples, cocoa-nuts, oranges, &c. and in the north they have apples, pears, and most of the European fruits. Both fruit-trees and forest-trees in the south of India, are endowed with perpetual verdure; nor is it uncommon, to see those of the former species bearing blossom, at the same time with fruits in various stages of maturity.

The banian tree, which is peculiar to this country, grows to a great bulk, and in an extraordinary manner. From its horizontal branches, small twigs shoot down-

wards perpendicularly, and taking root, form pillars for the support of the parts whence they sprung; so that one tree will often be multiplied into twenty or thirty trunks, and cover a space of ground, sufficient to shelter a regiment. Under those trees the Banians and other superstitious people place their images; and the hermits voluntarily undergo perpetual penance, sitting or lying constantly in one posture, in the hope of thus qualifying themselves for admission into paradise. Their enthusiasm, in the mean time, is flattered and venerated by the people, who worship them as holy men, and who assist in the feeding and providing for them.

The kitchen gardens afford melons, pot-herbs and roots; pepper grows on the coast of Malabar; where, as well as in other parts, they have also ginger, saffron, turmeric, sugar, cotton, and indigo.

The beasts of burthen in India are oxen, camels, dromedaries, and elephants; but the latter are used only to carry the princes or great officers, and for the purpose of war. The oxen are less in size than those of England, but much more swift, travelling generally upwards of thirty miles a day upon a trot; and between their shoulders is a bunch, to which the pack-saddles are fastened. A camel will carry, for the most part, seven or eight hundred weight and more, and travel eight or nine days without water. For which reason, this animal is particularly well adapted to travelling over sandy deserts; but having a smooth foot, without any hoof, it cannot tread with security upon a clay soil, after any rain is fallen, and the journey is therefore interrupted till the ground becomes dry. The dromedaries are a smaller species of camels, and as remarkable for their swiftness, as the other for strength, trotting frequently two hundred miles a day. Buffaloes also are used in the draught, as well as for food. Those animals resemble the ox in shape, but are more ugly.

The Indian sheep have reddish hair instead of wool: they are likewise much thinner and longer legged than those of Europe, and their flesh is of an inferior quality, being dry and coarse. The black hogs, with low bellies, now so frequent in England, are reared in great numbers: the wild hog also affords excellent meat; and besides those, the natives shoot deer, antelopes, hares, and wild fowl. The wild beasts are chiefly leopards, tygers, and jackalls; for it appears to be uncertain, whether lions are indigenous to the country. Monkeys are very numerous, on account of the protection which they receive from the superstitious inhabitants; and many of them are kept round the temples or pagodas, as objects of popular adoration.

One of the greatest inconveniences attending this country, is its being infested with such swarms of noxious insects and reptiles. The gnat or musketo, which is constantly buzzing about the ears, is extremely troublesome, especially to strangers, whom it stings to a violent degree; but in those who have been accustomed to the climate, this effect is no longer produced. The inhabitants, however, are hardly one moment

moment exempted, night or day, from the uneasy sensation excited by those insects on the skin; to which may be added, that while in bed, the bugs likewise are exceedingly annoying. Another plague which greatly infests the Indians, is the house-scorpion. This animal is about the length of one's finger, of a greenish colour, and carries his sting unsheathed at the end of his tail. It commonly lurks in the corners of the room, near the ceiling, whence it drops down in the night on the beds or couches. The pain occasioned by its bite continues to be so exquisite for twelve hours, that during that period, the person who has received it is totally deprived of his senses. Snakes also will sometimes get into the houses, and lie concealed, where, as well as abroad, they exert their stings, no less to the great annoyance than danger of the inhabitants. The most terrible of this class is the *cobre capelle*, or hooded snake, so-named from a folding of the skin on the back of the head. Its bite is extremely dangerous and quick of operation. There are likewise some other species of serpents, that either do not bite, or at least whose bite is innocuous. One of those, which is of a green colour and small size, will frequently dart from one tree to another, and has thence obtained the name of the flying-serpent.

The millepedes, or centipedes, are very numerous in India, and their bite is as dangerous as the scorpion's sting. They are about two or three inches long, and nearly of the thickness of a common goose quill. The toads, spiders, and rats, as in all hot countries, are at least double the size of those in Europe, and likewise in great number; but one of the most destructive plagues of the country is locusts, which sometimes intercept the light of the sun, for the space of a mile or two in length, devouring not only the herbage but the corn, when it is at the point of being reaped.

The birds of India are chiefly parrots, parroquets, and the lorry, which is of the parrot species, but more beautiful in the plumage. The country produces the same kinds of poultry as Europe, with this difference only, that in many of them the bones are black. Among the fowls, there is a kite with a white head, to which the Banians pay divine honours.

Great variety of sea and river fish is to be met with in India; among the former of which are dolphins, albicores, bonetas, and the flying-fish. The shark is frequent in those seas, as is likewise the crocodile in the mouth of the Ganges.

It is not evident from the best authority, that this country abounds in minerals, or at least that any mines are opened; but it doubtless produces the most valuable diamonds in the world. These are found most frequently upon or near the surface, and chiefly among the rocks in the kingdom of Golconda; though there are likewise mines out of which they are dug, particularly at Raalconda or Gani. Of other jewels, the most common in India is that obtained from the pearl-oyster, for which they fish in the Straits of Ramankoiel, between the continent and the island of Ceylon.

## C H A P. IV.

*Of the persons of the Indians—their dress—genius—diet—diversions—roads—and method of travelling.*

THE Indians are generally of a middle size, and seldom corpulent. Their features are good, with black eyes, and long black hair. In the middle of the country their complexion is likewise of the same colour, but towards the north, and along the coast, they are tawny. The women, if we except their complexion, which may appear to an European incompatible with perfect beauty, are acknowledged to have extraordinary charms. Their stature, shape, and features, are not only highly engaging, but there is in their motion a natural grace and elegance, which captivates every beholder.

The habit of the Indian men is a white vest, girt about with a sash, which contains a cricé or dagger; but those who are poor go quite naked. Their hair is tied up in a roll, and covered with a turban. The women wear a little waistcoat, which conceals their breasts, and round their loins a large piece of muslin or callico, which passing over the shoulder, hangs down upon the back. The men sometimes make use of slippers, but the women seldom or never.

The Indians in general are reckoned an ingenious people, and have a peculiar dexterity in imitating the works either of nature or art. Their temper is courteous, affable, and composed, and it is extremely rare to see them transgress the bounds of sobriety. By some they have been branded with the reproach of effeminate cowardice, but this is by no means the general character of the nation; for there are numbers of men amongst them of the most determinate courage, and who only want the advantage of discipline, to equal the bravest troops of Europe.

The diet of the Indians is different, according to the religious tribes under which they are distinguished. Those of the Banian class eat no animal food, but subsist entirely upon rice, roots, and fruits. The others eat almost every thing, except beef and fish without scales; while the Moors and Mahometans abtain only from such fish as was prohibited to the Jews by the Mosaic law. They all sit cross-legged, or loll upon mats or carpets, at their meals, before and after which it is universally the custom to wash. The principal dish amongst the Moors and Pagans is pilau, made of fowls or mutton, and rice, which are boiled into a strong soup, that is highly seasoned. Soups of the same sort are also made of fish, venison, and almost all kinds of flesh, which are constantly stewed to rags. At meals, a large plate, or a leaf of a foot diameter, is set before each of the guests; on which, out of a capacious bowl, the servants distribute with a ladle, a quart or three pints of boiled rice, moistening it with a sufficient quantity of the strong soup, and laying on the side of the plate a little of the bouillie. Every person in the company is accommodated with a bottle or cruise of water, of which they drink when they please, without ever practising the ceremony

IV. *their dress—genius—method of travelling.*

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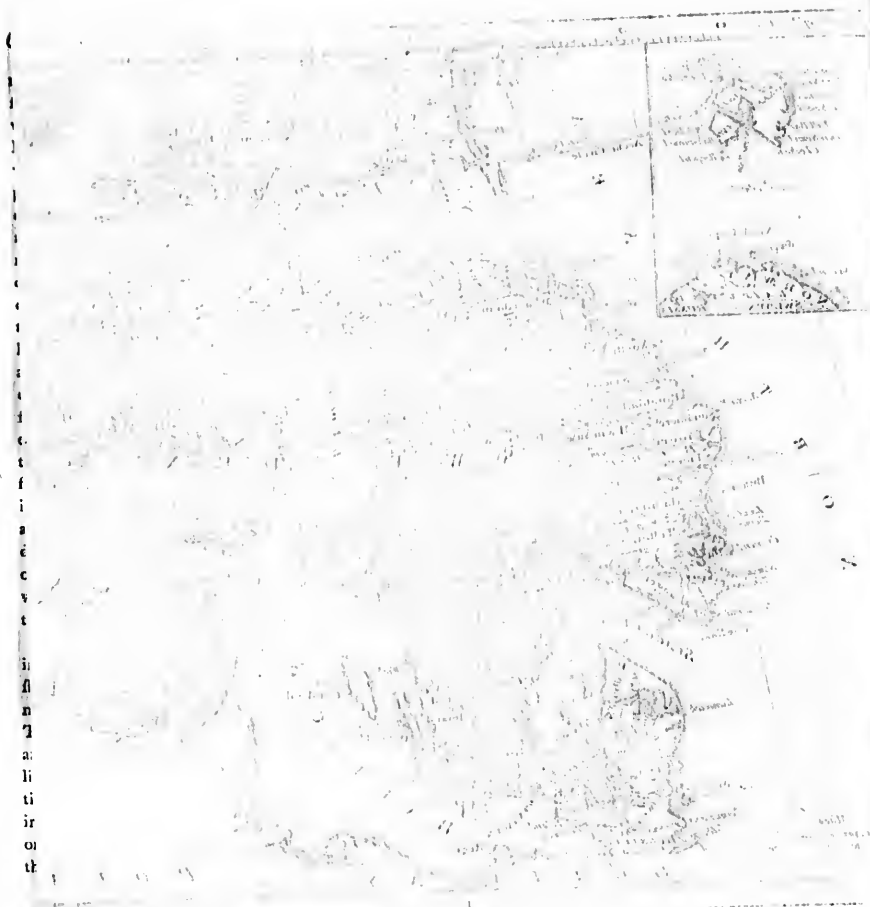


use a pipe of extraordinary length, the bowl of which is supported by a bottle of water, that is purposely placed on the floor.

The Indians are so far sociable, that they love to be in company but their motives to association seem to be little more than those of gregarious animals, for they are almost as silent as if nature had formed them without the organs of speech. Nor are they less averse to walking for amusement, than they are to the intercourse of ideas. The usual salute amongst them is the salam, or the lifting one or both hands to the head, according to the quality of the person to whom the compliment is paid. In this ceremony, however, to use the left hand alone would be reckoned extremely disrespectful. When a prince is addressed, the person who approaches him bows low, bringing his hands down to the ground, then upwards to his breast, and lastly to his head, which motions are repeated three times; but others, on the same occasion, fall prostrate on their face. The Moors, when they meet a friend

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The common vehicle for travelling is a palanquin, which is a couch covered with an arched canopy, and furnished with a mattra, quilts and cushions, to lie on. It is hung upon a bamboo or hollow cane, about five or six inches diameter, and ten foot long, which is bent in the middle while it is growing. This vehicle is so large, that a person may either sit in it upright, or loll upon the cushions, as he pleases. The smaller number of coolies or chairmen hired for a journey, is ten, four of whom alternately carry the vehicle, two before and two behind, bearing on their shoulders the ends of the bamboo cane, on which the couch hangs; while



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to which the Danians pay divine honours.

Great variety of sea and river fish is to be met with in India; among the former of which are dolphins, albicores, bonetas, and the flying-fish. The shark is frequent in those seas, as is likewise the crocodile in the mouth of the Ganges.

It is not evident from the best authority, that this country abounds in minerals, or at least that any mines are opened; but it doubtless produces the most valuable diamonds in the world. These are found most frequently upon or near the surface, and chiefly among the rocks in the kingdom of Golconda; though there are likewise mines out of which they are dug, particularly at Ramonda or Gani. Of other jewels, the most common in India is that obtained from the pearl-oyster, for which they fish in the Straits of Ramanakoicl, between the continent and the island of Ceylon.

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of addressing each other in healths. Their sauces consist chiefly of pickles, made of bamboos, garlic, and mangoes; besides which, the composition known in England by the name of *foy*, is likewise in general esteem. The grand meal in this country is in the evening, the middle of the day, as in other hot climates, being generally devoted to sleep.

The Indians are so temperate in the use of strong liquors, that an instance of intoxication is seldom observed amongst them; and when this happens, it is only in the lower class of the people. But such is the detestation in which this vice is generally held, that even to touch a person addicted to it, is considered as a species of defilement.

The liquors used in this country are drawn either from rice, the juice of the sugar-cane, the cocoa-nut, or palm-trees; the latter of which is regarded rather as a wine than a spirit. All other wines drank in India are imported from Europe, and sold for near a crown a bottle; except some brought from Persia, which is cheaper, but far inferior in quality. Fine ale is here almost of the same price with wine, on account of the frequent loss sustained by flying, in the passage from Europe: but old beer is afforded at eighteen pence a bottle; and instead of small beer, some of the European inhabitants brew a liquor of brown sugar-candy, which they work with toddy or palm wine.

Though the Indians are very sparing in the use of strong liquors, and for the most part abstain entirely from them, yet they frequently intoxicate themselves with opium, or an herb called *bang*, which produces nearly the same effect with the former. Besides these, they indulge themselves to excess in chewing a composition of a stupefactive quality, made of the betel-leaf, combined with the areck-nut and lime. They also smoke tobacco, but in a manner different from that which is practised in Europe. Of this they roll up a leaf about three or four inches long, when lighting it at one end, they apply the other to their mouth, and smoke till the half is consumed, after which they throw away the remainder. The Moors, however, use a pipe of extraordinary length, the bowl of which is supported by a bottle of water, that is purposely placed on the floor.

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No. 6.

*say, salam alacum*, God preserve you; the common answer to which is, *alacum salam*, or, I wish the same to you.

The Indians practise gaming for amusement as well as the Chinese, but they seldom indulge themselves so much in it as to injure their fortunes, or endanger their tranquillity of mind. At a feast, it is usual for the company to be entertained with vocal music and dancing, which are performed by the girls dedicated to the service of the temple, who are by no means of the order of vestal virgins. In the evenings, during the fair season, plays are acted by torch-light in the fields. But the most common diversion in every village is the dancing of the *cobre capelle*, or hooded snake; of which several are brought by their keepers, to where the inhabitants are assembled, in covered baskets. The owners of them then beginning to sing and play on rude instruments, uncovering at the same time the baskets, those creatures raise themselves erect, and as it were dance to the sound of the music; which, notwithstanding it hardly deserves that name, if discontinued, they get out upon the ground, and hiss in a terrible manner. As soon, however, as the music begins again, they are directed to their former station, where their motions are immediately renewed.

The rural sports most frequently practised are those of hunting and hawking. Their method is to surround part of the country, and drive the game into a narrow compass, where they afterwards shoot at it; using instead of a stalking-horse, an ox that has been accustomed to stand fire. It is said that they teach even tigers and leopards to take the game, which they do by jumping upon it from bushes, or other cover, but never run fairly after it. Racing, performed by oxen, is another diversion of the inhabitants; but that of the court is chiefly the fights of wild beasts.

The Indians have hitherto been extremely neglectful of their high roads, which are doubtless among the worst in the world. In the open country, on account of the sands with which it is covered, no distinct track can be traced; and though a way is sometimes opened through thick woods, yet hardly any thing is ever done either towards forming or repairing it. At the distance of every ten or twelve miles, however, there is a caravansera or choultry, for the accommodation of travellers, with a tank or reservoir of water near it, and fire for dressing their food. But so destitute are those places of convenience, that even beds are not furnished, and the traveller must provide himself with every necessary before he sets out on his journey.

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while others are employed in carrying large umbrellas, finely carved and gilt, to screen the sun from the traveller, morning and evening. For when the sun is many degrees above the horizon, he is sufficiently protected by the canopy. Another cooly is employed in brushing the flies off the person who sits in the vehicle, which he performs with an instrument resembling a horse's tail, fastened to a staff. A different cooly carries the traveller's pipe, while the charge of another attendant is the betel and arek, with the furniture belonging to it. During the journey, some of the retinue are dispatched to the neighbouring villages, to procure rice, fowls, and other provisions, with fuel, which they generally find in the way. The part of the cook is performed by one of the coolies; but if the traveller be a person of figure, he is attended by his own servants, and has likewise his music and singing girls to run before him. All the pedestrian attendants, coolies and others, travel quite naked, with only a hand's breadth of linen before them, and another small piece about their heads. In this manner they will run forty miles a day, travelling only early in the morning and late in the evening; for during the fair season, which is the proper time for a journey, they can see pretty well by star-light. There is then indeed some danger from wild beasts and robbers; but as a defence against those, it is usual for a traveller to hire ten additional coolies, who are furnished with arms. The daily expence of this whole retinue of twenty men does not exceed a crown; for they find their own provision, and would not on any account partake of the meat or drink of the traveller, the tasting of which they would consider as the forfeiture of paradise. About noon, the journey is interrupted some hours at the halting place, when the excessive heat of the sun and sands render it impossible to proceed. Merchandize is usually carried by camels or oxen, on which occasions seven or eight hundred people travel in a caravan, to avoid the danger of being attacked by the mountaineers or banditti. Some few persons ride on horseback, but more on bulls; and the princes and nobility use elephants.

There being no stated posts in this country, letters are conveyed by messengers sent on purpose, who are not only faithful, but extremely expeditious, and may be hired at a very easy rate.

#### C H A P. V.

*Of the government—court—revenue—forces—manufactures—trade—navigation.*

**I**NDIA is governed by a sovereign entitled, the Great Mogul, who has under him a number of viceroys or tributary princes, styled nabobs. Besides these, who are placed over the ancient provinces of the empire, there are others, named rajahs, who exercise the supreme authority in the conquered provinces; governing by their own laws and customs, civil and religious, only acknowledging the Mogul as their supreme lord, and paying him an annual tribute; with the additional mark of dependency, that they mount his guard by

turns, and bring their troops into the field when he requires it.

The Mogul's revenues arise from the tribute of the vassal princes, the duties of import and export, and a certain share of corn, which he reserves from the crops of the year. But the most plentiful source of his acquisitions is the estates of the court-eunuchs, and great officers, which he seizes at their death, if not sooner, which often happens on their being charged with mal-administration. His annual income by these means is computed at fifty millions sterling.

This prince has generally in his service three hundred thousand Moorish horse, besides the troops of the rajahs, which consist of infantry, and are very numerous. Of the latter, twenty thousand mount the Mogul's guard at a time, without the gates of the palace, while an equal number of Moors is stationed in one of the courts.

The Mogul, on his accession, always assumes some favourite epithet of distinction, as, *sovereign of the world, ornament of the throne, &c.* He never wears a crown, nor is formally invested with the supreme power, contenting himself with being only proclaimed and recognized by his subjects. The great officers of his court are generally eunuchs, by whom the affairs of state are transacted: but it is not uncommon for the ladies of the seraglio to influence administration, so far as frequently to overturn the most determined measures of government. According to the most authentic account, the number of these amounts to about a thousand; of whom never more than four have the precedency of wives, and bear the title of sultana. To this honour none but the Mogul's own subjects are admitted; for to marry the daughter even of a foreign prince, would be considered as degrading his dignity, though it be not reckoned in the least dishonourable to match with the meanest slave in his own dominions. The first son by any of his wives is deemed heir apparent to the crown, and constantly resides at court; but the younger sons are usually appointed governors of the distant provinces, bearing each the title of sultan, as every one of the daughters does that of sultana. The former are married about fourteen years of age, but the latter not permitted to enter the connubial state, from an opinion, that to marry a person of inferior rank would reflect dishonour on the royal family. This restriction, however, is compensated by the latitude allowed to their gallantries at court, in which they frequently indulge themselves, without any rigorous controul. It is said that the Mogul has his female guards and attendants within the palace, and seldom suffers the other sex to approach his person, though they occupy the outer courts and the avenues to the seraglio.

Though the crown be considered as hereditary, it is usual for all the princes of the blood to have recourse to arms at the death of the Mogul, when the superior force of one of the competitors determines the right of succession. The jealousy, however, which has been fomented by this contention for power, is so seldom extinguished by its attainment, that the barbarous policy is almost perpetually practised, of sacrificing to the security

security of the conqueror, every descendant of the royal family that might have the smallest pretensions to the throne.

The eunuchs, who are the great officers of the crown, are generally Persians or Tartars, and have therefore seldom any connexion in India. On which account, they are entirely dependent on the pleasure of the Mogul, who, without endangering his own security, can seize their effects, or even deprive them of life. For though these persons be almost adored while in office, their ministerial influence is no sooner at an end, than they find themselves abandoned by the creatures of their power, whose attachment had only been maintained from motives of private interest.

In the fair season, which lasts several months, it is usual for the Mogul to make a tour through great part of his dominions, attended by such a retinue of guards, mechanics, ladies of the court, with officers and servants, as sometimes comprises not less than a million of souls. This vast body of people is accommodated with a moving camp, in the middle of which is placed the Mogul's pavilion, surrounded by the tents of the court ladies. These are environed with a fence ten foot high, which folds up like a screen. Beyond this enclosure, is a second circle, containing the nobility and great officers of state, surrounded by other circles, in which the people are disposed according to their rank, in regular gradation; the outermost department being allotted to the meanest of the train. In each of these precincts is a market-place, well stored with provisions; to supply which, not less than twenty or thirty thousand carriers are constantly employed. The length of the march seldom exceeds ten miles a-day. A number of boats, laid on carriages, are drawn after the army, for the convenience of passing rivers. On those expeditions, the Mogul spends part of his time in hearing and redressing the grievances of his subjects, who live at a distance from the capital, and the remainder in the exercise of hawking, hunting, and other sports.

The arms used in India by the cavalry, are a broad sword and dagger, with a bow and arrows, and a lance; and by the infantry, the bow and arrows, with pikes, musquets, and shields. In the management of the musquets, however, they are far from being expert; and the train of artillery is chiefly conducted by European gunners. They fire some small pieces from the backs of elephants, which, before the introduction of fire-arms, were the strength of their army. Those animals were taught to throw bars of iron, and sweep down the enemy with heavy chains.

The manufactures of India are chiefly silk, muslins, cottons, chintzes and callicos; of which the latter are not only finely painted, but their colours are more lasting than any thing of that kind in Europe. The best chintzes and callicos are purchased at Massulapatam; the silks, in Bengal; and muslin, with callico likewise, is to be had in great quantity on the coast of Coromandel. Besides those manufactures, other articles of traffic are pepper, salt-petre, assafœtida, indigo, and a variety of drugs.

Except the cloth which the English East India Company are obliged by their charter to export, they seldom send hither any other goods but lead and flints; finding it more advantageous to purchase imports with silver than any other commodity. Several branches of manufacture, however, are carried to India by the people employed in the Company's trade, and sometimes turn out to good account. These are watches, clocks, arms, glass, haberdashery-ware, gold and silver lace, and toys.

From Surat especially, the Mogul's subjects carry on a prodigious trade to Persia and Arabia; furnishing those countries with all the rich merchandize of India, and bringing thence Persia carpets, pearls, coffee, and other commodities, but chiefly treasure. For the carriage of those imports, they usually hire English or Dutch vessels, as being best able to defend their cargoes against the attack of pirates, who frequently annoy the country ships; and from the freight of this trade, the Company draws considerable profit.

Besides their traffic by sea, the Indians have long had a great trade by land, with Persia, Russia, Tartary, and the dominions of the Turk; which is carried on by numerous caravans, at certain seasons of the year.

It is remarkable, that though the Mogul has a sea-coast of two thousand miles in extent, he has hardly a single sea-port, or a ship of war, to protect the trade of his subjects. For, except Goa, Bombay, and the mouth of the Ganges, which are all possessed by Europeans, there are no harbours fit for the reception of a vessel.

All embarkations on the coast of India are made by means of the country-boats, called messoulas, which are composed of a light spongy wood, the boards about half an inch thick, and fixed together with cocoa nut corlage, without the use of any nails. These boats are six foot deep, and will carry a great quantity of goods at a time. Though they strike frequently before they get to land, they are in no danger of over-setting or splitting; for being exceeding pliant, they yield to every bank that occurs, from which the next wave or surf of the sea sets them afloat, and heaves them to another, till at length they are washed to the shore. These boats are generally rowed by six or eight hands.

For the purpose of carrying very weighty materials on board a ship, they often make use of a cattamaran, which consists of three rough timber logs tied together, on which they sometimes fit up a sail, and at others paddle along with a flat stick, about the breadth of a man's hand. With this vehicle likewise they often go out three or four miles to sea a-fishing.

## C H A P. VI.

*Of marriages—funerals—religion—language—learning—arts and sciences.*

IT is not uncommon for the Gentoos or Pagans of India, to dispose of their children in marriage, even during their infancy, the consent of the parties to the contract being deemed a matter of no importance. The custom, however, is indispensable, that the male



and female thus betrothed shall be the offspring of persons who follow the same occupation. At whatever time the nuptial treaty is concluded, no cohabitation ensues till the woman is twelve years of age, and the man some years older. Premature as those nuptial contracts deserve to be reckoned, they are never entered into by the parents without consulting the astrologer; who not only determines, whether the proposed union shall prove fortunate or otherwise, but likewise what hour is the most propitious for the consummation of it. Every thing being settled, a grand procession is made through the streets for several nights successively, by the light of torches; while the bride and bridegroom are carried each on a palanquin on men's shoulders, with music playing before them. The parties are then set down at the house of the bride's father, where a table being placed between them, they join their hands cross it, and the priest covering both their heads with a cloth, repeats some prayers for their happiness. The company are afterwards sprinkled with perfumed water, and the ceremony concludes with an entertainment. The husband, or his father, if it be a rich family, makes valuable presents to the wife's relations, while all the fortune expected by her is her cloaths, and one or two female slaves. After the consummation of the marriage, however, she is entirely in the power of her husband, who enjoys the privilege of retaining as many wives and concubines as he pleases.

Ten days after a child is born, a name is given to it by the father's sister, or some near relation; in about two months from which time, it is carried to a temple, and formally admitted to the benefit of the religion which they profess. Neither boys nor girls wear any cloaths, until they are seven years old, but before that age their mothers are almost constantly washing them with cold water; and where there is not the conveniency of any river for bathing, it is customary both for young and old to have well-water poured upon their heads several times a-day. To this custom of bathing, so universally practised, and to the freedom of children from those ligatures, which in other countries lay the foundation of various diseases, it is probably owing, that hardly one crooked or ricketty person can be seen in any of the provinces of India.

The most common manner of treating the dead is that of burning the corpse, which is previously washed, and dressed in the best cloaths that had been worn by the deceased in his life-time. But those who have the good fortune to die within a little distance of the Ganges, are heaved into that river, which is worshipped as a God, and considered as the nearest road to paradise. There are likewise some other rivers the objects of adoration, and into which the dead are immersed.

The horrid practice of the wife's burning herself with her husband at his decease, if ever indeed it could prevail so much as some travellers have represented, seems now to be universally disused, no less than prohibited by the positive order of the Mogul.

The customary mourning in India is a tattered neglected dress, which, provided it answer this descrip-

tion, is not fixed to any particular colour. The women shave their heads on the death of a husband, but the men only on the demise of a father, or a sovereign prince. The place where a corpse has been burnt is often visited by the relations, who carry hither rice and other food, as a token of their regard for the deceased.

The greater part of the inhabitants of India are idolaters, who, though agreeing in the general outlines of their religion, are nevertheless distinguished into upwards of sixty tribes, so different in particular principles, as hardly to maintain with each other the ordinary intercourse of life. The chief of those tribes is that of the Bramins or Brachmans, who are the priests of every sect, and esteemed the most respectable of the pagan profession. This venerable order, which derives its origin from the remotest ages of antiquity, is subdivided into five distinct classes; the first of which comprises those Bramins that eat no flesh; the second, those who eat some kinds of flesh; the third, such as consider marriage not unbecoming their sacerdotal function; the fourth, those who vow celibacy; and the fifth, such as almost entirely forbear walking, lest in their motion they should by accident destroy some living creature. It is the custom of the latter of these tribes, to wear constantly a piece of silk or muslin before their mouths, that they may not with their breath draw in a fly. They abstain from burning wood, lest they should kill some insect, and always carry a brush in their hand, to sweep the place or earth which shall sit, with the view of avoiding to dislodge the weight of their body the soul of some animal.

The Bramins in general are esteemed not only the most noble, but the most learned of the Indian tribes. They have a language peculiar to themselves, in which the doctrines of their religion are written, and said to have been transmitted from the earliest times by Bramah, their lawgiver. They hold the existence of one God infinitely perfect, who has endured from all eternity; but that there are three inferior deities, namely, Bramah, whom he invested with the power of creation; Wisnow, the preserver; and Rooteren, the enemy and destroyer of mankind. They seem universally to believe in a pre-existent state, and the doctrine of transmigration; maintaining that some are rewarded, and others punished in this life, according to their respective merits or demerits in a former. Amidst all their superstition, they inculcate to their followers the most essential moral duties, with a zeal which might reflect honour on the professors of the purest religion; it being almost their constant employment to recommend the virtues of temperance, justice, and humanity. These important lessons, however, are sullied by other injunctions of a frivolous nature; such as, that their followers shall go in pilgrimage to certain places esteemed holy, especially to the pagodas near the mouth of the Ganges; that celebrate the river, the washing in which, according to the general opinion of the Indians, will cleanse from a multitude of sins.

The most honourable tribe or cast next to the Bramins, is that of the Rajasute or Rajboot, who make arms their profession. These, being less superstitious than

than the Bramins, scruple not to eat the flesh of most animals, except that of neat cattle, and some other beasts which they worship. The third tribe in honour consists of the Banians, who exceed all the others in their tender regard for the lives of animals; not only prohibiting the killing of them, but studying all means for their preservation. The chief object of their adoration is the ox, to which they never fail of paying their devotions every morning. According to vulgar tradition, this beast is to wade them over a wide river to paradise, whither without its assistance they never could expect to arrive. They imagine likewise, that in the animals of this class, it is the fate of the holiest souls to reside; and even that the terrestrial globe is supported by their horns; believing that when God was provoked to destroy mankind for their vices, he was prevailed on to spare them by a cow. If any creature is observed to frequent the dwelling of a Banian, he immediately concludes that it is animated by the soul of some departed friend, and therefore takes it under his protection. With so much solicitude do the people of this tribe study the happiness of animals, that they even build and endow hospitals for such as are hurt or superannuated. There lately was one of those receptacles within a mile of Surat, where sick and lame horses, dogs, cows, and goats, were nursed and provided for; and there is near the same place, another hospital, erected for bugs, fleas, and other insects. Besides these public endowments, the Banians carry into the fields basons of boiled rice, for the use of the flies and ants, as well as birds. Nor is their regard for animals confined to the care of providing them only with food; they carry their attachment to such a whimsical degree, as to adorn many of the species with pieces of finery; in which kind of bounty even some trees and vegetables, held in veneration, have likewise a share.

The people are taught by the Bramins, to begin and conclude the day with hymns, songs, and prayers. But the ninth and twenty-fourth of every month are particularly appropriated to acts of devotion, and the whole family obliged to fast, or use great abstinence. They are likewise enjoined by their religion, to wash their bodies on many occasions, especially after the touch of any thing which they consider as polluted; of which class, among others, are all those of a different religion. This superstition is frequently of great advantage to the Europeans, by securing their liquors and provision; for of those, they may depend upon it, that the natives, who are their servants, will never rob them. The inhabitants are also extremely superstitious in respect to the right and left hand, abhorring the custom of the Europeans, of frequently using the latter in lifting the food to their mouth. To salute any person with that obnoxious member, would be reckoned the highest affront, it being, in their opinion, fit only to be used in the meanest offices in life.

There is among the Pagans a great number of begging Friars, as well as Mahometans. Those persons, who are called Faquirs, make vows of poverty and celibacy, but their vows of poverty are so far from

No. 6.

depriving them of food, that their profession is the most effectual means of being well provided for; since at every village they come to, the people furnish them with necessaries. They go almost naked, letting their hair grow to a great length, and powdering it with ashes; performing likewise extraordinary penances, with the view of obtaining heaven for themselves and others.

Besides the sects already mentioned, there is another called Gaures, who fled hither from Persia, when the Mahometans made themselves masters of that country. This tribe is descended from the ancient Persians, who worshipped the sun and fire. They adore God the creator of the world, but have a tradition that Zertoof, or Zoroaster, their law-giver, some thousand years since, brought fire from heaven, and commanded his disciples to worship it. The extinguishing the holy fire, which is said to be continually kept burning from that period in their egarees or temples, is accounted a heinous sin; and they do not look with much less abhorrence on the putting out even any other fire. The coc is likewise adored by this people, with as much devotion as the cow by those of the Banian tribe. They set apart the first day of every month for public worship, and have prayers also at some other times.

About a mile from Surat, where a colony of the Gaures resides, they have a repository for their dead, in which the bodies are piled up on stages or raised floors, surrounded by a wall, but uncovered; it being their opinion, that they cannot do their deceased friends greater service than by leaving them to be devoured by birds of prey.

It seems highly probable that the Christian religion was planted very early in India. According to their tradition, St. Thomas the apostle preached here, and suffered martyrdom on a mountain, now called St. Thomas's Mount, near Meliapour, at which place resides the posterity of those Christians, whom the Portuguese found on their arrival. That Christianity was really planted in India before the Romish superstitions were known in the country, is confirmed by several observations. They have no images in their churches but the cross; the priests are permitted to marry once; they administer the sacrament in both kinds to the laity; they use no extreme unction; and lastly, they remained ignorant of the pope's jurisdiction, till of late, that the missionaries have prevailed on them to acknowledge his authority.

The Moors or Mahometans having now the government in their hands, the language used at the Mogul's court is chiefly the Persian; but that in which the Alcoran, and their religious books are written, is the Arabic. The Bramins or Brachmans, of which sect are the Pagan priests, have a language peculiar to themselves, in which likewise the various doctrines and legends of their order are composed. But the laity on the coast of Coromandel speak a tongue called the Gentoo, and those on the west coast another, distinguished by the appellation of the Malabar; while the Portuguese language is likewise spoken in all the maritime parts of India.

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The Moors write upon paper, but the Pagans with a steel bodkin upon a cocoa-nut leaf, two foot long, and about the breadth of three fingers. All their books are written, or rather engraved, they not having the art of printing; and they write from the left hand to the right.

To any degree of learning they can hardly pretend. They have however some traditions concerning Aristotle and Avicenna, and the Moors have some passages of the Old Testament in the Arabic language, from the inhabitants of which country they are descended.

The Pagans begin the year the first of March, and the Moors the tenth of the same month; the latter celebrating a grand festival during the interval between those periods. At this time, every governor and great officer makes a present to his prince, who then nominates to the several offices in the government for the ensuing year.

The science chiefly known to the inhabitants, is arithmetic, in which, by the help of their fingers only, they will cast up a sum sooner than an European shall with his pen. The Bramins calculate an eclipse with tolerable exactness, but in other parts of astronomy, are deficient; and being ignorant of the globular figure of the earth, they imagine, that when the sun sets, he hides himself behind some mountain. They know however the signs of the Zodiac, which they distinguish by the same names as in Europe. But their favourite science is astrology. None of their princes will undertake any thing of moment, without consulting those who are supposed to be conversant with this art.

Though the Indian physicians are generally considered as very ignorant, it is certain that in some cases they perform extraordinary cures, particularly in the venereal disease, and the bite of some species of serpents: whether this success be owing to their knowledge, and judicious application of simple, or, what seems more probable, to the abstinence generally practised in India, in every disease. The most remarkable occurrence respecting physical prescriptions in this country, is their method of inoculation, which deserves to be recited, on account of its extraordinary success.

Inoculation is performed in Hindostan by a particular tribe of Bramins, who are delegated annually for that service. The inhabitants of the different provinces, knowing the usual time of their arrival, observe strictly the regimen enjoined, whether they determine to be inoculated or not. This preparation consists only in abstaining for a month from fish, milk, and ghee, a kind of butter made generally of buffalo's milk. When the Bramins begin to inoculate, they pass from house to house, and operate at the door; refusing to perform on any person who has not strictly observed the preparatory course enjoined them. It is not unusual for them to ask the parents how many pustules they choose their children should have; and though vanity, more than well-founded confidence in their own skill, might seem to prompt such a question, we are assured by good authority, that they hardly ever exceed, or are deficient, in the number required. They inoculate indifferently on any part; but if left to their own choice,

they prefer the outside of the arm, mid-way between the wrist and the elbow for the males, and the same between the elbow and shoulder for those of the other sex. After the operation which, a few superstitious ceremonies excepted, is performed nearly in the usual manner, the diet that had been previously recommended, is ordered to be continued a month longer. It is likewise prescribed, that a quantity of cold water be thrown on the patient every morning and evening, till the fever supervenes; from which time this method of bathing is to be suspended, until the appearance of the eruption, when it is again to be practised in the same manner, through the subsequent course of the disease. The pustules are opened with a fine sharp-pointed thorn, as soon as they begin to change their colour, and whilst the matter continues in a fluid state. Confinement to the house is absolutely forbid, and the regimen is ordered to consist of all the cooling things which the climate and season produces. The disease being entirely subdued, an injunction is laid on the patient to make a thanksgiving to Poojah, or offering, to Gootee ka Tagooran, the goddess of spots.

Among the distempers to which Europeans are subject in India, one of the most dangerous is the *morue dachien*, a complaint occasioned by indigestion, and which seems to be nearly the same with the cholera morbus. For this, the Indian cure is a red-hot iron applied to the soles of the feet; and a similar application to the belly is likewise their remedy for a colic.

#### C H A P. VII.

##### *History of India.*

**T**HOUGH the name of India was not unknown to the ancients, they seem to have been but very little acquainted with the country; neither the expedition of Semiramis, nor that of Bacchus, whether fabulous or real, appearing ever to have cast any other than a glimmering and uncertain light on the subject. Even the better authenticated irruption of Alexander was performed with far too much celerity, to obtain an adequate idea either of this part of the Asiatic continent, or its inhabitants. The first invader whose conquest drew after it any permanent effects, was Tamerlane, from whom may be dated not only the commencement of the more important historical transactions, but likewise of the grandeur of India. At the invasion of this prince, the country appears to have been divided amongst a great number of petty sovereigns, independent of each other, whom he reduced by the force of his arms. He was succeeded by his third son, Miracha, in the northern provinces of India and Persia, as well as in the title of Great Mogul, which his posterity, the emperors of India, enjoy at this day. Miracha fixed the seat of his government at Herat in Persia, but made annually a tour through his Indian dominions, in the fair season, attended by the court and army, when he collected the stipulated tribute from the vassal princes. The usual contingent being refused by one of those rajahs, the Mogul was under the necessity of having recourse to arms, to compel the payment of it, in which war he had the misfortune to be made prisoner,

soner, but obtained his liberty on condition of relinquishing for the future every similar demand on the prince and his successors. Determined, however, not to abide by an engagement which necessity alone had extorted, he no sooner arrived at his capital, than he levied a powerful army, with which he immediately marched again into the territories of the rajah. This expedition proving more successful than the former, the prince was made prisoner in his turn; and such was the repentment of the conqueror, that he filled his victory by commanding the eyes of the unfortunate captive to be put out. Tradition however relates, but with what truth is doubtful, that Miracha fell a sacrifice to the rajah's dexterity as an archer, even after this event.

In the reign of Babar, the great grandson of Miracha, a war broke out between him and another prince of the posterity of Tamerlane, when the former, losing the city of Samarcand, with his Persian provinces, made Delhi the capital of his dominions. Invading afterwards the Indian princes on the south-east, he conquered the kingdom of Patan or Patna, which lies upon the Ganges, and is contiguous to Bengal. Having reigned thirty years in India, he was succeeded by his son Amayum, whom unmerited confidence in a youth who had acquired his friendship, betrayed into an act of imprudence which terminated in the loss of his crown. To the rank of commander of his army, and prime-minister, he had raised a young Patan lord, named Chira, who taking every opportunity of ingratiating himself with the Tartars and Indians in the Mogul's army, and being extremely concerned to find his native country treated as a conquered province, entered into a conspiracy against Amayum. The latter receiving intelligence of his design, assembled a body of forces, and gave him battle; but being defeated in the engagement, he fled into Persia for protection, while his ungrateful rival was immediately after proclaimed sovereign of Hindostan. The royal fugitive was received at the court of Persia with all the marks of cordial attachment, and with promises of assistance towards restoring him to his throne. When he had waited nine years, however, in fruitless expectation of this event, advice arrived from Delhi, that Chira was accidentally killed by the bursting of a cannon, which he went to see fired; and that the Moguls and Patans could not agree in the choice of a successor to the empire. It was farther represented to him, that he had now a fair chance of recovering the throne of his ancestors, by returning immediately to Delhi. Losing therefore no time in communicating the information to the Sophy of Persia, that prince afforded him a body of troops; marching with which to India, and being joined by such of his subjects as continued in his interest, he again took possession of the crown. To this prince it is, that the Indians ascribe the building of caravanteras, or houses for the entertainment of travellers, and the regulating weights and measures. After his restoration he built a most magnificent tomb for himself, which is to this day esteemed one of the greatest curiosities in that country; but he enjoyed not the pleasure of seeing the structure completed. For

while he was walking over the scaffolding, intent on giving directions to the workmen, by the slipping of a plank he fell from a great height to the ground, and received so violent a contusion that he almost instantly expired.

Amayum was succeeded on the throne by his son Akebar, a young prince of a martial and enterprising disposition. The Moguls having hitherto had no communication with the sea-coast of India, whence a very great trade was carried on with the Europeans, particularly from the kingdom of Guzurat and Cambaya, he determined to attempt the reduction of those important territories. Sultan Badar, or Bahadar, a Mahometan prince, of Arabian descent, was at that time sovereign of the country, and engaged in a war with the Portuguese, who had lately taken from him the town of Diu, situate near the entrance of the gulph of Cambaya, almost opposite to Surat. On receiving intelligence that the Mogul was advancing with his army, the contending parties, despairing of being able to oppose him singly, thought it prudent to make a peace, and unite their forces against him. The utmost exertion of their strength, however, though sustained by European artillery, proved insufficient for the purpose. The irresistible army of Akebar bore down all before them. The sultan fled precipitately, but his children were made prisoners, and put to death by the invader, who took possession of the whole kingdom of Guzurat, except Diu, and such other towns as had been previously fortified by the Portuguese.

Animated by this success, Akebar invaded Decan, which lies south of Guzurat. Here he was met by the united forces of Mustapha, king of the country, of the queen of Amadanagar or Cande, and of Ambar prince of Doltabad. The army of the allies, however, was totally routed, and their capitals surrendered to the conqueror. Mustapha was permitted to bear the title of an Indian rajah in Akebar's court; the queen of Cande, notwithstanding her avowed aversion to the Mogul, had the distinction of being numbered among his wives, and of retaining the title of queen; but the prince of Doltabad was killed in an engagement during the war, and his territories seized by the enemy.

Not content with those acquisitions, Akebar next turned his arms eastward against the country of Chitor, then subject to Rama, who possessed the dignity of rajah. This prince, having entered into a confederacy with several of the neighbouring powers, ventured to oppose the Mogul; but being soon obliged to quit the field, he retired into his capital city of Chitor, seated on a high mountain, and naturally one of the strongest fortresses in India. But notwithstanding the advantage of its situation, and its being likewise well supplied with provisions, it was taken after a siege of two years; and with it the rest of the country submitted to the arms of the Mogul. Some historians represent this enterprise as the consequence of a passion which Akebar entertained for the rajah's wife, a woman of extraordinary beauty, but whom he had never seen. With greater probability however, it deserves to be imputed to the insatiable thirst of conquest, which hitherto

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marked the character of this ambitious and warlike prince.

Akebar seems henceforth to have devoted himself to the arts of peace, in building of fine towns, and promoting the traffic of his subjects. He it likewise was, who planted the celebrated avenue of trees, extending from Agra to Lahor, near five hundred miles; under the shade of which a traveller might be screened from the sun in the hottest day. His attention to these works, however, was at intervals suspended by some insurrections, which he in the end suppressed.

The Popish missionaries in India had conceived great hopes of converting this Mogul to Christianity; but though his apparent moderation in respect of religious matters, might render their conjecture not improbable, the event which they expected never happened. He is said, however, to have introduced a new religion, in

which he retained the baptism of the Christians, the circumcision of the Mahometans, and the idolatry of the Pagans; but this fantastic mixture of different rites appears to have proved of short duration.

From the time of Akebar, who died in 1605, the throne of Delhi has been successively occupied by a race of princes, almost uniformly distinguished by voluptuousness, and acts of rebellion against their fathers. Aurengzeb, however, though not free from the latter of those charges, was entirely exempted from the former. His moderation and temperance were such as are seldom practised in the luxurious courts of the eastern monarchs; and had his character not been sullied with the imputation of hypocrisy, he might be considered as a pattern of virtue, highly worthy the imitation of the future sovereigns of his country.

## P E R S I A.

### C H A P. I.

*Of the situation—boundaries—face of the country—seas—rivers—air—winds and seasons—provinces—cities—public and private buildings.*

**M**ODERN Persia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat or Dagistan, which divide it from Circassian Tartary on the north-west; by the Caspian Sea on the north; by the river Oxus on the north-east; by India on the east; by the Indian Ocean, with the gulphs of Bassora and Ormus, on the south; and by Arabia and Turkey on the west. It is situate between 45 and 67 degrees of east longitude, and between 25 and 45 degrees of north latitude; extending in length from north to south, about twelve hundred miles, and nearly the same number in breadth. It comprehends the ancient provinces of Persia Proper, Parthia, Media, Hyrcania, Bactria, Drangiana, Arachosia, Gedrosia, Susiana, Caramania, and part of Assyria.

Of all the countries in Asia, this may justly be reckoned the most mountainous; containing, 1. Mount Ararat, on which the ark is said to have rested, and which extends from the Euxine to the Caspian Sea. 2. Mount Taurus, with its several branches, running through the middle of Persia, and obtaining different names, according to the provinces on which they border. 3. The mountains which divide Media from Hyrcania. 4. Those between Hyrcania and Parthia. 5. The mountains which divide Fars, or Persia Proper, from Hyrcania, the chief of which is Mount Jarron. Except the hills of Curdestan and Hyrcania, which are covered with trees and herbage, the most of those mountains are barren rocks. Between them lie many extensive sandy plains, or deserts, where no water is to be found, especially on the frontiers of Turkey and India; interspersed, however, with some fruitful valleys, in which the principal cities stand. Hyrcania not only produces corn in great abundance, but is well planted with mulberry-trees, the foundation of their silk manufactures,

The seas of Persia are the Indian Ocean, with the gulphs of Bassora and Ormus on the south; and on the north the Caspian Sea, which is more properly a lake, having no communication with any sea, but entirely surrounded by land. According to some geographers, the Caspian is four hundred miles in length from north to south, and two hundred in breadth; but in respect to its extent, there are different accounts. It is, however, acknowledged to be the largest lake with which we are acquainted in Asia, and receives the waters of many rivers. In this sea there are no tides; but hard gales of wind either from the north or south, raise its surface three or four foot, and sometimes more: after which the water returns to its ordinary depth, with a prodigious current, and confused agitation of the waves. Those changes are for the most part irregular in their duration and return; but once in fifteen or sixteen years it usually overflows, and deluges the surrounding flat country.

The seas of Bassora and Ormus, formerly called the gulph of Persia, lie on the south-west part of the kingdom; and through them is carried on a vast trade by the Armenians, Banians, and other nations, Bassora and Gombron being the chief ports. During the time that the Portuguese were the only Europeans who navigated the India Seas, the little island of Ormus was one of the greatest marts for trade in the east.

The united rivers of Tigris and Euphrates, which rise in the mountains of Armenia, run towards the south-east, near the confines of Persia and Turkey, and are discharged into the gulph of Bassora. The river Oxus divides Persia from Usbec Tartary on the north-east; the river Kur, the ancient Cyrus, rises in the Dagistan mountains, and running south-east, joins the river Arras, formerly Araxes, their united stream falling afterwards into the west side of the Caspian Sea. Those being the chief, and almost only navigable rivers in Persia, the inhabitants of the country collect several small rivulets, and convey them by arched aqueducts to their fields and gardens, sometimes at the distance

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of thirty or forty miles. This being done at the public expence, every one pays a tax to the government, in proportion to the quantity of water received on his ground. The numerous mountains and deep valleys in this country, render the air, which would otherwise be uniformly hot, of various degrees of temperature in the different parts of the kingdom. In the inland provinces, during the winter, they have severe frosts, accompanied with snow, on the mountains; but in the valleys, the season is much milder, and there is very little snow. A high wind generally prevails from March to May; after which, till September, the sky is perfectly serene, and the days very warm; but in the evening and morning are refreshing breezes, which render those hours the most convenient both for pleasure and business. Not the least dew or moisture falls during the summer months in this part of the kingdom, and in winter it seldom rains; but the principal advantage of the interior provinces is, that they are extremely healthful.

The air in the south of Persia is far less salubrious, as the European factors at Gombroon have too often experienced, especially about either equinox. In those parts, the months of June, July and August, are the most healthful, but so excessive hot, that the inhabitants then retire to the mountains, which are at all times cool enough, even in the hottest countries.

In the deserts on the south of Persia, where the winds blow over a long tract of burning sand, from the east, they are exceeding hot in May and June, and sometimes fatal to travellers. There is seldom here any rain to cool the air in those months; and the rain-water which they collect in winter, becomes then extremely unwholesome. It is observed, that the south of Persia, which lies near the tropic of Cancer, is hotter than any country situate even under the equator, on account of the sun's continuing vertical a longer time.

Modern Persia may be divided into sixteen provinces, the boundaries of which, however, are not exactly the same with those that constituted the several divisions of the ancient kingdom; some having received an addition of territory, while others, on the contrary, have been diminished. The sixteen provinces are, Eterabat, Chorassan, Sablufan, Sigistan, Makeran, Kerman, Farrisfan, Chufistan, Curdestan, Erae, Aderbeitzan, Chirvan, Dagliffan, Gilan, Mazanderan, and Georgia, in the latter of which Mingrelia is included.

The chief towns of the province of Eterabat are, Eterabat, and Thufmechid; the capital of Chorassan is Herat; and the chief towns of Sablufan are, Gazna, Bult, and Candahor. Those three provinces lie in the north-east of Persia, and contain part of the ancient Hyrcania, Bactria, and Margiana.

The chief towns of Sigistan are, Sigistan, Maslich, and Robin; and those of Makeran, a cognominal town, Passir, and Tiz. Those provinces are situate in the south-east part of Persia, and comprehend the ancient Arachofia, and Gedrosia, or the greater part of them.

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Of Kerman the chief towns are, Kerman, Banderabaffi or Gombroon, Salam, Durabeyerd, Tuberan, and Jasques. Durabeyerd was the ancient Pasagardæ, the royal residence, and the favourite place of Cyrus; where he conquered Astyages, the Mede, and chose to be buried. His monument was a small tower shaded with trees, in a garden or enclosure, of which no vestiges now remain.

Of Farnifan or Fars, the principal towns are, Schiras, ruins of Persepolis, Lar, and Bander Congo. The two last mentioned provinces are situate in the south of the modern Persia, and comprehend the greater part of the ancient.

The city of Persepolis stood near the Araxes, and according to Diodorus, was built out of the spoils of the Egyptian Thebes. Here are the most magnificent remains of a palace or temple, that are any where to be seen. They lie on the north-east end of the spacious plain where Persepolis stood, and are conjectured to be part of the palace of the same Darius who was conquered by Alexander, and which the latter, in a drunken fit, caused to be burnt to the ground, at the instigation of the courtesan Thais.

The building was five hundred paces in length, and the whole contained sixty acres of ground. It stood upon a hill, and was ascended by ninety-five steps, thirty foot in length, twenty inches broad, and three inches deep. The ground stair-case which remains, divides as we ascend it, one part to the right, and the other to the left; after which they meet again in a square landing-place. Here we enter a portico of fine marble, twenty foot wide, on which are carved, in bas-relief, two animals of the size of elephants, but shaped like horses, with the feet and tails of a bull. There is the representation of other beasts with wings, and their heads like those of men. From this hall, we ascend another double stair-case, leading to the upper apartments, on the walls of which is carved, likewise in bas-relief, a grand procession, with standards and various offerings, succeeded by a chariot drawn by horses, and bearing a little altar, from which the fire seems to ascend. On the other side of the same apartment, are represented wild beasts, amongst which the principal figures are a lion and a bull, still entire. On the top of the second stair-case also is a large square, which, as appears by the pedestals that remain, was surrounded by a hundred columns, of which seven are yet extant. They consist of red and white marble, fluted; some sixty, others seventy foot high, and twelve of them six yards in circumference. Those, it is conjectured, sustained the temple of the sun. On the same floor, is a room fifty foot square, in which are figures of yet finer marble, cut in bas-relief and half-relief. They represent men fighting with lions, and a man holding a unicorn by the horn; some figures of giants, and a king giving audience to ambassadors, with inscriptions not defaced. The characters, however, are unknown to the natives of the country, and are equally unintelligible to the learned in Europe, for whom they have been transcribed. On the whole, the remains seem to exhibit evident proofs of its original magni-

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science, notwithstanding Tavernier seems to entertain but a mean opinion of its ancient grandeur. The place is now called, Chihilinar, or the Forty Pillars.

Of the two provinces in the south-west of Persia, which comprehend part of the ancient Assyria, the chief towns are, Arnova, Cournebad, Wasset, Banderick, Elenais, whence the ancient Persians were called Elamites, and Schouster, the ancient Shushan, the scene of queen Esther's history.

Erac, or Irac Agem, which is the largest province in the kingdom, is situate near the center of it, and is the ancient Parthia. Its chief cities are, Ispahan or Spahawn, the metropolis of the nation, with Casbin or Caswin Com, Hamadan, Cashan, and Yefid. On a mountain near the last of those towns, it is said that some of the priests of the ancient Persians reside, who are employed in preserving the celestial fire, which, according to tradition, has burnt incessantly upwards of two thousand years.

The principal towns of Aderbeizan are, Ardevil or Ardebil, Sultania, with Tauris or Tabris, the ancient Ecbatana and capital of Media. This city, which stood on a gentle declivity, distant twelve stadia from Mount Oronates, was built, according to Herodotus, by Deioeces, king of the Medes. It was encompassed with seven walls, each of a different colour, and the utmost of which measured an hundred and fifty stadia.

The towns of greatest note in the province of Shirvan are, Derbent, Baku, and Shamakie. These two provinces are situate west of the Caspian Sea, and comprehend the ancient Media and Albania.

The chief town of Dagistan is Tzantzeni; and Georgia, including Mingrelia, has for its principal towns, Teflis, Julpha Janca, and Naxivan, where it is said that Noah's ark rested. The countries of Dagistan, Georgia, and Mingrelia, are situate in the north-west part of the modern Persia, and comprehend part of the ancient Colchis, Iberia, and Armenia. Either in Georgia, or Mingrelia, was the ancient Colchis, celebrated for the voyage made hither by the Argonauts, in search of the golden fleece.

The chief towns of Gilan are, Gilan, Rext or Refcod, and Farrabat; and those of Mazanderan are, Hazaroff, and Danmogan. These two provinces contain great part of the ancient Hyrcania.

Several of the places which have been mentioned are considerable cities; but Ispahan, as the capital of the kingdom, deserves a more particular description.

This metropolis is situate in 32 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, and in 50 degrees of east longitude, in a fine plain, surrounded by mountains three leagues distant on every side. It is of an oval form, about twelve miles in circumference, but destitute of walls. The streets are narrow, unpaved, and some of them arched over, with openings to admit the light. They are generally dirty or dusty; for though there be here no wheel carriages, yet as all people of fashion ride through them with numerous equipages, and as camels and other beasts of burden, with goods or provisions, are constantly either going or returning from the market-place, the passages never fail of being much

obstructed by the crowd. The squares, however, are very spacious, and the buildings grand, especially the Royal Meydan, into which two of the palace gates open. This square is about one third of a mile in length, and half as much in breadth, with piazzas in two sides of it, in which the tradesmen have their shops. Those places are far from being commodious; for the passage within the piazzas has no other light than what is received by narrow openings, left at a distance from each other, and the people ride under the covering. In the middle of the square is a market for cattle, and all forts of provision. The tradesmen's houses stand in a different part of the town, at a distance from their shops.

The palace is situate almost in the middle of the city, and is about three miles in circumference, having in the front a fine walk of trees, and a reservoir of water. Two of the gates open wide into the market-place; upon entering the principal of which, there is on the one hand a court, where the prime vizir and assistant judges hear causes; and on the other a similar building, where criminals are allowed to take sanctuary. Passing thence through a grand avenue, we arrive at a great hall, where the king gives audience. This apartment is divided into three floors, one a step higher than the other, on which the great officers of the court are admitted according to their quality. Beyond those stages, is a kind of long gallery, richly adorned and open in the front, where the king sits cross-legged on a carpet, with cushions at his back and under him, and a canopy over his head. Of the inner parts of the palace, and the haram or women's apartments, we have little account. It is only said in general, that the king's women live in separate houses, surrounded with gardens, in which are pleasant groves, canals, and fountains; and that he frequently hunts with the ladies in a park enclosed by high walls, where no men ever approach.

The other public buildings in the city are their mosques, bagnios, caravanseras, and reservoirs. Their mosques are usually covered with domes or cupolas, and have a kind of minarets or slender steeples, which the priests ascend every day, to call the people to prayers. Of those there are about a hundred and fifty in the city. The courts of the grand or royal mosques are entered by gates covered with silver plates; and on each side of the court are cloysters, in which the priests have their apartments. The entrance to the mosque is by three grand doors, which lead into the isles, adorned with gold and azure. The cupola in the middle is supported by four great square pillars, and the floor of the mosque is covered with carpets. Two large windows on the top give light to the whole building; the roof is covered with shining tiles of different colours, after the manner of Persia, and the walls adorned in the same taste. No images or pictures are ever suffered in these temples; neither are there any seats or pews in them, but a pulpit, from which the mollahs or priests sometimes harangue the people. At entering the mosque, all persons, of whatever rank, put off their shoes and slippers.

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The bagnios are likewise grand buildings, of a circular form, with domes; the walls of white stone, and the roof covered with painted tiles. In the middle of the inside is a great hall, floored with marble, and a basin to bathe in; the cells or chambers in which to dress, being ranged all round.

A caravanera is built in the form of a square, surrounded with cloysters or piazzas, and accommodated with apartments for lodging, as well as with conveniences for cattle on the outside. It is computed, that of this kind of houses there are in Ispahan about fifteen hundred.

The houses of the Persian quality are for the most part situate in the middle of a garden, with high walls before them, and at some distance from the gate, which, to prevent the curiosity of spectators, is usually guarded by a screen on the inside. In the front of the building is a piazza or cloyster, with a spacious hall behind; on the other side of which is another open piazza, or virando, as it is called, with a fountain playing before it; whence there runs a walk of trees, usually the length of the garden. At each corner of the hall is an apartment, which serves either as a parlour or lodging room. For as they lie on mattresses instead of beds, those are removed every morning, and therefore no room has the appearance of being used as a bed-chamber. On the sides of the hall are several doors leading to the virandos or piazzas, which are all opened in hot weather. By this means, the place is rendered cool, and there is likewise frequently a fountain playing in the middle of the hall. The rest of the apartments are not contiguous to this building, or to each other, but are a kind of summer-houses dispersed about the gardens, where the women usually reside. They have generally but one floor, and flat terraced roofs, where the inhabitants take the air morning and evening; and sometimes, carrying up their mattresses, they even sleep on the top of the house. The kitchens and offices stand apart, and have no communication with the other building. During cold weather, in the northern provinces, there are stoves under the rooms, but no chimney or open fires in the apartments. The furniture consists of carpets and cushions, and the sides of the rooms are commonly lined with a manufacture resembling Dutch tiles, four foot high, while the upper part of the wall is painted or hung with pictures.

#### C H A P. II.

*Of the produce of the country—manufactures—traffic.*

PERSIA is represented by ancient writers, as one of the most fruitful countries in the world, and that such it formerly was, is evident from the numerous armies which it often sent into the field. But though some of the valleys are yet so rich as to produce two, or even three crops, in the year, it is certain that the kingdom is prodigiously declined in fertility, as well as in the number of inhabitants. For this remark, which is indisputable, several reasons may be assigned. The ancient Persians, the worshippers of fire, were expressly enjoined by their religion to cultivate the

ground. The planting of trees, and building of aqueducts to water their fields, were considered by them as actions of the most meritorious kind; while on the contrary, the Mahometans, the present inhabitants, are averse to every species of industry. Another cause of the general neglect of agriculture, is that the proprietors of lands are frequently deprived of their possessions by government, an inheritance seldom descending to the third generation; for which reason they are discouraged from the improvements in which they might otherwise be engaged. It may be affirmed with truth, that hardly a twentieth part of the country is at present cultivated. Neither is there near so much care taken as formerly, to convey water to the fields, without which the dry soil of this country can never be rendered fit for vegetation. Hundreds of aqueducts may be seen in ruins in the different provinces of the kingdom; a proof that the impoverished state of the country is owing more to the inattention of the inhabitants than the natural defects of the soil. The present Persians, however, do not entirely neglect the cultivation of their lands. Their method is, near towns, to manure them with dung; and in places remote from this convenience, to bank them round, and afterwards cover them with water. This is suffered to remain on the fields all night, and greatly fertilizes the ground. The soil is generally so light, that two or three oxen are sufficient to draw a plough; but in the provinces on the coast of the Caspian, where the land is a stiff clay, nine or ten oxen are requisite. The grain chiefly cultivated is wheat and rice, with some rye and a good deal of barley; for having no oats, barley-paste, made into balls, is the food for camels and horses.

The kitchen-gardens abound with melons, of which, it is computed, they have twenty sorts; and cucumbers are likewise much cultivated; for the common people live much on those fruits during the season, which lasts four months in the year, and that without any inconvenience.

The grapes are generally very small, called kishmish, of which they make wine at Ispahan; but the best wines are made at Shiras, where the fruit is very large. Sometimes the grapes are wrapped up in papers, and hang upon the vine almost all winter. For though the Mahometans are prohibited the juice of them converted into wine, they make no scruple of eating the fruit.

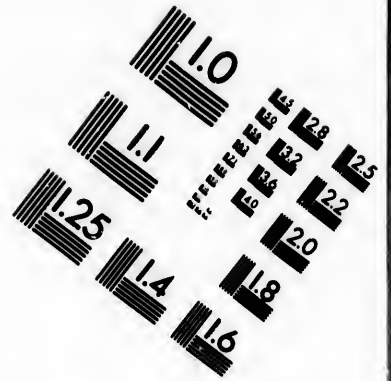
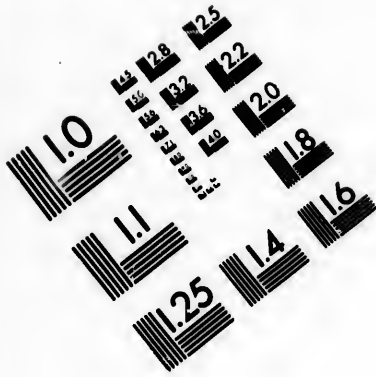
The dates in Persia are reckoned remarkably fine; their pulp is exceeding sweet, and being laid in heaps, they melt and candy themselves without sugar. The tree that bears them is a species of the palm, tall and slender, having no branches but at the top, where the fruit grows in clusters of forty pounds weight. Pistachio nuts are in great plenty, and, it is said, peculiar to the climate. They have also oranges and lemons, almonds, olives, sugar and tobacco plantations; and in the northern parts, apples, pears, quinces, nuts, and most of the fruits of our own climate. The nectarines and peaches are so large, that they weigh fifteen or sixteen ounces. All their fruits have a more delicious flavour than those which are produced in more northerly countries; but for every advantage

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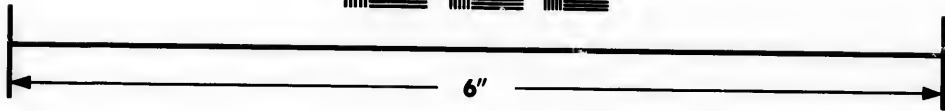
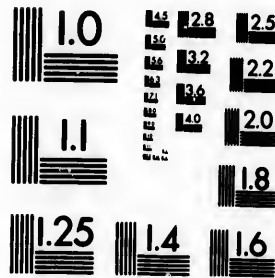
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of this kind, the inhabitants are more indebted to the bounty of nature than to their own skill in gardening, which appears to be extremely deficient. The fenna tree is very much valued, which runs up to a great height, perfectly strait; it bears no branches but at the top, and forms very beautiful walks and avenues. The plane-tree, the fir, the cornel, and the willow, are met with in almost every part of the country. The plane-tree is supposed to prevent contagious disorders; and it is observed that Ispahan has never suffered from the plague, since this plant has been cultivated in its neighbourhood; a remark which coincides with observations lately made in Europe, respecting the usefulness of plants in general, in absorbing putrid particles from the air. Aromatic gums, especially frankincense, distil from several of their trees, and those of another species yield manna. Cotton-trees are common, as is likewise another plant, which affords a kind of silk-down, used in quilting. All those trees, however, are only to be found within a few leagues of the towns and villages, the other parts of the country being a barren desert without any vegetable production. The reason probably is, that the most fruitful spots of the country have been made choice of for the situation of their towns; for it cannot be supposed that the rest of the kingdom was equally barren in ancient times, when such multitudes of people subsisted in it. Though other plants will not grow in their deserts, there are some poisonous shrubs in Caramania, which contaminate the air when in blossom, and prove fatal to travellers. It is conjectured that those flowers render the samiel or hot wind so dangerous in Persia, which is never accompanied in India with any such pernicious effects.

Flowers of various kinds grow here spontaneously, but are seldom planted in their gardens in any order. The fields of Hyrcania and Mazenderan are extremely beautiful with those productions. In Media we meet with tulips, anemones, and ranunculuses; near Ispahan, jonquils, pinks, lilies and violets, with vast quantities of roses, and another flower, a most beautiful scarlet, of which thirty are found on every sprig. All those flowers, however, are here but little regarded; for what the people delight most in, are spacious walks of trees, fountains, reservoirs, and canals, with summer houses and alcoves at proper distances about their gardens.

The drugs produced in Persia are, fenna, sal armoniac, rhubarb, cassia, and gum ammoniac, with poppies, which are highly valued for the strength and quantity of the liquor they yield. The juice is extracted from them in June, by making incisions in the head; and it is observed, that the people employed in this work are extremely liable to paralytic complaints, particularly tremors. The liquor drawn from the poppy soon becomes thick, and is then made up into pills. Asfa fætida is another drug indigenous to this country, and which the Persians reckon as a perfume. From a rock there also distils a gum, on account of its fragrance distinguished by the name of mummy, and which is said to perform many cures. But there is here another sort of mummies, resembling much

rearer the Egyptian, and yet have never been embalmed. These are human bodies which have lain in the parched sands for many ages, by which means the flesh has acquired the hardness of horn.

The bezoar stone, which is found in the bodies of goats, monkeys, and other animals, is met with here in great plenty, and accounted more valuable than that of India.

The most useful Persian animals are, camels, dromedaries, horses, mules, asses, oxen, and buffaloes. All those are used either to ride on, or carry burdens, except the horse, which is only kept for the saddle. The Persian horses are light, sprightly, well proportioned, and beautiful; but not so swift as the Arabian breed, of which the king is always provided with a great number.

A horse is frequently sold in Persia for three or four hundred pounds, and seldom under fifty. A mule is sold for thirty or forty pounds; and an ass for almost as much, after he has been taught to pace. They feed their horses chiefly with barley, and sometimes cut grafs for them, but never make it into hay. They never litter down their horses with straw, but lay their dung dried under them a foot deep; and they shoe both horses and oxen with thin plates. Any person may be furnished with a horse by the government, on condition of keeping and using him well, and having him fit for the king's service, when he may be demanded.

There is in Persia an extraordinary fine breed of sheep, the wool and flesh of which are equally valued. It is not uncommon for them to have tails that weigh eight or ten pounds, and they have six or seven horns; some of which stand out horizontally, and occasion a great deal of blood to be spilt when the rams engage with each other. Their goats likewise are much esteemed for the fine wool on their bellies, as well as for their flesh. Mutton and kid are the kinds of meat chiefly used; they eat very little beef or veal; and hogs, as the Mahometans in general, they hold in abomination. Deer and antelopes they have some, and also hares, but of the latter they never eat. There are no wild beasts in the middle or south of Persia, those parts of the country not affording sufficient cover for them; but the Hyrcanian forests near the Caspian Sea still abound with tygers, leopards, wild hogs, and other beasts of prey.

Few insects are to be seen in the interior parts of Persia, on account of the dryness of the soil; but the fields are often infested with locusts, which fly in such swarms, as to intercept the light of the sun, destroying every green vegetable where they happen to descend. Provisionally, however, some birds visit the country at the same season, and eat up those emigrants, to the no small relief of the farmers, who would otherwise be ruined by their depredations. The country adjacent to the Caspian is rarely infested with this terrible plague, but it is over-run by almost every kind of noxious insects and reptiles, as serpents, scorpions, toads, &c. These being destroyed by the summer heats, or for want of water, they lie putrefying on the ground, and contribute to render the air of the country unhealthy.



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Domestic fowls of every species are in great plenty, except turkeys, which do not thrive in any part of the Persian dominions. Pigeons are in vast number, and the partridges large and well tasted. The pelican, called the tacob, or water-drawer, has a body as large as that of a sheep, but a very small head, and the bill is above sixteen inches long. Under the latter grows a large bag, which some relate will contain a pail of water. This cavity answers the purpose of a reservoir for the use of their young brood; for those birds having always their nests in the deserts, must sometimes fly to an incredible distance for water. Eagles and birds of prey are much propagated here, being taught to fly at all sorts of game, whether of the winged or quadruped kind; for this method of hunting is the chief rural sport in the country.

The singing birds are of the same species with those of Europe, and there are several parti-coloured birds which have beautiful plumage. Sparrows abound to that degree, that the farmer is obliged to retain men for the purpose of driving them from his grain.

In a country where there are so few rivers, and most of those dried up in the summer, it cannot be expected there should be much river-fish; nor is sea-fish to be met with at the capital city of Ispahan. But in the gulph of Persia in the south, and the Caspian on the north, there is great plenty of sea-fish; as there is of river-fish in the Kur and Arras, which fall into the Caspian Sea. In the gulph of Boffora, on the coast of Arabia, they fish for pearl oysters; this part of Arabia, styled the province of Bahara, being subject to the Persian crown. About a hundred years ago, this was one of the greatest pearl fisheries in the world.

The turquois stone is the most valuable jewel in the country. These are found chiefly in the province of Chorassan, near Nisiapour or Nixabour. Here are no gold or silver mines, though a small quantity of silver may be extracted from their copper and lead mines, of which, as well as of iron, they have several. Sulphur and salt-petre are found in the mountains between Mazenderan and Erac, and antimony in Carmania. There are plains ten or twelve leagues in length, covered with salt; and in other parts, sulphur and alum are found likewise on the surface of the ground. Near Hamadan, and in Susiana, are quarries of red, white, and black marble, with some of a mixed kind; and that which is dug in the neighbourhood of Tauris is almost as transparent as crystal.

The most considerable manufacture in Persia is that of wrought silk, such as satins, tabbies, taffetees, brocades, and gold and silver tissues. Their rich silks are all of a very durable quality, and their gold velvet also is much admired. The best looms are at Ispahan, Cashan and Yezd. Their finest carpets are mixed with silk, and far exceed those of Turkey. Camblets, with silk and worsted stuffs, are made in Carmania, and goat's-hair stuffs in Mazenderan; and they make some calicoes, but inferior to those of India. Their embroidered leather exceeds any thing of the kind. Their tanners use no bark, but salt and galls instead of it. The braziers and tin-men work very well, and

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their armourers make good swords, as well as gun-barrels; but the artists here do not attempt gun-locks, no more than clocks or watches, which are purchased of European merchants. Cutlery ware is made with tolerable dexterity, as also are steel mirrors, which they use instead of looking-glasses; having not yet acquired the art of making the latter, though they can fabricate window-glass and glass bottles.

Archery being still in use amongst them, the making of bows is a considerable trade. They are formed either of wood or horn, bound about with the dried sinews of animals, finely painted and varnished. The string of the bow is of twisted silk, and their quivers made either of silk or embroidered leather.

The making earthen ware is another manufacture which they have brought to great perfection, much beyond the Dutch ware, and almost equal to that of China.

The goods chiefly imported from Persia are raw and wrought silks, mohair-yarn, goat's-wool, leather, wine-spirits, dried and preserved fruits, dates, pistachio nuts, almonds, carpets, galls, pearls, raisins, rose-water, salop, assa fetida, gum tragant, opium, with other gums and drugs.

The English import chiefly raw silk, carpets, camels and goats hair and wool, which are brought either by Turkey, from Gombron, in the gulph of Boffora; or by the Caspian Sea, and the river Wolga, through Russia. The English East-India Company trade but little to Persia on their own account, but till lately made considerable advantage by transporting the merchandize of the Armenians, Banians, and Moors, from Gombron in the gulph of Ormus, to Surat in India. This trade however with Gombron, and other parts of Persia, is now disused.

The king being the chief merchant in this country, his factors, the Armenians, have the refusal of whatever is imported, and carry on a trade for the court in almost every country. As there is here no hereditary nobility, a merchant is esteemed a very honourable profession, and the greatest officers of the kingdom do not think it beneath them to engage in commerce.

### C H A P. III.

*Of the constitution—government—laws—customs—forces—revenues—barans.*

PERSIA, like the other nations of the East, is an absolute monarchy, modelled strictly by the principles of the most uncontrollable despotism. Not only the life and property of every subject are at the sovereign's disposal, but he can deprive them of either without any judicial trial, and even without an accusation. This power, however, is said to be exerted only against the governors and great officers of state, whose influence might render it difficult to bring them to justice, in cases of delinquency, by less rigorous procedure; for with respect to the bulk of the people, they are seldom oppressed by the crown. The title of the sovereign is *shaw*, or *pathaw*, the *disposer of kingdoms*; and the princes of the blood are styled *mirzas*. The king has no standing council, but advises with

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his vizir or prime minister, and whom else he pleases. No public act of royal authority is of force, until countersealed by the vizir; a proper restraint, considering the extreme ignorance of those princes who have received their education in the seraglio.

The next great officer in rank is the divan begli, or bey, who is president of the supreme court of justice, and the last resort, either in law or equity. The other personages of distinction at court are the generalissimo, the secretary of state, the lord treasurer, and domestics in high office, with the mirah or lord of the waters, who has the direction of all the aqueducts in the kingdom. The lord chamberlain, who is always a white eunuch, has generally, as well as the ladies of the seraglio, great influence on the affairs of the state. He serves the king on his knees at table, tastes his meat, dresses him, and is seldom out of his presence; constantly carrying, for his majesty's use, some fine handkerchiefs, and a box replenished with perfumes, opium, and cordials.

The Persian throne is commonly said to be hereditary, but the king transfers it to which of his sons he pleases, and sometimes orders the eyes of the eldest to be put out; for by the laws of Persia, a blind man cannot inherit any more than a princess. But though the latter be deemed incapable of territorial succession, the right is admitted in her son.

In every province of the kingdom there is a cham or viceroy, who lives in the state of a sovereign prince, and commands all the forces in his department. This office is sometimes continued for life, and it is not unusual for the son to succeed to the father's government, when it happens that he is acceptable to the court. The king, and not the cham, appoints the lieutenant-governor, and the other important officers in the province. One of these is a vizir, who not only has the jurisdiction and disposal of all the crown lands, and the subjects upon them, but is treasurer and receiver-general of all the taxes and revenues. The subjects are for the most part grievously oppressed by this officer, who usually procures his place by bribing the eunuchs and ministers at court, and promising to encrease the public revenue, which he fails not to perform by fleecing the people; whom he farther oppresses, to enrich himself and his patrons. The meanest of the subjects are allowed to lay their complaints before the king, but they are often counteracted by the artifices of the eunuchs and courtiers, who share the plunder with the vizir.

When a charge against the viceroy is preferred by any province, the deputation by which it is sent usually consists of several hundred men; who planting themselves before the gate of the palace, set up a miserable howl, rending their cloaths, and throwing dust into the air, while they demand justice of his majesty. The king sending an officer to know their complaint, a petition is presented in writing, which is referred to the secretary to examine, and report the substance of it to the king. If the complaint be found just, and the crime very notorious, a person is dispatched to take off the governor's head, carrying with him the lieutenant-governor to see the sentence executed. If

he meets the delinquent, he falls upon him directly with his sabre, and cuts him in pieces, there being no common executioner in Persia. If the offender be in the women's apartment, he comes out and submits to the execution. It is seldom, however, that they proceed capitally against a vizir or receiver of the king's revenue, as his extortion is usually represented to be of service to the government, and the displacing him is of as much advantage to the king, as the taking off his head.

The irrevocable laws of the ancient Medes and Persians are no longer known, having perished, it is probable, with the constitution to which they owed their existence. At present, in Persia, as in every Mahometan country, they have no other law but the Alcoran, and the comments of the ecclesiastics upon it. The priests enjoy the privilege of being judges in all cases, both civil and religious; but such as are criminal, the governors take upon them to decide, not however without this authority being protested against by the priesthood. In respect to the judgments of the king, or his viceroys, they are all arbitrary.

The law in cases of debt is extremely severe. If the debtor be unable to pay, he is delivered to the creditor to be dealt with as he shall determine; the latter having it in his power to sell him, with all his family, or make slaves of the whole, if he pleases.

All persons here plead their own cause, the women as well as the men; only the former are veiled, and have a particular part of the court assigned them to stand in. The principal business for which they appear before a judge, is to obtain a divorce. They usually ground their action on the impotence of their husband, and are always on those occasions exceeding clamorous.

There are no prisons in Persia; but when an offender is apprehended, he is carried to a magistrate's house, where he is confined till his trial, which generally takes place the same or the following day; when, if convicted, he is immediately executed by some of the magistrate's servants. But if the criminal has been guilty of murder, he is delivered to the relations of the deceased, to be tortured and executed in what manner they think fit; though there are instances of those who have committed murder obtaining a pardon, by bribing the judge, and giving a large sum to the other party.

For petty crimes, it is usual for men of substance to commute; but where the offender has not money to buy off the punishment, he is condemned to the bastinado; that is, to receive a certain number of blows on the soles of his feet; not less than thirty, or more than three hundred, by which it sometimes happens that they are rendered cripples for life. The best remedy in this case is said to be, to put the sufferer's feet into a hot horse-dunghill, and foment them afterwards with spirits of wine. House-breakers have their right hand cut off; coiners have the same punishment inflicted on them for the first offence, and for the second their bellies are ripped open; after which, they are dragged in this shocking manner through the principal streets of the town, the cryer going before them, and proclaiming the offence.



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Other punishments likewise are inflicted on capital offenders. One of those is tumbling them down from a tower, or steep precipice, which is usually the method of treating women who have been guilty of some extraordinary crime. Another is setting the convicted persons up to the neck in the ground, the sun beating upon their heads all day, and the flies and other insects tormenting them till they expire. To extort confession from a criminal, they sometimes have recourse to the rack, but the usual way of proceeding is by means of the bastinado.

Those punishments, however, are seldom inflicted, nor is it usual to hear of crimes which merit such terrible executions. Murders and robberies rarely occur in Persia, guards being placed on every road to prevent them, or apprehend offenders. Bakers and cooks have sometimes been baked or roasted alive, for defrauding people of their provisions by false weights; but for the most part, they are only fined or condemned to the bastinado.

The Persian forces are distinguished into the troops of the state, and the troops of the crown. The former, which consist of cavalry, are called *coofelashes*, or *redheads*, from the colour of their caps, and have lands appropriated to their subsistence. Their arms are bows and arrows, scimitars, lances, and poyards, with a hatchet, shield, and helmet. The troops of the crown are divided into two bodies, the first of which, amounting to twelve thousand, are called *musketeers*, from their carrying muskets, and fighting on foot, though they march on horseback like our dragoons. The other body consists of ten thousand horsemen armed likewise with muskets, and called *coulars* or *slaves*, from their great attachment to the crown. They are generally natives of Georgia, and the most personable men in the king's dominions. There is yet another body of a thousand men, of a large stature, who act as his majesty's guards. The soldiers are furnished with horses, arms, and all accoutrements by the crown; but they find themselves in cloaths, and neither they nor the servants of the court are obliged to wear a uniform dress.

The Persian troops being for the most part light-horse, march with great expedition, and frequently surprize their enemies with an unexpected attack. This celerity, and their fame as excellent marksmen, concur to render them exceeding formidable in the field; and what increases the terror they inspire, is that they yet retain the practice for which they were anciently celebrated, of molesting the enemy in their retreat, as much as in the onset. The quality of those troops compensates in great measure the defenceless state of the kingdom; there hardly being in it any fortified towns, and the people depending chiefly on their desarts, and the passes of the mountains for their security.

In respect of navigation, though the Persians have some good ports in the gulph of Bosphora, they have no ships of war, and scarce any merchant vessels. They formerly had some armed ships on the Caspian Sea, to defend themselves against invasions of the Cossacks and other Tartars, who sometimes carry

whole villages into slavery; but the Cossacks being now subject to the Russians, who have the sole navigation of the Caspian Sea, the Persians seem little exposed to the incursions of the former nation, while they are at peace with the latter.

The revenues of the crown of Persia are very considerable, and arise from various sources. As the king is proprietor of all the lands, he reserves a quit-rent on every estate, the tenant likewise, at the commencement or renewal of each lease, advancing one year's rent of the improved value. The king also has his demesne lands in every province, for which he receives of his tenants a third part of the nett profits. He has, besides, the seventh fleece, and a seventh of the breed of the cattle on other lands under pasture. The lands of the church, however, being accounted sacred, are subject to no tax. The customs or port-duties constitute another branch of the revenue. Every artificer and tradesman also pays a duty, except carpenters and other builders, who are obliged to work for the crown, whenever they are required. But the greatest part of the revenue arises from the annual presents every governor is obliged to make, and from the confiscations or seizures made of the estates of the great men, either at their death or before, especially of those of the principal eunuchs, who are extremely rapacious, and leave no relations that can pretend any right to their effects. To this general detail of the finances it is to be added, that every person, not of the established religion, pays a poll-tax annually of half a guinea a-head; and that the tax paid for water is also very considerable. It is computed that, one year with another, the revenue amounts to about five millions sterling, the expenditure of which centers chiefly in the court, as the maintenance of the greater part of the forces is defrayed out of the lands of the state.

The *haram* or *seraglio* is a word which signifies a place sacred, or prohibited to all men, but the sovereign or master of it, as is accounted this part of the palace in which the women are kept. These may be divided into three classes; first, the princesses, or daughters of some of their kings, who have the title of *begum*: secondly, those by whom the reigning monarch has any children; with whom he cohabits, who have the title of *canum*, equal to *cham* among the men: thirdly, the ladies whom he has not yet admitted to his bed, who are so numerous that he scarce knows their faces; these are styled *katun*, or barely ladies. There are besides a number of other females that attend the *seraglio* as slaves. None of the ladies are ever suffered to see any person of the other sex, who has attained to the age of puberty; for with respect to the eunuchs, they look upon them only as their jailors. There are many distinct houses and apartments within the limits of the *haram*; in one of which live the women, with whom any of the preceding kings have cohabited; so much secluded from the world, that they are hardly ever permitted to stir out.

The women's apartments in the royal *seraglio* are not only the most inaccessible, but the most elegant part of the palace; and several of the ladies have as

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great a share in the concerns of the empire as the men; regulating the conduct of the great officers of state, whom they respectively patronise, and informing them of whatever is transacting.

As the princes, the sons or brothers of the Persian monarchs, grow up, the king usually gives them the choice of a wife among the virgins of the haram, or sometimes more than one, establishing at the same time his household, which consists chiefly of eunuchs and female slaves. But they are so closely confined in a distinct part of the haram, that, except with their mother, who sometimes retires with them, they are prohibited from all conversation with any other but the eunuchs, who perform the part of servants, but are in reality so many spies upon their conduct.

There is no where to be found a collection of more beautiful young women, than in the haram of the Mahometan princes. They have not only the choice of all who are made prisoners in war, but of those who are purchased in Georgia and Circassia. Besides, if any governor of a province or town has notice of any celebrated beauty in his government, he immediately sends her to court; which her parents are so far from thinking a hardship, that they consider the event as auspicious to the fortune of the family.

While the king is without children, every lady is ambitious of being the mother of the first son, by which she would obtain the title and power of a sultana, and her son might succeed to the throne. When the king, however, has sons, they never desire any children, but endeavour to procure abortion, as soon as they find themselves pregnant. The reason of which is, that they should live in perpetual apprehension of their offspring being murdered, or at least of having their eyes put out, to prevent them from being advanced to the throne, in prejudice of the eldest prince. The views therefore of the court ladies, whom the king has taken to his bed, are to be married to some governor or great officer. For this end, they endeavour to gain the favour of the queen-mother, or the reigning queen, on whose recommendation they are sometimes disposed of advantageously: or the ministers apply to the queen-mother, to bestow one of the virgins upon them; for none are allowed to touch any of the ladies with whom the king has ever been familiar.

Such ladies as are married to any of the great officers, are much happier than those they leave behind them in the seraglio. They have the government of all the rest of the wives and concubines, whom their husband may entertain, and are treated in almost every respect as queens. The husband finds it his interest to indulge them in all their pleasures; their own advancement and security depending very much on the representations those ladies make to the queen-mother, or the reigning queen, of their conduct. The women in the seraglio sometimes are so numerous, that it becomes expedient to marry them off, on account of the expense of their entertainment, where every one has her particular apartment, and a numerous train of servants to attend her.

Before any of the ladies visits another, she must obtain leave of her governante, who is placed about

her to watch her conduct, that no quarrels may arise amongst the rival mistresses in the haram. Some relate, that the reason of this caution is to prevent the ladies from carrying on an amour, and falling in love with each other, which is said to be an event not uncommon. According to the representation of the women who frequent the seraglio, and sell them toys, it is amazing to behold the proofs of this mutual passion, and the contrivances which are the consequences of it.

As the business of those ladies is chiefly to divert their lord, they sing, and dance, and play before him, or entertain him with sprightly conversation; but there is a necessity of his being extremely cautious in expressing a particular attachment to any of them. The appearance of such a predilection would immediately mark out the favourite as an object of jealousy; and notwithstanding the utmost care of the lover, he is almost incessantly perplexed with their plots to ruin each other. The king is never married, or contracted to any lady, but she that has the first son is the queen of the haram as long as he lives. Should he die, however, and the son of any other mistress become heir apparent to the crown, the honour is then transferred to the mother of the surviving offspring.

Amidst this numerous assembly of rival beauties, the situation of the monarch is far from being favourable either to enjoyment or repose. Considering him as their tyrant, rather than their lover, they submit to his gratification only from the dread of his power; while he never can experience the pleasure which arises from a consciousness of being beloved by the person whose mutual affection he most ardently wishes to obtain. Surrounded by flatterers and hypocrites of both sexes, he is equally a stranger to the delicacies of love, and the delights of friendship.

There are no mosques or chapels in the haram, or women's apartments. For as they exclude all terrestrial ladies from paradise, believing them to be made only for men's pleasure, and the continuance of the species, there can be no occasion for their resorting to temples, in order to prepare themselves for heaven. They are permitted, however, to lead an indolent and luxurious life, indulging themselves in every pleasure but liberty, and an agreeable companion, without which all the rest must prove insipid. It is the general opinion of the Mahometans, that in a future state they shall be accommodated with a race of celestial beauties, formed on purpose for their enjoyment; though some of the Persian doctors hold, that the women shall have a heaven to themselves.

The king's women never visit out of the palace, which, however, is open to the visits of their female relations. When he removes, he is always attended by some of the ladies; and a party of horse marches before the vehicles in which they are carried, crying out couruc, couruc, and firing their small arms to give notice of their approach. On those occasions, all men are required to remove from their habitations, in the towns through which the court is to pass; and it is death for any to be found within view of the road.

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The eunuchs who guard the ladies, are usually castrated between seven and ten years of years of age; If delayed till the age of puberty, the operation is reckoned exceeding dangerous. Of this class of servants the king retains three or four thousand in Isfahan and other royal palaces. Every man of figure likewise keeps some of them in his family, where they act the part of stewards, as well as guardians of the females; and to such as are qualified, they commit the education of their children. There are both black and white eunuchs in Persia, but the former are most numerous, and the ugliest always preferred.

## C H A P. IV.

*Of the persons—habit—food—salutations—diversions—method of travelling—character of the Persians.*

THE Persians are of a moderate stature, well-proportioned, with good features and complexions, except in the southern provinces, where the latter is injured by the excessive heat. Their hair and eyes are black, and their heads shaved, unless in the middle, where a lock is suffered to grow. The bulk of the people cut their beards short; and the mollahs or priests wear them long, only cutting them into form; while the great men and the soldiers wear large whiskers only, and the natural robe of puberty never falls to be removed.

The men cover their heads with large turbants, of which some are very rich, having gold and silver flowers interwoven. Next their skins they wear a kind of shirt, made of silk or callico, but without collar or wristbands, and the sleeves fit close to their arms. Over the shirt is worn a waistcoat, above which is a loose coat, tied with a sash. They use drawers reaching down to the calf of the leg, with woollen stockings, not shaped to the limbs, and slippers with picked toes of Turkey leather.

Instead of a turbant the ladies wear a stiffened cap, resembling that of a grenadier, but much less. They also use a coat or vest, which reaches down to their feet. Their hair is braided and adorned with jewels, either natural or factitious. The married ladies tie their hair back, and bind round their temple a broad ribband, set with jewels, in the manner of a coronet; and both the married and single wear feathers in their caps. Esteeming large black eye-brows as a mark of beauty, they frequently have recourse to art for acquiring that accomplishment; and in the southern parts particularly, they likewise paint their faces. They wear jewels in their ears, and necklaces of pearl, which hang down gracefully, having a gold box fastened to them, containing rich perfumes.

Both men and women are expensive in their cloaths; their vests being generally made of rich flowered and brocaded silks; and an ordinary turbant will cost ten pounds. Their sashes, which are also brocaded, will sometimes cost a hundred crowns. In winter, the gentlemen often wear fables, a suit of which may amount to a hundred pounds. The furniture for their horses is also exceeding rich, the bits and stirrups being of silver, and the housings embroidered. No

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people make a grander appearance abroad. They mount their horses with a splendid retinue, almost every day, should they ride but a quarter of a mile. On account of this extravagance in dress and equipage, however, they are generally extremely necessitous.

When they rise in the morning, they take a dish of coffee, and about eleven o'clock eat lemons or other fruit and sweet-meats, but their principal meal is in the evening. This often consists of a dish of pilau, made of rice and fowls, or mutton stewed. Sometimes the meat is baked or roasted, but always to an extreme degree. If instead of rice they eat bread, it is thin cakes, baked upon the hearth for present use. They in general abstain from the flesh of all the animals which the Jews were forbidden to eat; likewise eating no salt meat, and but very little salt to their meals; owing perhaps to their food being always highly seasoned in dressing. In towns, private people usually purchase meat ready dressed for their families at a cook's shop, and seldom dress any in their own houses. They take up the rice by handfuls, using no spoons except for milk or soup. They wash before and after eating, and their handkerchief serves instead of a towel. At their meals, they either sit cross-legged, on a cloth spread over the carpet, or loll upon cushions. They hospitably invite strangers to eat with them, and if any visitors be left, distribute it amongst their poor neighbours. The usual drink is water or sherbet, cooled with ice. Wine is seldom used by the Mahometans, but the Jews and every sect of Christians drink it here very plentifully. Instead of strong liquor the people of Persia chew opium, which, though it exhilarates a little at first, depresses the spirits soon after, and demands a repetition of the dose. After an elegant supper, it is usual to entertain the company with music and dancing, of which the latter is performed by courtizans.

The manner of salutation in Persia and other eastern countries is the very reverse of that in Europe; for the pulling off the cap or turbant is the greatest affront that can be offered to a superior, and they keep their heads covered even within the walls of their temples. They salute a friend by bringing the right hand to the breast, and inclining their bodies a little; but on coming into the presence of any of the royal family, they bow three times to the ground. It is their custom, to pull off their slippers, when they enter a temple, or a great man's house. In placing their guests at a visit or entertainment, as well as in walking or riding, the left hand is esteemed the most honourable.

The modern Persians are no less remarkable than the ancient, for dexterity in horsemanship and archery; and it is not unusual for the kings to be spectators at those exercises, from a gallery of the palace, which looks into the meydan or royal square, where a golden cup is set up to be shot at. The candidates for the prize ride full speed, and when they are a little passed the cup, without turning their horses or stopping, they bend their bodies to the right or left, and shoot at the object, which one or other of them seldom fail to strike down.

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Their principal sport, beside those exercises, is hunting, performed not by the scent, but with large greyhounds in sight, and with falcons. They even train leopards and other wild beasts to pursue the game.

This country being very mountainous, wheel-carriages are not used in travelling. Camels serve for performing a journey, as well as for transporting merchandise from one province to another. Gentlemen, however, ride chiefly on horses, though mules and asses also are frequently used, and in some respects are preferable, being sure-footed; besides that their asses are much nimbler, and of a larger size than ours. As to ladies of rank, they are carried in a vehicle resembling a close chair, one of which is hung on each side of a camel; and so contrived, that the travellers can neither see nor be seen by any person on the road.

Merchants and people of business frequently travel in caravans, consisting of five hundred, and sometimes a thousand camels, and other beasts of burden. They usually proceed on their journey at the rate of three miles an hour, and lodge at some caravansera, or, in defect of such accommodation, they pitch their tents, and sometimes lie in the open air, in the hot season; a guard or watch being set every night, for their protection from robbers and wild beasts.

There being no established posts in this country, for the conveyance of letters, great encouragement is given to persons who travel on foot, who are generally very expeditious, and reasonable in their demands. Those men are called shatirs, and it is usual for families of rank to keep a number of them in their retinue. The common shatirs ask no more than two shillings a-day, and will travel a thousand miles in twenty days with ease, carrying with them a bottle of water, and a little bag of provisions, which will last them about two days; and by that time they commonly arrive at some place where they can replenish their store.

The Persians are esteemed men of good natural parts, and benevolent dispositions. In behaviour they are polite and engaging, exceeding hospitable, far from being deficient in bravery, and tenacious of the principles of honour. If they seem to be actuated by avarice, it is a consequence of their extreme profusion in dress and equipage, by which many of them ruin their estates. In general, they are reckoned to be fair dealers, and treat foreigners with great openness and sincerity. Their indulgence in the love of women, so far from appearing to them blameable, is justified, if not even abetted, by the principles of the religion which they profess; but an unnatural passion for boys, to which they are said to have a propensity, reflects a disgrace on their character beyond the power of extenuation.

#### C H A P. V.

##### *Of religion—festivals—pilgrimages.*

**T**HOUGH the Persians profess the religion of Mahomet no less than the Turks, they differ considerably in their principles from those of that

nation; the latter following Abubeker, Omar, and Osman, and the former the comments of Hali. Such is the antipathy between those two sects, that, not content with the most rancorous hatred, they even curse each other in their prayers. Both parties, however, call themselves musselmens, or of the number of the faithful. They have two articles of faith, namely, that there is but one God; and that Mahomet is his prophet. The commandments of their religion are, to observe corporal purifications; to pray five times a-day; to give alms; to fast in the month Ramezan; and to go on pilgrimage to Mecca. To this system the Persians add another article of faith, viz. that Hali is the vicar of God.

By the first article, that there is but one God, they mean that there is but one person in the divine essence, in opposition to the Christian doctrine of a trinity. They hold that good works are neither the cause, nor the means of salvation, but only an evidence of the favour of God, and the man's being intended for happiness. They believe that all souls were created before the world was made; and some of them even maintain the Pythagorean doctrine of transmigration.

It is their opinion, that our bodies shall not be changed in any material circumstance at the resurrection, but that they will neither be deformed, nor subject to any infirmities. Some of their doctors reprobate the notion of eternal punishment, holding that after a certain time the wicked will be annihilated; and all concur in the belief, that there will be degrees of rewards and punishments, according as men have behaved. Some of them expect a sensual paradise, and that corporeal pleasures will be the reward of the virtuous; while others interpret such promises in an allegorical sense, holding that the happiness of heaven will consist in being employed about such objects as are proper for the soul, in an increase of knowledge, and the sublime operations of the understanding; and that the body also will have pleasures suitable to its nature, but which will not consist in meat and drink, or a gratification of the animal appetites. Others maintain on the contrary, that the joys of heaven consist entirely in sensual delights, but such as are far superior to those that are the portion of this life. As to the duration of the world, they believe that it shall not be dissolved at the last day, but changed and purified, and may be the habitation of blessed souls to all eternity.

The Persians call Hali the vicar or lieutenant of God, and exalt him sometimes above Mahomet. They hold that he was of a divine nature, that God was incarnate in Hali, and that it was by him that God created the universe.

They distinguish uncleanness into two kinds, the one absolutely sinful, such as the drinking wine and eating hog's flesh; the other, as only communicating a legal incapacity to the person defiled, so as he may not perform certain acts of religion until he is purified. They look upon prayers to be criminal that are offered up with unwashed hands. Being obliged to pray five times a-day, they are generally under the necessity of washing as often; because the variety of pollutions, accord-

according to their superstition, render it almost impossible to avoid defilement, during the intervals of their duty. There are two sorts of purification, for the performing of which certain rules and ceremonials are prescribed. One kind is called *wasfon*, whereby only the washing of the face, hands, and feet, are required; and this is to be observed after sleep, a swooning, fit, and every sensible evacuation of the body. The other purification is called *gassfil*, which consists in washing the whole body, and must take place before some extraordinary acts of devotion, on a pilgrimage, or in a time of fasting. To render those lustrations meritorious, they must be performed purely upon account of religion, without any design of pleasure or convenience; and the devotees are to express themselves in the following manner, viz. *I perform this act of purification to render my devotions acceptable to God, and that I may be fit to approach him.* In performing religious rites, no assistance must be received; neither is the person to make use of water that has been warmed by the fire or the sun, or of which any animal has recently drank; nor a vessel with any painting or imagery upon it. The water is also to be lifted up with the left hand, and poured into the palm of the right. The purification, called *gassfil*, is required after matrimonial embraces, defilement by the touch of a child-bed woman, or that of a dead body.

When wine is converted into vinegar, it is esteemed pure, as it no less is, if mulled or boiled away to a third, and in that condition it may be drank. If the child of a Christian be made prisoner, it is supposed immediately to become pure, by virtue of its master; but in other cases, the Persians think themselves as much defiled by the touch of an unbeliever, as by that of a hog or dog, both which they hold in abhorrence.

In respect to the stated times of prayer, the first hour is at noon; the second, from the time the sun is forty-five degrees above the horizon, till half the disk disappears; the third, when it is so dark that colours cannot be distinguished; the fourth, when they lie down to sleep; the fifth, in the morning, any time between the disappearing of the stars and noon. If by any extraordinary accident they should be prevented from praying at the appointed time, they may perform the duty afterwards, as soon as they have an opportunity. Those avocations give the Persians a pretext for retiring from company, when they think proper, without being thought rude. They never scruple telling the reason of their departure, and nobody ever importunes a man to stay, when he says he is going to his devotions.

The mollahs or priests proclaim the hour of prayer daily from the mosques, beginning with these words, *O God most great, which they repeat, turning their faces each time to one of the cardinal points.* They then proceed in this manner: *The testimony we render to God is, that there is no other God but God; Mahomet is the apostle of God; Hali is the vicar of God.* Having repeated those words four times, they add, *Arise, say your prayers, perform that most excellent duty, which Mahomet and Hali, the most perfect of created beings, have commanded.* They afterwards sing some passages of the Alcoran, and conclude, *Omar be cursed, who is*

*the great father of the Turkish sect.* The mollahs having ended this ceremony, every one gets up and says his prayers, either in his own house or elsewhere, but does not go to the mosque. They are taught that their prayers will not be acceptable, unless they be accompanied with attention of mind, the affection of the heart, faith, modesty, reverence, hope, and purity of body, and of every thing the petitioner touches, or with which he may be surrounded. He is likewise enjoined, on those occasions, to turn his face towards Mecca, and lift up his hands, prostrating himself on the earth at the same time. He must also put off his shoes or slippers, and all ornaments, nor have on him any cloaths made of furs, or the skins of any unclean beast; taking care likewise, that his face, feet, and hands, be washed, and that there be no pictures or images in the place. He carries with him a little carpet, in which are wrapped up the Alcoran, an earthen dish, a bead-roll, a pocket-glass, and a comb. Spreading the carpet, which it would be unlawful not to use, he sets himself upon it, with his face towards Mecca. He first sits down upon his heels, and ranges his apparatus; then takes his comb and glass, and combs his beard and whiskers. If he has any money in his purse, he lays it aside, as well as his seals and rings, from an opinion that they would render his prayers ineffectual. They have usually ninety-nine beads, made of clay that is esteemed holy, and each about the size of a pea. After the thirty-third bead, which marks the number of their prayers, they repeat the words, *O God most great*; at the end of the next thirty-three, *Glory to God*; and at the conclusion of the whole, *God be praised.* The small dish they carry with them, containing a portion of the same holy earth of which the beads are made, they set upon the floor, and bow down their bodies so as to touch it with their foreheads; an essential part of their devotion consisting in this ceremony. They perform their devotions separately, whether it be at home, in the temple, or any other place; and they never assemble together, as the Turks, for the purpose of offering up their prayers, either on their sabbath or any other day of the week, holding that no person has authority to pray or read the Alcoran to a congregation in the mosque, but an Iman (one of their patriarchs) or a descendant of them.

The Persian doctors recommend prayers for the dead, but without being enjoined by their religion. They do not pray to their saints, neither to Mahomet or Hali, as mediators to intercede for them; nor do they believe that the saints know what is done in this world, only as God may reveal it to them. They consider, however, the intercession of holy men upon earth as extremely efficacious, and therefore frequently hire their saints or hermits to offer up prayers for them; of which class of impostors there is a multitude in all Mahometan countries, who subsist upon the alms of the people, or rather extort money from them. For which purpose, when the ghostly terrors they endeavour to excite prove ineffectual, they have sometimes recourse to more violent means.

There are two sorts of alms in the country; the one established by law, and the other merely voluntary.

The former consist of a kind of tythes, of corn, cattle, money, and whatever the people possess, which is applied to charitable uses under the direction of the priests, who have for their maintenance certain lands and revenues appropriated to their respective temples. The voluntary contribution is applied to the support of the faquirs or begging friars, the redeeming of slaves rigorously treated, the relief of insolvent debtors, and strangers in distress, and to works of public advantage.

What the Persians understand by a fast, is a total abstinence from all nourishment and carnal enjoyment, from the break of day till night, with an intent to please God. The principal of this kind is that which is celebrated in the month Ramezan, and may properly be called their Lent. At the first appearance of the new moon, which introduces this season, the cryers belonging to the mosques proclaim it in great numbers, and a hymn is sung upon the occasion; the street being illuminated, the horns sounding, and the people expressing their joy by loud and universal acclamations. Immediately after they proceed to the baths, where they all wash themselves previously to the entering on their devotions.

During the fast of Ramezan, the cryers proclaim every evening, from the mosques, when the people are permitted to eat, which is when half the sun's disk is below the horizon. From this time, till the same hour next evening, the puritanical part of the people abstain religiously from food; but there are many spend the whole night in revelling, regardless of decency, and the offence which they may give to those of more rigid principles. In general, they spend a great part of this month in devotion; and though they do not scruple to engage in business, yet the Christians find more difficulty in transacting it with them at this season than at other times, especially towards evening, when their long fasting has rendered them peevish.

Besides that of Ramezan, the Persians have two other festivals; one of which is the commemoration of Abraham's sacrificing his son; and the other the death or martyrdom, as they call it, of Houssein and Hassen, two of the successors of Mahomet. Those at Ispahan, who observe the feast of the sacrifice, mount their horses early in the morning, and riding out of the city, sacrifice a sheep or a goat. Then returning to their houses, they cause a great number of the same kind of animals to be killed and distributed amongst the poor. There is one general sacrifice of a camel, at which the king is present. The victim being delivered to the populace by the king's officers, they adorn him with garlands, and lead him through the city, with the music playing before them, on the first day of the feast. This ceremony is repeated daily twelve times, during which the camel is attended by crowds, to the houses of all the chief men of the city, who throw money and distribute provisions among the people. He is afterwards led out to a field at some distance, whither the king with the crown upon his head, and the whole court repair. Here the camel being caused to kneel down, with his head towards

Mecca, and some prayers offered up by the priest, he is wounded with a lance by the derage or governor of the city; who at the same time prays, that God may shower down his blessings on the king and people. The camel's head is then cut off, and presented to the king; the rest of the body being distributed to the five great wards, into which the city is divided. A particular family in each ward has the privilege of keeping the sacred flesh, which is salted up, and preserved till the next anniversary of the festival, when it is cut into small pieces, and sent to the principal inhabitants, who entertain the populace on this solemn occasion.

The festival held in commemoration of Houssein and Hassen, lasts likewise twelve days, during which time altars are erected at every corner of the streets, with arms and trophies piled upon them. All the houses are illuminated at night, and in every quarter the priests harangue the people, on the history of Houssein, exhorting them to revenge his death upon his enemies, meaning the Turkish sect. At this time, it is extremely dangerous for a Turk to appear in public, the whole nation resounding with, *Curfed be Omar* (one of the Turkish patriarchs) *the great enemy of Hali*. In the midst of those frantic exclamations, the people often beat their breasts, and cry and howl like men in the most afflicting circumstances of distress; roaring forth at intervals, *Houssein! Houssein!* till they become almost unable to speak a word. The more to incite the fury of the populace against the Turks, many mournful pageants are carried through the streets, with the wounded bodies of Houssein and his friends, till the rage and resentment of the spectators is worked up to such a pitch of enthusiasm, as if the adored object of their superstitious veneration were perishing before their eyes. During the whole festival, people of fashion send for the priests to their houses, to hear the tale of Houssein and Hassen repeated, for which they make them handsome presents. People of all ranks are extremely charitable at this time; and the king daily entertains four or five thousand persons who follow the procession.

The Mahometans consider it as a duty, to go once in their life in pilgrimage to Mecca, where their prophet was born, and to the kebba or house of God at that place. In performing this superstitious journey, they are frequently so much harassed with the exactions imposed by the Arabians, for the privilege of passing through their territories, that the Persian doctors have declared there is no necessity of making those pilgrimages in person, but that they may be performed by a deputy; since which time, numbers of people get a comfortable subsistence by that office. This method of employing a substitute is likewise by far the cheapest, especially to persons of rank. The common fare of those deputies is only about fifty pounds sterling; but such an expedition is seldom made in person under two hundred pounds, and sometimes a thousand.

When a Persian dies, who has not performed this pilgrimage by himself, or by proxy, the *cadi* (an ecclesiastical magistrate) seizes on as much of his effects, as the expence of the journey would have amounted to, and employs it in sending a person to Mecca, for the

good

good of the dead man's soul; but artificers and the lower class of the people are not required to perform the journey. The whole pilgrimage, especially if they visit the prophet's tomb at Medina, does not take up less than a year. Those who have performed it are in great honour amongst their countrymen when they return, and have the epithet *Hadji* added to their names.

Notwithstanding the extreme superstition of the Persians, they are avowed enemies to intolerance in religious matters. They treat with great humanity even the Gaur, the worshippers of fire, who were the original inhabitants of the country, and are still spread over it. This people, conformably to the principles of Zoroaster, the founder of their sect, maintain that the most meritorious actions which men can perform, are planting, sowing, and propagating their species; and to the general influence of those principles on the practice of the ancient Persians, we may ascribe the great fertility and populousness of the country in former times. The Gaur are an inoffensive people, and permitted by the Persian government to enjoy their own laws and customs, civil and religious. They acknowledge one Supreme Being, the creator and first cause of all things. It has however been said, that they profess this opinion only to keep fair with the Mahometans, it being inconsistent with an article of their belief, respecting the existence of two other beings or intelligences, one the author of all good, and the other of all evil. They also believe that the stars are animated, and have the direction of human affairs. They pay adoration to all the planets, particularly the sun and moon, and likewise to the fire, as to the representation of the deity. They believe that the sacred fire has continued burning in Persia between three and four thousand years, and pretend that it is preserved on a mountain near the city of Yezd, where their principal temple is erected. Their tradition is, that the fire was brought from heaven by Zoroaster, who they believe will return to the earth, and restore their ancient government.

Such is the account which the generality of travellers have given of the everlasting fire; but the story of its preservation is equally fabulous with that of its chimerical origin.

As the language and character of the Gaur are understood by no other people, it is difficult to obtain a perfect knowledge of their progress in speculative enquiries. We may however conclude from their manner of life, which seems to be spent entirely either in the cultivation of the lands which they occupy, or in mechanical employments, that they are totally destitute of learning; and in this situation they are likely to continue, so long as they retain not only an aversion to foreign commerce, but to mixing with people of another faith. They wear their hair and beards long, with a close vest, and hats not unlike those of Europe. They do not scruple the drinking of wine, or eating any kind of meat but beef. Every man is confined to one wife, from whom he cannot be divorced, unless she has been barren nine years; and none are permitted to keep a concubine.

No. 7.

The religion of the Armenians, who are very numerous in Persia, bears a great affinity to that of the Greek church. The exercise of it is not only tolerated, but their patriarchs, archbishops, and bishops are confirmed, and sometimes appointed by the Persian government; for which the great men who prefer them expect a handsome present.

The Armenians seem to believe the doctrine of transubstantiation, but not that of purgatory; though they believe that good men, after death, remain in a state where they know no other joy before the resurrection, but the consciousness of a well spent life, and the expectation of the rewards annexed to it. They administer extreme unction, and in baptism the trine immersion, after which the child is anointed with their holy oil. Their fasts take up one half of the year, at which times they abstain from flesh and fish, and neither clergy nor laity taste any food till the evening.

One of their most solemn festivals is the baptism of the cross, in memory of the baptism of our saviour; at which time the Mahometans as well as Christians assist in crowds, and the king is sometimes present at it. The Armenian bishops and clergy go in procession to some river or grand reservoir, with a cross carried before them; and after some prayers being read suitable to the occasion, and some anthems sung, the bishops plunge the cross into the water several times; every one endeavouring to get near enough to be sprinkled with the water, which is supposed to convey spiritual privileges equal at least to those of baptism.

There are likewise a people in Persia named St. John's Christians, whose religion is a mixture of Christianity, Judaism, and Mahometanism, and who have received their title only from their great veneration for the cross. They hold that God is material; that the angels are of both sexes; that the next state will differ from the present, only in being infinitely more perfect and agreeable; and that all of their own persuasion, after being purified from their sins, will enjoy eternal happiness. The priesthood amongst them is hereditary. Before they enter the state of matrimony, the priests and the relations of the intended bride visit the lady, and require of her an oath that she is a virgin. But not satisfied with this enquiry, the priest's wife is sent to inspect her, when, if she be declared a maid, the priest baptizes both parties, and the nuptial ceremony is performed; after which he casts lots, to know the critical hour for consummation. This likewise having taken place, the bridegroom waits on the bishop, and informs him of the tokens respecting his spouse's virginity. If the declaration of the husband coincides with the proofs which had formerly been taken, she is henceforth reputed virtuous; but if otherwise, she bears the character of a courtesan.

It is computed that there are not less than twenty thousand families of Jews in Persia, who are tolerated in the profession of their religion. They were formerly a rich people, being the principal usurers in the kingdom; but the Banians of India have succeeded them in this business, and they are at present but little regarded. Many of them are artificers, while others pretend to magic, and to tell fortunes; and their

their women, who supply the ladies of the harems with toys, frequently insinuate themselves into their favour by their predictions, and the love potions which they pretend to prepare.

#### C H A P. VI.

*Of language — sciences — arts — marriage — divorce — funerals — mourning.*

THE modern Persians being descended from the Arabs, their language bears a great resemblance to that of their ancestors. They have twenty eight letters in their alphabet, of the Arabic character, all consonants: the accents are properly their vowels, by which their consonants are founded. They use no stops, commas, or paragraphs, in their books; but begin every sentence with a large letter. The Turkish language is now spoken at court; but it is in the Arabic that the Alcoran and most of their books are written. They have not yet received the art of printing. Their paper is made of silk and cotton rag, extremely thin, and bears but on one side; and instead of goose-quills, they make their pens of reeds. They write from the right hand to the left, and entertain a superstitious reverence for the paper on which any characters are inscribed; esteeming it a crime to burn or tear any manuscript, much more to put it to any dirty use, lest the name of God, Mahomet, or some saint or patriarch, should be written upon it. Even paper on which there is no writing, they hold ought not to be defiled, being intended for recording the precepts of their religion, or for other useful purposes.

Judicial astrology continues to be a favourite study of the Persians, as well as in the times of the ancient Magi. The professors of this science at present are all natives of Bactria, the modern Chorassan, and are exceeding numerous. Some thousands of them are constantly retained in the pay of the crown, who, it is said, share amongst them annually a revenue of four hundred thousand pounds. The salary of the chief astrologer is valued at ten thousand pounds a year; and besides this establishment, the king usually makes them presents amounting to two hundred thousand pounds.

The principal men of the order always attend the king's person, to inform him of the lucky and unlucky moments when any thing is to be transacted. They are consulted not only in matters of importance, but in those of the most frivolous nature; as when it may be proper for his majesty to go abroad, or enter the women's apartment; descending even to specify the particular hour at which he ought to eat.

In delivering a prediction, it is usual for them, like the other oracles of old, to use doubtful and ambiguous expressions, by which means, whatever may be the event, they generally have the address to preserve themselves from the imputation of ignorance or falsehood. Nor is the practice of this policy a difficult matter at court. For having a great share in the administration, they are able to judge with a degree of certainty, what occurrences are likely to happen. But

exclusive of this circumstance, the superstitious regard that is paid to their predictions, is sufficient in most cases to insure the accomplishment of them; though there is reason to think that, by the princes, they are used rather as engines of state, than as persons really endowed with the spirit of prophecy. They have their offices in all the great towns in Persia, particularly the capital, where they work upon the folly and superstition of the people, whom they govern according to their own inclination, or the secret instructions of the court.

Next to judicial astrology, they affect to cultivate astronomy, arithmetic, geometry, natural and moral philosophy, and the knowledge of the Alcoran. They begin their year at the vernal equinox, when the astronomers are employed to make an exact observation of the moment at which the sun enters Aries. At this season, the great officers of state and governors wait on the king with congratulations, and wishes for a happy year; offering at the same time a handsome present, which is likewise sent by those governors who live at a distance. Their epocha begins with the hejira, or Mahomet's flight from Mecca to Medina, which happened in the year of the Christian æra 622. Their week begins on Saturday, conformably to the practice of other Mahometans, and therefore their sabbath falls on Friday. Until the Europeans furnished them with clocks and watches, they had no other measure for time than a bowl with a hole in it; which being put into a tub of water, it gradually sunk to the bottom in three hours, after which the operation was repeated.

Physicians are as much esteemed in this country as astrologers, and their fees are extravagantly large. Those two bodies of men are constantly at variance. When the physician has prescribed a medicine, the astrologer is to assign the proper hour for the patient to take it; and if it has not the desired effect, there never fails to ensue an altercation, respecting the cause of its miscarriage; the one imputing this event to an error of calculation, and the other recriminating on the medical ignorance of his rival. The physicians here pretend to understand the nature of the patient's complaint by feeling his pulse, as in China; but in the disorders of women, it is not unusual to deliver their opinion without making any enquiry on this head. If the physician, however, should think proper to insist on such an examination, a curtain must be drawn between him and the female, and her hand must be covered with a piece of crape or fine linen. They seldom bleed in a fever, which is the common disease of the country, contenting themselves with only giving emulsions of the cold seeds. They abstain from the use of clysters, as being inconsistent with modesty, but consult, as in other countries, the natural discharges of the body. The professions of physician and apothecary are centered in the same persons. For the first visit they are allowed the value of two guineas, and on every succeeding occasion, the half of that sum. Both they and the surgeons are entirely ignorant of anatomy; and in respect to those of the latter profession, they have here but little business; the tempera-  
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ature of the air being such, that green wounds heal almost without any assistance, and the inhabitants are not liable to those distempers which proceed from a corruption or flux of humours.

Besides fevers, to which the Persians are chiefly exposed, the cholick, dysentery, and dropsy, are diseases frequent amongst them; the latter of which is imputed to the immoderate use of a cooling regimen in febrile disorders. For the cholick they usually prescribe burning and cauterizing, and for the dysentery rice-gruel, and milk boiled with rice till it is dry. The plague seldom visits Persia, though Turkey and India, the contiguous countries on the east and west, are much exposed to its ravages. The gout, stone, and scurvy, are likewise exceeding rare, but near the Caspian Sea the yellow jaundice is very common; and the French-pox, though not so violent as in Europe, is extremely frequent in all the provinces of the kingdom.

The warm bath is here used in almost every distemper. At day-break, a servant announces, by the sound of a horn, from the roof of the bagnio, that it is ready, when immediately the men assemble, who may perhaps continue to occupy it successively till four in the afternoon. The male servants then retiring, the women come dressed as fine as possible; this being the only opportunity they have of showing their cloaths. Men of figure have baths in their own houses, as some others also have, and let them out to strangers after their own families have been accommodated.

Sculpture and painting are at present very little cultivated in Persia, though it appears from the ruins of Persepolis and other ancient buildings, that in former times the inhabitants were extremely conversant with the practice of the liberal arts. The same reason that promoted the advancement of painting in Europe, seems amongst the Persians to have proved the cause of its decline, as well as that of sculpture. They are prohibited by their religion from introducing either pictures or images into their temples; and some of their puritanical doctors preach against the forming an image or picture of any animal whatever; every such representation being, according to them, a species of idolatry.

Notwithstanding the disregard of the Persians to the arts of painting and sculpture, they are extremely attached to poetry. Every man of figure retains in his family a poet, who produces his compositions when his patron makes any entertainment; and there hardly is a place of public resort, where you may not meet with several competitors of this class, who vie with each other in exhibiting proofs of their genius. The Persians are reputed to be greater proficient in poetry than in any other branch of learning; their imagination being fruitful and lively, and their language having a softness peculiarly adapted to the harmony of versification. They are so fond of rhyme, in which they are much nicer than in their numbers, that they generally mix it with all their prose compositions, and even frequently introduce it in their conversation. Their style is for the most part highly figurative and hyperbolic, discovering all that warmth of fancy and

abruptness of transition, which distinguish the oriental manner of writing from that of the nations of Europe. As a specimen of their poetry, the following prose translation of a ghazel, or Persian ode, is submitted to the reader. The original was written by Mahomed Shemseddin, commonly called Hafes, who lived in the fourteenth century.

"Ho! come! O cup-bearer, carry round the wine, and present it; for love appeared pleasant at first, but difficulties have since happened.

"In hopes of the perfume which at length the zephyr shall diffuse from that forehead,

"From her waving musky ringlets, how much blood will flow into our hearts.

"Stain the sacred carpet with wine, if the master of the house commands thee;

"For a traveller is not ignorant of the ways and manners of houses of entertainment.

"For me what room is there for pleasure in the bowers of beauty, when every moment

"The bell proclaims, "Bind on your burdens."

"The darkness of the night and the fear of the waves and whirlpool are so dreadful,

"How can they know our situation, the bearers of light burdens on the shore?

"All my voluntary actions have tended finally to procure me a bad name;

"For how can that secret remain concealed, of which they make conversation?

"If thou desirest tranquillity, neglect not this advice, O Hafes,

"When thou shalt possess her thou lovest, bid adieu to the world, and abandon it."

Of the merit of this ode a more exact judgement may be formed, from the subsequent paraphrase; in which, without deviating from the sense or sentiment of the original, a kind of connected whole is made out of a number of apparently disjointed parts.

"Fill, fill the cup with sparkling wine,  
Deep let me drink the juice divine,

To soothe my tortur'd heart:

For love, who seem'd at first so mild,

So gently look'd, so gaily smil'd;

Here deep has plung'd his dart.

When, sweeter than the damask rose,

From Letia's locks the zephyr blows,

How glows my keen desire!

I chide the wanton gale's delay;

I'm jealous of his am'rous play,

And all my soul's on fire.

To love the flowing goblet drain,

With wine the sacred carpet stain,

If your gay host invites;

For he, who treads the mazy round

Of mighty love's enchanted ground,

Knows all his laws and rites.

But longer, 'midst the young and fair,

With happy mind and easy air,

Can I delighted roam?

When, hark! the heart-alarms bell

Proclaims aloud, with dismal knell,

Depart, thy hour is come!

The night now darkens all around,  
 Now howl the winds, the waves rebound;  
 We part to meet no more:  
 Our dreadful fate how can they know,  
 Whose tranquil hours unruffled flow  
 Secure upon the shore?  
 How many tales does slander frame,  
 And rumour whisper 'gainst my fame;  
 With malice both combine:  
 Because I wish to pass my days,  
 Despising what each snarler says,  
 With friendship, love, and wine.  
 But, Hafez, if thou wouldst enjoy,  
 Ecstatic rapture, soul-felt joy,  
 Blest as the powers above,  
 Snatch to thy arms the blooming maid,  
 Then, on her charming bosom laid,  
 Abandon all for love."

The music of the Persians is not equal to their verse. They never sing in parts, but alternately, or one after another, and generally to an instrument not unlike the lute. Singing and dancing are not looked upon as creditable employments, nor will people of fashion suffer their children to learn either; but for the most part they retain bands of music, consisting of both sexes, who make it their profession, and entertain the company at festivals, and other joyful occasions.

In all the great towns of Persia there are public schools, where boys are instructed in the Arabic, and arithmetic, whence they are removed to the medres or colleges, to acquire the sciences, as they are taught, and the principles of their religion. In some places the youth are instructed by gentlemen of distinction, discarded courtiers, and others, who perform the office gratis, with the view of recovering a lost reputation; nothing being considered as a proof of greater generosity than devoting their attention in this manner to the service of the public.

The Persians never seeing their wives till the day of marriage, an ambassadress is commissioned to take a view of the intended bride, and make a faithful report with respect to her person and circumstances. When a contract of marriage is made, it is registered before the civil magistrate, without going to the temple; and the bridegroom sends the bride a habit, with jewels and ornaments suitable to his rank and situation. Next day, towards evening, he mounts his horse richly accoutred; and attended by his friends, and a band of music, proceeds to the house of the bride's father, on the way to which he is met by her, with a similar train of attendants, but is veiled, that her face is not seen. The companies being joined, they march to the bridegroom's house with lighted flambeaux, drums, trumpets, and music playing before them. At their arrival, the bride is introduced to the apartment intended for her, to which the husband soon follows, who is now for the first time favoured with a view of her person.

The Persians are in no haste to marry their sons, but furnish them with female slaves, till advantageous matches may occur. Love is the smallest inducement

to the entering into a contract of marriage, especially among people of fashion, who are generally governed in this case by mercenary motives. According to their law, every man is permitted to have four wives by contract; but they seldom have more than one, and she is often taken for no other purpose than to be a governess to her husband's women, who are in reality her servants, though they be admitted to their master's bed, and their children are deemed as legitimate as the issue of the wife by contract. There is no such thing as a bastard; and the offspring of a concubine or slave has an equal share with any other child in the estate and effects of the father. The age of marriage in Persia, is nine years for the girls, and thirteen for the boys.

Divorces are easily obtained, where both parties are equally disposed to a separation. The chief causes on either side are a violation of the conjugal engagement, on the part of the wife by unchastity, and on that of the husband by spending his time chiefly with his concubines, or by impotency. Upon a divorce, the wife is entitled to the dower contracted for at her marriage, when it was not through any fault committed by her, that the privilege of repudiation was granted; and in this case, after her death, the estate descends to her children.

When a man appears to be dying, they set up lights, and kindle fires on the terrace of the house, as a signal to passengers and their neighbours to pray for him; and the mollah or priest being sent for, he exhorts the dying person to repent of his sins. The latter having said, *taube*, I repent, repeats after the mollah the following creed. "I believe there is but one only God, who has neither companion nor equal, and that Mahomet is his prophet. I likewise believe Haly and the other eleven Imams are the true successors of Mahomet, and as I have lived in this faith, so shall I die in it." When the person expires, the relations and friends set up a dismal howl, rend their cloaths, tear their hair, beat their breasts, and behave themselves like people in the utmost agonies of sorrow; intermingling their complaints with the most tender expressions to the dead body, as if it were sensible of their grief. The corpse is afterwards wrapped in a winding-sheet, on which are written some passages out of the Alcoran. If the burying ground is near, the body is carried thither without any coffin, preceded by the ensigns of the mosque, with the horses, turbant, and arms of the deceased. The office of bearing the corpse to the interment is not performed by any particular class of men. Every one of the company offers their service; and if a person of quality happens to meet a funeral, he will alight from his horse, to assist in carrying the bier; this being esteemed an act of piety by the Persians. They do not bury in their mosques or temples, but usually by the road-side. When a person of figure is buried, an arch is erected on that side of the tomb next Mecca, and the face of the corpse laid the same way. They imagine that the soul reanimates the body soon after it is deposited in the tomb, and is examined by an angel concerning his faith, and the actions of his life.

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When a corpse is to be buried at a distance, it is put in a coffin filled with salt, lime, and perfumes, which serve instead of embalming.

Nine or ten days after the interment, the relations and friends visit the tomb, carrying with them cakes, sweet-meats, and fruits, where they again weep, and renew their addresses to the deceased, from an opinion that this expression of their grief is acceptable to the angels, who are supposed to guard the sepulchre.

During the forty days prescribed for mourning, they wear a torn and neglected dress; but never of black, which they esteem the devil's colour. When the time is expired they bathe, previous to resuming their usual habits.

## C H A P. VII.

*History of Persia.*

**D**URING many centuries the history of this country is involved in that of the first monarchy, known by the name of the Assyrian empire, of which it is agreed by all historians that Persia constituted a part. The account of the most ancient sovereigns of this empire, however, is warped with so many particulars of a doubtful and romantic nature, that the credibility of it must appear extremely questionable; and therefore, passing over the fabulous period, which includes, amongst others, the reigns of Belus, Semiramis, and Ninus, we shall begin our narrative with Sardanapalus, the last prince of the first dynasty, and who flourished about the year of the world 3237.

This weak and unwarlike monarch is said to have surpassed all his predecessors in effeminacy, luxury, and cowardice. He never went out of his palace, but spent all his time amongst women; dressed and painted like them, and employed himself like them at the distaff. He placed all his happiness and glory in the possession of immense treasures, in feasting, rioting, and indulging in all the most infamous and criminal pleasures. Falling at last a sacrifice to his voluptuousness, at his death he ordered two verses to be inscribed on his tomb, importing that he had carried with him what he had eaten, and the pleasures he had enjoyed; but left all the rest behind him; an epitaph, says Aristotle, fit for a hog.

“Hæc habeo quæ edi, quæque exaturata libido

Hauit: at illa jacent multa & præclara relicta.”

The story of his death is thus related: Arbaces, governor of Media, having found means to get into the palace, and being convinced by his own eyes of the dissolute manners of the prince, was so struck with indignation at his effeminacy, that he formed a conspiracy against him; in which he was joined by several others, among whom was Belesis, governor of Babylon. On the first rumour of the revolt, the king hid himself in the inmost part of the palace; but being afterwards driven to take the field, with some forces that had assembled in his defence, he was overcome and pursued to the gates of Nineveh; where he shut himself up, in hopes that, as the city was well stored with provisions, the rebels would not entertain the resolution of forcing a surrender of the place.

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He was farther bouyed up in this expectation, for some time, by an ancient oracle, which had declared that Nineveh could never be taken, until the Tigris should become its enemy; an event which he considered as impossible. In the progress of the siege, however, observing that the river, by a violent inundation, had thrown down twenty stadia of the city-wall, and opened a passage to the enemy, he is said to have understood the meaning of the oracle, and abandoned all hope of success. But resolving to distinguish his effeminate life by one act of fortitude, he ordered that in his palace a pile of wood should be erected, with which he burnt his women, his eunuchs, his treasures, and himself. According to Athenæus, those treasures amounted to a thousand myriads of talents of gold, and to ten times as many talents of silver; a sum which exceeds credibility.

Nineveh, or Ninus, appears at this time to have been in a very flourishing condition. By the prophet Jonas it is called an exceeding great city, of three days journey; and, according to Diodorus, it measured in circumference four hundred and eighty stadia, or sixty miles. The walls of it are said to have been a hundred foot high, and of so considerable thickness, that three chariots might go a-breast upon them with ease. They were fortified and adorned with fifteen hundred towers, two hundred foot high. It was overthrown by the Medes, as had been foretold by the prophet Nahum. We are informed by Lucian, that not the smallest trace of it remained in his time; but this cannot be reconciled with Tacitus and Ammian, unless upon the supposition that another Ninus arose from the ruins of the old, extant in the time of the Romans.

At the death of Sardanapalus, the conspirators divided amongst them the extensive dominions which he had possessed. Arbaces usurped the government of Media and Persia, Belochus, or Phul, assumed that of Babylon and Chaldea, Ninus reigned in Nineveh and the adjacent country; and the others took possession respectively of the rest of the provinces of the Assyrian empire. But though the monarchy was thus dismembered, a mutual connexion prevailed for ages, in the history of the several provinces of which it had been composed. Of Arbaces and his immediate successors, we meet with no account in the imperfect records of those times. It appears, however, that Belochus is the same as Nabonassar, from whose reign began the famous astronomical epochs at Babylon, called from him the æra of Nabonassar; and that Ninus was likewise distinguished by the name of Tiglath Pileser.

Ahaz, king of Judah, being attacked by the kings of Syria and Israel, robbed the temple of part of its treasure, which he sent to Tiglath Pileser, king of Nineveh, to purchase his assistance against the invaders; promising at the same time to become his vassal, and pay him tribute. The king of Nineveh finding so favourable an opportunity of adding Syria and Palestine to his empire, readily accepted the proposal, and, advancing with a numerous army, defeated Rezin, king of Syria, and made himself master of Damascus. The immediate protection, however, which Ahaz derived from this resource, proved soon after injurious

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to his interest, as well as to the security of his kingdom; not only by the immense sum exacted for this service, but by bringing into this neighbourhood such powerful princes as those of Nineveh, Sabacus the Ethiopian, having made himself master of Egypt, Hofea, king of Samaria, entered into an alliance with him, in the hope of being thereby enabled to shake off the Assyrian yoke. To this end, he disclaimed all dependence on the crown of Nineveh, which had been admitted by his predecessor, and refused either to pay tribute any longer to Salmanasar, or make him the usual presents. The latter, to punish him for his presumption, marched against him with a powerful army; and after having subdued all the plain country, shut him up in Samaria, where he kept him closely besieged for three years, at the end of which time he took the city. Loading Hofea with chains, he threw him into prison for the remainder of his life, and carried his people into captivity.

Salmanasar was succeeded on the throne by his son Sennacherib, who renewed the demand of the tribute exacted by his father from Hezekiah; and in consequence of a refusal, invaded Judea with a numerous army. Hezekiah, grieved to see the devastation of his kingdom, sent ambassadors to him, to desire peace upon any terms he should prescribe. Sennacherib, apparently mollified, entered into a treaty with him, and demanded a large sum of gold and silver. After the most perfect compliance with his requisition, however, and in violation of the most solemn engagement, he continued to pursue the vanquished prince with unremitting hostilities. He was now master of all the fortified places in Judah, except Jerusalem, which likewise was reduced to great extremity, when receiving intelligence that Tirhahah, king of Ethiopia, who had joined his forces with the king of Egypt, was coming to the succour of the besieged city, he immediately marched to give them battle; previously writing to Hezekiah a letter, full of blasphemy against the God of Israel. Having defeated the Egyptians, he pursued them into their own country, and made many prisoners of war. He afterwards laid siege to Jerusalem, but losing in one night a hundred and eighty-five thousand of his army, by the sword of a destroying angel, he returned with the remnant to his own country, covered with shame and confusion. After many acts of the most barbarous cruelty and oppression, his savage temper became at length so intolerable, even to those of his own family, that his two eldest sons, uniting in conspiracy, killed him in the temple, as he lay prostrate before Nisroch his god. Those two princes, however, being obliged, after this parricide, to fly into Armenia, left the kingdom to Esarhaddon, their youngest brother. At this time, the royal family of Babylon becoming extinct, there was an inter-regnum of eight years, full of intestine commotions, of which Esarhaddon taking advantage, made himself master of Babylon, and annexing it to his former dominions, reigned over them for thirteen years. After re-uniting Syria and Palestine to the Assyrian empire, from which they had been torn in the preceding reign, he entered

the land of Israel, and made many of the inhabitants captive. He next sent a part of his army into Judea, to reduce that country likewise under his subjection. In this enterprize, his generals defeated Manasseh, and brought him prisoner to Esarhaddon, who put him in chains, and carried him in captivity to Babylon; permitting him, however, afterwards to return to Judea.

Esarhaddon, after a prosperous reign of thirty-nine years over the Assyrians, and thirteen over the Babylonians, was succeeded by his son Sardanapalus. This prince, otherwise called Nebuchadonosor, or Nebuchadnezzar, the common appellation of the kings of Babylon; and to distinguish him from others, was denominated Nebuchadonosor the First. He was succeeded by his son Saracus, against whom Nabopolassar, the general of his armies, raised a rebellion, and possessed himself of the province of Babylon, over which he reigned twenty-one years; and then entering into an alliance with Cyaxares, king of the Medes, they united their forces, and invested Nineveh. Saracus being killed during the siege, and the place entirely destroyed, the city of Babylon became the capital of the Assyrian empire, of which Nabopolassar was acknowledged sovereign. The greatness of this prince alarming the neighbouring powers, they entered into alliance against him and Cyaxares his confederate. Necho, king of Egypt, with the army of the allies, subdued Syria and Palestine; and advancing to the Euphrates, besieged and took Carchemish. On this event, Nabopolassar, now grown old, associated his son Nebuchadnezzar with him in the government, and sent him with a formidable army to oppose Necho, whom he defeated near the Euphrates, and retook Carchemish. Marching afterwards to Syria and Palestine, he reunited those provinces under his dominion; and likewise entering Judea, besieged and took Jerusalem. He caused king Jehoiakim to be put in irons, with the view of carrying him to Babylon, but being moved with his affliction, restored him to his throne. Some of the children of the royal family, however, with a great number of Jews, were carried captives to Babylon; whither all the treasures of the king's palace, and a part of the sacred vessels of the temple, were likewise transported.

From this epocha, which was the fourth year of Jehoiachim, is to be dated the memorable captivity of the Jews at Babylon; in which was involved the prophet Daniel, then eighteen years old, as was likewise soon afterwards Ezekiel. About a year from this period died Nabopolassar, king of Babylon, after a reign of twenty-one years. As soon as the news of his death had reached Nebuchadnezzar, he set out with all expedition for the capital, attended only by a small retinue, leaving the bulk of his army, with the captives, to be conducted to Babylon after him. In the fourth year of his reign he had a dream, at which he was greatly terrified, though he could not call it to mind. Requiring, therefore, of the wise men and diviners of his kingdom, that they should make known to him the substance of his dream, they answered that such a problem was beyond the reach of their art, and that the utmost they could do was to give the interpretation of

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his dream, as soon as he should relate it. Nebuchadnezzar, imagining they dealt with him insincerely, fell into a violent rage, and condemned them all to death; Daniel and his three companions being included in the sentence, as ranked in the number of wife men. Daniel, however, obtaining at his request an audience of the king, revealed to him the substance of his dream; the consequence of which was, that Nebuchadnezzar not only acknowledged a belief in the God of the Israelites, but promoted Daniel to the highest offices in the kingdom, as well as conferred honours on his three friends.

At this time, Jehoikim revolting from the king of Babylon, the generals of the latter, that remained in Judea, marched against him, and laying waste the country, killed, as was imagined, the king in a skirmish. His son Jehonias mounting the throne, was besieged by the Assyrians in Jerusalem, till Nebuchadnezzar, soon after arriving in the camp, made himself master of the city. He plundered both the temple and the king's palace of their treasures, which he sent to Babylon; carrying away likewise a vast number of captives, amongst whom were Jehonias, his mother, and his wives, with all the great officers and principal persons of his kingdom; placing on the throne, in the room of Jehonias, his uncle Mattaniah otherwise called Zedekiah. This prince, however, entering soon afterwards into an alliance with the king of Egypt, broke the oath of fidelity which he had taken to Nebuchadnezzar, who upon the intelligence of this event, again laid siege to Jerusalem. The arrival of the king of Egypt, at the head of an army, gave the besieged some hopes of success; but after the defeat of the Egyptians and an obstinate siege, which lasted almost a twelvemonth, the city was taken by storm, and a terrible slaughter ensued. Zedekiah's two sons were, by order of the conqueror, killed before their father's face, with all the nobility and principal men of Judah; and the miserable king himself, after his eyes being put out, was loaded with chains, and carried to Babylon, where he was confined in a prison during the remainder of his life. The city and temple were burnt, and all the fortifications demolished.

Nebuchadnezzar, returning to Babylon after this unsuccessful war, ordered a golden statue to be made, sixty cubits high, which he commanded all his subjects to worship, threatening to cast those who should refuse into a burning furnace. On this occasion, the three young Hebrews, Ananias, Misael, and Azarias, who with invincible courage persisted in refusing to comply with the king's impious ordinance, were preserved in the midst of the flames, by a miraculous interposition of Providence. Nebuchadnezzar being a witness of this astonishing transaction, published an edict, by which all persons were forbid, upon pain of death, to speak any thing against the God of Ananias, Misael, and Azarias, promoting likewise those three young men to the highest honours and employments.

In the twenty-first year of his reign, and the fourth of the destruction of Jerusalem, Nebuchadnezzar marched again into Syria, and besieged Tyre, at the time when the reins of government were in the hands

of Ithobal. For thirteen years, this city resisted the most determined efforts of the whole Babylonish power; and when reduced to the last extremity, the inhabitants retired, with the greatest part of their effects, into a neighbouring island, half a mile from the shore, where they built a new city, the glory of which extinguished the remembrance of the old one, henceforward a mere village, retaining the name of *Ancient Tyre*.

Tyre was a strong and opulent city, which had never been subject to any foreign power, and was then in great repute for its commerce, by which many of the citizens were become like princes, in respect of wealth and magnificence. It was built by the Sidonians, two hundred and forty years before the temple of Jerusalem. It was celebrated for its colonies, and its purple dye. Of this city were afterwards, Porphyry, the famous antagonist of Christianity; Maximus, the Platonic philosopher; and Ulpian, the celebrated civilian.

Nebuchadnezzar, having happily finished all his wars, put the last hand to the building, or rather the embellishing of Babylon.

This metropolis, the most ancient in the world, was situated in a spacious plain on each side of the Euphrates, supposed to have stood in 44 degrees east longitude, and 32 degrees north latitude. It was built in a square form, each side measuring fifteen miles; and the whole sixty miles in circumference. The walls were three hundred and fifty foot high, and eighty-seven foot thick, made of large bricks cemented together with bitumen, a stony exudation arising from the earth in that country, and which acquires in a short time an extraordinary hardness. The walls were surrounded on the outside, with a vast ditch full of water, and faced with bricks on both sides. The river Euphrates ran through the city from north to south, and on each side of the river was a quay, and a high wall of the same thickness with the other. On every side of the city were twenty-five gates, all made of solid brass, which opened into so many streets, that ran in straight lines a hundred and fifty foot broad. By the streets on each side, intersecting one another, the city was divided into seven hundred and seventy-six squares, in which were fields and gardens that might produce provisions enough to subsist the inhabitants in a siege. Within the walls of the city stood the tower of Babel, built before the confusion of languages, and the dispersion of the people. It was a square fabric, half a mile in circumference, and as much in height, built in the form of a pyramid, consisting of eight stories, the ascent to which was by stairs, surrounding the tower in a spiral line. Over the whole was an observatory for the Babylonian astronomers, who anciently excelled all nations in their knowledge of the heavenly bodies. The principal use of the tower, however, was the worship of their gods, particularly the image of Belus, or Baal, the founder of the monarchy.

The Hanging Gardens of Babylon were esteemed the greatest curiosity of the East. They contained a square of four hundred foot on each side, and were

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carried up in the manner of several terrasses one above another, to a level with the top of the city-walls. The ascent was from terrass to terrass, by stairs ten foot wide. The whole pile was sustained by vast arches, one above another, and strengthened by a surrounding wall, of twenty-two foot thickness. On the top of the arches were first laid large flat stones, sixteen foot long, and four broad, covered with a layer of reeds mixed with bitumen; over which were two rows of bricks closely cemented together. The whole was covered with thick sheets of lead, on which lay the mould of the garden, so deep that the largest trees might take root in it; and with such the terrasses were covered, as well as with all other plants and flowers, that were proper for a garden of pleasure. In the upper terrass was an engine, by which water was drawn out of the river, for the use of the garden. In the spaces between the several arches on which this structure rested, were large and magnificent apartments, which had the advantage of a beautiful prospect.

We are informed in scripture, that while Nebuchadnezzar was admiring the magnificence of his palace, he was suddenly deprived of his understanding; he was driven from men, and did eat grass like oxen; his body was wet with the dew of heaven, till his hairs were grown like eagles feathers, and his nails like birds claws; but after seven years he recovered his senses, when he was restored to his throne, and became greater and more powerful than ever. Being affected with the highest gratitude, he caused a solemn edict to be published, declaring the astonishing changes which God had wrought in his person. He died soon after, and was succeeded by his son Evil Merodach, a dissolute prince, who was cut off by a conspiracy of his relations at the end of two years, his sister's husband, Neriglissar, mounting the throne in his stead. On the accession of the latter to the crown, he made great preparation for war against the Medes, which induced Cyaxares to send for Cyrus out of Persia to his assistance. His reign however proved of short duration. He was succeeded by his son Laborsadod, a prince of an odious character, who enjoyed the crown only nine months, being put to death by a conspiracy of his subjects. His successor was Labynit, or Nabonid, called in Scripture Belshazzar; in whose reign Babylon was taken, and an end put to that empire, by the united forces of Cyaxares, king of Media, called in Scripture Darius, and Cyrus, king of Persia.

This war was memorable for the defeat of the celebrated Cræsus, king of Lydia. After two engagements, his capital city of Sardis being taken by Cyrus, and himself made prisoner, he was condemned by the conqueror to be burnt alive. When a funeral pile was prepared for the purpose, and the unfortunate prince placed upon it, recollecting a conversation which he formerly had with Solon, in which the latter affirmed, that no man could be pronounced happy till his death; he cried out aloud three times, Solon! Solon! Solon! Cyrus, who was present at the spectacle, desirous to know why Cræsus repeated the name of this philosopher with so much vehemence in that extremity, being informed of the reason, was struck with compassion for

the king's misfortune, and causing him to be taken down from the pile, treated him ever afterwards with particular marks of esteem.

These two princes reigned jointly over the dominions they had conquered, for the space of two years, when Cyaxares dying, Cyrus became sovereign of Media and Persia by inheritance, as he did of the Assyrian empire by conquest; and the whole thence obtained the name of the Persian empire, of which he is considered as the founder. The empire was divided by Cyrus into a hundred and twenty provinces or governments, of all which the respective governors were obliged to give an account of their administration to three great officers of state, who always resided at court; of whom the chief was the prophet Daniel, who foretold the destruction of the Assyrian empire, and the restoration of the Jews. In the first year of the reign of Cyrus, expired the seventieth year of the Babylonish captivity, when he published the famous edict, by which the Jews were permitted to return to Jerusalem; said to be obtained by the solicitations of Daniel, who was in great credit and authority at court. Cyrus restored, at the same time, all the vessels of the temple, which Nebuchadonosor had brought from Jerusalem, and placed in the temple of his god Baal. The Jews departed for their own country soon after, under the conduct of Zerobabel.

Cyrus survived his uncle Cyaxares seven years, and at his death left two sons, Cambyfes and Tanaoxares; the former of whom succeeded to the throne, and the other inherited several considerable provinces.

In the fourth year of his reign, Cambyfes, on receiving intelligence that Amasis was endeavouring to shake off the yoke of the Assyrian empire, invaded Egypt with a numerous army, and invested Pelusium (Damiatta), situate on the eastern branch of the river Nile, of which he made himself master with very little opposition. For, driving before him a great number of cats, oxen, and other animals, adored by the Egyptians, the troops in the garrison were so tender of the sacred quadrupeds, that they would not shoot an arrow at their enemies, lest they should destroy a god. Amasis dying before the reduction of Pelusium, was succeeded by his son Pfameticus, who in a general engagement with the Assyrians was defeated and made prisoner. He was treated by the conqueror with great humanity, and restored to his throne; but endeavouring again to render himself independent, was put to death at the order of Cambyfes.

Having subjected Egypt, Cambyfes proceeded to invade Ethiopia, whence however he was obliged to retire, after losing a great part of his army by famine and various hardships; while another body of his troops, that had been sent to invade Lybia, were destroyed by a whirlwind, which raised the sands in those deserts to such a degree, that the whole army was covered and suffocated. Those different disasters appear to have extremely affected the mind of Cambyfes; for henceforward his reign was distinguished by acts of barbarity, inconsistent with the mildness of temper which he had formerly discovered. In his retreat, he plundered and demolished Thebes, with its magnificent temples and palaces. At Memphis, finding the



the Egyptians keeping a festival in honour of their adored ox, and imagining they were rejoicing at the unsuccessful issue of his enterprise, he plunged his sword into the animal, and ordered the priests to be put to death. The son of Prexaspes, his first minister, he shot through the heart with an arrow before his father's face; embittering the grief of the unhappy parent, by presenting him with the heart extracted from the body of the youth, asking the insolent question, Whether he had not a steady hand? To which Prexaspes, struck with terror, is said to have replied, Apollo could not have shot better. He became so jealous of his brother Tanaoxares or Smerdis, who attended him in the Ethiopian expedition, that he caused him to be murdered; which his sister Meroc, whom he had married, reproaching him with, he commanded her also to be murdered, and several of the officers of his court to be buried alive. Cræsus, who was yet among the number of his ministers, suggesting that such acts of cruelty must alienate the affection of his subjects, Cambyfes ordered him to be put to death; but those to whom the care of the execution was committed, observing the king to be intoxicated with liquor, and imagining that when sober he would repent of the order he had given, delayed to carry it into act. For this disobedience, however, he commanded them all to be murdered next day, notwithstanding he rejoiced greatly to know that Cræsus was alive.

In the eighth year of his reign, returning through Syria towards Babylon, he received advice that Smerdis, an impostor who pretended to be his brother, had usurped his throne. On mounting his horse, Cambyfes fell upon his own sword, which happened to be out of the scabbard, and received a mortal wound in the thigh, of which he soon after died; the Egyptians affirming that it was a judgment upon him, for wounding their god Apis in the same part.

Smerdis, the usurper, was the son of one of the Magi, governor of Babylon, and resembling the murdered brother of Cambyfes, was acknowledged by the people as their sovereign, on the death of the latter; the success of the claim being facilitated by the authority of his father. The impostor, however, being discovered by the want of his ears, which were cut off for some offence he committed in the reign of Cyrus, he was set upon by the nobility, and killed. Darius, who gave him a mortal wound, afterwards cut off his head, and exposed it to the people; the sight of which so enraged them at the Magi, that they sacrificed a great number of that body, and an annual festival was instituted in memory of their deliverance from this usurpation.

On the death of Smerdis, the tradition is, that the conspirators agreed to meet at sun-rise next morning, each mounted on horseback, when he whose horse first neighed should be acknowledged as successor to the throne; and that the lot fell on Darius, by a stratagem of his groom, who had brought a mare to the place the preceding night, and shewed her to the horse. But by whatever means Darius obtained the empire, he endeavoured to strengthen his title by marrying

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Artossa, the sister and wife of Cambyfes, and Ariston, another of the daughters of Cyrus. It was this Darius Hystaspes (the Alaxerxes of the Scripture), who published the edict against Haman, in favour of the Jews, at the request of queen Esther, and commanded the building of the temple to be continued, at the expence of the state. Darius removing the seat of the government from Babylon, which had now been rebuilt, to Susa, or Shushan, some male-contenta took advantage of his absence, and attempted to render Babylon an independent kingdom. Collecting a body of forces, Darius laid siege to Babylon, which having invested for eighteen months, without any prospect of success, he at last reduced by a stratagem of Zopirus, one of his generals. This officer deserted to the Babylonians, and pretending to have been barbarously treated by Darius, insinuated himself so far into the favour of the citizens, as to obtain the command of their troops. He then betrayed the place into the hands of his master, who caused the walls to be demolished, and impaled three thousand of the citizens that had been most active in the revolt. His next expedition was against the Seythians, in which the greater part of his army perished in the deserts; after which, having passed over into Greece with a numerous army, in order to be revenged on the Athenians for the assistance they had given the people of Ionia, he was shamefully defeated in the memorable battle of Marathon, and obliged to repass the Hellespont with considerable loss.

Egypt revolting soon after, Darius made great preparations for invading that country and Greece at the same time, but died before his army was assembled. He was succeeded by his son Xerxes, who immediately marched into Egypt, which he reduced to subjection.

The preparations for invading Greece, which had been begun by the former king, were carried on by Xerxes with unremitting assiduity for several years; and, if we may credit the testimony of the Greek historians, the multitude which he led with him on this expedition, amounted to no less than three millions. At the head of this amazing army he marched from Sardis, the capital of the Persian dominions in Asia Minor, to the Hellespont, over which he laid a bridge of boats, that was destroyed by a tempest. Provoked at this disaster, he is said to have ordered his soldiers to lash the waves, and throw chains and fetters into the sea, to shew his dominion over that element. But whatever credit may be due to this anecdote, he caused a stronger bridge than the former to be built, over which he passed his army. When he viewed his numerous forces on this occasion, we are told that he wept, from the reflexion that of all the multitude which accompanied him, not one should survive many years. He had no sooner passed the Hellespont, than Thrace submitted to a power which seemed to bid defiance to the united opposition of Europe. The Grecians however determined to die, rather than acknowledge the Persian emperor their sovereign. In this resolution Leonidas, one of the kings of Sparta, with four thousand men, took possession of the strait

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of Thermopylæ, between Thessaly and Phocis, through which the Persians must pass; and waiting the approach of this formidable army, sustained several desperate attacks, in which the enemy lost upwards of twenty thousand men. But a native of the country showing the Persians a way up the mountain, which commanded the strait, they possessed themselves of it in the night, and the Greeks, in consequence, abandoned all hopes of success from disputing the passage any longer. Leonidas therefore gave leave to the troops he commanded to retire, while himself, with only three hundred men, determined to remain, and sell their lives as dear as they could. When they had formed this heroic resolution, he is said to have invited the three hundred to dine with him, telling them at the same time, that they must expect to sup with Pluto, on which they set up a general shout. Soon after, an attack was made by the Persians, in which Leonidas and all the three hundred were killed, except one, who escaped. This fugitive bringing advice of the action to Sparta, was punished for cowardice, in not throwing away his life with his companions.

The same day on which the action of Thermopylæ happened, Themistocles, admiral of the Grecian fleet, defeated that of the Persians, though the latter consisted of a thousand sail, and the former of no more than four hundred. Xerxes, however, continuing his march towards Athens, the inhabitants abandoned the city, and went on board their ships, sending their wives and children to Peloponnesus. The deserted capital being thus left a prey to the enemy, on their arrival they plundered and burnt it, seizing on the vast treasures that were laid up at Delphos, which consisted of offerings presented to that oracle for many years, by the neighbouring kingdoms and states.

Whilst the Persians were intent on pursuing their conquest at land, the Grecians obtained a second victory over the fleet at Salamis; and a report prevailing, that they were about to demolish the bridge over the Hellespont, and thereby preclude the invaders from the possibility of a retreat, Xerxes directed his march hither with great precipitation; where he found the bridge broke down, not by his enemies, but by a storm. He passed the Hellespont therefore in a small boat, and retired to Sardis, whither, it is presumed, great part of his army followed him, as he left only three hundred thousand men to continue the war, under the command of Mardonius. This general was defeated and killed next year at Platæa, in an action with the Athenians and Lacedæmonians, commanded by Aristides and Pausanias. Xerxes is said to have been so enraged at those repeated disasters, that he caused all the Grecian temples in Asia to be burnt, except that of Diana at Ephesus. On returning to his capital, he was murdered by Artabanus, captain of the guards, and Mithridates, one of the principal eunuchs, and was succeeded by his third son Artaxerxes, the two eldest having been murdered by the same conspirators, who were capitally punished by the new king on his advancement to the throne.

Egypt revolting from the crown of Persia about this time, Artaxerxes reduced it to his obedience. It was this prince who assisted the Jews to rebuild the walls of Jerusalem; and from the decree in their favour, in the twentieth year of his reign, is dated the commencement of the seventy weeks of Daniel; at the end of which, it was foretold that the Messiah would appear upon earth.

Under this prince, the Grecians retaliated the invasions which had been made into their country by the two preceding Persian kings; where meeting with great success, especially those under the command of the celebrated Cymon the Athenian, Artaxerxes thought fit to make peace with them, after the war had continued almost to the end of his reign. At his death, his sons, of whom he left several, contended some time for the crown, till Ochus succeeded, who assumed the name of Darius. This prince dying without performing any memorable achievement, his son Arfaces mounted the throne, who enjoyed all the paternal dominions, except the province of Asia Minor, which was given to Cyrus, the younger son. The latter imagining that he had a right to the Persian crown, on account of his being born after his father had arrived at the regal dignity, but Arfaces before that event, expressed the highest displeasure at this settlement, and attempted to assassinate his brother in the temple, at the time of the coronation. He retired, however, to his government in Asia Minor, where continuing quiet only till he had engaged a body of Grecian forces in his service, and assembled a numerous army of Persians, he began his march towards the capital of the empire, in order to depose his brother. When he came within seventy miles of Babylon, Arfaces (who on his accession to the throne took the name of Artaxerxes, and was called Mnemon by the Greeks, on account of his great memory) engaged him with an army consisting, as is said, of a million of Persians. In this battle Cyrus was killed, and his Persian troops totally routed; but the thirteen thousand Greeks in his service, in spite of the utmost efforts of the royalists, made their retreat into Greece, under the command of the celebrated Xenophon, whose elegant history of this extraordinary transaction will transmit its fame to the most distant ages of mankind.

Artaxerxes was succeeded by his son Ochus, in whose reign Egypt, which had again revolted, with Phœnicia, was rendered obedient to the Persian crown.

Besides demolishing all the fortified places in the kingdom, and plundering the temples and palaces, a multitude of the inhabitants was carried captive to Babylon; amongst whom was Bagoas, the eunuch, who became a great favourite with the king, and was advanced to the highest posts in the government. An implacable resentment, however, for the oppression of his country, and the contempt expressed by the Persian monarch for the gods and religion of Egypt, effaced in the mind of the eunuch every sentiment of gratitude and attachment, and he entered into a conspiracy against Ochus, whom he removed by poison in the

twenty-fourth year of his reign. His revenge not being satisfied by this act of treachery, he likewise poisoned Arfes, the son of his royal patron, and advanced to the throne another Ochus, who had no claim to the succession, and whom he also attempted to destroy; but the design being discovered, he was himself forced to drink the poison which he had prepared for his purpose.

This Ochus assumed the name of Darius Codrmanus, and was the prince in whose reign the Grecians, exasperated at the ravages their country had sustained from the Persian power, determined to seek revenge within the limits of that monarchy; for which purpose they made choice of Philip, king of Macedon, for their generalissimo, who being murdered, was succeeded in that station by his son Alexander, at the age of about twenty years. This youthful warrior passed the Hellespont with a body of thirty thousand foot, and five thousand horse, and landing in Asia, fought the Persians on the banks of the river Granicus; where he gained a complete victory over an army almost three times superior in number. This important battle was soon followed with the surrender of Sardis, the capital, and many other cities of the kingdom.

The next campaign, Alexander marched and possessed himself of the straits of Iffus and Cilicia, between the mountains and the Mediterranean Sea, where being attacked by Darius with a numerous army, the Persian monarch received a total defeat, aggravated by the captivity of his mother, wife, several of his children, and three hundred concubines. After this signal victory, most of the cities of Palestine and Phœnicia submitted, except Tyre, which having endured a long siege, was at length taken by storm. Two thousand of the inhabitants, who had escaped the slaughter which accompanied the furious onset of the Greeks, were reserved by Alexander to be crucified; and, to the eternal disgrace of his humanity, the barbarous sentence was soon after carried into execution, upon crosses erected along the sea-shore. So great was the terror universally spread by this act of cruelty, that the towns of Syria and Egypt immediately opened their gates to the conqueror. The rapidity of his progress, joined to the consternation every where excited by his victories, induced Darius to offer him the

surrender of all the dominions which he possessed west of the Euphrates. Alexander not accepting those terms of accommodation, a decisive battle ensued on the plains of Arbela, in which the Persians were the third time defeated. The conqueror took possession of the capital cities of Babylon, Susa, and Persepolis, the last of which, at that time the finest city in the world, he burnt to the ground, at the instigation of Thais the courtesan. Pursuing Darius to Ecbatana, the capital of Media, whither he had fled, the latter was murdered on the road by Bessus, one of the generals of his army, whom Alexander, in abhorrence of his perfidy, afterwards caused to be put to death. Thus ended the Persian monarchy, which had continued two hundred and nine years, computing from the beginning of the reign of Cyrus the Great.

At the death of Alexander, which happened a few years after that of Darius, his conquests were shared amongst his generals, under the pretext of governing them no longer than till Arideus, the natural son of Philip, and Alexander, the son of the last king by Roxana, should be capable of the administration. But the two princes being murdered in their minority, the generals assumed an independent sovereignty in the respective territories they possessed. Several of them persisting, however, in the mutual contests which succeeded, the number of the competitors was at length reduced to three; among whom, Seleucus and his posterity enjoyed great part of Asia for several hundred years, till the empire was divided into the kingdoms of Persia Proper, Parthia, Armenia, and Syria. Each of those had their respective sovereigns, and the Romans afterwards possessed Asia Minor and Syria, with most of the countries west of the Euphrates.

The next that occupied the Persian throne were the Saracens, successors of Mahomet, who made a conquest of it about the year 630; from whom it was seized by the Turks about the year of our Lord 1000. Four hundred years later it was conquered by Tamerlane, the great cham of the Tartars; and almost immediately after, passed to the family of the Sophies, or Sessies, who retained it till the usurpation of Kouli Kan, or Sha Nadir, at whose death, in 1747, a fresh contest arose about the succession to the crown of this ancient monarchy.

## A R A B I A.

## C H A P. I.

*Of the situation — towns — rivers — mountains — air  
and seasons.*

ARABIA is bounded on the north by Turkey; on the east by the gulphs of Persia or Bassora, and Ormus; on the south by the Indian Ocean; and on the west by the Red Sea, and the Isthmus of Suez, which divide it from Africa. It is situate between 35 and 60 degrees of east longitude, and between 12 and 30 degrees of north latitude; extending 1300 miles in length, and 1200 in breadth. In this account, Chædea or Eyraca Arabick is not included, which will be mentioned in the description of Turkey.

Arabia is usually distinguished into three great divisions, namely, Arabia Petræa, Arabia Deserta, and Arabia Felix.

Arabia Petræa is situate at the north-west part of the country, between Egypt and Palestine, towards the isthmus that separates the Mediterranean or Levant from the Red Sea, and which is about a hundred miles in extent, the most mountainous and rocky of those territories. The chief towns are, Suez, lying at the bottom of the Arabian gulph or Red Sea, being the port where the Turkish gallees usually lie; and Tor, another port-town south-east of the former.

The second division of Arabia is that of Arabia Deserta, lying between Turkey and Arabia Felix; but neither the southern or northern limits of this province can be exactly ascertained, being bordered by vast deserts. In this quarter are very few towns, the people for the most part living in tents, and divided into a multitude of tribes, which are perpetually moving from one part of the country to another, to find water and pasture for their cattle. The chief towns here are, Medina, Mecca, Siden, Dhafar, and Eleatiff.

Medina is situate in 40 degrees 35 minutes east longitude, and 24 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, about two hundred miles north-west of Mecca. It is called Medina Talmahi, or the city of the prophet. Here Mahomet was first proclaimed king, and his tomb is also at this place; but the coffin is not supported by a load-stone in the ceiling, according to the vulgar tradition. The town is adorned with a great number of fine mosques, but that called Mofa Kibu, or the Most Holy, exceeds the rest in magnificence. It stands in the middle of the city, supported by four hundred columns, and illuminated by as many lamps. Mahomet's tomb is in a tower or chapel of this mosque. It is covered with a dome, and surrounded with a silver rail, adorned with precious stones, the gift of zealous Mahometan princes. The Hegira, or Mahometan epoch, commences from the flight of Mahomet to this city, when he was driven

from Mecca; namely, from the 16th of July, A. D. 612.

Mecca, which is the capital of all the Arabia, is situate in 21 degrees 20 minutes of north latitude, and in 43 degrees 30 minutes of east longitude; standing in a plain surrounded by mountains, about thirty miles east of the Red Sea. It consists of about two thousand houses handsomely built of brick, and most of them with flat roofs and battlements. In the middle of the city stands the kaaba, or house of God, an octagonal building, not more than twenty yards in circumference. It is ascended by six steps, and the entrance is by folding doors of solid silver. The walls are hung with red and white silk, in several parts of which are interwoven the following words: *La illa ill Alla, Mohamed Resul Alla; God is a great God, and Mahomet his prophet.* This temple is surrounded by a large piazza, supported by three rows of pillars, where the pilgrims perform their devotions, very few of them having admittance into the kaaba. The grand seignior presents annually a new set of hangings to this temple, when those of the preceding year are taken down, and cut into small pieces, which are sold to such of the pilgrims as are disposed to purchase them.

Siden or Judda is the port-town to Mecca, and situate about thirty miles westward of it. Hither the Turkish gallees bring every year vast quantities of rice and other provisions, when the pilgrims are expected to arrive, who, without those imports, would starve for want of subsistence in the deserts of Arabia.

Dhafar and Eleatiff are likewise port-towns, the former situate near the Red Sea, in 44 degrees of east longitude, and 18 degrees of north latitude, a hundred and twenty miles south of Mecca. The latter stands on the gulph of Bassora, in 49 degrees of east longitude, and in 25 degrees 50 minutes north latitude. It is capital of the province of Bahara, in the dominions of Persia, and has in its neighbourhood a fine pearl fishery.

Arabia Felix is bounded on the north by Arabia Deserta; on the east, by the gulph of Ormus; on the south, by the Indian Ocean; and on the west, by the Red Sea. The chief towns are, Sibit, Mocho, Aden, Hadramut, Caffeen, Segar, Muscat, and Jamama, the capitals of so many provinces, or subdivisions of this part of the Arabian territories.

Sibit is situate near the eastern shore of the Red Sea, in 45 degrees of east longitude, and 15 degrees of north latitude. It is the greatest mart in Asia for myrrh, frankincense, and other odoriferous gums and drugs; but there are no spices either here, or in any other part of Arabia, though the Indian spices have been frequently denominated from this country, on account of their being first brought to it by the caravans, in their passage to Egypt and the places bordering on the Levant.

Moco,

Moco, or Mocho, is situate on the east shore of the Red Sea, within the straits of Bahel Mandel, about a hundred miles south of Sibe, in 43 degrees of east longitude, and 13 degrees of north latitude. It stands in a barren sandy plain, surrounded however by the greatest plantations of coffee in the world, whence this commodity was first brought to Europe by the Turks. The town is large and populous, the houses well built with brick and stone, the roofs flat and terraced, and the shops furnished with all kinds of eastern merchandize.

Aden is likewise situated within the straits of Babel Mandel, about a hundred and twenty miles east of Moco, being a port-town on the Indian or Arabian ocean, in 46 degrees of east longitude, and 12 degrees of north latitude.

Muscat, another port-town, is situate on the western shore of the gulph of Ormus, in 38 degrees of east longitude, and 23 degrees of north latitude. It lies in a bottom, surrounded by three rocks, which secure the harbour, and render it of difficult access to strangers. This place was once possessed by the Portuguese, but is now the capital of a large territory subject to an Arabian prince, called the king of Muscat, or Oman, the only naval power on the coast of Arabia, except the Turks, who command the navigation of the Red Sea.

Hardly any country is more destitute of rivers than Arabia. The chief of those are, Chat, Fran, and Nagiran, but none of them navigable. The mountains are, Gebel, and Ared, or the great mountains in the middle of the country, with those of Sinsi and Horeb in Arabia Petraea.

Those parts of Arabia, which lie within or near the tropic of Cancer, are excessive hot, but have their monsoons and sea breezes regularly, as in other countries under the same parallels. The vernal monsoon, on the southern coast of Arabia, blows from the south-west from April to September, when it shifts, and blows from the opposite direction during the other six months. In April and May the hot winds are intolerable. The weather is almost perpetually clear and serene, and the country seldom either foreened from the sun by clouds, or refreshed with showers.

#### C H A P. II.

*Of the soil—produce—traffic—government—persons—habits—diet—divisions—method of travelling.*

THE three several divisions of Arabia are in general barren, though the southern province, on account of its comparative fertility in some places, has received the name of Felix, or Happy. But even here hardly any thing will arrive at perfection, without turning the water into the fields and gardens. The country yields very little pasture, and the grain chiefly cultivated is either rice or barley; to promote the growth of which, the inhabitants draw water out of their wells and reservoirs with oxen, and convey it by small rills into their arable lands, as in Persia.

No country produces such plenty of odoriferous gums; but they have hardly any timber or forest trees,

No. 8.

Their oranges, lemons, grapes, and peaches, come to perfection, as is usually the case in hot countries; but the fruits which yield them most profit, and are chiefly exported, are dates and coffee. The former, which candy and preserve themselves when laid in heaps, grow in almost every part of the country; but the coffee chiefly about Moco. This berry grows upon a shrub eight or ten foot high, in the richest grounds, and is watered like the rest of their plants. The natives have drank the liquor made of it between two and three hundred years; and this commodity has been imported into Britain since the year 1652. Mr. Edwards, a Turkey merchant, then brought over with him a Greek, named Pasqua, and set him up in a coffee-house in London, which was the first of the kind in England.

Arabia was once famous for gold and precious stones, especially on the borders of Chaldea, which is supposed to be the land of Havilah, mentioned by Moses. The pearl-fishery, on the gulph of Persia or Bassora, was lately esteemed the richest in Asia, and belonged formerly to Persia; but since that country has been distracted with civil wars, this branch of trade has been much neglected, and seems at present to be in the possession of the Arabs.

Arabia is hardly distinguished for any considerable manufacture, but the inhabitants carry on a trade with all Mahometan countries. Situate between Persia and India on the east, and Europe and Africa on the west, caravans of merchants, either natives or strangers, are perpetually travelling through the country; the profit of the provisions sold to which, with the toll exacted from strangers, annually amounts to a large sum. The advantage derived from the pilgrims alone, who come hither from all the Mahometan countries, from motives of interest as well as of devotion, is extremely great. Moco is the principal port used to by the Turkish gallees, which bring the coffee and other produce of Arabia to Suez, at the bottom of the Red Sea; whence it is carried to Egypt, and the ports of the Levant, where the English and other Europeans are supplied with it. The English, Dutch, and other East-India ships also resort to Moco, directly, for coffee and other goods, which they bring to Europe round the Cape of Good Hope.

The different provinces of Arabia are divided into several governments. Moco, Aden, Muscat, and other port-towns already mentioned, have large territories, the sovereigns of which are styled xeriffs, and sometimes imans; each including the office not only of king, but high-priest, which Mahomet and his successors the califfs, assumed for some hundreds of years, though they are now distinct both in Persia and Turkey. Those petty sovereigns in Arabia seem to be absolute, and their thrones hereditary. It does not appear that they have any standing forces; but the sovereign is master both of the purfes and persons of his subjects. The king of Oman or Muscat, as has been said, is the only naval power in the country. This prince has thirty ships of war, with which, like the Algerines, he makes captures of the vessels of every nation that are not too great for his force. Some of his ships

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16th of July,

the Arabias, is north latitude, longitude; Sand, about thirty miles of about built of brick, and battlements, kaaba, or house more than twenty miles, by six steps, of solid silver, silk, in several following words: God is a great temple is surrounded by three rows of their devotions, into the kaaba, a new set of the preceding pieces, which disposed to pur-

to Mecca, and c. Hither the quantities of rice is expected would starve Arabia.

port-towns, the degrees of east side, a hundred miles, the latter stands east longitude, latitude. It is dominions of pearl fishery, which by Arabia Mus; on the west, by the Mocho, Aden, Jamanna, the lions of this

the Red Sea, degrees of north for myrrh, and drugs; any other have been on account caravans, in riding on the

Moco,

are of sixty or seventy guns, but the largest of them not bigger than a fourth rate man of war, and none of them choose to engage an European vessel of any force. On this account, the Banians of India, who trade to Persia, generally load their goods on board some English or Dutch ship, when they sail from Combrion to Surat;

Though this prince, and others of the country, have great guns, they do not know how to manage them, either on board or on shore; neither will their commanders ever venture to sea but in the fair season. The Turks, who are masters of the navigation of the Red Sea, keep the adjacent port-towns in great subjection. There even are instances of the Turkish admirals hanging some of the princes on this coast, for refusing to obey their commands. The sovereigns of the inland country, however, acknowledge no dependence on the Ottoman power, unless Arabia Petrea, which is in reality a part of the Turkish dominions.

The rest of the Arabians are divided into tribes and families, consisting of a thousand or fifteen hundred persons. The head of each tribe is a monarch, called the skikel kebir; sometimes emir; and the chief of each family is styled sheik, who has very great power. Among those the government is hereditary, though they have no certain territories, but ramble perpetually from one part of the country to the other, in the manner of the hords of Tartary. Notwithstanding this ambulatory life, they demand a duty of all merchants passing through the country, which is considered by the vagrant tribes as a large undivided common. Those that lie next Turkey are sometimes looked upon as subjects of the grand seignior; but they are such that he often finds himself under the necessity of granting subsidies to their chiefs, to prevent them from making incursions into those parts of his dominions which are more immediately under his controul.

By the adventurers in the Crusades, the Arabs have been represented as men of a gigantic stature, and terrible aspect, probably with the view of extenuating the defeats received from them. They are however rather low than tall, with slender bodies and swarthy complexions. Their eyes and hair are black, as in most hot countries, and their voices shrill, but rather effeminate than strong. Among those who live in the deserts, many of the men go almost naked; but they who use any habit wear blue frocks, tied with a sash; a mantle made of the skins of beasts, with turbans, drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings. The women are so wrapped up from head to foot, that no part of them can be seen.

Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all sorts of flesh, but that of hogs; taking care however to have the blood entirely drained from it. The meat they esteem most is camel's flesh, which they seldom fail to have at all entertainments; nor do they refuse any kinds of fish, but those without scales. Instead of bread, they use thin cakes made of flour, and baked upon the hearth immediately when they have occasion for them. But rice is used in many parts of the country, as a succedaneum to bread; and dried dates are

esteemed delicious food. Their common drink is water and sherbet made of oranges. The people in the neighbourhood of Muscat are said to abstain not only from wine, but from coffee and tea; and tobacco seems to be little used in any part of the country.

The principal diversion of the Arabs is horsemanship, in which they take great delight, and their breed of horses is excellent. In martial exercises they are likewise very expert, being at present as dexterous in the use of fire-arms, as they formerly were in that of the bow and lance.

The greater part of the country being deserts, there is hardly to be found in it any such thing as a road, and consequently there are no caravanferas, or houses of entertainment for travellers. The caravans travel over vast plains of sand, so extensive that they steer by a compass, as at sea; continuing their journey frequently by the light of the stars, but seldom in the hotter part of the day. Both merchants and pilgrims, for security, generally travel in large bodies; their caravans often consisting of three or four hundred men, and eight hundred or a thousand beasts of burden, camels, asses, and oxen, loaded with merchandize and provisions, with some saddle-horses and asses for the accommodation of travellers. A large camel will carry eight hundred or a thousand weight; and the dromedaries, which are a smaller species, about five hundred weight. Both lie down to take up their burdens, and will travel through this parched country eight or nine days without water.

Instead of caravanferas, travellers provide themselves with tents, which they pitch occasionally when the weather happens to be bad; but when the season is fine, as it commonly is, they lie down upon a carpet or matras in the open field. Part of the caravan is allotted for carrying their provisions and water, of which the latter is preferred in skins. The Arabs observe, that wherever there are trees, there seldom fails to be water. Even the camels seem to be sensible of this remark. For when they come in sight of such places, they can hardly be restrained from setting up their great trot, especially when they have had no water for some time. The natives imagine those creatures smell this fluid at a great distance.

Before the people of a caravan begin their march, they elect an officer, called the caravan basha, who is their leader, and directs all their motions. It is his business likewise of this person, to determine all disputes which may happen on the road, and to compound for the several duties demanded of the caravan, by the governors of the countries through which they pass.

The merchants who travel with the caravan, ride upon horses or mules, and sometimes upon asses, which travel fast enough for the loaded camels, who seldom go above a foot-pace. The Christians, or Franks, as they are called, are obliged to provide themselves with mules or packhorses, to carry their wine; for the camel drivers being disciples of Mahomet, will not suffer that animal to be loaded with any strong liquor, the camel being consecrated to their prophet, who strictly prohibited the use of every intoxicating beverage. The wine, as well as water, is put into goat-

skins

setna with the hair inwards, for they soon prove leaky if the hair is off.

Every merchant and his servants ride near the camels which carry their goods, to preserve them from thieves. For as they frequently travel early in the morning, and late in the evening, those pilferers sometimes cut the strings by which the camels are tied together, and lead off some of them without being perceived. To prevent the depredations of the banditti in the night, every caravan is accompanied by some poor people, who serve as watchmen when they are encamped. It is prudent for travellers in this country to dress themselves in an Arabian vest and cap, without which precaution they may be exposed to insults from the natives, and perhaps stopped at some of the towns on their way. Their boots are made of a kind of glove-leather, and they never wear spurs; the stirrup being furnished with a sharp spike, which serves to prick the horses.

### C H A P. III.

*Of the language—learning—history.*

THE language spoken by the natives of this country, or, as they are called, the Saracens, is the Arabic; but at present it is greatly degenerated from its ancient purity, the Alcoran being hardly intelligible to those who know only the common tongue.

It is agreed on all hands, that in the north-east part of Arabia, and the neighbouring states of Chaldea and Babylonia, learning flourished at an early period. To the ingenuity of the ancient Arabians the world is indebted for the valuable science of algebra; and from a period so remote as almost a thousand years ago, the physicians of this country have transmitted such documents of their medical skill and observation, particularly in the small-pox, as will perpetuate the remembrance of their industry through the latest annals of physic. Besides those sciences in particular, the Arabians were likewise distinguished for their love of general learning, and were the first that imported into Europe the literary treasures of the Greeks. But whatever acquisitions they made in former times, the cultivation of letters has totally ceased amongst them, and they are now sunk in the ignorance of every intellectual accomplishment.

The most memorable subject relative to the transactions of this country, is the history of Mahomet, the founder of the Saracen empire, as well as of the extraordinary superstition to which he has given name.

This celebrated impostor was born at Mecca, A. D. 571, in the reign of Justinian II. emperor of Constantinople. He was descended of the tribe of Korcis, one of the most honourable in Arabia; but at the time of his birth, the circumstances of his family were exceeding mean. His father dying in two years after, he was taken into the house of Abdoll Metallah, his grandfather, who not surviving above a twelvemonth, recommended him to the care of his uncle Abutaleb, a great merchant, by whom he was

instructed in the business, and afterwards sent as his factor with the caravans into Syria and Palestine, where he became acquainted both with Christians and Jews. He continued in his uncle's service till the age of twenty-five, when he became factor to a rich widow, named Cadigha, whom in three years after he married. The fortune he acquired by this match, rendered him one of the most opulent men in Mecca, and it is said that he now laid the plan of obtaining sovereign power, to which he seemed to have a claim, from the custom of the Arabs, his ancestors having been chiefs of their tribe for several generations. To recover the former rank of his family, he imagined that the readiest way was to turn reformer, and become the head of a new religion, a project which appeared the more likely to succeed, on account of the animosities prevalent at that time amongst the Christians of the East.

Setting out therefore on his political career, he affected to revive the primitive worship and purity of the ancient patriarchs; and that he might more easily avoid the opposition of every sect, he proposed to unite Christians, Jews, and Pagans in one general religion. It seemed however indispensably necessary, as he had hitherto been a Pagan, and was remarkably profligate, that he should first reform himself, or at least assume the appearance of extraordinary sanctity in his own person. For this purpose he went every morning to the cave of Hira, near Mecca, where he pretended he spent his time in prayer, fasting, and divine meditation; and it is imagined, that at those times he was employed in composing the Alcoran, in which he was assisted by some Jews and Christians, particularly a monk who constantly resided in his house. On his return to Mecca in the evenings, he used to entertain his family with a relation of the visions he had seen in the course of the day, and of his intimate conversation with the angel Gabriel; whilst the monk corroborated the truth of the detail by a solemn affirmation, wherever any of the audience appeared in the least degree incredulous; in consequence of which, his wife and a few others became converts to his persuasion.

Having acted the hermit for some years, about the age of forty he declared himself a prophet sent from God, to reclaim the Arabians from their idolatry. He taught them that there was but one God, and that those who affirm that God has any son, daughter, or companion, should be held in abhorrence; condemning by this means the doctrine of the Trinity and Incarnation. He prohibited also the worship of images, and of several female deities, which the Arabians adored as the daughters of God. He did not deny the mission of Moses, or of Jesus Christ, nor the authority of the Scriptures; but accused both Jews and Christians with corrupting them. He affirmed that the angel Gabriel was sent from God to communicate to him his will, and that he fell into a trance when the angel delivered the divine messages; an imposture the more readily credited by the vulgar, as Mahomet was naturally subject to the epilepsy. He published his pretended revelations by chapters, some of them at Mecca, and the rest at Medina. He used to dictate every new chapter to his clerk, who recited it to his disciples

eiples till they had it by heart, after which it was laid up in a chest, called the *Chest of the Apostle*.

Great opposition was made at Mecca to the doctrines of the pretended reformer, notwithstanding which he daily proceeded in making converts; and being a man of an insinuating address, he attained so much the favour of the people, that the government began to apprehend he was aiming at sovereign power. Dreading, however, that an insurrection might be the consequence of attempting to bring him to a public trial, they determined to take him off privately; when he, receiving intelligence of the design, immediately fled to Medina.

As he could not assert the reality of his mission from heaven by any power of working miracles, he was deserted by many of his disciples; in order to put a stop to which desertion, he observed to the citizens of Medina, that God had sent Moses and Jesus with the power of performing miracles, yet the world was not reclaimed by them; and that therefore the Almighty, determined to try the effects of another method, had at last sent him to reduce them to obedience by the sword. In consequence of this declaration, he commanded his disciples not to enter into disputes about religion, but maintain it by force; promising great temporal rewards to those who should take up arms in this cause, and eternal happiness to such as happened to die in defence of it.

About twelve years after he had begun to work upon the credulity of the people, he pretended that he was carried up to heaven by the angel Gabriel, who had seventy pair of wings, whiter than snow, and clearer than crystal. That he set him (Mahomet) on the back of a mule, less than a mule, which in a moment transported him to Jerusalem; where quitting the courser, he mounted by a ladder of light to heaven, and from one heaven to another, till arriving in the seventh or highest, he came to the throne of God. That the seven heavens were five hundred years journey distant from each other, and that he saw in one of them a gigantic angel, whose eyes were seventy thousand days journey asunder. He assured his disciples that this wonderful journey was performed in the tenth part of a night. For some time his followers were of opinion, that the whole was only a dream; but the doctors at length resolved that it was a real journey, and as such it is established amongst the articles of the Mahometan faith. In consequence of this decision, all his sayings have ever since been held as sacred truths brought down from heaven, and they constitute those volumes of traditions, called by the Mahometans the *Sunnah*.

Mahomet, after his arrival at Medina, married his daughter Fatima, whom he had by his wife Cadigha, to his cousin Haly, one of his disciples; from which daughter, all those derive their right who pretend to be of the family of Mahomet. Having brought over most of the people of Medina to his interest, he began to make incursions into the neighbouring states, particularly that of Mecca, intercepting their caravans that traded with Syria and Palestine, and enriching his disciples with the plunder. An employment so

profitable greatly increased the number of his converts, who justified every violence they committed, by declaring it to be done in the cause of God.

Meanwhile the citizens of Mecca finding him become extremely formidable, entered into confederacy with some of the neighbouring tribes, and marched with a powerful army to give him battle, which however he thought proper to decline. But making choice of a strong camp, he fell upon means to corrupt some of the enemy's officers, who advising a retreat, left him at liberty to evacuate a place, to which he had recourse from motives of present security alone. Having increased his army, he marched towards Mecca, and an indecisive battle being fought between that city and Sibia or Judda, a truce was concluded; in which it was agreed, that Mahomet's friends at Mecca should have leave to join him, and those in his army who desired it, might return thither.

Considering his authority as now fully established, on his arrival at Medina he caused himself to be proclaimed king, in the sixth year of the Hegira, or Mahometan era, and the year of our Lord 627. He retained however the office of high priest, in which his example was followed by his successors the caliphs, who enjoyed both the regal and sacerdotal dignity, till the 325th year of the Hegira, when the governors of the several provinces of the Saracen empire assumed an independent authority with the title of Sultans, leaving the caliphs possessed only of the ecclesiastical power. He continued to preach and pray, and perform the pontifical function as before; only instead of leaning on the stump of a palm-tree, as had been his custom before his advancement to the royal dignity, he caused a magnificent temple to be erected, and harangued the people from a pulpit.

Mahomet, regardless of the truce which he had made with the inhabitants of Mecca, privately assembled a body of ten thousand men, and surprised the city, massacring all who opposed him. Proceeding afterwards in his pretended reformation, he broke down the images in the kaaba, consecrated the place to his new religion, and enjoined his disciples to go hither in pilgrimage once in their life. Exasperated at the destruction of their favourite idols, and the insult offered to their religion, several of the tribes uniting, defeated him in a general battle, and compelled him to take refuge under the walls of Mecca. Soon afterwards, however, trying his fortune in another engagement, he obtained a complete victory, compelling the vanquished inhabitants to acknowledge him as sovereign, and recognize all the doctrines which he had delivered as a revelation from heaven. But he enjoyed not long the tranquillity which fortune had thrown into his hands. A decline of health, occasioned by poison which had been given him some time before by a Jewess, in a shoulder of mutton; now made rapid progress; he became delirious, and expired in great agony on the day, as is said, when he completed the sixty-third year of his age.

An universal consternation seized his disciples at this event, many of them entertaining an opinion that he was not subject to death. Omar, one of his generals, drawing





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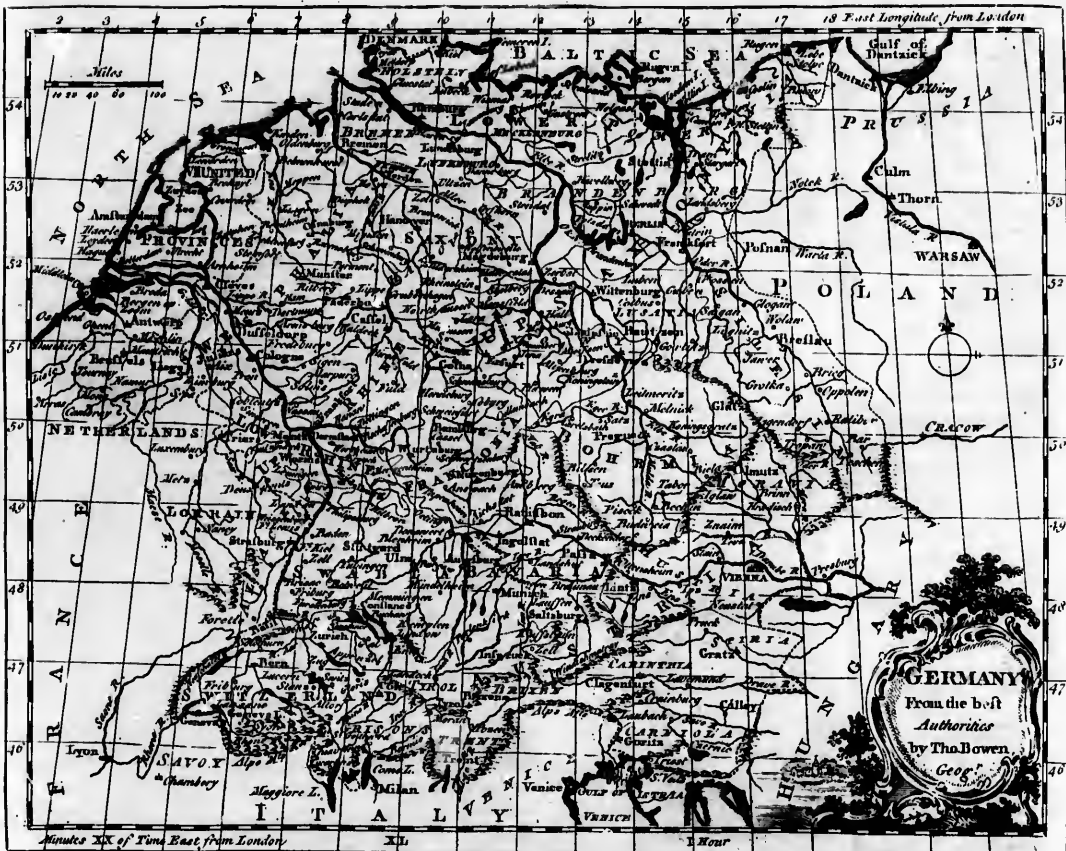
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doctors at length resolved that it was a real journey, and as such it is established amongst the articles of the Mahometan faith. In consequence of this decision, all his sayings have ever since been held as sacred truths brought down from heaven, and they constitute those volumes of traditions, called by the Mahometans the Sonnab.

Mahomet, after his arrival at Medina, married his daughter Fatima, whom he had by his wife Cadigha, to his cousin Haly, one of his disciples; from which daughter, all those derive their right who pretend to be of the family of Mahomet. Having brought over most of the people of Medina to his interest, he began to make incursions into the neighbouring states, particularly that of Mecca, intercepting their caravans that traded with Syria and Palestine, and enriching his disciples with the plunder. An employment so

uniting, defeated him in a general battle, and compelled him to take refuge under the walls of Mecca. Soon afterwards, however, trying his fortune in another engagement, he obtained a complete victory, compelling the vanquished inhabitants to acknowledge him as sovereign, and recognize all the doctrines which he had delivered as a revelation from heaven. But he enjoyed not long the tranquillity which fortune had thrown into his hands. A decline of health, occasioned by poison which had been given him some time before by a Jewess, in a shoulder of mutton, now made rapid progress; he became delirious, and expired in great agony on the day, as is said, when he completed the sixty-third year of his age.

An universal consternation seized his disciples at this event, many of them entertaining an opinion that he was not subject to death. Omar, one of his generals, drawing

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drawing his sword, swore he would cut any man to pieces who should say that he was dead. Abubeker demanded in reply, if they worshiped Mahomet, or the God of Mahomet. "If says he, you worship the God of Mahomet, he is immortal, but as to Mahomet he is certainly dead:" confirming his opinion of their prophet's mortality by several passages from the Alcoran, with which Omar and his party were satisfied.

Another dispute arose about the place of his burial: some proposed that he should be buried at Medina; others considered Mecca as more eligible; whilst a third party insisted that he should be laid among the prophets at Jerusalem. This controversy was decided likewise by Abubeker, who declared he had heard Mahomet say, that a prophet should be buried in the place where he died. A grave was therefore made under the bed where the body lay, in which it was interred. Over the spot a chapel was afterwards built, which stands at one of the corners of the great mosque at Medina, founded by Mahomet himself.

Mahomet took no other wife as long as Cadigha lived; but afterwards he had fifteen, some say twenty, most of them cohabiting with him at the same time. Of this number, five died before him, and he divorced six. His greatest favourite was Ayesha, the daughter of Abubeker, though she was accused of being false to his bed; but he pretended not to credit the report of her infidelity, and even added a chapter to the Alcoran, in support of her innocence. His wife Haphsa, the daughter of Omar, was the next in his good graces, and with her he trusted the chest of his apostleship, already mentioned, in which were deposited the original writings relating to his pretended revelations. He took to his bed Zaidah, the wife of one of his enfranchised slaves, at which his disciples were offended; but he composed another chapter of the Alcoran, where he introduced God approving the match.

Besides his wives, he had several concubines, particularly an Egyptian, in his old age; on which being upbraided by his wives Haphsa and Ayesha, he again had recourse to a revelation in defence of his conduct.

Such were the transactions, both public and private, of this extraordinary personage; a man in whose cha-

rafter an austere hypocrisy was joined to a licentious indulgence in pleasure; who appears to have obtained credit from the multitude, even by the extravagance of his fictions; who artfully accommodated his discordant system of religion to the interests and passions of those whom he intended to delude; and who established a veneration for his name, the most extensive, most enthusiastic, and permanent, that ever was known amongst mankind.

Mahomet by his will had appointed Hali, the husband of his eldest daughter Fatima, to be his successor; but notwithstanding this settlement, Abubeker, his father-in-law, and one of his greatest captains, assumed the title of caliph, or sovereign of the Saracens, both in spirituals and temporals. He enjoyed this rank ten years, and was succeeded by Omar, another commander of the Saracen army, who added Persia, Syria, Palestine, Mesopotamia, and Egypt, to his dominions. To him succeeded Osman, a third of Mahomet's military officers, who extended the Saracen empire over all the northern parts of Africa. But the faction of Hali prevailing against him, and being besieged in his own house, he threw himself upon his sword, and died in the eighty-seventh year of his age, and the tenth of his reign. The conqueror ascended the throne, but in less than three years was assassinated by Mahuvias, with eleven of his sons. The twelfth escaping, his posterity afterwards succeeded to the throne of Persia.

The caliphs removed the seat of their empire from Mecca to Bagdat, about the year 756, where they reigned sole sovereigns of the Saracens till the year 863, when the sultans of Egypt, Persia, &c. who were before viceroys of the caliphs of Babylon, assumed each an independent power. From this period, however, the Babylonian caliphs subsisted till the year 1255, when Mustatzem, who then held the royal and pontifical dignity at Bagdat, was starved in his castle, and his whole posterity destroyed by Allan, or Hallon the Tartar. The Saracen sultans were perpetually engaged in wars with each other, or with the Grecian emperors, until they were subdued by the Turks. Their expeditions into the southern parts of Europe will be treated of in the histories of the respective countries.

## A S I A T I C T U R K Y.

## C H A P. I.

*Of the provinces of Eyraca Arabick—Diarbeck—Curdistan—Turcomania—Georgia.*

ASIATIC Turkey is situate between 27 and 48 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by Circassia, and the Black Sea; on the east by Persia; on the south by Arabia and the Levant; and on the west by the Hellespont, and the Ægean Sea or Archipelago, which separate it from Europe.

This immense territory may be divided into three great divisions, namely, the eastern, the western, and the southern; which, for the sake of perspicuity, may be subdivided into their respective provinces.

The eastern division contains the provinces of Eyraca Arabick, Diarbeck, Curdestan, Turcomania, and Georgia; the latter comprehending Mengrelia, Imuretta, and part of Circassia.

The western division contains Natolia, or Asia Minor, divided into Natolia Proper, Asia, Aladulia, and Caramania.

The southern division contains Syria, and Palestine, or the Holy Land.

Eyraca Arabick is the ancient Chaldea, sometimes reckoned a part of Babylonia, and sometimes a province of Arabia. It lies on both sides the Euphrates and Tigris, having Persia on the east, and Arabia Deserta on the west. The chief towns are, Bagdat, and Bassora.

Bagdat, the capital, is situate in 44 degrees 21 minutes of east longitude, and in 33 degrees 10 minutes of north latitude, upon the Tigris. It was built by Mahomet II. caliph of the Saracens, on the west side of the river; and about the year 1100, another town was built on the east side of the river, and both united by a bridge. It continued the capital of the Saracen empire, till it was taken by the Tartars about the middle of the thirteenth century, when a period was put to that dominion. This city lying upon the borders of Turkey and Persia, has been an object of great contest between those powers, and taken and retaken several times. The Turks, however, have been in possession of it since the year 1689; and here the beglerbeg, or viceroy of the province, constantly resides. The town is near two miles long and one broad, defended by a wall and towers, almost of the form of bastions, with a large moat, and a strong castle upon the river. The principal buildings are, the palace of the beglerbeg; the mosques, of which there are five; the cloysters surrounding the bazars or market places; and the bagnios; all which were built by the Persians, when they were in possession of the place.

Besides the viceroy, three other great officers are constantly stationed here, over whom the former has no authority; they being rather checks to his administration, and accountable only to the divan at Constantinople. Those are, the *cadi*, who is the principal ecclesiastic, and consequently the chief judge; the *testerdar* or treasurer, and the *reis effendi* or secretary. The garrison usually consists of four or five thousand men, horse and foot.

Bassora, or Balsarra, is situate in 47 degrees of east longitude, and 30 of north latitude, three miles from the western shore of Chatal-Arab, or the united stream of the Euphrates and Tigris; with which it has a communication by a deep canal, the tide flowing up between forty and fifty miles higher than the town. The walls are twelve miles in circumference, within which are many void spaces, fields, and gardens. It is supposed to be the best situated for trade of any town in the world, and was the most ancient port-town that history takes notice of in the East. Four months in the year, the merchants from all quarters resort hither, viz. between the first of July and the end of October, when the monsoon fits fair to bring them up the gulph.

The greatest disadvantage to Bassora, is the *chamiel* or hot wind, which blows annually over the country about Midsummer, and is extremely pestilential. At the same season, another distemper is likewise epidemic, which occasions swellings in the groin, neck, and different parts of the body. It is however, not so dangerous as the former.

The customs at Bassora, arising from the merchandise, are the property of the grand seignior; but the prince who is governor of the town, and must always be an Arabian by birth, has a considerable revenue from other articles.

The country between Bagdat and Bassora, which was part of the ancient Babylonia, is one of the richest in Asiatic Turkey; abounding with the finest meadow and pasture grounds, covered with flocks and herds of cattle. But being under the dominion of the indolent Turks, it is not now so well cultivated as formerly.

Some travellers pretend to have discovered the ruins of Babylon, but they appear to have mistaken them for those of Seleucia, which was for some time called New Babylon, and peopled from the old. All that we know of certainty is, that the latter was situated upon the river Euphrates, considerably higher than the place of its junction with the Tigris. Of Seleucia nothing remains but a part of its ruins, Bagdat having been built out of the materials of the ancient city.

The province of Diarbeck, the ancient Mesopotamia, is situate north of Eyraca Arabick or Chaldea, surrounded by the rivers Euphrates and Tigris. The

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chief town is Diarbeck, or Caremit, situate in 42 degrees of east longitude, and 37 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude, on the river Tigris, not far from its source. It stands on an eminence, the descent from which to the river is very steep; and is surrounded by a double wall, the most outward being defended by sixty antique towers. In this city is a magnificent mosque, formerly a Christian church; and several handsome piazzas. Besides a great number of Mahometans, it is supposed to contain twenty thousand Christian inhabitants, of which two thirds are Armenians. It is the seat of the beglerbeg or viceroy, who has several fangiackships, or governments subject to him. The country in the neighbourhood is very fertile, abounding in corn, wine, cattle, wild fowl, and all sorts of provisions. The principal manufacture is that of Turkey leather, or maroquins, which employs a fourth part of the natives. The province likewise produces galls and tobacco, of which great quantities are exported.

Another considerable town in this province is Bir, a great thoroughfare to Persia, and situate on the Euphrates. It has a wall and castle for its defence, and two small rivulets run through the town. The Euphrates would be navigable so high as this city, were it not for some cataracts and rocks.

Northward of Bir stands Orfa, likewise on the Euphrates. Here the caravans, travelling from Turkey to Persia, usually rest eight or ten days. This town is surrounded by a strong wall, has a castle for its defence, and is governed by a bashaw, the garrison consisting of about a thousand janissaries and spahis. Great part of the inhabitants are Armenian Christians, who have a considerable manufacture of yellow maroquin or Turkey leather; as Diarbeck has of red, and Tocat of blue. It is supposed that Orfa is the ancient Edeffa; and likewise that in or near this place, Abraham dwelt when he removed from Ur of the Chaldees.

Monful, or Mousful, is situate on the west bank of the Tigris, opposite to the ruins of Nineveh. It is about three miles in circumference, surrounded by a stone wall, and has for its defence a castle, in which the bashaw resides. The caravans from Aleppo to Persia passing through it, and the river being navigable to Bagdat, Bassora, and the gulph of Persia, the town has a brisk trade. The inhabitants are chiefly Armenians and Christians of the Greek communion; but the Mahometan is the established religion; and the garrison consists of four thousand Turks, horse and foot. The chief produce of the adjacent country is galls.

The province of Curdistan, or Assyria Proper, is divided between the Persians and Turks. The western part, which belongs to Turkey, is the least, lying between Persia on the east, and Diarbeck on the west. The chief town is Sherafoul, or Cherazur, the houses of which are hewn out of a rock, on the side of a hill, and ascended by fifteen or twenty steps. At this place the beglerbeg or viceroy of the province resides, and has command of several fangiackships, which have bashaws for their governors.

Arbela lies on the frontiers of Persia, on the river Lycus, which runs through a fine plain, thirty or forty miles in extent. In the middle of this spacious territory is a little hill, and the ruins of a castle, where it is conjectured Darius stood to view the last fatal action between his troops and the Grecians, which terminated the Persian empire.

Betlis is situate near the south shore of the lake of Van, in 43 degrees of east longitude, and 37 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude. This town lying on the confines of the Turkish and Persian dominions, it is said that the bey or sovereign acknowledges subjection to neither power. The adjacent country is mountainous, and almost inaccessible; so that the bey, by securing the passes, could at pleasure cut off the communication between the neighbouring kingdoms. On which account, neither the Turks nor Persians think it their interest to provoke him. One whole day's march before caravans arrive at Betlis, they travel through very steep mountains. The way up to the town is cut through a rock, so narrow, that only one camel can pass at a time. It is built round a hill in the form of a sugar-loaf, that can only be ascended by a serpentine path; and in a castle, on the summit of this mountain, is the residence of the bey.

The province of Curdistan is a very mountainous country, but the hills are covered with good timber and herbage to the top. In the valleys the soil is well watered and rich; but being a frontier province, is not so well cultivated as it might be. The inhabitants chiefly lead a pastoral life, their numerous flocks and herds almost covering the face of the country.

North of Diarbeck and Curdistan, is situate the province of Turcomania, having Media or Adirbitzan on the east, and Natolia on the west. This is the ancient Armenia, and its chief towns are Erzerom and Kars.

The city of Erzerom, the capital, stands at the foot of a mountain, in 41 degrees of east longitude, and 40 degrees of north latitude. It is about two miles in circumference, surrounded by a double wall. The inhabitants consist of near twenty thousand Turks, and six thousand Armenian Christians. Most of the Turks, though only tradesmen, have the title of janissaries, which they purchase of the aga, for the sake of the privileges it confers. A janissary may insult his fellow-subjects with impunity; and for any misdemeanour, is only answerable to the aga, with whom it is always his study to keep upon good terms. Even people of figure frequently enroll themselves in this body, to prevent their being exposed to its violences. But though the janissaries are so valiant at home, they never concern themselves in any war in which the country may be engaged; neither do they receive any pay.

The Armenians and Greek Christians have here each their bishop. Those people are most of them artificers, employed in the leather and copper manufacture; the neighbouring mountains being rich in copper-ore, and some silver. Their chief commodity is furs; but they have a brisk foreign trade with the caravans which pass

pass through the city in their way to Trapezond, on the Black Sea. At Eizerom, the custom-house officers collect the grand signior's duties on all merchandize that passes through the country.

The mountains of this province are usually covered with snow till Midsummer. The air is exceeding cold in winter; and in summer in the valley is as intemperately hot. The vicissitudes of heat and cold, however, are not always so regular; for the weather frequently changes on a sudden, from scorching heat to the opposite extreme, which is the more insupportable as they have hardly any fuel in the country. There is neither tree nor bush to be seen for many miles. Their firing is cow-dung, and other stinking materials, which is said to taint the air, and spoil the food they dress with it.

Kars, or Cars, is situate on a river of the same name, about a hundred miles south of Trapezond. It is two miles in circumference, meanly built, and but thinly inhabited. It is however defended by a double wall, and a castle erected on an inaccessible rock; in which is a numerous garrison, commanded by a bashaw. The Franks, or Christian merchants, complain much of the extortion of the Turks, as they pass through this city.

The town of Van stands in 44 degrees 30 minutes of east longitude, and 38 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude; at the north end of a lake of the same name, which abounds in fish, and is about fifty miles in circumference. It is protected by a castle situate on a mountain, and a numerous garrison.

The province of Georgia is divided between the Persians and Turks, the greater part being under the dominion of the former. In Turkish Georgia are here comprehended Mengrelia, Imeretia, and the south part of Circassia; which several countries are situate between 42 and 46 degrees of east longitude, and between 40 and 45 degrees of north latitude. They lie in the form of a crescent about the east end of the Euxine Sea, having mount Caucasus on the north, the Persian Georgia on the east, and Turcomania on the south.

Georgia, particularly the northern part, is very mountainous; but the mountains are covered with forest and fruit-trees, as well as herbage, and the soil, where cultivated, produces good corn. The inhabitants, however, being generally shepherds, plough no more than is necessary for their subsistence, and they live in tents.

The mountains are generally high, and covered with snow great part of the year. In winter therefore the air is excessive cold, but temperate in the valleys, and and in the summer very hot. The country is exceeding healthful, and the inhabitants remarkable for the natural elegance of their persons, as well as the acuteness of their genius. They are of a good stature, and their features and complexion much admired. Hence the Turks and Persians replenish their harems and seraglios, by means of the Jews of Constantinople and other great towns, who with this view purchase, of their parents or masters, the most beautiful young girls in the country, and give them such an education

as may qualify them either for the royal seraglio, or the harems of bashaws and great men. Neither are the parents, as might be imagined, averse to disposing of their children in this manner; but use every art to improve the beauty of their daughters, that they may sell to the greater advantage. On this account, inoculation for the small-pox has been practised in Georgia for many ages, and hence introduced into our own country. The price paid by the merchants is not the only inducement of the parents to this kind of traffic: they flatter themselves with the expectation, that their daughters shall be advanced to a high rank, and the fortune of their families established. Those hopes are frequently not vain; for when a girl happens to be introduced into the royal harem, or becomes the wife or mistress of a bashaw, it is usual to send for her nearest relations, and promote them to some profitable post.

The youth of this country being for the most part sprightly and ingenious, young lads are likewise purchased, and educated at Constantinople or Ispahan, in such arts as may render them useful members of the state. Out of which seminary the beglerbegs, or viceroys, beys, bashaws, and governors are taken.

The southern provinces of Georgia are subject either to the Persians or Turks; but the northern appear to be independent of any foreign power. They will sometimes acknowledge subjection to Turkey, and at others, to Russia, as may happen to be most convenient; but their attachment is precarious, and the mountainous nature of the country would render it extremely difficult to secure their obedience by force.

In respect to the internal government of the northern parts, the inhabitants seem to be divided only into two ranks or orders, namely, those of lords and slaves. In each subdivision of the country is a chief or prince, to whom the former acknowledge vassalage; but the power of these princes is greatly controuled by the aristocracy. The common people have no exclusive property in the lands or goods they possess. Even their wives and children pertain to their respective lords, who may sell or dispose of them at pleasure. By some of the inhabitants the Mahometan religion is professed, but the greater part are Christians of the Greek or Armenian communion.

#### C H A P. II.

*Of Natolia, or Asia Minor.*

ASIA Minor is divided into four parts, namely, Amasia, Aladulia, Caramania, and Natolia Proper. Amasia comprehends the country known in ancient times by the name of Pontus, or Regis Pontica, so called from the Pontus Euxinus, along which it lay. This was the kingdom of the Mithridates, a succession of kings of that name, and was formerly famous for its poisons.

The first of its chief towns towards the west is Amasia, situate seventy miles south of the Euxine Sea, on the banks of the river Liris, a river famous for its long windings. It was anciently the residence of the kings of Cappadocia, sometimes of the Turkish beg-

beglerbeg or viceroys. It is pleasantly situated on an eminence, having a prospect over an extensive plain on the south. The buildings are mean, nor is it a place of much trade; but there are some magnificent ruins, where the palaces of the ancient princes had formerly stood. Amasia is supposed to be the birth-place of Strabo the geographer. The Greek Christians have here an archbishop.

Sixty miles north-east of Amasia, on the Euxine Sea, stands Themiscyra, now Leris, famous in tradition for having been the capital of the Amazons. Virgil takes notice of it on this account.

Quales Threïcias, cum flumina Thermoodontis  
Pulsant, & pictis bellantur Amazones armis.

Eight miles east of Amasia, stands Comana, a town anciently dedicated to Brillona, whose temple, we are informed by Cicero, was extremely rich, and held in great veneration.

Tocat is situate at the foot of a mountain, in 37 degrees of east longitude, and 41 degrees 3 minutes of north latitude. It is a populous city, inhabited by Turks, Armenians, Grecians, and Jews. The Armenians are mostly mechanics, working in copper and other hard ware; and the Christians here make excellent wine. There is likewise a considerable manufacture of Turkey leather. This town is a great thoroughfare of the caravans bound from Turkey to Persia, Arabia and India. The adjacent country abounds in good fruit, and produces saffron in great quantity.

Trapazond stands likewise at the foot of a mountain, on the shore of the Euxine Sea. It is a large, populous city, well built, and within the walls are groves and gardens intermixed with the houses. It was formerly defended by a strong castle founded on a rock, but now much decayed; as likewise is the harbour, which at present large vessels cannot enter, and therefore their trade is much declined. This place was subject to the Roman and Grecian emperors. About the year 1209, David Comnenus, a Frenchman, usurped the dominion of it, with the title of duke. His successor, John Comnenus, assumed that of emperor, and their descendants continued sovereigns of this town and the neighbouring country, till the year 1460, when Mahomet II. took possession of it, and put to death David, the last of those petty emperors.

Aladulia, or the beglerbelic of Marat, comprehends Cappadocia and Armenia Minor, having Armenia Major on the east, Cilicia on the south, and Galatea on the west. The river Malus or Lima passes through the south of this province, and discharges itself into the Euphrates. The rivers Halys and Iris have here also their rise, and, running northwards, fall into the Euxine Sea. The chief towns are, Cæsarea, now Caïsar, the capital when subject to the Romans; Marat, or Morofeb, situate in the south-east part of the province, near the Euphrates, and usually the seat of the beglerbeg. Another of the chief towns is Nissa, lying on the borders of Armenia.

No. 9.

Caramania, the southern division of the Less Asia; comprehends the provinces of Lycia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycaonia, and Cilicia.

Lycia, now called Montrefeli, has Phrygia Major and Pamphylia on the north and east; the Mediterranean Sea on the south, and Caria on the west; surrounded on every side by mountains, except on the sea-coast. It has three towns of considerable note, one of which is Mira, or Limira, the capital, situated on a river of the same name. Another is Telmessus, one of the six towns allotted by Alexander to the city of Halicarnassus; and the last is Xanthus, which stands on a cognominal river.

Pamphylia has Pisidia on the north, Cilicia on the east, the Mediterranean Sea on the south, and Lycia on the west. The chief towns are, Attalia or Satalia, a port-town, with a castle defending the harbour, the entrance of which is very difficult; Perga, standing on the river Cestrius, remarkable for a temple anciently dedicated to Diana; and Syda or Candabra, a port-town in the east part of the province.

Pisidia is a small province, consisting of one fine plain, encompassed with mountains. Its chief towns are, Antioch, Termessus, and Sagalassus.

East of Pisidia, lies Lycaonia, likewise a small province. One of its principal towns is Lystra, where the inhabitants were about to sacrifice to Paul and Barnabas. Another is Iconium or Cogni, the capital of Lycaonia, and of the whole province of Caramania. This town is situate near a fresh-water lake, about a hundred miles north of the Mediterranean Sea, and here the beglerbeg has his residence.

Cilicia extends two hundred and fifty miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, having Syria on the east, and Pamphylia on the west. The breadth of this province from north to south is about fifty miles. The northern parts are very mountainous, between which and the sea are many difficult passes. The capital of the country is the city Tarsus, the place of St. Paul's nativity. It lies in 33 degrees of east longitude, and 37 of north latitude, on the river Cydnus, the water of which, from its excessive coldness, had almost proved fatal to Alexander, on bathing in it. Tarsus is now called Thorasse, and sometimes Hemsä. Another of the chief towns is Issus, now Ajazzo, situate on a bay of the Levant, near the river Pinarus. At this place happened the second battle between Alexander and Darius. It was taken by the former, but afterwards retaken by the latter, who cruelly put to death the Macedonians left in it. Here Cicero, as he relates, pitched his tent, on the very spot where Alexander had encamped.

Natolia Proper, or Asia Minor, comprehends the provinces of Pontus Paphlagonia, Galatia, Phrygia Major, Lydia or Mænia, Doris, Caria, Ionia, Eolis, Mysia, including Phrygia Minor, and Bithynia.

The name of Pontus anciently extended to all the provinces situated on the southern shore of the Euxine Sea. The province of Pontus Paphlagonia therefore is bounded by this sea on the north, by Cappadocia on the east, Galatea on the south, and by Bithynia on

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the west. The chief towns are Heraclea, now Penderachi, a port-town in the north-west part of the province; Claudiopolis, an inland town, south of Heraclea; and Amastris, a port-town, east of Heraclea. This town took its name from a Persian lady, the daughter of Oxyathras, brother of Darius Codomanus, and the consort of Dionysius, tyrant of Heraclea. Pliny, in a letter to Trajan, calls it an elegant and greatly ornamented city, particularly on account of a very beautiful and extensive street.

Sinope, a port-town, is situated on an isthmus formed by the Euxine Sea, in 37 degrees of east longitude, and 42 of north latitude. This city is of so great antiquity, that Strabo refers it to the Argonauts; yet it remained inconsiderable till it received a colony from the Milesians; after which it became very flourishing. It was at length taken by Pharnaces, king of Pontus, grandfather of the Mithridates conquered by the Romans, and became the royal residence. This city, which yet retains its ancient name, is memorable for having given birth to Diogenes the Cynic.

Of Galatia, which lies south of Paphlagonia, the chief towns are, Therma, remarkable for its hot baths; and Angouri or Ancyra. This city is said to have been built by Midas, king of Phrygia, and to take its name from an anchor found at the place. The neighbourhood of Ancyra was the scene of two great battles; in one of which Pompey obtained a victory over Mithridates, and in the other, Tamerlane defeated Bajazet, whom he also made prisoner, about the year 1400. The city within the walls is inhabited by Turks; the Armenian and Greek Christians live in the suburbs, not being permitted to enter the gates. It is computed that the inhabitants amount to forty-five thousand, of whom forty thousand are Turks. In the neighbourhood of this city is an extraordinary breed of wild goats, with hair as soft as silk, of which are made the finest stuffs.

Phrygia Major, the present Gormian, is an inland province, having Bithynia on the north, and Pamphylia on the south; and giving rise to the rivers Sangarius, Hermus, Murcius, and Meander. One of its chief towns is Chintania or Chontania, formerly called Cotæum, once the seat of the Turkish emperors, and now of the beglerbeg.

The next chief town is Gordium, the seat of Gordion, king of Phrygia, situated on the river Sangarius. Here anciently stood a temple of Jupiter, in which, tied with cords to a pillar, was a chariot dedicated to the sun. A tradition prevailing, that whoever could untie the knots that fastened it, should have the dominion of Asia, Alexander, after several attempts, cut the knots with his sword; saying it was no matter how they were undone, provided that the chariot was unloosed; and he thenceforward flattered himself with the conquest of Asia.

The other chief towns are, Apamea, Colossæ, and Hierapolis. Colossæ was once a considerable city, to which St. Paul directed one of his epistles. It was destroyed by an earthquake, in the time of Nero, and now lies in ruins.

Hierapolis was seated upon a portion of the Messogis, beneath the summits of the mountain. At a distance, this object appears as a white lofty cliff, composed of chalk; but on coming more near, the traveller is astonished to find it exhibit to the view an immense frozen cascade, with its surface wavy, as of water suddenly fixed. This extraordinary phenomenon is an incrustation, produced by the hot waters of Hierapolis, anciently famous for their petrifying quality.

The road up to the ruins, which appears as a wide and high causeway, is likewise a petrification; overlooking many green spots, once vineyards and gardens, separated by partitions of the same substance. The ruins are situated on a flat, to which, as travellers ascend, they pass by sepulchres with inscriptions, and behold the theatre on the right hand. Near the margin of the cliff are the remains of a huge structure, supposed to have been either baths, or a gymnasium. Beyond are the massive walls of edifices, several of them leaning from their perpendicular, and seeming every moment ready to fall; the effects of violent earthquakes, to which the country is extremely subject. In a recess of the mountain is the area of a stadium. The site has been computed about two hundred paces wide, and a mile in length. The theatre is a very large and sumptuous structure, and the most entire that is to be seen in those parts. A portion of the proscenium is standing. In the heap which lies in confusion, are many pieces of sculpture well executed in basso relievo, with fragments of architecture inscribed, but disjointed; or so immured with massive marbles, that it would be extremely difficult to obtain any information from them. The character is large and bold, with ligatures. The marble seats are still unremoved; and the numerous ranges are divided by a low semicircular wall, near mid-way, with inscriptions on the face of it, but mostly illegible. In one of those, which is short and imperfect, Apollo Archigetes, or *the leader*, is requested to be propitious. In another compartment, mention is made of the city by its name Hierapolis; and on a third is an encomium in verse, which may be thus translated: "Hail golden city Hierapolis, the spot to be preferred before any in wide Asia; revered for the rills of the nymphs; adorned with splendor!"

It may not here be improper to remark, that from the appearance of several theatres and a stadium, in this country, in which many of the seats remain in their places and entire; and from considering the height, width, and manner of arrangement, there is reason to believe that the ancient Asiatics sat at their plays and public spectacles, in the same manner as the modern, with their legs crossed and gathered under them, and probably upon carpets.

The waters of Hierapolis were peculiarly qualified for dyeing wool, giving it from roots a tincture which rivalled the purple, and were a principal source of the riches of the place. The company of dyers is mentioned in an inscription on a square building among the sepulchres. The Plutonium, or pestilential cavern, for which Hierapolis was likewise anciently noted, we



are informed yet remains. Of this city was Epictetus, the Stoic philosopher.

The province of Lydia, or Mœnia, has Phrygia on the north, and Cassia on the south. This was the kingdom of the celebrated Crœsus. The capital city Sardis was situate on the river Pactolus, about seventy miles east of Smyrna. It was once the finest city in Asia Minor, and one of the seven churches mentioned in Scripture; but being demolished by an earthquake, lies now in ruins. The site of it, which at present is named Sait, is green and flowery. Coming from the east, we have the ground-plot of the theatre on our left hand, with a small brook running before it. This structure was in a brow, which unites with the hill of the acropolis, and was called Prion. Some pieces of the vault, which supported seats, and completed the semicircle, remain. Going on, we pass by remnants of massy buildings; marble pieces sustaining heavy fragments of arches of brick; and more indistinct ruins. These are in the plain before the hill of the acropolis. On the right hand, near the road, is a portion of a large edifice. The walls are standing of two large, lofty, and very long rooms, with a space between them, as of a passage. This is conjectured to have been the house of Crœsus, once appropriated by the Sardians, as a place of retirement, to superannuated citizens. It was called the gerusia, and in it, as some Roman authors have remarked, was exemplified the extreme durability of the ancient brick. The walls in this ruin have double arches beneath, and consist chiefly of brick; with some layers of stone. The bricks are extremely fine and good, of various sizes, some flat and broad; and were united with a cement so tenacious, that it is said to be unsusceptible of decay.

The hill of the acropolis appears from the plain to be triangular. It is sandy, and the sides rough. The eminence affords a fine prospect of the country, and in the walls are two or three fragments with inscriptions. Not far from the west end is the celebrated river Pactolus, which rises in mount Tmolus, and once flowed through the middle of the agora, or market-place of Sardis, in its way to the Hermus, bringing down from the mountain bits of gold. The treasures of Crœsus and his ancestors were collected chiefly from the river, but in time the source failed. The Pactolus, after snow or rain, rushes down in a torrent. At other times the stream is shallow, the bed sandy, in colour inclining to a reddish yellow.

In ascending the acropolis, we are suddenly struck with the view of the ruin of a temple, in a retired situation, beyond the Pactolus. Five columns are standing, one without the capital, and another with the capital awry. The architrave was of two stones. It is conjectured that this was the temple dedicated to the local goddess Cybele or Cybele, and which was damaged in the conflagration of Sardis by the Milesians. It was of the Ionic order, and had eight columns in front. The shafts are fluted, and the capitals designed and carved with exquisite taste and skill. It is impossible to behold, without deep regret, this imperfect remnant of so beautiful and glorious an edifice.

Before Sardis, on the opposite side of the plain, are many barrows on an eminence. Near the lake Gygæa, which was within forty stadia, or five miles of Sardis, was the burying-place of the Lydian kings; and here the barrows are of various sizes. Four or five are distinguished by their superior magnitude. All of them are covered with green turf, and retain their conical form. One of the barrows on this eminence, near the middle, and towards Sardis, in Lydia, is inferior only to the works of the Egyptians and Babylonians. It was the monument of Halyartes, the father of Crœsus.

Not far thence is mount Sipylus, to a phenomenon extant in which, the fable of the transformation of Niobe, the daughter of Tantalus, is indebted for its origin. This phenomenon is found to be the effect of a certain portion of light and shade on a part of Sipylus, perceivable at a particular point of view.

Another of the towns of Lydia is Philadelphia, likewise one of the seven churches. It is now a poor town, called Ala-shakir, inhabited by about two thousand Christians. The most remarkable object here is the remnant of a duct, which has conveyed water of a petrifying quality. The water has incrusted some vegetable substances, which have perished, and left behind, as it were, their moulds.

The next town of Lydia is Thyatira, likewise one of the seven churches which were addressed by St. John. It is situate on the river Hermus, thirty miles north-west of Philadelphia, and is now called Ak-hissar.

Laodicea, another of the seven churches, is situate on the eastern limits of this province. It is mentioned by Cicero, as considerable for trade, but is now in ruins. The first ruin which presents itself is of an amphitheatre, in a hollow, the form oblong, and the area about a thousand foot in extent, with many seats remaining. At the west end is a wide vaulted passage, designed for the horses and chariots, about a hundred and forty foot long. The entrance from without is choked up, except a small aperture, at which a glimmering light enters; and the soil has risen above the impost of the interior arch. This has an inscription on the mouldings in large characters in Greek, which may be thus translated: "To the emperor Titus Cæsar Augustus Vespasian, son of the emperor, the god Vespasian; and to the people, Nicotratus the younger, son of Lycius, son of Nicotratus, dedicated . . . . at his own expence: Nicotratus . . . . his heir having completed what remained of the work, and Marcus Ulpus Trajanus the proconsul having consecrated it." The seventh consulate of Vespasian falls on the seventy-ninth year of the Christian æra, and the consulship of Trajan on the eighty-second. Twelve years were consumed in perfecting the structure.

Near another ruin is a pedestal with an inscription, which illustrates that on the arch. It relates to the same family, and to the two benefactors. "The senate and people have honoured Tatia, daughter of Nicotratus son of Pericles, a new heroine, on account of the magistracies, ministries, and public works of her father, and likewise on account of her great

uncle Nicostrotus, who lately, besides his benefactions, was priest of the city, and changed the stadium into an amphitheatre." The city increasing, the stadium, it should seem, was not sufficiently capacious, but Nicostrotus enlarged or lengthened it, and converted it into an amphitheatre.

On the north side of the amphitheatre, towards the east end, is the ruin of a large edifice. It consists of many piers and arches of stone, with pedestals and marble fragments. This fabric was perhaps the repository of the laws, and contained the senate-house, and public offices. At the east end of this ruin, is a mass of incrustation formed by the current, which was conveyed to it by earthen pipes; the waters of Laodicea having a petrifying quality, like those of Hierapolis.

From this ruin may be seen the odéum, which fronted the south. The seats remain on the side of the hill. The proscenium lies in a confused heap. The whole was of marble. Sculpture had been lavished on it, and the style favoured less of Grecian taste than Roman magnificence.

On the bank of the Mæander, we discover the ruin of an ancient bridge, consisting of half the central arch, with one smaller arch entire; and we may observe some stones and vestiges of a building, which is supposed to have been a temple of Menee, called Carour; a deity that was worshipped in a peculiar manner. The temple was between Caroura and Laodicea, and had once been a great seminary of physicians.

The river Mæander, which makes so many windings in this country, was anciently noted for the production of new land, occasioned by its passing through the ploughed grounds of Phrygia and Caria; whence collecting much slime, it added to the coast at its mouth. The Mæander was indistinct for removing the soil, when its margin tumbled in; and the person who recovered damages was paid from the produce of the ferries. Those downfalls of the banks were very frequent, and are supposed to be the cause of the winding so remarkable in the channel of this river. From the alterations already effected at the mouth of the Mæander, there is reason to conclude, that in a series of years the shore will protrude far into the sea, and perhaps unite the islands which at present lie at a distance.

Caria and Doris, usually laid together, compose that province now called Adinelli; having the Mediterranean Sea on the south and west. In this province stood Miletus, a city of great antiquity, said to have been built by Miletus, the companion of Bacchus. This once flourishing emporium is now a very mean place, but still called Palat or Palatia, *the palaces*. The chief relic of its former magnificence is a ruined theatre, which is visible afar off, and was a most capacious edifice, measuring in length four hundred and fifty-seven foot. The external face of this vast fabric is marble. The proscenium or front has been removed. The seats ranged, as usual, on the slope of a hill, and a few of them remain. The vaults

which supported the extremities, with the arches or avenues in the two wings, are constructed with great solidity.

The whole site of the town, to a great extent, is spread with rubbish, and over-run with thickets. The vestiges of the ancient city are pieces of wall, broken arches, and a few scattered pedestals, with inscriptions, a square marble urn, and many walls. This was the country of Thales, one of the seven wise men; and of Anaximander, his scholar and successor, the inventor of sun-dials; of Anaximenes, the philosopher; Timotheus, the celebrated musician, and other eminent persons. Among the numerous trophies of this ancient city, it was famous for its wool.

— — — — — quamvis Mileſia magno  
Vellera mutantur, Tyrios incocta rubores.

Myndus is a port-town on a bay of the sea, in a part of the division called Doris. This is the city which Diogenes, the cynic, observing to be very small, and the gates disproportionately large, called to the inhabitants to shut their gates, to prevent the escape of the town.

Priene was situate on the side of mount Mycale, near which the Ionians celebrated the Panionis, or yearly assemblies in honour of Heliconian Neptune. It was also the country of Bias, one of the seven wise men; who, when the place was taken by the enemy, and the citizens were flying with their most valuable effects, being asked, why he did not do as they did? replied, he always carried his best effects with him, meaning his philosophy and wisdom. Being a man of the strictest equity, *Justitia Priennis* became proverbial.

This city was famous for the temple of Minerva Polias, the remains of which yet evince its former elegance and grandeur. When entire, it overlooked the city, which was seated on the side of the mountain, flat beneath flat, in gradation, to the edge of the plain. The areas are levelled, and the communication preserved by steps cut in the slopes. Below the temple are broken columns, and pieces of marble, the remains of edifices of the Ionic and Doric orders. Farther down is the ground-plot of the stadium, by the city-wall. The area was narrow, and the seats ranged only on the side facing the plain. The whole circuit of the wall of the city is standing, besides several portions within it of admirable solidity and beauty.

At Ure, about twenty-two miles from Miletus, is the celebrated temple of Apollo Didymæus. It is approached by a gentle ascent, and seen afar off, the land towards the sea lying flat and level. The columns, yet entire, are so exquisitely fine, and the marble mass so vast and noble, that it is impossible perhaps to conceive greater beauty and majesty of ruin.

Halicarnassus, once a flourishing city, is now nothing more than a heap of ruins. No vestige remains of the tomb erected by Artemisia for her husband Mausoleus, though formerly esteemed one of the seven wonders. Of this city was Herodotus, called by Cicero the *Father of History*; and likewise Dionysius, not only a good historian but a critic.

Ionia

Ionia and Eolis form in conjunction a long track of land, extending from south to north, upon the coast of the Archipelago. In this territory was situate Ephesus, lying in 27 degrees 40 minutes of east longitude, and 37 degrees 5 minutes of north latitude; the most illustrious city of Ionia, and called by Pliny, the bright ornament of Asia. Here stood the celebrated temple of Diana, which Erostratus burnt to perpetuate his memory, the same night that Alexander was born. Many grand ruins are yet to be seen, of the stadium, theatre, odéum, and other buildings; and some of them supposed to be the remains of Diana's temple, there having been a second erected to the honour of that goddess, not inferior to the former. The Ephesians are now a few Greek peasants, living in extreme wretchedness, and insensibility; the representatives of an illustrious people, and inhabiting the wreck of their greatness; some the substructions of the glorious edifices which they raised; some beneath the vaults of the stadium, once the eroded scene of their diversions; and some, by the abrupt precipice, in the sepulchres which received their ashes. Of this place was Heraclitus the weeping philosopher, Hipponax the poet, and Parrhasius the celebrated painter.

On the banks of the Cayster, near Ephesus, are thick groves of tall reeds, some of which are more than twenty foot high. This extraordinary luxuriance is perhaps the reason why the river-god is represented on the Ephesian medals with this aquatic, as one of his attributes.

Myds was originally seated on a bay of the sea; but the bay being changed into a lake, became fresh; and the town was so much infested with gnats, which swarmed from the water, that the inhabitants retired to Miletus. The site of Myds is as romantic as its fortune was extraordinary; and there are here many remnants of antiquity to attract the attention. The city-wall, which was constructed with square towers, like that of Ephesus, is still standing, except on the side towards the water. We behold the theatre hewn in a branch of mount Titanus, with some mossy remnants of the wall of the proscenium; but the marble seats are removed. The principal and most conspicuous ruin is the small temple of Bacchus, is seated on an abrupt rock, with the front only, which is, towards the east, accessible. The roof is destroyed. The cell is well built of smooth stone covered with a brown crust. The portico was *in antis*. The marbles which lie scattered about, the broken columns, and mutilated statues, all witness a remote antiquity.

Without the city are the cemeteries of its early inhabitants; graves cut in the rock, suited to the human stature at all ages; with innumerable flat stones, which served as lids.

The city of Myds was allotted to Themistocles, by Artaxerxes, to furnish his table with fish, in which the lake greatly abounds.

At the head of the lake are vestiges of an ancient building, supposed to have been Thymbria. By it was a charonium or sacred cave; one of those which the ancients imagined to communicate with the infernal regions.

No. 9.

At Zillé, the ancient Claros, some ruins are to be seen, supposed to be of the temple of Apollo, who had an oracle at this place; but there seems to exist no memorial of the sacred grove of ash-trees. In the neighbourhood of Claros, stood Colophon, one of the cities which laid claim to the birth of Homer.

At Lebedus, which was anciently noted for its hot waters, are vestiges of an old wall; within which, beside rubbish, are some pieces of Doric columns. This was the great residence of stage players, and the place where people assembled from all parts of Ionia, to celebrate annual games in honour of Bacchus.

Teos, now called Bodrun, is at present almost entirely desolate. The walls appear to have been about five miles in circuit; without which are vaults of sepulchres stripped of their marble. Here are the remains of a temple of Bacchus, one of the most celebrated structures in Ionia; and a theatre is conspicuous in the side of the hill. This was the country of Anacreon the poet, Hecateus the historian, and Protagoras the philosopher. The books of the latter, as containing atheistical doctrines, were burnt by order of the Athenians; and his father Menander was so opulent, as to entertain Xerxes and his numerous attendants on his march against Greece.

In the time of Anacreon, the Teians migrated, from a love of liberty, to Thrace; but some of them returning, the city again flourished. It is now however deserted, and likely to continue in that situation. The site is a wilderness; and the low grounds, which are wet, produce the iris or flag, which was stamped on the money of Teos.

Erythræ has long been deserted, and even stripped of its ruins, except some vaults of sepulchres, and other fragments. The walls of Erythræ were erected on two semicircular rocky brows, and had square towers at regular distances. They were very thick, the stones massive and rugged, of the masonry called pseudisodomum. In the middle was a shallow purling stream, clear as crystal, which now turns a solitary mill in its way to the sea. This rivulet was anciently named Alcos, and was remarkable for producing hail on the bodies of those who drank of it. Near the mouth is a piece of ordinary mosaic pavement. By a conical hill on the north, are vestiges of an ample theatre in the mountain side. Of the celebrated temple of Hercules no traces now remain.

Passing by the site of Clazomene, of which no vestige is discoverable, we arrive at Smyrna, seated on the bottom of a fine bay, in 27 degrees of east longitude, and 37 degrees 30 minutes north latitude. The town is about four miles in circumference; the river Melus running through it, on the banks of which it is said that Homer was born. It has a large commodious harbour, commanded by a castle at the entrance, and is the principal mart of the country. Though the situation of Smyrna is exceeding pleasant, the climate, during great part of the year, is excessive hot, unhealthy, and subject to earthquakes. It was one of the seven churches addressed by St. John.

In several places may yet be discovered vestiges of the old wall, which is of a solid massive construction.

D d

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It consists of hard cement and rubble, but has been faced with better materials. The ground-plot of the stadium is still observable, though stripped of its marble seats and decorations, and now subjected to the culture of the plough. It appears as a long dale, semicircular or rounded at the top. One side was on the slope of mount Pagus, and the other raised on a vaulted substruction, which remains.

The ladies here wear the oriental dress, consisting of large trowsers or breeches, which reach to the ancle; long vests of rich silk, or velvet, lined in winter with costly furs; and round their waist, an embroidered zone with clasps of silver or gold. Their hair is platted, and descends down the back, often in great profusion. The girls have sometimes above twenty thick tresses, besides two or three encircling the head, as a coronet, and set off with flowers and plumes of feathers, pearls, or other jewels. They commonly stain it of a chestnut colour, which is the most desired. Their apparel and carriage are alike antique. It is remarkable that the trowsers are mentioned in a fragment of Sappho, as part of the female dress.

Mysia, including Phrygia Minor, lies between the sea of Marmora or Propontis, on the north, and Lydia on the south, having the Archipelago on the west. Through this province runs the river anciently called Granicus, on the banks of which Alexander obtained his first victory over the Persians.

Pergamus is situate near the Egean Sea, in 27 degrees 30 minutes of east longitude, and 38 degrees of north latitude. This was the royal residence of Eumenes, and of the kings of the Attali; the last of whom, by his will, transferred the kingdom to the Romans. Here stood an ancient temple of Esculapius, of which no vestige remains. The ornament of Pergamus was the royal library, which contained, according to Plutarch, two hundred thousand volumes. In this city were invented the membrana pergamena, or parchment, for the use of books, and likewise tapestry. It was the birth-place of Galen, and Oribasius, and one of the seven churches threatened by St. John.

Lampacius is situate on the southern shore of the Propontis, and retains its ancient name. It was assigned by Artaxerxes to Themistocles, for furnishing his table with wine, in which the country abounded. Alexander having threatened this city with ruin, for the favour it had shewn to the Persians, it was saved by the address of Anaximenes the historian, who was sent by his fellow-citizens to deprecate the king's displeasure. The latter being informed of the design, solemnly declared he would do the very reverse of Anaximenes's request; who therefore, on his arrival, begged the king utterly to destroy Lampacius; which he could not do on account of his oath.

On the promontory, high above the sea, stands Sigéum, now Giaurkioi, a despicable village. The high hill of Giaurkioi was the acropolis or citadel of the ancient town; and a mean church on the brow at present occupies the site of the Athenæum or temple of Minerva; the remains of which, consisting of marble fragments, are scattered round. The famous Sigeian inscription lies on the right hand as we enter this

building; and on the left is part of a pedestal, of fine white marble, with sculpture in bas-relief, the subject of which is the representation of young children, with the accustomed offerings to Minerva. Within the same building was found a marble, once deposited in the precincts of the temple, and now preserved in the library of Trinity College in Cambridge. It contains a decree made by the Sigéans two hundred and seventy-eight years before the Christian æra; and enacts, amongst other articles, the erecting in the temple an equestrian statue of king Antiochus on a pedestal of white marble, with an inscription, in which his religious regard for the temple is mentioned, and he is styled the saviour of the people. The temple of Sigéum was of remote antiquity, if not coeval with the city, which is said to have been built from the ruins of Troy.

The ruins of the ancient Ilium were fought for in vain in the time of Julius Cæsar.

———— tota teguntur

Pergama dumetis: etiam periere ruinae. LUCAN.

Of the Troja Nova, which is supposed to have been built by Alexander the Great, or at least much enlarged by him and Lysimachus, there are some noble remains; but the ingenious Mr. Wood strongly contends, that this place must be at a considerable distance from the famous Ilium. This opinion he founds upon an examination of the present state of the Troad, compared with the topographical scenes, and some of the incidents in the Iliad. The present Troy, he observes, stands upon the sea; but this is not the Troy of Homer; for that was higher up, and looked towards the Hellespont, not towards the Egean. He is certain that the Scamander is considerably changed from what it was in the days of Homer. The hot spring, according to the poet, was one of the sources of this river: but it is now much lower than the present source, and has no communication with the Scamander. The fountains whence the river took its rise were, according to Homer, close by the walls of the city: but the ground about the fountain, observed by Mr. Wood, is too steep and rugged for the situation of a city. Such a situation, he observes, cannot be made to accord with the pursuit of Hector, nor with many other incidents in the poem. The distance also of the present source from the Hellespont is too great to admit of the actions of the day. For these reasons, Mr. Wood fixes the situation of the city lower down than the springs of the Scamander; and he likewise ventures to cut off some miles from our ancient map of the Trojan plain, upon a presumption, supported by the natural history of the country, that a great part of the plain, which extends to the Hellespont, has been produced since the time of Homer.

It is not to be questioned, that in the course of near three thousand years, the Troad, as well as other parts on the Ionian coast, has undergone great alterations; but it would perhaps be precipitate to determine those alterations, from the dissimilarity between the present state of this territory and the representation of it in Homer. Nothing is more probable, than that much

of the scenery in the Iliad existed only in the poet's imagination; and that this was the case, there seems additional reason to conclude, from the admired episode at the beginning of the twelfth book, intended to obviate the question, why no ruins remained of the Grecian wall. This passage being so pertinent to the subject in controversy, deserves to be quoted.

“ This flood, while Hector and Achilles rag'd,  
While sacred Troy the warring hosts engag'd;  
But when her sons were slain, her city burn'd,  
And what surviv'd of Greece to Greece return'd;  
Then Neptune and Apollo shook the shore,  
And Ida's summits pour'd their wat'ry store;  
Rhesus and Rhodius then unite their rills,  
Caresus roaring down the stony hills,  
Æsepus, Granicus, with mingled force,  
And Xanthus, foaming from his fruitful source;  
And gulphy Simois, rolling to the main  
Helmets, and shields, and godlike heroes slain:  
These turn'd by Phœbus from their wonted ways  
Delug'd the rampires nine continu'd days;  
The weight of waters saps the yielding wall,  
And to the sea the floating bulwarks fall.  
Incessant cataracts the thund'ring pours,  
And half the skies descend in sluicy show'rs;  
The god of ocean marching stern before,  
With his huge trident wounds the trembling shore,  
Vast stones and piles from their foundation heaves,  
Andwhelms the smoaky ruins in the waves.  
Now smooth'd with sand, and levell'd by the flood,  
No fragment tells where once the ruin stood.”

But whatever increase or change the plain may have received since the siege of Troy, the adjacent mountains could not easily be affected by the cause of any such alteration. We therefore find that mount Gargarus, Cotylus, and Lectum, have only changed their names; and continue to make the same conspicuous figure, which distinguished them in the Iliad. The description given by Homer of mount Ida likewise corresponds with its present state; for its numerous summits are still covered with pine-trees and it abounds with fountains.

According to Mr. Wood's computation, the ancient kingdom of Priam includes in its circumference about five hundred English miles. Of this above two hundred are a maritime tract, washed by the Propontis, Hellespont, and Ægean seas. Few spots of equal extent enjoy more natural advantages. The climate is temperate and healthful; the hills are covered with woods; and the plains, which are fertile, well watered. The country produces oil; and in ancient times some parts of it were famous for wine. There are mineral waters, and hot baths, which the natives use for several disorders; and the mountains contain mines, which probably might be wrought to advantage.

That part of the territory in which Troy stood, presents to the eye of the spectator an extensive plain, diversified with a few barrows, and divided by the Scamander. This celebrated river springs from a rock in mount Ida; and dripping in a small quantity down a romantic woody cliff, it is soon joined by another stream.

The whole length of its course, in a strait line, is computed to be about twenty-three miles; but far above this extent, if its numerous windings be included. Near Ene, a considerable village, it receives the Samois, amidst corn fields interspersed with fine mulberry trees. At the times when the Scamander has been visited by travellers, it was in its lowest state, with hardly water sufficient to support a continued current to the sea. It represented a succession of several small streams, produced from different springs; all which were absorbed in the gravelly channel, after a short and languid course. In this situation it must have been on the march of the Persians towards Greece, when we are told by Herodotus, that it was drank up by Xerxes's army.

Bithynia, called by the Turks Beefanguel, is bounded on the west by the Thracian Bosphorus, and a part of the Propontis; on the south by the river Rhyndacus and mount Olympus; on the north by the Euxine Sea; and on the east by the ancient Paphlagonia. It was so rich and fruitful a country of old, as to be distinguished by the title of *Bilbynia Divus*; but, like all the provinces of the Turkish empire, it is now less cultivated than formerly. The chief town is Prusa or Prurfa, the capital of all the Turkish dominions in Asia, situate at the foot of mount Olympus, in 29 degrees of east longitude, and 40 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude. It is about two miles in length, surrounded by an antique wall, well peopled with Turks, Jews, and Grecian and Armenian Christians. Here are thirty mosques, and several noble caravanferas, with a grand bazaar or exchange. The town is well watered with rivulets descending from mount Olympus, and almost every house has its fountain. Here is the best manufacture of silk in the Turkish dominions, the raw silk being produced in the neighbourhood. They have also a manufacture of tapestry; and a great quantity of excellent wine is made by the Christian inhabitants. The grand seignior's palace at Prusa is in a ruinous condition; but there are still the tombs of the first Turkish emperors and their sultanas, over which are erected little chapels covered with domes. Mount Olympus, in the neighbourhood, is one of the highest mountains in Asia Minor, barren towards the top, and covered with snow great part of the year; but the valleys near it are temperate, and produce great variety of fruit.

Within a mile of Prusa are the celebrated baths of Calipsa, whither people resort from the distance of several hundred miles. The apartments are all paved and lined with marble, and the baths are supplied with water of different degrees of heat. Of the city of Prusa, was the famous physician Asclepiades.

Nice, another town of this province, is situate near the lake of Aschana, or Ascu, in 30 degrees 5 minutes of east longitude, and 41 degrees of north latitude. It was anciently the metropolis of the country; and hither the emperor Constantine summoned the first general council, to consider of the doctrine of the Arians.

Chalcedon, or rather its ruins, lie nearly opposite to Constantinople. It was a flourishing city in the fourth

fourth century, at which a fourth general council was held. In ancient times, this place was called the *city of the blind*, from the answer of the oracle to the Greeks who built Byzantium, ordering to look for a settlement opposite to the country of the blind, meaning the Chalcedonians, who coming to the spot where Byzantium stands, chose a worse situation on the other side.

About eighty miles east of Chalcedon, lies Nicomedia, anciently a large city, and furnished the Beautiful. It was famous not only under its own kings, but also under the Romans; and was the royal residence of Dioclesian, and of Constantine, while Constantine was building. It is still a populous town, of considerable trade. Their chief manufactures are silk, cotton, earthen ware, and glass.

### C H A P. III.

#### *Of Syria, and Palestine, or the Holy Land.*

**S**YRIA is situate between 35 and 41 degrees of east longitude, and between 31 and 37 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by Tirocomania or Armenia, and Aladulia; on the west by the Levant Sea, and Cilicia or Caramania; on the south by Arabia; and on the east by the river Euphrates, which divides it from Diarbeck or Mésopotamia. Such are the boundaries of modern Syria; but the ancient kingdom of this name, which was governed by Seleucus and his successors, extended as far eastward as Persia.

The country is at present divided into three governments: namely, that of Aleppo, Tripoli, and Damascus or Scham; each of which is subdivided into sangaicks or inferior governments, commanded by their respective bashaws, under the governor of the province.

Of those several governments, the most northerly is the beglerbegship of Aleppo; the capital of which, bearing the same name, is situate in 37 degrees 40 minutes of east longitude, and in 36 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude, about ninety miles east of the Levant sea: this city stands on four eminences, in the middle of a spacious plain. It is of an oval figure, about three miles in circumference, surrounded by a stone wall, and having a castle in the center, on the highest eminence. The town is better built than most of those in Turkey, and contains many mosques, caravanseras, bagnios, fountains, and reservoirs of water. It is environed with fine gardens, vineyards, and orchards of apples, oranges, lemons, cherries, and other fruits. Hardly any town in the dominions of the grand seignior carries on a more flourishing trade. Here most of the maritime powers in Europe have their consuls and factors. The articles of commerce are chiefly silks, carpets, mohair yarn, shagreen, Turkey leather, cotton, and other produce of Persia and Turkey. It is computed, that in the city and suburbs, there are not less than two hundred thousand souls; of which forty thousand are Christians, who

reside in the latter. The beglerbeg of Aleppo commands all the country between the Levant and the river Euphrates; but the governor of the castle is independent of his jurisdiction.

The soil in the neighbourhood of the city produces good crops of wheat and barley. Olive-trees and capers are very frequent; but the grass being burnt up in the fair season, there is a deficiency of pasture.

The port-town to Aleppo is Scanderoon, situate on the Levant, in 37 degrees of east longitude, and 36 degrees 15 minutes of north latitude. It had anciently the name of Alexandretta, and is supposed to have been built by Alexander the Great. It is at present inhabited chiefly by seamen; the insalubrity of the air, caused by the salt-marshes in the neighbourhood, rendering it a disagreeable residence to those who are under no necessity of following an employment in the town.

When any vessel arrives at Scanderoon, the factors immediately send advice of it to Aleppo, by pigeons, bred at the latter of those towns, and which fly home in about five hours, though the distance between the two places is almost ninety miles.

Thirty miles south of Scanderoon, lie the ruins of Antioch, once the capital of Syria. Here the professors of the doctrine of Christ first received the name of Christians: hence in the middle ages it was dignified with the name of Theopolis, or the city of God.

Tripoli Asiatic is situate on the Levant, in 36 degrees 15 minutes east longitude, and 34 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, about a hundred miles south of Scanderoon. It was the capital of that part of Syria, called anciently Phœnicia, the people of which excelled so much in navigation and other arts in the earliest ages, and settled colonies in the remotest parts of Europe and Africa; and is at present the chief town of one of the divisions of Syria, and the seat of the viceroy. It is rather a road than a harbour, there being very little security for the shipping which lies here. There are however six square towers built along the shore, to protect the place from pirates; but not provided either with arms or ammunition. It stands at the foot of mount Libanus, whence a rivulet runs through the gardens, which abound in orange and mulberry trees. A considerable silk manufacture is established in the town.

Twenty miles south of Tripoli are the ruins of Botrys, said to have been built by Saturn; and twelve miles farther lie those of Byblus, famous for a temple of Apollo, who is supposed by some to have been born at this place. It was formerly a town of great extent and magnificence, but at present very inconsiderable. It is encompassed with a dry ditch, a wall, and square towers, forty yards distant from each other. Near this town is the river Adonis, called by the Turks, Ibrahim Basha, famous in the poets for the metamorphosis of a beautiful shepherd youth, the favourite of Venus, who was killed by a wild boar. Here the women annually lamented his unhappy fate, when in flood-time, the river was tinged with a red earth, a phenomenon which they imagined to be produced by an hæmorrhage from his wounds.

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*Habit of the Grand Seigneur in 1772.*



*This is the Grand Seigneur's Habit when he goes to Mosque, or gives Audience, it consists of a Sadây, a Kaftan, and a Turban, with three Tufts called Tails.*

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A little farther south is the river Licus, otherwise Canis, called by the Turks, Nahor Kelp. It is said to have received its name from an oracular image, in form of a dog, which in ancient times was here worshipped. The body of this idol is pointed out to strangers, lying with its heels upwards in the water. Not far thence, on the river Beroote, is a mosque, formerly a chapel sacred to St. George, who, according to tradition, killed the dragon at this place. The spot was anciently named Berytus, from which the idol Baal Berith is supposed to have had its name. It had afterwards many privileges conferred on it by Augustus, with the name of Julia Felix. At present, however, it retains nothing of its ancient felicity, except the situation, in which respect it is very happy.

On the same coast, about seventy miles south of Tripoli, stands Sidon, or Sayd, the mother of Tyre, and the first city that attempted a foreign trade by sea. It was famous for its manufacture of glass, and of fine linen. The Sidonians are said to have been the inventors of arithmetic and astronomy. That they were much esteemed for their ingenuity, is evident from the epithet Πολυμαθηταί, given them by Homer; and this character is confirmed by the testimony of Solomon. Moschus, the ancient atomical philosopher, who lived before the war of Troy, was a native of this city. It is at present a sangiacship, and governed by a Turkish bashaw, subject to the beglerbeg of Tripoli. The town is still well peopled, and about it are magnificent ruins, which discover its ancient grandeur.

Near Sidon is a ruined village, supposed to be the ancient Sarepta, famous for having been the habitation of the prophet Elijah. It consists of a few houses lying scattered on the top of a mountain, half a mile from the sea.

About an hour's journey farther south, we come to the ruins of Tyre, not that which was destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, but the city built on an island adjacent to the coast, and which Alexander could not take till he had thrown up a mole or causey, to facilitate the operations of the siege. The island is covered with sand, and was formerly surrounded by a wall, standing upon the utmost boundaries of the sea. In its natural state it seems to have been of a circular figure, with an area of about forty acres. The foundations of the wall yet remain.

Twenty miles southward of Tyre is the city of Acre, lying in the neighbourhood of mount Carmel. During the Crusades, the possession of this town was long disputed by the Christians and Saracens. In the year 1191, it was taken from the latter by Richard I. king of England, and Philip king of France, who gave it to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, in whose hands it remained a hundred years, when it was retaken by the Saracens, and almost entirely destroyed. The fate of this town is rendered memorable by an act of singular resolution, with which it was accompanied. A number of beautiful young nuns, terrified at the prospect of being exposed to the brutal lust of the licentious infidels, determined to avoid the violation of their chastity, by rendering themselves objects of averfion. With this view they cut off their noses,

No. 10.

and mangled their faces in a shocking manner. The Saracens, inflamed with resentment at a spectacle which disappointed the gratification of their appetites, immediately put them all to the sword.

Proceeding farther, we arrive at mount Hermon, remarkable for the dews which fall upon it heavily in the night; and beyond it mount Tabor, one of the most beautiful mountains in the world, both in itself, and in the prospect it affords. Seen on the east and west sides, it exactly resembles a fuger-loaf; but on the north and south sides, it appears of an oval figure, surrounded with a deep valley, that separates it from other mountains, which it overtops. To the north-east, the east, and south-east, it commands a prospect of the plain of Galilee; and to the south and south-west, that of the incomparably beautiful plain of Esdrelon. Quite round, the mountain rises equally high and steep; and appears green on every side; having on the summit an oval plain, about three miles in compass. Whether this was the high mountain on which our Saviour's transfiguration happened, though affirmed by the generality, is however questioned by some writers.

Samaria stands upon an oval mount, over-looking a fruitful valley, with a circle of hills at a distance. On the north side is a large square piazza, supposed to have been part of a church erected by St. Helen, in honour of St. John the Baptist, who was here imprisoned and beheaded.

Five miles beyond Samaria lies Naplofa, the modern name of Sychem or Sychar; situated in a narrow valley, with mount Gerizim on the south, and on the north, mount Abel. The town is well peopled, but meanly built; consisting of two streets lying parallel to each other; and is the seat of a Turkish bashaw. In the neighbourhood of this place is Jacob's well, usually visited by travellers. It is covered with an old vault, upon the mouth of which is laid a flat stone.

Jerusalem, still reckoned the capital of the Holy Land, stands on a mountain about thirty miles east of the Levant, in 36 degrees of east longitude, and 32 degrees of north latitude. Its situation is altered from what it was at the crucifixion of our Saviour: for mount Calvary then lay without the walls, and mount Sion within, near the center; but the latter is now excluded, and the former become the most central part of the city. At present this capital is not more than three miles in circumference, the buildings mean, and thinly inhabited; the chief employment of those who reside in it, being to accommodate the pilgrims who resort hither with lodging and provisions. The grandest building is the church of the sepulchre, in which almost every Christian nation has a chapel. This structure is about a hundred paces in length and sixty in breadth. It is lighted by an open dome or cupola on the middle of the roof, directly under which is the grand sepulchre. There are also in this church twelve or thirteen places, consecrated on account of some particular actions performed in them, relative to the death and resurrection of Christ; the former of which events is here annually

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solemnized on Good Friday, by the friars, with great superstition and ceremony. A bashaw and a good garrison is kept there by the Turks, to protect the pilgrims from the Arabs, who possess the adjacent country. The walls and fortifications are very antique, having old square towers instead of bastions; but as the Arabs are destitute of artillery, the defence proves sufficient.

When the pilgrims arrive near the gates of Jerusalem, the fathers of the Latin convent send their druggerman or interpreter, with some others, to meet them, and bring them to their cloister, where they are hospitably entertained, their feet washed, and an apartment allotted for their use. A torch is then given to each pilgrim, and they go in procession round the cloister, singing *Te Deum* for their safe arrival at the holy city.

Without the wall are some apartments hewn out of the solid rock, and called the sepulchres of the kings; but on what account they have received this name, it is difficult to determine; no kings, either of Israel or Judah, being mentioned in Scripture as interred here. They appear, however, to have been receptacles for the dead, formed at vast expence, and with infinite labour. They are approached on the east side, through an entrance, which leads into an open court about forty paces square. On the south side of the court is a portico, nine paces long, and four broad, with a kind of architrave, and ornamented with sculptures of fruits and flowers, still discernible, though injured by the ravages of years. At the end of the portico on the left hand, is the descent into the sepulchres, which consist of seven apartments, one within another, all cut out of the solid rock; each about eight yards square, except the two innermost, which are deeper, by the additional descent of six or seven steps. In all the six interior apartments, were coffins of stone, placed in niches in the sides. They had been at first carved with foliage, and covered with handsome lids; but most of them are now defaced and broken. There has been in each room a channel, for the purpose of carrying off the water, which distilled from the ceiling by the exhalation of the vapours.

To the subterraneous passages one door only remains, which is formed in the manner of wainscot, of one stone, fitted with hinges of the same material.

Between those sepulchres and the city, a dungeon is pointed out, in which the prophet Jeremiah is said to have been imprisoned.

Crossing the valley of Jehosaphat, and part of mount Olivet, we arrive in half an hour at Bethany; the first house in which village is supposed to have belonged to Lazarus; and near it is shewn the sepulchre, where he is said to have been raised from the dead. It is a small apartment, entered through one of larger dimensions, the descent to the latter of which is by twenty-five steps.

The mountain, in the desert, on which our Saviour is said to have been tempted, is approached by an intricate road, variegated, on each side, with hills and dales, and though at present extremely barren, has the appearance of

being formerly cultivated. The whole prospect is dismal, presenting nothing but rocky mountains and frightful chasms, that appear to have been the effect of some horrid convulsion of nature.

Turning into the plain of Jericho, we soon arrive at the fountain of Elisha, which that prophet purged of its brackishness, at the request of the neighbouring inhabitants. The water falls into a large basin, whence it is diffused over the fields, which it endows with great fertility. The village of Jericho is at present a wretched habitation of Arabs.

On the way towards Jordan, we pass over a plain, producing nothing but samphire and other marine plants. In many places that appear to have been once covered with water, there remain strong incrustations of salt, with which the soil seemed to be every where impregnated.

The length of the Dead Sea, which may be more properly called a lake, is twenty four leagues, and the breadth six or seven. To the east and west it is bounded by mountains of a stupendous height, covered with a sulphureous kind of stone. The tradition of birds dropping down dead in flying over this expanse of water, is entirely groundless; and from oyster and other shells on the shore, there is reason to think that it produces some fish. When the waters are low, it is said that a few relics may be discovered of those cities, which were destroyed by fire from heaven.

Passing the famous valley, where an angel destroyed in one night the best part of the army of Sennacherib, we come to a village in which it is said that no Turk can survive above two years. Whether the report be true or false, no Turk chooses to bring it to the test of experiment, and therefore the Christians enjoy the place entirely to themselves.

Farther on lies a village called St. Philip, where ascending a steep hill, we arrive at the wilderness of St. John, which, though rocky and mountainous, is well cultivated, and produces plenty of corn, grapes, and olives. After an hour's travelling, we reach the cave and fountain, where it is said that John the Baptist practised the austerities related of him. Near the cave are some old locust-trees, much revered by the pilgrims.

About six miles south of Jerusalem is situate Bethlehem, once an elegant city, but now a poor village. Hither the Christian pilgrims much resort, as the place of our Saviour's nativity. Near this place remain the pools and fountains, which stood in the gardens of Solomon, that are said to have been his delight.

Damascus or Scham, the capital of the south division of Syria, is situate in 37 degrees 20 minutes of east longitude, and in 33 degrees 15 minutes of north latitude. It stands in a fruitful extensive plain, encompassed with gardens, well watered, which stretch several miles, and surrounded by mountains at a distance. The town is about two miles in length, and the streets narrow. The houses are built of sun-burnt brick, on which account, when there is the least rain, the streets are covered with deep mud. The gates and doors, however, are beautifully inlaid with marble; the

the buildings exhibiting to the view a striking contrast of grandeur and meanness united. Each house is generally built in the form of a square court; in the middle of which are artificial fountains, decorated with marble basins. The ceilings and pannels of the apartments, after the Turkish manner, are richly painted and gilded. There are in the town a great number of magnificent mosques or temples, one of which had formerly been a Christian church, dedicated to St. John the Baptist. It is supported by lofty pillars of granite marble, and encompassed by piazzas or cloisters. The town has a brisk trade and several valuable manufactures, particularly the branching fattins, usually called damaska. Their sword-blades, and all sorts of cutlery-ware, are likewise in great reputation, the water of the place being very proper for tempering iron and steel. Nor is their traffic less considerable in raw, as well as wrought silks, wine, prunes, with other dried fruits, and soap. Near the city is a beautiful meadow, called the Ager Damascenus, of the earth of which they have a tradition that Adam was made.

The Turks of Damascus treat the Christians with great contempt, and amongst other marks of indignity, will not suffer them to ride on horseback, but upon asses. Those animals however are much more nimble than with us. A fellow runs after them, who pricks the ass with a goad, so that the traveller requires neither whip nor spur.

Jaffa, or Joppa, is situate on an eminence close to the Levant, about thirty miles west of Jerusalem. It was the only port belonging to Palestine, but the harbour is so choaked up at present, that no ship of any great burden can enter it; neither is it populous or well built.

Gaza is the most southerly town in Palestine, situate near the Levant, in 35 degrees of east longitude, and 31 degrees 20 minutes of north latitude. It was formerly a very strong place, and the possession of it much disputed by the Egyptians and Syrians; but as both those kingdoms are now under the dominion of the Turks, the fortifications, as well as the town, are in a ruinous condition.

#### C H A P. IV.

##### *Of Palmyra.*

**T**HE situation of this celebrated city is not precisely determined by geographers, some placing it in Syria, and others in Arabia; but the most general opinion is, that it was comprehended in the former. It lies in 39 degrees of east longitude, and 33 of north latitude, two hundred miles south-east of Aleppo. Its territory is enclosed for a large extent on every side by sands, but within this circular boundary it was extremely fertile in ancient times, and celebrated for the purity of its waters.

The origin of the city of Palmyra has been no less disputed than its situation. In the Arabic translation of the Chronicles, it is mentioned as subsisting before the days of Solomon; but John of Antioch, surnamed Malala, informs us that it was built by that

monarch, on the very spot where his father slew the Philistine chief, and in honour of that memorable action, Abul Farai ventures even to fix the year of its foundation. But leaving those and other accounts of the earlier state of Palmyra as fabulous, we shall proceed to what has been delivered concerning it upon more respectable authority.

We find in the ninth chapter of the first book of Kings, and the eighth of the second of Chronicles, that Solomon erected a city in the wilderness, and called it Tadmor. According to Josephus, the Greeks and Romans afterwards distinguished the place by the name of Palmyra, whilst the Syrians continued to give it the former appellation. This is confirmed by St. Jerom; and the country Arabs, even at this time, call it by the ancient name. But though Palmyra may have been originally founded by Solomon, it is probable that the ruins now existing are those of edifices which have been built at a later period. We are told by John of Antioch, that Nebuchadnezzar destroyed this city, in his march to the siege of Jerusalem. Besides, it is hardly to be imagined, that such elegant structures could be prior to the footing of the Greeks in Syria; and the improbability of such a fact being admitted, we shall not be surpris'd that Xenophon has taken no notice of it in his retreat of Cyrus the younger, though he is very exact in describing the desert; or that it is not mentioned in the account of the march of Alexander to the Euphrates. It is however extraordinary, that no mention is made of so splendid a city, even when Pompey reduced Syria to a Roman province, and when a taste for the polite arts began to be so prevalent, that architecture, painting, and sculpture, were objects not unworthy the attention of a Roman general. The name of Palmyra is not admitted to a place in history, till Appian, in the fifth book of his civil wars, speaks of Mark Antony as attempting to plunder it; though it appears, that at this time, the riches and trade of the Palmyrenes must have been of some standing. Forty years afterwards, as we find by their inscriptions, they ran into expences and luxuries which could not be supported without considerable sources of wealth.

The only ancient account of this place extant is transmitted by Pliny, who, though he has collected the most striking circumstances concerning it, yet omits to mention the buildings. "The city of Palmyra, says he, is nobly situated, the soil is rich, and it is pleasantly watered. It is on all sides surrounded by a vast sandy desert, which totally separates it from the rest of the world, and has preserved its independence between the two great empires of Rome and Parthia; their first care, when at war, being to engage it in their interest. It is distant from the Parthian Seleucia on the Tigris three hundred and thirty-seven miles; from the highest part of the Mediterranean two hundred and three; and a hundred and seventy-six from Damascus." All those circumstances, Mr. Wood observes, strongly characterize Palmyra, its situation being very fine, having a ridge of hills to the west, and to the east an extensive plain. On the hills formerly stood many sepulchral monuments, some

some of which are yet to be seen, inspiring the beholder with awe and veneration.

The soil about the town is still rich, and might be cultivated with little pains; but the streams which watered it are now lost in the sand, by not lining with stone, as formerly, the channel through which it is conveyed. Though the palm-tree, which will flourish in the dryest soil, once perhaps covered those hills and great part of the desert, none of them are now to be found here, nor more than one fig-tree; though the merchants who travelled hither in 1697, from Aleppo, saw several; and Albufedah mentions both the palm and fig as common at Palmyra.

Mr. Wood is of opinion, that among the remains of Palmyra, the ruins of two different periods of antiquity may be easily discerned; the older owing its dissolution to time, and the other bearing marks of violence. The inscriptions here, for the most part either honorary or sepulchral, are badly executed; the names are generally in Palmyrene characters, and the latest have Roman *prænomena*. From them it is evident that one of the buildings was standing before the birth of Christ; nor any of them so modern as the destruction of the city by Aurelian, except one in Latin, which mentions Dioclesian.

The information respecting the history of this place, which can be obtained from the inscriptions, cameos, intaglios, or medals found here, is very trifling. Of the latter have been found only a few Roman, in brass, of the lower empire. The most perfect piece of antiquity is a mausoleum, now almost one thousand eight hundred years old; the floors and stairs of which are still entire, though the building consists of five stories. An inscription upon it, yet legible, informs us, that it was built by Jamblicus, son of Mocius, as a burial-place for himself and his family, in the year 314. This date being relative to the æra of Seleucus, answers to the third year of the Christian epoch.

The walls which surround this city, were flanked with square towers; in many parts, particularly on the south-east nothing of them exists; and, from the best calculation that Mr. Wood could make, he imagines their circuit has not been less than three English miles. But as Palmyra, in its flourishing state, must have been of greater extent, he thinks it not improbable that the old city covered a neighbouring piece of ground, ten miles in circumference; in every spot of which, the Arabs say, that ruins are turned up in digging. For this reason, he supposes that the walls inclose only that part of Palmyra which was occupied with public buildings; and were fortified, if not erected, by Justinian, who judged this a proper place to stem the furious progress of the Saracens.

By closely inspecting this wall, it appears that two or three of the flanking towers on the north-east were formerly sepulchral monuments; which affords some proof that the walls were erected posterior to the monuments, and the works of a Christian æra; for the pagan religion would have condemned the metamorphosis as profane. Besides the Greeks and Romans always

buried without the walls of their cities; and the same custom was religiously observed over all the East.

On the top of one of the highest rocky hills, north-east of the ruins of Palmyra, is an old castle, the ascent to which is steep and rugged. It is a mean structure, not so old as the time of Justinian, and unworthy of even the Mamelukes. Round it is cut a ditch, which cannot be passed without difficulty, the draw-bridge being broken down. In the rock is a deep hole, intended perhaps for a well, but now dry.

The remains of one building at Palmyra are extremely magnificent; and this Mr. Wood supposes to have been the temple of the Sun, which being much damaged by the Roman soldiers, when Aurelian took the city, that emperor ordered, for the expense of repairing it, three hundred pounds weight of gold from the treasures of Zenobia; with one thousand eight hundred pounds weight of silver, levied upon the people, besides the jewels of the crown. The solidity and height of the walls of its court tempted the Turks to convert it into a place of strength; and therefore on the north-east, and south, they stopped up the windows, dug a ditch to the west, and demolished the portico of the grand entrance; building in its place a square tower to flank that side. The court is paved with broad stones, but so covered with rubbish as to be perceptible only in a few places. Neither are any stairs to be seen, by which it could communicate with any other part of the building.

In the desert, three or four miles south-east of the ruins of Palmyra, lies the valley of salt, whence Damascus and the neighbouring towns are supplied with that commodity. This is supposed to be the place in which David smote the Syrians. The ground, to a considerable depth, is impregnated with salt, which they obtain by forming trenches, where the rain-water lodging, dissolves the saline particles which transude from the earth.

The most remarkable figure which Palmyra makes in history, was in the reign of Gallienus, when the glory of the Roman arms was obscured in the East, under the indolent administration of that prince. At this juncture Odenathus, a native of Palmyra, collecting the remains of the vanquished Romans in Syria, led them against Sapor king of Persia, whom he routed, and advanced with his victorious army as far as Ctesiphon, the capital of the empire. On his return from this expedition, in which he not only acquired vast riches, but renown and popularity, he was unanimously declared Augustus, and copartner of the empire with Gallienus. After a series of warlike achievements, however, he was treacherously slain, as is supposed, by his kinsman Mæonius. Of his family, or the more early part of his life, history supplies us with no particulars; but is agreed that he was a man of great abilities and excellent qualifications. Libanius mentions an oration written in his praise by Longinus, which is lost; and Pollio affirms, that had he not engaged in the Roman interest, it must at that time have been entirely ruined in the East. Of his

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extraordinary merit we need no other testimony, than that from a private station he obtained in marriage Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, one of the most distinguished female characters in history, either ancient or modern. She claimed her descent from the Macedonian kings of Egypt, equalled in beauty her ancestor Cleopatra, and far surpassed that princess in chastity and valour. She was esteemed the most lovely, as well as the greatest of her sex. She was of a dark complexion (for in speaking of a lady, as a celebrated writer observes, those trifles become important); her teeth were of a pearly whiteness, and her large black eyes sparkled with uncommon fire, tempered by the most attractive sweetness. Her voice was strong and harmonious. Her manly understanding was strengthened and adorned by study. She was not ignorant of the Latin tongue, but possessed in equal perfection the Greek, the Syriac, and the Egyptian languages. She had drawn up for her own use an abridgement of oriental history, and familiarly compared the beauties of Homer and Plato, under the tuition of the great Longinus. She was conversant even in the art of war; and Aurelian attributes to her the victories of her husband over the Persians.

At the death of Odonathus, this accomplished heroine assumed the reins of government, and renouncing the alliance with Rome, attacked and totally routed Heraclius the Roman general, who was sent against the Persians. This victory left her in quiet possession of Syria and Mesopotamia. Her ambition however not being gratified by this event, she asserted a hereditary right to the dominion of Egypt, as being descended from Ptolemy; and having secured a strong party there in her favour, she sent thither Zabdas, a gallant

officer, who defeating the Egyptian army, possessed himself of the province, which he left under a guard of five thousand men, and returned to Palmyra.

After this conquest, Zenobia added to her dominions the best part of Asia Minor; till the emperor Aurelian defeated her army in two battles, and forced her to take shelter within the walls of her capital.

The garrison obstinately refusing to surrender, and being reduced to great extremity, it was resolved that they should apply to their allies the Persians, in the most pressing manner, for succour. This important embassy the queen undertook to perform, and mounting a dromedary, set out for Persia; but was made prisoner by a party of Aurelian's horse, dispatched for that purpose, as she was about to cross the Euphrates. The city soon after surrendered to the emperor, who spared the inhabitants, but carried off the best part of their riches, leaving behind him a garrison of six hundred men; till, on a revolt of the citizens in a few years, the town was destroyed.

The valour and magnanimity which this celebrated queen had before discovered, appear to have entirely forsaken her under the pressure of adverse fortune, and she sacrificed to the resentment of the emperor the most faithful adherents to her cause. Among those was the renowned Longinus, who met his fate with an intrepidity that throws additional lustre round his character. After suffering the mortification to grace a Roman triumph, Zenobia married, and had children at Conche, on the road from Rome to the ancient Tibur, where the emperor assigned some lands for her maintenance; and the remains of her villa are at this day shewn to travellers.

## A F R I C A.

**Q**UITTING the continent of Asia, we arrive in that of Africa, another of the great divisions into which the terraqueous globe is distinguished, and which may naturally be considered as the second in the order of description, not only on account of its proximity to the former, but of the early period when it appears to have received its first inhabitants. This peninsular quarter of the world 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; by the great Southern Ocean on the south; and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west. It is situate between 50 degrees of east, and 18 degrees of west longitude, and between 35 degrees of south, and 37 degrees of north latitude;

extending upwards of four thousand three hundred miles in length, and four thousand in breadth.

Africa is usually distinguished into nine divisions, viz. Egypt; Abyssinia, comprehending Nubia and the coast of Abez, with Anian, on the north-east; Zanguebar, comprehending Sofala and Terra de Natal on the south-east; Caffraria, or the country of the Hottentots, on the south; Monomotapa and Monomugi, inland countries, surrounded by Zanguebar, Caffraria, and Matamen; Benguela, Angola, Congo, and Benin, on the south-west; Guinea, Proper Negro-land, Zaara, and Biledulgerid on the west; Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca, usually styled the coast of Barbary; the remaining division consists of the islands of Madagascar, Balmandel, &c.

## E G Y P T.

## C H A P. I.

*Of the situation—river Nile—produce—persons of the Egyptians—dress—salutations—method of travelling—houses.*

**E**GYPT, the north-east division of Africa, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean; on the east by the Red Sea, and the isthmus of Suez; on the south by Abyssinia; and on the west by the Desarts of Barca, and the ancient Lybia. It is situate between 30 and 36 degrees of east longitude, and between 21 and 31 degrees of north latitude; being about six hundred miles long, and a hundred and fifty broad.

This country was thrown by the ancients into three grand divisions, namely, that of the Upper, the Middle, and the Lower Egypt; or the Thebais, Heptanomis, and Delta. At present, it is divided into the Higher and Lower, considered with respect to the course of the Nile.

This celebrated river is one of the most remarkable objects in Egypt, and to account for its source, and periodical overflowing, was a problem which baffled the utmost investigation of the ancients. It is now, however, found to issue from the mountains in Abyssinia, in 12 degrees of north latitude. It runs generally from south to north, through Abyssinia into Egypt,

and then continues its course in one stream, till it comes below Cairo, to the Delta, where it divides; one branch discharging itself into the Mediterranean at Damietta, and the other at Rosetta, a hundred miles farther west. Ancient writers have described the upper part of this river, as intersected by cataracts of a stupendous height; but upon more accurate enquiry, those accounts appear to have been greatly exaggerated. The channel is crossed in three places by rocks of granite, over which the Nile falling, forms three cataracts. The first is about three foot deep; the second a little lower, is about seven or eight foot; and the third is supposed to be only a few foot more. Such are the cataracts, formerly called catadopes, which have been represented as making so hideous a noise, that those who inhabited in the neighbourhood were rendered deaf by the sound.

The Nile generally begins to overflow in May or June, and the inundation increases for four or five months, during which time the waters are turbid, and of a colour either green or inclining to red. There are great rejoicings every year when the river rises to a certain height, their future harvest depending upon it. The just height of the inundation, according to Pliny, is sixteen cubits; when it rises to twelve or thirteen, a famine is expected; and when on the contrary it exceeds sixteen, the inundation is considered as dangerous. To ascertain the proper height of this annual

annual deluge, opposite to Old Cairo, stands a pillar divided into pikes, a measure about the length of two foot. Here officers appointed for the purpose constantly attend, when the waters have risen to a considerable height, who give notice two or three times in the day, of the exact degree of inundation to the cryers, by whom it is immediately published in their respective divisions. When the river is supposed to be high enough, the banks are cut, to let the water into the canals, from which it may be distributed occasionally to the fields and gardens. This expedient however is practised only in the upper part of the country, it being unnecessary in the Delta, or Lower Egypt, which on account of its level situation is sufficiently overflowed.

The cause of this annual inundation of the Nile seems to be ascribed with justice to the rains which fall periodically in the country whence it derives its source. To this end the north winds may also contribute, which beginning to blow towards the close of May, drive the clouds formed by the vapours of the Mediterranean, southward, as far as the mountains of Ethiopia; where their course being stopped, they condense, and fall down in violent rains. The same wind likewise contributes to raise the waters of the Nile, by driving forward the sea, which meeting with the river, already swollen by the new fallen rains, opposes its progress, and thus the country is soon overflowed.

In October, when the Nile usually ceases to rise, the water stagnates in the canals, and has a very noisome smell, occasioned by the filth thrown into it, as well as by the stagnation. With the vapours hence arising, even the money and plate is tarnished. To the slime which remains after the inundation, rendered putrid by the great heat of the climate, may be imputed not only the vast number of insects, which swarm near the channel of the Nile, but likewise, in part at least, the diseases incidental to the inhabitants of Egypt. Those inconveniences, however, are compensated by the prodigious fertility communicated to the lands, with little labour; and by the people being thus furnished with water, which they preserve in cisterns, and which, without this providential expedient of nature, they could not procure in a country almost totally destitute of fountains, and hardly ever visited with rain.

Amongst the different kinds of produce, for which Egypt was anciently celebrated, one was the paper, made of the bark of the papyrus; of which they likewise made sails, tackling, cloaths, coverlids, and other furniture. The country was no less remarkable for the excellence of its flax, and the peculiar dexterity with which it was manufactured. The threads were spun almost too fine for the observation of the sharpest eye. Another kind of flax here produced, was the byssus, which often received a purple dye, and the cloth made of it was held in the highest esteem. The lotus, or lote-tree, was also in great request, the berries of which were sometimes made into bread. There was another lotus in Africa, which gave its name to the Lotophagi, or Lotus Eaters, because

they lived upon the fruit of this tree, which had so delicious a taste, if Homer may be credited, as to make the eaters of it forget all the sweets of their native country. The Egyptian pulse and fruits were likewise esteemed excellent; and both the flesh and fish of the country, inferior to none of their kind. But the unrivalled wealth of Egypt arose from its corn, which, even in an almost universal famine, enabled it to support the neighbouring nations. In later ages, it was the resource and certain granary of Rome and Constantinople.

Egypt produces horses, camels, and such quadrupeds as are common in the southern climates. Amongst the reptiles of this country, the viper is much esteemed in physic. They are yellowish, of the colour of the sand in which they live, and are of two kinds. One of those is the common species, but the other has horns like a snail, and of a cartilaginous substance.

The common lizard is here also yellow. About old walls is found a very ugly one, shaped like a crocodile. The wormal is of the lizard kind, four foot long, eight inches broad, with a forked tongue, which it puts out like a serpent, and no teeth; living on flies and small lizards. It is a harmless animal, and is found only in the hottest seasons, in grottos and caverns in the mountains, on the west side of the Nile, where it sleeps during winter.

The ostrich is common on the mountains south-west of Alexandria; and the fat of it is sold very dear by the Arabs, who use it as a remedy in palsies, rheumatisms, and many other disorders.

Here is a kind of domestic large brown hawk, with a fine eye, which mostly frequents the tops of houses, where pigeons and hawks may frequently be seen standing close to each other. A beautiful bird is also common, called balsory, of the species of the ibis, which was worshipped by the ancient Egyptians. The male has a black beak and legs, and black feathers on the wings, with a large crooked bill. The legs, bill, and eyes of the female are of a fine red; and in the wings and tail are intermixed some red feathers, which, when expanded, are exceeding beautiful.

The bats are remarkably large; from the tip of one wing to that of the other, many of them measuring two foot.

The country abounds in all sorts of fowls, both wild and domestic, except pheasants; and the method of hatching eggs, is by placing them not under a hen, but in an oven, where they are exposed to a proper degree of warmth, during the usual term of incubation.

The most remarkable of the animals is the crocodile, which is a native of the Nile. This voracious creature has two long teeth in its lower jaw, which are received into the same number of holes in the upper. It is extremely quick-sighted, objects from behind being conveyed to its eyes, by means of a channel which communicates with the back of the head. The length of this animal is sometimes so enormous as to measure fifty foot. When on land, he is always seen very near the water, with his head directed

towards it; into which, upon being disturbed, he deliberately enters. The eggs of this animal resemble those of a goose. It buries them with great care in the sand, at the depth of a foot beyond the reach of the Nile's overflowing; and as soon as the young are hatched, they immediately run into the water.

It is supposed that the crocodiles are destroyed by the species of creature, named Pharaoh's rats, which is larger than a fork, and often shewn in Europe for the Ichneumon: but that the latter could creep into the mouth of the crocodile, and by eating a passage through its bowels, destroy it, there is no probability, as it must be stifled in the attempt.

The inhabitants of Egypt are distinguished into three classes, namely, the Copts, who are natives of the country and Christians, the Turks, and the Arabs. In general, they are but an ill looking people, and though many of them are fair when young, yet the heat of the sun soon makes them of a swarthy complexion.

The most simple dress of the men in Egypt probably resembles the primitive manner of cloathing. It consists only of a long shirt, with wide sleeves, tied round the middle. The common people wear over this a brown woollen shirt; but those of better condition, a long cloth coat, covered with a blue shirt hanging down to the middle of the leg. But on festivals, and all extraordinary occasions, the upper shirt is white. They wear about their necks a blue cloth, with which they defend their heads from the severity of the weather. It is also a general custom among the Arabian and Mahometan inhabitants of the country, to wear a large blanket, either white or brown, in winter, and in summer a blue and white cotton sheet thrown over the left shoulder, and brought round under the right arm, which is thus left bare, and free for action. When it is hot, and they are on horseback, they let this covering fall behind on the saddle.

The dresses of the women is not much unlike that of the men, only most of their under garments are of silk. All but the outer vest are shorter than those worn by the other sex. Their sleeves hang down to a great length, and a sort of gauze shirt under all trails the ground. Their heads are dressed with an embroidered handkerchief, and the hair plaited round under a white woollen skull-cap. The meaner sort of women wear a large linen or cotton blue garment, like a surplice; and before their faces hangs a sort of bib, which is joined to the head-dress, a space being left between for their eyes. Others who wear this garment of silk, have a large black veil that comes all over them, sometimes made of gauze. It being reckoned a great indecency for a woman to shew the whole face, they generally cover their mouth and one eye. The common women, especially the blacks, wear rings in their noses, to which they hang glass beads.

The Mahometans salute each other by inclining the head, extending the hand, and bringing it back to their breasts; or by kissing the hand, and putting it to the head, of which the latter mode is a mark of

extraordinary respect. They always wish peace to each other; a compliment which they never pay to Christians.

The salutation of the Arabs is by shaking hands and bowing the head. Amongst the Copts, a son dare not sit down in the presence of his father, especially in public company, without being several times desired; and in no place of the world do people pay greater regard to the motions of their superiors.

The present Egyptians are a slothful people, delighting much in sitting still, and attending to the rehearsal of stories; a disposition which perhaps they owe to the enervating warmth of the climate. They are likewise so slovenly, that after washing their hands, they wipe them with the sleeves of their shirts. Malice, envy, and ignorance, are predominant lineaments in their character, which is also strongly marked with cunning, falsehood, and jealousy. They are extremely credulous with respect to talismans, charms, and every species of magic. Should you praise any of their children, without blessing it, they never fail to suspect that you mean it no good, and immediately use some superstitious ceremonies to prevent the effect of the evil eye; one of which is throwing salt into the fire.

On a journey, the Egyptians generally set out early in the morning, walk their horses gently, and often stop to refresh under a shade. If they do not travel in any great state, they carry a leathern bottle of water tied to the saddle, and this they drink when thirsty. A person of condition has an attending camel laden with water. At night they have large lanterns, the bottom and top of which are of copper, tinned over, and the sides of linen, stretched upon wires, carried before them. They seldom make use of tents, but lie in the open air.

Men of quality ride on a saddled camel; and their attendants on camels loaded with carpets, beds, and other necessaries, if their journey be long. They commonly carry in their hands a double crook, to direct the beast by touching his head, and to recover their bridle, in case it should happen to drop. Some women of condition travel in litters, carried by camels; the labour of the camel that goes behind being very great, as his head lies under the vehicle. Others go in a smaller sort of litter, on the back of a camel.

Another method of conveyance is by means of a round basket with a cover, slung on each side of a camel. This contains not only the passenger, but his necessaries; and to direct the camel, a person sits before the baskets.

The best houses in Egypt, especially at Cairo, are built upon the same plan, which is usually that of a quadrangular structure, including an area of the like form. The saloon is built in the shape of a Greek cross, with a cupola in the middle. It is waincotted ten foot high, and the panels shine with mother of pearl, blue smalt, fine marble, and elegant pieces of Mosaic workmanship. Above the waincotted are inscriptions in Arabic, all round the apartment, reaching to the height of two foot, and the whole is crowned with arches of Mosaic and mother of pearl. The



room is surrounded with a sofa, furnished with rich velvet cushions, and the floor is covered with fine carpets.

The great men in general have a saloon for common use, and another for state; and as they have four wives, each of those has a different saloon, with apartments contiguous, that have no communication with the rest of the house, except the common entrance for servants, which is kept locked; and of the private entrance the master alone has the key. In the apartments of the wives, they have such machines as are used in nunneries, which receive any thing the women want to give in or out, without being seen by those with whom they communicate.

In the Delta, or Lower Egypt, the houses and villages are all situated upon eminences, natural or artificial, to defend them from the inundations of the Nile, during which time the country appears like an immense lake, interspersed with numberless islands.

#### CHAPTER II.

*Of Alexandria—Cairo—pyramids—obelisks—ruins—labyrinth—Lake Meris.*

ONE of the principal cities of Egypt is Alexandria, situate in 31 degrees of east longitude, and 30 degrees of north latitude, fourteen miles west of the most westerly branch of the Nile. The ancient city was founded by Alexander the Great, from whom it derived its name, and was reckoned one of the most considerable in Africa; but it has been so frequently exposed to the ravages of invaders, that were it not for its ports, and other monuments of antiquity, we should hardly be able to ascertain even the place on which it stood. The sea has encroached upon it in many parts, and withdrawn itself in others. Upon a little island, which once was contiguous to the port, stood the famous light-house, called Pharos.

When the city was taken by the Saracens, it contained, if we may credit the Arabian writers, four thousand palaces, four hundred spacious squares, and in it were no less than forty thousand tributary Jews. Before the discovery of the passage to the East Indies, by the Cape of Good Hope, it was undoubtedly a place of prodigious trade. At present however the old city is entirely ruined, and the materials carried away to build the new one.

The port of Alexandria, now called the Old and the New, were heretofore named the ports of Africa and Asia. The former is appropriated to the Turks, but the latter is free to all the nations of Europe. That which is used by the Turks is cleaner and deeper than the other, where they are obliged to use the expedient of fixing empty casks along the cables, to prevent their being damaged by the continual friction of a stony bottom.

The entrance of the new port is defended by two castles of a contemptible Turkish structure, that have nothing remarkable but their having succeeded to the situation of edifices that will for ever be celebrated in history.

No. 10.

The most conspicuous remains of Alexandria, are Pompey's Pillar, and the Cisterns. The latter were built under the houses, supported by two or three arches, raised on columns, to receive the water of the Nile, as they do at this day.

The pillar commonly distinguished by the name of Pompey, stands on a small eminence, about a quarter of a mile from the wells, and is surrounded by some magnificent ruins, said to be the remains of a palace of Julius Cæsar; in the center of the area of which this pillar is supposed to have been erected. It is of red granite. The capitals are of the Corinthian order, and the leaves, which are plain, not indented, seem to have been done either for bay or laurel. There are on it some marks of a Greek inscription, not legible. The height of the pillar, including the capital, pedestal, &c. is a hundred and fourteen foot; but exclusive of those parts, it is eighty-eight foot nine inches high, and nine foot in diameter.

Here is likewise an ancient obelisk, which bears the name of Cleopatra, situated almost mid-way between the city and the little pharillo in the port. Its basis, of which a part is sunk, rises twenty foot higher than the level of the sea. This obelisk consists of only one piece of granite marble. There are but two of its faces well preserved. On the two others, the hieroglyphics are hardly perceptible. This has probably belonged to the mausoleum of Cleopatra, of which two square marble fragments, covered with hieroglyphics, may be seen in the British Museum.

Between this obelisk and the port, runs a thick wall, flanked on each side of the former by a tower. The interior side of the wall is ten foot distant from the obelisk, the exterior but four or five from the sea. The front of it, far into the port, is filled with a great number of wrecks of columns, frizes, and other pieces of architecture, that must have been part of some magnificent edifice.

The huge towers, of which there are several, connected by a wall, seem to have formed the circumference of ancient Alexandria. They are not all of equal dimensions, nor of the same figure. Some are round, others square, and many are of an elliptic form. They also differ in their interior parts. Some of them have a double wall, and at the entrance a winding staircase, which mounts to the top of the building. The others are accessible only through a hole at the top, when mounted by means of a ladder. In general, the entrance of those towers is very narrow. Their different stories are so many vaults, supported in some by one column, and in others by several. The embrasures are likewise narrow, and widen inwards, not unlike those of many old castles in England.

The architecture of those towers, which are built of free stone, is very clumsy on the lowest part. Around, at certain intervals, are seen columns of different sorts of marble, so placed, as at a distance to appear like cannon pointed through the embrasure. The walls which unite the towers, and jointly with them form the circumference of the city, are not throughout of the same breadth or height, nor of a similar structure; some parts of them being twenty

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foot thick, while others either exceed, or fall short of those dimensions. — Their height is from thirty to forty foot; and within side of them is an alley, in the same taste as that in Aurelian's palace at Rome. The towers, as well as the walls are much damaged, and in some places totally ruined.

Proceeding from those ruins across an orchard of date-trees, we arrive at the canal of Cleopatra, which supplies Alexandria throughout the year with fresh water. The original design of this work, was to facilitate commerce between Alexandria and Grand Cairo. It is now, however, in a very decayed condition, almost choaked in many parts, and hardly furnishing water sufficient for the reservoirs of the city.

Contiguous to the walls and towers above-mentioned are catacombs, or sepulchral grottos, which stretch to a considerable distance along the sea shore. They are cut in the rocks, sometimes one above another, sometimes in the same line, according as the situation of the place permitted. The length of each is greater than the common standard of man; the breadth such as may hold two bodies laid beside one another; and the height is different, depending on the nature of the rock. Avarice, or the hope of finding something valuable, has opened them all, but nothing else has been found in them than human bodies, or the bird ibis, embalmed; the latter of which being regarded as sacred by the ancient Egyptians, were placed with every mark of veneration in the mansions of the dead.

We now seek in vain for any vestiges of the Pharos, reckoned one of the seven wonders of the world; which the famous architect Sostratus built by order of Ptolemy Philadelphus, who expended upon it no less than eight hundred talents. The stately edifice, likewise, furnished the Museum, where the literati used to meet, and were maintained at the public expence, is no longer discernible; and the famous library of the Egyptian Kings has perished, with the invaluable treasure it contained.

New Alexandria forms a striking contrast to the magnificence of the old, in respect both of grandeur and extent. Instead of the most superb temples, we now meet only with inconsiderable mosques; in the room of the most magnificent palaces, nothing but dwelling houses, of the meanest construction. The celebrated mart of antiquity is now decayed to a mere landing place, occupied by a few interested strangers, and a collection of wretches who live in the most fordid dependence.

The road from Alexandria to Rosetta being a sandy desert, could hardly be found, were it not marked out by pillars erected across the plain. This town, which lies at the mouth of the western channel of the river Nile, as Rosetta does at that of the eastern, is two miles long, of a circular figure, and the houses as well built as almost any in Egypt. Here is a good manufactory of coarse linens, and a brisk trade; but ships cannot come up so high as the town, on account of a bar which lies across the mouth of the river. All European commodities that pass between Alexandria and Cairo, are therefore landed here, and

put on board other vessels. For this purpose, the Europeans have their vice-consuls and factors to transact business. Letters are brought hither regularly from Alexandria by land, to be sent to Cairo by water; but in matters of great consequence, they are dispatched by special messengers across the deserts.

When Dr. Pococke was at this place, he saw two of those ideots, whom the Egyptians deem saints. One of them was a lusty elderly man, the other about the age of eighteen. They went about the streets naked, and were held in prodigious veneration. When the women visit the sepulchres, which is a common practice every Friday, they not only kiss the hands of those wretches, but also other parts, which it may not be so proper to mention; a testimony of regard from which they imagine some peculiar advantages may be derived.

Cairo, the capital of Egypt, is distinguished into two cities, the one called Grand Cairo, and the other Old Cairo, lying a little above the place where the river divides to form the Delta, on the site of the fortrefs and town of Babylon on the Nile. Grand Cairo is situate in 32 degrees 12 minutes of east longitude, and in 30 degrees 2 minutes of north latitude; in a plain at the foot of a mountain, two miles east of the bank of the river Nile, and a hundred miles south of the mouth of that river. The town is ten miles in circumference, and contains about a million of inhabitants. The streets are extremely narrow in some places, and the houses rather commodious than handsome. The lower part consists generally of stone, but the upper part of cage-work, lined with unburnt brick. They are for the most part richly furnished and adorned within.

There is here a great mixture of inhabitants; for besides the original Egyptians, the city abounds in Greeks, Jews, Armenians, Europeans, and a Molatto race, who are natives of Nubia, and have a sort of government amongst themselves. Those people supply the country with servants; and so great is their attachment to each other, that they have a common purse, out of which they support such as are sick, or out of place. Here are also some Turks, and a few remains of the Mameluke race.

Cairo is remarkable for the good regulation of its police. At the ends of almost every street, or at least of every ward, are gates, which are always shut at the approach of night, and guarded by a number of janifaries.

Here also is a grand master of the police, called huali, who has the inspection of the markets, weights, and measures. This officer has power of life and death. He walks often through the city by night, as well as by day, attended by a band of fifty licitors, who execute immediate justice on all trespassers.

Amongst many magnificent mosques, which ornament this city, that built by Sultan Hassan is the most conspicuous. The ascent to it was formerly by several steps, which are now broken down, to prevent the malecontents from taking refuge in it, as had been the practice in times of public insurrection; and for farther security, a body of janifaries keep guard in an adjoining

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apartment. The building stands at the foot of the castle-hill; the top of it, which is lofty, being carved in the Turkish manner, and the entrance finely inlaid with various sorts of marble.

Another mosque, belonging to the Arabs, is likewise much admired. The body of it is sixty foot square, crowned with a beautiful dome, and waincotted to the height of eight foot; with the finest green and red porphyry. The carvings and gildings are admirable, and all round the walls are Arabic inscriptions in golden letters. The cupola likewise is beautifully painted, and the whole embellished with a number of glass lamps, and ostrich's eggs, so artfully disposed as to produce a fine effect on the eye. This grand room is said to have been built by a vizir, who requested of the sultan permission to prepare a place fit to entertain him with sherbet, on his return from Mecca.

The people of Cairo, and in general the inhabitants of Lower Egypt, are reputed to be ingenious, but it is observed, that farther up the Nile they become very heavy and stupid. The trade of the place is still great, though not so flourishing as formerly. The imports are broad cloths, tin, lead, raw silk from Indis, neat brass and iron work, and curious ornaments in silver. Their exports are coffee, flax, drugs, and various sorts of dyes, with some sugar, neither cheap nor fine, except a little which is preserved for the use of the grand seignior.

Notwithstanding the extensive trade of this city, there is amongst the Egyptians but little credit. They rarely transact business by bills, but deal all for ready money. Consuls from almost all the maritime countries of Europe have here their residence; and there is likewise a great number of foreign merchants. Those people being sociable amongst one another, live very comfortably. The morning they devote to business, and the remainder of the day to diversion. They are for the most part exceeding hospitable, and afford a kind reception to strangers, who would otherwise be very ill accommodated in the wretched inns of the Egyptians. The worst circumstance respecting Cairo, is its being so liable to the plague, from which it is rarely exempted for a longer period than three or four years at a time.

The castle of Cairo stands to the south of the city, on a rocky hill, surrounded by a wall of great height and solidity, and defended by several towers. The ascent is by a way hewn out of a rock, which loaded horses and camels get up without difficulty. What we find most worthy of observation in this fortress, is Joseph's Well, so called from a vizir of that name. The work is undoubtedly very ancient, and becoming the magnificence of the most powerful kings of Egypt. This well is cut in the solid rock, and is in depth two hundred and seventy-six foot. The dimensions of its mouth are twenty-four foot by eighteen. The water is conveyed upwards by means of two wheels, placed at different heights, and worked by oxen; for the passage of which a winding path leads down by the side of the well, in such a manner as to prevent those animals from falling out of

the tracks; and from space to space, the descent is enlightened by windows. The well at the bottom is about nine or ten foot deep, supplied from a spring, which is almost the only one in the country. The taste of the water is brackish, and it is only used in a siege, or on some other urgent occasion.

In the country adjacent to Cairo stand the celebrated pyramids, the structure and duration of which are universally the wonder of mankind. Those prodigious monuments are supposed to have been erected as burial places for the ancient kings of Egypt; but so remote is their origin, that they are anterior to the most early historians whose writings are preserved, and were regarded as of high antiquity, even at the time when the first Grecian philosophers travelled hither. The principal pyramids stand to the east-south-east of Gize, a village situated on the western bank of the Nile, not far from Cairo, and near the spot which is supposed to have been the site of the ancient Memphis. The number of them is considerable; though what particularly merit attention are four, the rest being not only less, but almost entirely demolished. Those four stand nearly in a straight line, distant one from the other about four hundred paces.

The pyramids stand at the foot of the mountains, upon a rocky plain about a Danish league in circumference, the surface of which is eighty foot of perpendicular height above the usual level of the greatest inundation of the Nile; and on this plain, which seems to be partly artificial, the marks of the chizel are yet perceptible. It is covered with sand blown from the high mountains in the neighbourhood, intermixt with which are found a number of petrified oysters, and shells. All the pyramids have square bases, which exactly front the four cardinal points.

In the most northerly pyramid, the outside is for the most part of square stones, unequal in size, but of a prismatic figure. They are not so hard as might be imagined from their having subsisted so long, but seem to owe their preservation to the natural dryness of the climate. They are however become porous in some parts, especially on the north side. The different exterior courses of stones are not joined by any cement or binding, but retain their original situation merely by their weight. It does not appear that the outside has ever been cased with marble, as some travellers have alledged. The body of the pyramid is composed of irregular stones, cemented by mortar. The entrance of this, as well as of all the other pyramids, is under the basis of the moulding, about forty-eight foot above the horizon; on the north side, but inclining a little to the east. The opening leads successively to five channels, or conduits; which, though they run in different degrees of elevation, tend all to the south, and terminate in two chambers, the one in the middle of the pyramid, the other beneath. All those channels, except the fourth, have nearly the same dimensions, viz. three foot and a half square. They are constructed alike, and covered on their four sides with white marble, so smooth that it is extremely difficult to pass through them, where they incline from the horizon.

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When the first two channels are passed, a resting place occurs, with an opening on the right hand for another channel, where, except a second resting place, we meet with nothing but bats, which are extremely troublesome. The annoyance of those creatures is the more grievous, that after suffering it, we cannot prosecute our enquiry on account of the sand, but are obliged to return to the first mentioned resting place. The third channel leads hence to a small chamber, half filled with stones taken from the wall on the right hand, to open there another channel, which terminates in a nich not far from it. It is vaulted ridge-wise, and inlaid with granite, which is become black by the smoke of the flambeaus of its visitors. Returning by the same way, we next climb up to the fourth channel, which is also vaulted in a ridge-like form. The fifth conducs to the superior chamber, which is nineteen foot high, thirty-two foot long, and sixteen broad; in the way to which, about the middle of the channel, is a small apartment. Within the former, on the left side, is a large urn, or sarcophagus, of granite, without any ornament. The breath and depth are about three foot, and the length a little more than six. Northward of the sarcophagus, is a deep hole, apparently made since the pyramid had been finished. Nothing more is here to be seen, except two little canals, one to the north, and the other to the south, which are now stopped up with the stones that have been thrown by the curious, with the view of discovering their extent.

According to some, the height of this pyramid is five hundred and twenty-two foot, with a base of six hundred and eighty-two foot square; but by the computation of others, the height amounts to six hundred and sixteen foot, and each side of the base to seven hundred and four foot of horizontal extent. On the top, which viewed from below, seems to terminate in a point, is a platform, about sixteen or seventeen foot square; and on the outside are stones by which the pyramid is ascended.

The second pyramid is exactly similar to the former, but bears no marks of ever having been opened. The third is of the same construction, but lower by a hundred foot. It is shut, like the second, and without any covering. The fourth is a hundred foot lower than that immediately preceding, and is terminated on the summit by one great stone, which seems to have served for a pedestal.

Those four pyramids are surrounded by several others, of smaller dimensions, and mostly ruinous; in one of which is a square well about thirty foot deep.

History informs us, that in building the largest of the Egyptian pyramids, a thousand men were constantly kept in employment, who were relieved every three months by the same number. Ten years are said to have been spent in preparing the materials; and double that time in constructing the prodigious edifice. Express on the pyramid, in Egyptian characters, were the sums it had cost only in garlic, leeks, onions, and the like, for the workmen; which amounted to sixteen hundred talents of silver, or four million five hundred thousand French livres. A conjecture may hence be

formed, what the whole expence of the building must have been.

Such are the Egyptian pyramids, which by their figure as well as enormous magnitude, have triumphed over the united injuries of time and barbarians, monuments of the vanity and insolent oppression of the kings by whom they were constructed. Pliny, with great propriety, calls them a foolish and useless ostentation of the wealth of the Egyptian kings; and adds, that by a just punishment, the memory of those princes is buried in oblivion, historians not agreeing with respect to the person by whom they are said to have been founded. Other writers inform us, that the infatuated monarchs were even debarred from the sepulchres which they had raised with so much labour and expence. On account of the public hatred which they incurred, by imposing upon their subjects a work so burdensome and unnecessary, they were interred in some obscure place, to prevent their bodies from being sacrificed to the indignation and resentment of the people. It is the remark of Diodorus, that the industry of the architects of those pyramids is no less valuable and praise-worthy, than the design of the Egyptian kings contemptible and ridiculous.

Dr. Shaw, however, is of opinion, that the pyramids were not intended for the tombs of the Egyptian princes, as has been generally imagined. The chest of granite marble which is found in the upper chamber of the great pyramid, he supposes to have been rather intended for some religious use, than for the coffin of Cheops. He thinks it is more probable, that this chest was used in the mystical worship of Osiris; or that it served for one of their sacred chests, in which either the images of their deities, or their sacred vestments, or utensils, were kept; or lastly, that it might have been a cistern, such as contained the holy water, which was used in their ceremonies. He also thinks that the length of it, which is somewhat more than six foot, does not favour the received opinion of its having been designed for a coffin; and that the height and the breadth, which are each about three foot, exceeds greatly the dimensions, that were observed in works of such a kind.

Dr. Shaw farther remarks, that all the stone coffins which he had seen in Egypt, were of a quite different form from the supposed repository of Cheops, being inscribed with hieroglyphics, and made exactly in the fashion of the mummy chests, just capacious enough to receive one body. But that the chest in question is an oblong square, not ending, like the mummy chests, in a kind of pedestal, upon which it might have been erected. Neither is it adorned with any sacred characters, which from the great number of coffins that are never known to want them, seem to have been a general mark of regard and piety to the deceased.

He also observes, that this chest is placed in a manner different from what was perhaps ever the custom of the Egyptians, in depositing of their dead. For the mummies always stand upright, where time or accident has not disturbed them; but the chest in the pyramid lies flat upon the floor.

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*Habit of a Lady of Quality, in Barbary.*



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From what has been said, Dr. Shaw observes, that if this chest was not intended for a coffin (and indeed Herodotus tells us, that Cheops's tomb was in a vault below) we have a presumptive argument, that the pyramid could not thence have taken the name of a sepulchre. Nay, had even Cheops and others been buried within the precincts of this, or any of the pyramids, it was no more than what was commonly practised in other temples; and therefore would not affect the principal use or design for which they were erected. From the whole, Dr. Shaw concludes, that the pyramids were chiefly intended for places of devotion.

About three hundred paces eastward of the second pyramid, is the monstrous statue of a sphinx, cut out of the rock, representing the head of a woman, with half the breast. The head is twenty-six foot high, and measures from the ear to the chin fifteen foot. The lower part of the neck is thirty-three foot in diameter. In the top of the head is a hole, which probably is the channel by which the priests communicated their false oracles to the credulous multitude. There is an opening also in the back, through which perhaps they descended to the subterranean apartments.

Besides its pyramids, Egypt was also famous for the number and beauty of obelisks, which abounded in every part of the kingdom, and some of which form at this day the principal ornaments of Rome. Sesostris erected in the city of Heliopolis, two obelisks of granite, brought from the quarries of Syene, at the extremity of Egypt; each of which is said to have been a hundred and eighty foot high. They were afterwards transported to Rome by the order of Augustus. A third, of yet more extraordinary magnitude, which was made in the reign of Ramises, and is said to have employed twenty thousand men in the cutting of it, was likewise removed to Rome in the time of the emperor Constantius. Two of those obelisks remain, as well as another measuring a hundred and fifty foot in height, which Julius Cæsar brought from Egypt in a ship of so odd a form, that, according to Pliny, the like had never been constructed.

The design of the Egyptian obelisks seems to have been to serve as ornaments before the portals of temples, of palaces, and at the ends of colonnades. Their form, to a certain height, is quadrangular; after which they become cylindrical; then taper gradually, till they end in a pyramidal summit. They are, or at least have been made, originally of one piece. Their pedestal is a cube, which commonly does not exceed the breadth of the obelisks above three foot. This, with part of the obelisks, are for the most part sunk in the earth, and the quadrangular spaces upwards covered with hieroglyphical figures.

Two of the most beautiful obelisks extant in Egypt are at Lukoreen, which is thought to have been part of ancient Thebes. Their faces are six foot eight inches in breadth, and their height in proportion; but one is taller than the other. They both stand before a portal, or at the entrance of some superlative ruins, and their workmanship is reckoned the most admirable of any that is to be seen. Near Carnac  
No. 11.

are several others, of similar construction, amongst which, two are remarkable for the beauty of the granite. They are only about ten or eleven foot high, and are supposed to have been the pedestals of two idols.

Near the same place, which is supposed to have been the site of ancient Thebes, are two colossal figures, one representing a man, and the other a woman: They are seated, at the distance of twenty-one paces from each other, on cubical stones of fifteen foot, with pedestals five foot high, thirty-six and a half long, and upwards of nineteen wide. Both statues look towards the Nile, and in their sedent posture the altitude of each is about fifty foot, including the pedestals. They consist of several blocks of a greyish gravel stone, and seem to have been brought from the caverns, which abound in the neighbouring mountains.

Contiguous to the colossal figures are ruins, supposed to be those of the palace of Memnon. The portico of the temple alone is sufficient to give us a high opinion of Egyptian architecture. Each column has over its capital small square stones, which serve as beams for larger blocks of the same materials. Some of those masses are forty foot long, and two thick; above which are others in a transverse position, united in the manner of planks. The whole is covered with hieroglyphics, and painted in the most lively colours, in a stile which has neither shade nor gradation; but the objects are incruled as the figures of the dial-plates of watches, with this difference, that the former cannot be detached.

In respect to the architecture of this edifice, on the east and west sides is a wall, which serves for an enclosure, but on the north and south are colonades. The building was supported by three rows of columns, in each of which were twenty-one, but some are now wanting. Those in the middle are the tallest: their circumference is twenty-four Danish foot, and their height in proportion. They are without capitals, but ornamented with hieroglyphics. The floor is covered with ruins, and with sand three or four foot deep.

About fifty paces from this structure are other remains of antiquity, which seem to have been a gallery round the court, and are probably those mentioned by Philostrates, where he treats of the temple of Memnon. Here are many pilasters made of several pieces of the stone above-mentioned. Each is covered with a Term, the arms folded, and in the right hand a sort of hook. The heads are wanting, but a part of the usual head-dress of Egyptian figures remains on the shoulder. On some of the pilasters are blocks of stone, covered with hieroglyphics.

Behind the gallery is a wall in a ruinous condition. The upper part appears to have been joined to the colonade with large stones, by which means was contrived a walk sheltered from the sun. Many fragments of colossal statues are scattered, but none that can be considered as any part of the celebrated statue of Memnon.

At Medinet Habu, a town situated on part of the ruins of Thebes, is an ancient and magnificent portal,  
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well preserved, and of uncommon beauty. Opposite is a kind of anti-chamber, built with large blocks of white stone, covered with hieroglyphics; to which adjoins a piece of a wall, ornamented in the same manner. The architrave of the portal has two friezes, one on the top of the other, and is highly polished. On the frontispiece may be perceived the figure of a dragon, with that sort of cartouch which was a favourite ornament amongst the Egyptians; all in basso relievo, and incrustated with colours. Behind this portal there appears to be three others in succession, so buried in rubbish, that they cannot be distinctly observed. The buildings on the right hand have also the appearance of being magnificent, but elude the enquiries of the spectator from the same cause.

Fragments of antiquities are likewise found about the village of Armeiut in Upper Egypt. This was the ancient Hermonthis, which stood on the west side of the Nile, over against Thebes. Here Jupiter and Apollo were worshipped, and the sacred ox maintained.

Higher up, on the same side of the Nile, we meet with more antiquities at the city of Esnay, which is the residence of an Arabian chief, and supposed to occupy the site of Latopolis; so called from a large fish named Latos, which was worshipped by the inhabitants. In the middle of the city is an ancient temple, closed on three sides, having in the front twenty four columns, which are well preserved. Round the top of the edifice runs a channelled border; but in the middle, which is the front of the temple, is a cartouch, or ornament similar to that on all the grand portals of Egypt. The structure is also bordered with a demi-cordon, the sides of which are covered with hieroglyphics, that seem to be of extreme remote antiquity. Stones transversely placed are supported by columns, on the former of which are fixed large flat masses of the same material, adorned with hieroglyphics. The columns are likewise covered with hieroglyphics, which in some places are very small, and much crowded.

It is observable, that in this temple not one capital of a column is similar to another in ornament, though the proportion in all be the same. The inside of the edifice is blackened by the smoke of the fire. All the other parts are distinctly seen, except the gate and the intervals of the columns in the front, which the Arabians have filled up, with the view of enclosing their cattle, it being now converted to that use.

At Edfu, once Apollinopolis, is a considerable monument of antiquity. It resembles a portal, but is used by the Turks as a citadel. A cordon runs round it in the Egyptian taste. On the top is no cornice, that part having perhaps been destroyed by the injuries of time. The structure has a simple and elegant appearance, and on the front are three rows of hieroglyphical figures, representing children. In the south side are several windows, very high, and running in an oblique direction. The portal is ornamented with a cartouch. Here are likewise the ruins of an ancient temple of Apollo, the greatest

part of which is now buried; and on the top are a few mean pigeon-houses.

Proceeding higher along the side of the river, we arrive at Tschabel-Eschfefe, which signifies the Mountain of the Chain. According to tradition, the passage of the Nile was here intercepted by a contrivance of that kind. The bed of the river is very narrow at this place. On the east side is the mountain above-mentioned, and on the west a rock. In the neighbourhood are many grottos, which have served as sepulchres, and their sides are covered with hieroglyphics. Four figures remain, in a sedent posture, in alto relievo, and of a natural size. Two of them represent men, and the other two women. The men, who are in the middle, have their arms across on their breasts, and each woman holds the man next to her under the arm. A hieroglyphical table, in basso relievo, is near, which probably contains the epitaphs of the persons interred.

Farther south, near the village of Banban, we meet with an ancient edifice raised on twenty-three columns, well executed, and covered with hieroglyphics; of which the stones that form the roof are of a prodigious size. The columns are twenty four foot in circumference.

About fifty paces hence, on the slope of a mountain, is another antique monument, above eighteen foot high. It is composed of large square blocks of whitish stone, like marble, covered with hieroglyphics. In the center of the wall is a nich, regularly squared in the middle, but larger above than below. It is conjectured that this building has been an altar, and that an idol had been placed in the nich.

In the island of Ell-sag, the ancient Elephantine, formed by the Nile, stands an edifice called the temple of the Serpent Knaphis, which seems however to have been rather a sepulchral monument. It is in the form of a cloyster, supported on two sides by several columns, but on the other two, by one only in the middle. The corners are of solid wall, covered with hieroglyphics; but they are so plastered with mud, and blackened with smoke, by the shepherds who resort hither, as to be hardly discernible. The length of the structure is about eighty Danish foot, and the breadth twenty. Near it stands a pedestal, made of large blocks of a white stone, full of Greek inscriptions. At this place, according to the Notitia Imperii, was stationed the last Roman garrison.

On the east side of the Nile, in the island of Ciesret Ell-Heist, the Philo of the ancients, is a temple of uncommon beauty, supposed to be that of Isis; and near it another, of inferior dimensions; but likewise remarkable for its elegance, conjectured to be the temple of the Hawk, which is mentioned by Strabo. Of those two beautiful edifices we can only speak in general, the barbarians who inhabit the neighbourhood precluding any accurate observation; a disappointment which those frequently experience, whom curiosity leads into the more sequestered parts of this country.

The ancient Arsinoe now lies in a heap of ruins; amongst which may be discovered several canals, with



some remains of a round brick building, partly encrusted with a petrification. It has the appearance of having once been a bagnio, and this conjecture is confirmed by common report. In the way hither we have a distant view of the famous Labyrinth which, according to Herodotus, was built at the time when Egypt was divided into twelve governments, the several kings of which had here their respective palaces, where they occasionally met to transact all matters of state and religion. Other writers differ from him, with regard to the founders of this extraordinary edifice; but all agree that it contained three thousand magnificent apartments, half under, and half above ground; that they were cut out of stone, without any wood in the structure; that no stranger could find his way through it without a clue or a guide; and that the celebrated Labyrinth of Crete was only a model of it. The whole building was covered with stone, supported by innumerable pillars, and adorned with elegant sculptures. In the lower apartments were deposited the sacred crocodiles, and the bodies of the kings who founded the building. The crocodiles were bred up tame in the neighbouring lake of Mæris, and the worship of them is said to have arisen from the life of an ancient king being saved by one of those animals. The monarch, pursued by his own dogs, was in danger of being torn in pieces by them, when plunging for safety into a lake, a crocodile opportunely presented his back, and waded the royal burthen safe to the opposite shore. The king, out of gratitude, ordained that divine honours should be paid to it; and not satisfied with giving to Arsinoë, which he then founded, the name of the City of Crocodiles, he built a pyramid and labyrinth for the interment of his aquatic deliverer.

Some authors have affirmed that the lake Mæris was the work of art, but it certainly must have existed from the beginning, though it may have been improved or deepened by the king to whom it is ascribed. What, it may be asked, became of the earth dug out of such a vast abyss, which is at present about fifty miles long, and ten broad? Could so great a work have been executed in the reign of one prince? What should prompt the Egyptians to lose the surface of so much land; and by what art could they fill this vast tract with the superfluous waters of the Nile? So many are the objections against its being artificial, that to maintain such an opinion, would not only be in the highest degree repugnant to probability, but even ridiculous.

This lake had a communication with the Nile by a great canal four leagues long, and fifty broad, which opened or shut by large sluices, as occasion required. The charge of either of those operations is said to amount to fifty talents, that is fifty thousand French crowns. The fishing of the lake brought the monarch immense sums; but its principal use related to the overflowing of the Nile. When the latter rose too high, and was like to be attended with fatal consequences, the sluices were opened, and the waters having a free passage into the lake, covered the land no longer than was necessary to enrich them. On

the contrary, when the inundation was too low, and threatened a famine, a sufficient quantity of water was supplied to the lands, by the help of drains from the lake. The waters of the lake Mæris are salt, nitrous and muddy, but less so as they approach the Nile. The banks are at first stony, then muddy, and incrustated with salt. It abounds in all sorts of fish that are natives of the Nile.

To ferry over this celebrated river, which has been so frequently mentioned, a particular kind of flat-boat is used, made of large earthen pitchers tied close together, and covered with palm-tree leaves. The man who steers, has commonly a cord hanging from his mouth, with which, as he sails, he fishes.

## C H A P. III.

*Of diseases — diversions — fortune-tellers — gypsies — the Copts.*

THE great heat of the climate exposes the inhabitants of Egypt to a variety of disorders, amongst which one of the most universal, especially in summer, is sore eyes. This complaint owes its origin chiefly to the scorching heat reflected from the sand; but it is greatly aggravated by the dust, which insinuates itself into the eyes, and, by a falsh quality it possesses, excites irritation. Disorders of the bowels are also frequent, such as a pain in the stomach, and fluxes, sometimes accompanied with dangerous fevers. A common complaint among the men is a swelling of the scrotum; and both sexes, particularly at Cairo, are much afflicted with a swelling of the legs, attended with sharp pains. At the season when the waters of the Nile begin to rise, most people are troubled with an inflammation, which affects the whole body; but this seems to proceed from some other cause than the inundation of the river, which has a salutary influence on the inhabitants, as well as increases the fertility of the soil; even the plague, a disease so frequent at Cairo, ceasing to be mortal during almost the whole of this period. The greater part of those diseases arising from irritation, they must be increased not only by the muscettos or gnats, which swarm so much, that in the hot season there is no sleeping for them at the night, but also by the sand, which insinuates itself every where, bespreading even the bed-cloaths, and is as hot as if it had been warmed with a pan of coals.

As for physicians or remedies, the Mahometans of Egypt hardly ever have recourse to any, adhering pertinaciously to their doctrine of unalterable fate; with respect to which they are so much confirmed in opinion, that when the plague is in a family, they visit their neighbours as at other times, and do not scruple to wear the cloaths of a person who died of it.

The greatest festivity known in Egypt prevails at the beginning of the annual inundation, when the dykes are thrown down, to admit the water into the canals. At Cairo, the bashaw and his beys, with a numerous retinue, assist at the ceremony, which was anciently accompanied with the horrible custom of sacrificing a virgin to the river-god. This barbarous practice, how-

however, is now happily abolished, perhaps the only mark of civilization that distinguishes the modern Egyptians. Instead of that offering, a pillar which stands at a little distance, is adorned with flowers, over which the waters rushing, carry them away; while, amidst universal shouts of joy, the populace throw into the water, nuts, melons, and other fruits; and a fire-work, consisting of only about twenty rockets, but reckoned here very considerable, is played off. The people on those occasions commit a thousand follies; dances of the most lascivious gesticulation are performed; and there is hardly a year but some lives are lost in those tumultuous rejoicings.

At other times, diversions are neither frequent nor numerous, especially in the country, and the smaller towns. The streets of Cairo are infested by jugglers, ballad-singers, and fortune-tellers. Amongst the amusements with which they wheedle the people out of money, they lead about dancing camels. Those animals are taught to dance when they are young, by being set upon a heated floor, which giving them a great deal of pain, causes them to lift up their legs alternately; and while they are in this state of motion, a person beats upon a drum. The effect is, that afterwards, whenever the creature hears the noise of a drum, he immediately renews the dancing motion.

The fortune-tellers breed up little birds, which, when any person comes to enquire concerning the success of his affairs, carry him a small scroll of paper, ready prepared, in which he finds either his good or bad fortune written; and to this imposture many of the people pay the most religious regard.

It appears upon enquiry, that the vagrants called gypsies, those pretended fortune tellers that infest most countries in Europe and Asia, were originally of Egyptian extraction. In Turkey those people are called Zingances, from their captain Zingancus, who, when the sultan Selimus made a conquest of Egypt about the year 1517, with several other Mamalukes, and as many native Egyptians as refused to submit to the Turkish yoke, retired into the deserts, where they lived by rapine, and frequently came down to the plains of Egypt, committing great outrages in the towns upon the Nile, under the dominion of the Turks. By the concurrence of idle persons, who resorted to them, with the view of participating in their plunder, they encreased at length to so formidable a body, that the Turks were glad to enter into a treaty with them; in which it was agreed, that they should lay down their arms, and be permitted the same privileges which other subjects enjoyed. The Zingances, however, having been so long accustomed to a vagabond, rapacious life, and being totally unacquainted with the arts of industry, began to have recourse to their former method of subsistence. For some time, their outrages were overlooked by the Turks, for fear of another insurrection; but proving irreclaimable, they were formally banished the kingdom, and a power was given to any man to kill a Zangance, or make him his slave, if he was found within the territories of Egypt after a limited time. Perceiving it now impossible to maintain their

liberty at home, they resolved to disperse themselves into foreign countries; and that they might be able to procure a subsistence without labour, to which they had an invincible aversion, they availed themselves of the general credulity of the times, by pretending to the art of fortune-telling. This was a science in which the people of their country were vainly imagined to be proficient, and the natural swarthiness of their complexion, by evincing their descent, contributed not a little towards the success of the imposture. Soon after this period, in the reign of Henry VIII. an act of parliament passed in England, reciting, That, whereas certain outlandish people, using no craft or merchandize to live by, but going from place to place in great companies, using subtle and crafty means to deceive the king's subjects, bearing them in hand, that they by palmistry, can tell men and women's fortunes, and so, many times subtly deceive the people of their money, and commit divers felonies and robberies: it is enacted, that all such offenders, commonly called Egyptians, who shall remain in this realm for the space of one month, shall be adjudged felons; and that every person who shall import such Egyptians, should forfeit for every offence forty pounds.

It being found, that several natives of our own country listed themselves amongst those Egyptians, and disfigured their faces that they might appear of the same extraction, using likewise an unintelligible cant, to which other people were as much strangers as to the language of Egypt, an amendment of the former act was passed in the fifth year of Elizabeth.

Such are the arts by which the modern Egyptians are distinguished; the posterity of a people renowned for their learning and wisdom, and from whom the most celebrated Grecian philosophers received their improvement in science. With the learning of ancient Egypt, has perished the knowledge of the hieroglyphical characters, for the use of which it was remarkable. Happy for the honour of those times, had no memorials existed of the extravagant and superstitious idolatry, which degraded the inhabitants of Egypt, even during their ages of greatest splendor. But history records with indelible infamy, their astonishing adoration of animals of various species; amongst which were, oxen, crocodiles, cats, &c.

Omnigenumque Deum monstra, & Iatrator Anubis.

The gospel is said to have been preached in Egypt by St. Mark, who is esteemed the first patriarch of Alexandria. During the persecution which succeeded this event, many of the new profelytes retired to the city of Coptus, whence they obtained the name of Coptis, an appellation which has ever since been bestowed on the Christians of Egypt. They continued in union with the catholic church, till Dioscores, patriarch of Alexandria, embraced in part, the opinion of Eutyches, which was conducted by the fourth general council held at Chalcedon.

When the Mahometans undertook the conquest of Egypt, they joined the party of the Coptis, who by this means prevailed against their antagonists, and their patriarch was firmly established, as he continues

to be at present. The Coptic church, in its ceremonies, considerably resembles the Greek. The liturgies are in the Coptic language, which is supposed to be a corruption of the ancient Egyptian tongue. The epistle and gospel are read both in the Arabic and Coptic languages; but the latter is understood only by a few of the priests, and not being a living tongue, is now little cultivated.

This sect spends almost all the night before festivals and holidays, in their churches; a custom that perhaps arose from their meeting to celebrate their devotions at night during the times of persecution; and which has since been continued, on account of the coolness. Their churches are always covered with matting. On entering, they take off their slippers, which it would be thought ill-breeding to wear even in their houses, and kiss the pavement. They sit for the most part on the ground, in an irreverent manner; and when obliged to stand up in any part of the service, they lean on crutches, with which they are supplied by the sexton.

The extreme ignorance of their priests affords a very good reason for their not preaching. The patriarch makes a short discourse to them once a year, and the priests read lectures out of the pulpit on great festivals. Deacons are made at eight or nine years old, who always receive the sacrament when it is administered.

The Copts observe the sabbath very strictly, and have many fast days. As abstinence from flesh cannot be a great mortification to those who seldom have any to eat, their fasts consist in not feeding upon eggs, milk, butter, oil, and such things as they commonly use; and in forbearing from those till noon or later. One of their greatest fasts is that of Lent, which begins fifty-five days before Easter; and another is that of Advent, forty-three days before Christmas. They also fast fifteen days before the Annunciation; during which time they eat no oil, and live mostly on vegetables. The fast of the Apostles begins forty days after Easter: it is observed for thirteen days by the laity, and somewhat longer by the priests. They have also three days of a rigid fast before the feast of Jonas. At the season of Good Friday, they abstain from meat for twenty-five hours.

To obtain leave of the patriarch to eat eggs in Lent, they sometimes have recourse to the following expedient. They lift him up in a chair, and ask him, if he will give them leave. On refusing it, they desire to know if he will be thrown down. When those questions have been repeated three or four times, the consent of the patriarch is granted, and both he and the people separate with mutual satisfaction.

They frequently espouse when they are seven or eight years old, and consummate the marriage at eleven or twelve; a few weeks before which time they are circumcised. The men easily procure divorces, on account of adultery, long sickness, or almost for any disagreement. At baptism, they plunge the child in the water three times, after which they confirm, and give it the sacrament; that is, the priest dips the end of his finger into the chalice, which is filled with wine, and puts it into the child's mouth.

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The women keep their houses forty days after they are delivered of a boy, and twenty-four if a girl; till which time the baptism is deferred, and sometimes much longer. But if the child falls sick in the interval, it is brought to church, where only baptism can be performed, and is laid on a cloth near the font. The priest then dips his hand into the water, with which he rubs the infant all over; but if this ceremony is to be performed at a time when there is no sacrament, the child, father, and mother, must remain in the church till next day.

They give absolution, as in the Greek church, and anoint all who are sent, that the evil spirit may not enter them. Their confessions are general. They abstain from blood, and things strangled. It is their opinion, that the soul goes to heaven in forty days after leaving the body; but they pray for the dead both before and after that time.

They prostrate themselves before pictures, but have no graven image, except a crucifix. The bread which they use in their sacraments is a small white cake, made of flour and water unleavened. The people buy the corn with the money of the church, in which, after being made into flour, it is always kept. The cakes are made by the sacrificer, who chants some psalms during the work, and they are baked in an oven which is never put to any other use.

The Copts, of all the eastern people, are the most irreverent and careless in their devotions. They seem to think that religion consists only in repeating long services, and strictly observing their numerous fasts.

The more early part of the history of Egypt is lost in remote antiquity. There are reckoned above sixty princes under the denomination of Pharaohs, said to have reigned in uninterrupted succession, to the year of the world 3435, when Pharaoh Psanniticus, the second monarch of that name, was conquered by Cambyses, king of Persia, who united Egypt to that empire, under which it remained till the time of Darius, being upwards of a hundred years. Revolting from the Persian monarchy, it again became, under Amecatus, an independent kingdom; in which state it continued about fifty years. The dominion of it being again seized by Ochus, king of Persia, it remained subject to that monarchy, till the defeat of Darius, when it fell under the power of Alexander, with the other provinces of the Persian empire.

After the death of Alexander, the country became once more an independent kingdom, under Ptolemy, whose successors retained the throne and name between two and three hundred years; the last sovereign being the famous Cleopatra, with whom irrecoverably terminated the liberty and glory of Egypt. It henceforth remained a Roman province till the reign of Heraclius, the emperor of Constantinople, when the people being oppressed by their governors, called in Omer, the third caliph of the Saracens, and submitted themselves to the Mahometan power, about the year of the Christian era 640.

The caliphs of Babylon continued sovereigns of the country till about the year 870, when the Egyptians set up a caliph of their own, called the caliph of Cairo,

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to whom the Saracens of Africa and Spain were subject. But the governors of the provinces, or sultans, under the caliphs of Babylon and Cairo, soon wrested the civil power out of the hands of their caliphs or high priests, leaving them only a shadow of sovereignty.

About the year 1160, Egypt was subdued by Affareddin, or Saracon, general of Norradin, the Saracen sultan of Damascus; whose son, Saladin, reduced the kingdom of Damascus, Mesopotamia, and Palestine, under his power, and in the year 1190, took Jerusalem from the Christians. It was this prince who established in Egypt a body of troops, like the present janizaries, composed of the sons of Christians taken in war, or purchased of the Tartars. To this body he gave the name of Mamalukes, a word signifying slaves, which among the troops of the Mahometan princes, is reckoned a title of great honour, as it expresses their being implicitly devoted to the service of their sovereign; on which account they are indulged with greater privileges than other subjects. The posterity of Affareddin enjoyed the crown till the year 1242, when the Mamalukes deposed Elmutan, as they had done his father Melech Aslach, some years before, and placed one of their own officers upon the throne. The Mamaluke sultans were continually engaged in war with the Christians in Syria and Palestine, till Araphus, the sixth sultan of the race, entirely dispossessed the Christians of the Holy Land.

About the year 1501, Camfon Gaurus, the fifteenth sultan of the Mamalukes, entering into an alliance with Ismael, the sophy of Persia, against Selimus, the third emperor and tenth king of the Ottoman family, the confederates received several memorable defeats; and Tonombeus II. the successor of Camfon Gaurus, was deposed and murdered by the victorious emperor. For some time, Gazelle, one of the grandees of the Mamalukes, maintained a war against Selimus; but being at length defeated, Egypt became a province of the Ottoman empire.

The Mamaluke sultans were always chosen by a majority of Mamalukes out of their own body, who were so jealous of the kingdom's being rendered hereditary, that they hardly ever elected the son of the preceding sultan; or if the choice happened to fall on such a one, they were so apprehensive of its being made an ill precedent, that they never reited, till they deposed him.

Since the Ottoman emperors have had the dominion of this kingdom, they always governed it by a viceroy, styled the bashaw of Grand Cairo, who is accountable for his conduct only to the emperor, and is usually changed every two years. Under him are twenty-four beys or begs, whom he has the power of nominating, and who are answerable before him, as he is before the Porte. One of those attends the carats, or tribute, which are carried every year from Egypt to Constantinople; another accompanies the caravan to Mecca; and those unemployed assist at the divan or council of the bashaw. When Egypt sends her contingent, or any troops to the emperor, they are always commanded by a person of this body; and when a man has been nominated a bey, the title remains during life.

In every city is a cadiz, or judge, who decides law-suits, and his sentence is generally without appeal, though upon a complaint of any party aggrieved, it may be reversed by a majority of the divan. In religious matters, the country is governed by a mufti, and the doctors of the law.

Egypt being now esteemed the granary of Constantinople, its great importance occasions it to be governed with more lenity than any other province within the Ottoman empire; and what is a privilege enjoyed by very few of the Turkish subjects, the people have an inheritance in their lands. The taxes also are moderate; inasmuch that, except what the viceroy and his creatures may illegally extort, the whole revenue does not amount to a million of our money; two thirds of which are annually spent within the kingdom.

## A B Y S S I N I A, N U B I A, and A N I A N.

**A**BYSSINIA, or Ethiopia Superior, comprehending Nubia and the coast of Abbex, is situate between 20 and 44 degrees of east longitude, and between 6 and 25 degrees of north latitude; being upwards of one thousand three hundred miles in length, and one thousand one hundred in breadth. It is bounded on the north by Egypt and the desert of Barca; on the east by the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean; on the south by Anian and unknown parts of Africa; and on the west by other parts unknown.

Here are many high mountains of a pyramidal form, and in the middle of the country is the lake Dambca, whence issues the river Nile, which, after taking a circular sweep, runs north, and enters Egypt.

By this river, and a multitude of smaller streams, the soil of Abyssinia is so much enriched, that it yields plenty of corn, rice, fruits, cotton, sugar, and the finest flax. Gold-dust also is found in the rivulets, and mines of silver and copper are very frequent. The animals are camels, oxen, sheep, and the Arabian horses so much admired, which are bred in the pastures of this country.

The air in the valleys is excessive hot, but the mountains cool. The hottest season is when the sun is on the opposite side of the equator, and shines obliquely upon them; for when it is vertical, the clouds intercept its rays, and the rains then fall.

The Ethiopians are of a good stature. Their complexion is a deep black, and their features are much more

more agreeable than those of the negroes, having neither such thick lips, nor flat noses. They are said to have a great deal of vivacity, and to be of a docile disposition.

The better sort are clothed in veils made of silk, stuffs, or cotton, after the manner of the Franks in Turkey; but the poor people go almost naked, using only a small piece of skin, or coarse stuff, wrapped about their loins.

Their bread is thin cakes, baked upon the hearth as they are wanted. They eat all sorts of flesh almost, as the Europeans, except that of swine, and such other meats as were prohibited to the Jews. They also resemble the latter in the manner of killing their meat; and they abstain from things strangled, and from blood. The poor people live chiefly upon milk, butter, cheese, roots, and herbs.

The meat is brought to the tables of people of condition in earthen dishes; but they use no other trenchers than their bread, and are totally unacquainted with knives and forks. Their meat is generally either boiled or stewed; and persons of rank are fed by boys with spoons, they considering it as below their dignity to perform that office for themselves. The country abounding in honey, their common drink is mead or metheglin. They have also liquors made of wheat and rice, and their princes drink some wine. But in the making of this liquor they are unskilful, though they have the finest grapes in the world. On which account, you cannot make their princes a more acceptable present, than some bottles of European wine.

Notwithstanding the country affords some excellent materials for manufacture, their fabrications of this kind are extremely few and mean. Of linen they hardly make any, nor do they stand much in need of it, as they use neither table linen nor sheets. They lie on carpets or mats, as in other hot countries.

The Jews are the only weavers and smiths amongst them; and as for other handicrafts, such as carpenters, tailors, shoe-makers, every man breeds up his children to his own employment. Those several trades, like the casts or tribes in the East-Indies, live separately, and never intermix with any other.

The silk, stuffs, calicoes, linen, and carpets, used for furniture or cloathing, they receive chiefly from the Turks, who in return for their merchandize take the gold and emeralds of Abyssinia, with some fine horses. When the Portuguese first found the way to this country, the shores of the Red Sea were open; but now the Turks keep so strict a guard there, that it is difficult for any other people to have access hither.

Travellers enumerate in this country nine provinces, every one of which has a distinct sovereign, that acknowledges the king of Abyssinia as superior lord. This prince, however, has lost much of the power and prerogative which he formerly enjoyed. The throne is considered as hereditary, but primogeniture not always observed. As soon as an emperor is crowned, he orders all his collateral relations to be secured in a fortress situated on an almost inaccessible rock, where they remain in perpetual imprisonment,

to prevent them from raising any faction by which they might aspire to the crown.

According to the Portuguese, who visited Abyssinia soon after their passing the Cape of Good Hope, in the sixteenth century, the emperor was stiled Prester John, or Presbyter John, which title some imagine was given him, because he was the high priest, as well as king. By his own subjects, however, he is generally stiled Negus, or, to distinguish him from the inferior princes, who have the same title, Negafcha Negafcht, which in their language signifies king of kings.

No money being used in the country, the emperor's revenues are paid in kind. Part arises from the duties laid on merchandize brought from Turkey by the Red Sea. Exclusive of the revenue for defraying the expence of government, the farmers also pay for the maintainance of the royal household, the thirtieth part of all their produce; and every artificer, on the same account, is obliged to furnish a certain quantity of his manufacture. The king's revenue receives also a considerable accession by creating knights of St. Anthony; each of whom, on being knighted, pays a fine. This order, which is very numerous, is partly ecclesiastical, and partly military.

The religion of the Abyssinians is a mixture of Judaism and Christianity, approaching much nearer to the Greek than the Latin church. They keep both the Jewish and Christian sabbath, and each of them more in the manner of a fast than a festival. They circumcise their children on the eighth day; and it is said that the operation is performed on females as well as males, the former having in this country, as in some others of Africa, an excrescence on the genital parts, not natural to those of the sex in more temperate climates.

Circumcision is performed by an old woman, but baptism only by a priest. If it be an adult person, the priest anoints him with oil, and then going to some river or pond, by the assistance of two deacons, he plunges him three times under water, repeating the baptismal expression. The deacons then bring the person out, and he is anointed again; after which he is clothed with a white garment, and over it a red vest, denoting purity and regeneration. The person is next brought to the church, where after receiving the communion, he is presented with milk and honey, and dismissed with the priest's benediction. When an infant is baptized, it is only gently dipped, and sprinkled with water.

They acknowledge the same books of Holy Scripture with us; and, it is said, have a more correct copy of the Septuagint than is to be met with in Europe. They admit the councils of Nice, Constantinople, and Ephesus, with other provincial councils, received before that of Chalcedon; and beside the Nicene canons, have eighty-four others in the Arabic language, which the emperor Constantine sent to Jerusalem, in the year 440, and were carried thence to Rome, in 1646. This book contains the synod of the apostles, said to be written by St. Clement; the councils of Ancyra, Cæsarea, Nice, Gongra, Antiochia, Laodicea, and Sardis, with the acts of three hundred and eighteen fathers,

fathers; a treatise of the sabbath, with a decree and canon of penance; to which are annexed their general liturgy, prayers, and offices for the communion, &c.

They use the Nicene Creed, but have not that of the apostles. They believe the real presence in the sacrament, but not transubstantiation. They make general confessions only, and receive as general absolutions. They seem to think that the soul is material, yet believe in its immortality.

The emperor is supreme in all ecclesiastical, as well as civil causes; and both the clergy and laity are under the jurisdiction of the king's judges. They have however a metropolitan, consecrated by the patriarch of Alexandria, who confers orders on the clergy, amongst whom there is no order superior to priests.

The monks do not live in cloysters or convents, but every one in his hut, forming a kind of village near some church, where they perform divine service in their turns. Their principal churches were built at first after the model of the temple of Jerusalem, with a sanctuary and outward court; but they since build them in the form of a cross, like the cathedrals of other Christian nations.

At divine service the people use lighted tapers, in the manner of the Greek church. They neither sit nor kneel in their churches, but stand, though the service, on some holidays, lasts whole days and nights. They are however permitted the use of crutches, on which they sometimes lean. They pay the highest veneration to those hallowed edifices, which they never presume

to enter, without putting off their shoes. They would not spit on the pavement for any consideration; and when in travelling, they come near a church, they will dismount from their mule or horse, to walk past it on foot.

In this country, the great men are allowed as many wives as they please, but the poor are restricted to one. They bury their dead without a coffin, and have no particular funeral service. By way of mourning, the relations and friends of the deceased wear tattered cloaths for some time.

Nubia, which is contiguous to Abyssinia, and comprehended under the general name of Ethiopia, is bounded on the north by Egypt and the deserts of Barca; on the east by Abyssinia; on the south by Lower Ethiopia; and on the west by Zaara. It is said to be four hundred leagues in length, and two hundred in breadth; but writers are much divided in regard both to this and other circumstances, not only respecting Nubia, but every inland country of Africa. According to the most credible accounts, this large tract is occupied by a number of princes independent of each other; but both the country and inhabitants much resemble those of Abyssinia.

Of the country of Anian, which lies upon, or near, the Eastern Ocean and the Red Sea, we can say nothing with certainty; some travellers representing it as an uninhabitable desert, whilst others, on the contrary, affirm, that it is populous, and abounds in all the necessaries of life.

## Z A N G U E B A R.

**Z**ANGUEBAR, comprehending the countries of Magadoxa, Melinda, Mombaza, Terra de Raphael, Quiloa, Mozambique, and Zofala, is situated between 34 and 40 degrees of east longitude, and between the tropic of Capricorn and 4 degrees of north latitude; being bounded on the north by Anian; on the east by the Indian Ocean; on the south by the Terra de Natal; and on the west by Monomugi, and unknown parts of Africa.

The most northerly province is that of Magadoxa, the chief town of which, bearing the same name, is situated at the mouth of a cognominal river, in 3 degrees odd minutes of north latitude. The people here, as in most of the adjacent country, are in alliance with, or subject to the Portuguese. The territory however is very barren, affording hardly any merchandize or cattle, except a good breed of horses, which they sell to the Portuguese, who dispose of them again to the Arabs. The inhabitants are a mixture of Pagans, Mahometans, and Christians. Their complexion is black, with flat noses, and thick lips, like the rest of the negroes.

The country of Melinda lies south of the equator. The chief town is in two degrees and a half

of north latitude, on an island at the mouth of a cognominal river, and is the capital of the Portuguese dominions in this part of the world. Notwithstanding its situation in almost the center of the torrid zone, it is exceeding pleasant, fruitful, and healthy, being frequently refreshed with showers and fine sea-breezes. The city of Melinda is large and populous, well built, considering the situation, and has a good harbour, commanded by a strong citadel. The Portuguese have here seventeen churches, and nine religious houses. They have also warehouses, stocked with all sorts of European goods, which they barter with the natives for the produce of the country, viz. gold, elephants teeth, slaves, ostrich-feathers, wax, and drugs; such as senna, aloes, civet, ambergrease, and frankincense. The country likewise produces rice, millet, sugar, and fruits; and the Portuguese, beside what they use, export thither great quantities to their other settlements. According to the computation of some travellers, the inhabitants of the city of Melinda, and the little island on which it stands, do not amount to less than two hundred thousand souls, great part of them Christians. The natives have a king of their own, who is a Mahometan; but many of the people

are pagans, and all of them in some subjection to the Portuguese.

The country of Quiloa lies to the southward of Melinda; its capital city, of the same name, being in 9 degrees odd minutes south latitude. The Portuguese possessed themselves of it on their discovery of this coast, but the situation being unhealthy, they quitted it soon after. The king of the country, however, like the other princes of the coast, is tributary to them, and pays them an annual tribute in gold, amounting to the value of a hundred thousand cruzados. This part of the country produces excellent sugar-canes, but the Portuguese do not improve them, receiving every year great quantities of sugar from their countrymen at Brazil, who come hither for slaves.

South of Quiloa lies the country of Mozambique, the chief town of which is situated on an island at the mouth of a river of the same name, in 15 degrees south latitude. Here is a good harbour, defended by a citadel; the town regularly fortified; and the island on which it stands is near thirty miles in circumference, and very populous. It contains six churches, and several monasteries, the monks of which make many

profelytes in the neighbouring country. Here likewise the Portuguese barter European goods, for gold, elephants teeth, and slaves; and their shipping to and from India call for refreshments. As the country produces great herds of cattle, the Portuguese kill beef, and salt it up, either sending it to the Brazils, or selling it to European traders.

Mongale, an inland town in this country, is also garrisoned by the Portuguese; and here is their chief staple for European goods. The gold they receive in exchange from the natives, is found near the surface of the earth, or in the sands of rivers, there being no gold mines wrought in Africa.

The city of Mombaza, in the country of Mozambique, lies in 7 degrees odd minutes south latitude. Of this the Portuguese took possession when they first visited the east coast of Africa. Being forced to evacuate it afterwards, they repeated the conquest, and have here at present a considerable trade.

In Zofala, to the southward of Mozambique, the Portuguese have also some little settlements; and indeed they engross almost the whole trade of the coast, as far as the tropic of Capricorn.

## C A F F R A R I A .

### C H A P . I .

*Of the situation—air—produce.*

CAFFRARIA, or the country of the Hottentots, including the Terra de Natal, is situate between 24 and 35 degrees of south latitude, and between 15 and 35 degrees of east longitude; lying in the form of a crescent about the inland country of Monomotapa, and bounded by the Southern Ocean on the east, west, and south. It is a very uneven country, abounding in mountains, of which the three most considerable lie near the Cape; the Table Mountain, of a very great height, the top of which is always covered with a cap of clouds before a storm; the Sugar-loaf, so named from its form; and James Mountain, or the Lion's Rump.

There are no navigable rivers, but many small streams, which render the valleys exceeding fruitful. On the west, the sea forms the bay of St. Helena, with that of Soldania, and the Table-Bay; and on the east, Hermosa-Bay, and the Bay of Brasia; but we meet with no harbours, though the country has a sea-coast of upwards of a thousand miles.

The valleys would be excessive hot, were it not for the Southern Ocean, whence the wind blows almost on every side, and frequently with such violence as is seldom experienced in other seas. Hardly a week is free from these hurricanes. The Dutch sometimes lose whole fleets as they lie at anchor, and they are forced to moor their guard-ship with strong chains,

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instead of cables. Those frequent tempests, however, render the country very healthful, and seem to be even necessary for preserving the air in a salutary state; for if there happens a calm of any considerable duration, all the people are affected with the head-ach.

The gardens belonging to the Dutch East-India Company, at Cape-Town, afford a striking proof of the favourable temperature of the climate for vegetation, and the great fertility of the soil. Here are the most delicious fruits of Asia and Europe, growing within squares of bay-hedges, so high and thick, as to prevent them from being much injured by the storms of the ocean. It appears, however, that fruit-trees are not indigenous in the climate, but have been planted here by the Dutch, who imported them either from Europe or Asia. The same may be said of the vines, which were introduced by a German, and are now so plentiful in the country, that hardly a cottage in the Cape settlement but has its vineyard, which produces wine sufficient for the family.

Fruits and plants of all sorts are observed to be both much larger and sweeter than those of Europe. The head of a cabbage, at its full growth, weighs thirty or forty pounds; and the head of a colliflower as much. A potatoe weighs from six to ten pounds. The melons, which are raised without glasses, or hot-beds, are not only larger than those of Europe, but wholesomer, and of an exceeding fine flavour.

All sorts of grain are sowed here, except oats and lentils, and they are reaped in the month of December.

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The manner in which the farmers here tread out their corn, is as follows.

They make a circular floor, about thirty, forty, or fifty foot diameter, with a composition of clay and cow-dung, which binds very hard; and round it they erect a mud-wall, about breast high. This area they cover with sheaves, beginning in the middle, and laying them in concentric circles, till they reach the outside. They then turn in about twenty or thirty horses, which a man, furnished with a long whip, drives round till the corn be trodden out, and the straw become as fine as chaff. They afterwards clean the grain, and carry it into their granaries. This method they practise with great security, as it seldom rains here from the middle of October to the middle of March.

The country adjacent to the Cape produces a great number of plants, unknown in other parts of the world, and appears to be well worthy the farther investigation of botanists.

In this country are to be found lions, tigers, and leopards, with almost every quadruped of the ravenous kind. When the first of those animals attacks a man or beast, he immediately knocks them down with his paw, and deprives them of all sensation, roaring at the same time in the most hideous manner. His shin bones, it is said, after they are dried, are as hard as flint, and are sometimes used by the natives to strike fire with.

The elephants in this part of Africa are very large: their teeth weigh from sixty to a hundred and twenty pounds, and their strength is prodigious. They are generally from twelve to fifteen foot high, but some of them, we are told, much more. The female is considerably less than the male, and has its breasts or dugs between the fore legs. Their usual food is grass, herbs, roots, and the tender twigs of trees. They pull up every thing with their trunk, which serves them as a hand; and with this they suck up water, which they afterwards empty into their mouths.

The rhinoceros is here also to be met with. This animal is less than the elephant, but of equal, if not greater strength; and with his rough prickly tongue, he licks the flesh of the bones off his prey.

Another native of the country is the elk, which is about five foot high, with a fine slender neck, and a beautiful head, not much unlike that of a deer.

The porcupine is very common. It is usually near a foot long, thick in the middle, and tapers to a point at each end. Its whole body, except the belly, is covered with stiff quills, which it immediately erects on receiving any disturbance.

The skinkbingsem, as the Dutch call it, seems to be an animal peculiar to Caffraria. It has obtained its name from the extremely offensive scent which it emits on being pursued. We are informed that even the dogs will desert the chase, rub their noses, and howl, as soon as the intolerable effluvia of this animal have reached their nostrils.

There are in this country eagles, called dung-birds, which, if they find an ox or cow laid down, will attack it in great numbers. They make a hole in its

belly with their bills and talons, and entirely scoop out the bowels!

## CHAPTER II.

*Of the persons of the Hottentots—habits—diet—hunting—swimming—artificers—traffic.*

THE men amongst the Hottentots are generally under the middle stature, but their bodies are proportionable and well made. They are seldom either too fat or too lean, and hardly ever deformed by nature. Their heads, however, as well as their eyes, are rather of the largest. They have thick lips, exceeding white teeth, and black short hair, like the negroes; whom they resemble much in colour, after they have taken great pains to darken their tawny complexion with grease and soot. The women are much less than the men, and are remarkable for a membranous flap hanging over the pudenda. Flat noses being reckoned a mark of beauty, they never fail to break and compress the cartilage of that part of an infant, soon after its birth.

In summer, the men besmear their heads with handfuls of grease and soot mixed, to which the dust adhering, a clotted covering is formed, an excellent preservative, in their opinion, from the heat of the sun. In the winter, they wear flat caps, made of the skin of cats or lambs, half dried, which they tie with a thong of the same leather under their chins. They likewise wear a krossie, or mantle of skin, over their shoulders, which reaches to the middle, and being fastened with a thong about their neck, is open before. In winter, they turn the woolly or hairy sides next their backs, and in summer the other. The same covering serves a man for his bed at night, as well as for a winding-sheet and coffin when he dies. If he be a captain of a village, or chief of his nation, instead of a sheep-skin, his mantle is made of the skin of a tyger, wild-cat, or some other that is held in greater esteem. In general those mantles reach no lower than the waist, but some tribes wear them as far down as their legs, and others so long as to touch the ground.

They wear round their bodies a girdle, from the fore part of which a square piece of skin, about two hands breadth, hangs down.

Every man also hangs about his neck a greasy pouch, in which he keeps his knife, pipe, and tobacco, with a little piece of wood burnt at both ends, as a charm against witchcraft. On his left arm he wears three large ivory rings, to which he fastens a bag of provisions when he travels. He carries in his right hand two sticks, one called his kirri, which is about three foot long, and an inch thick, blunt at both ends; the other called his raccum stick, about a foot long, and of the same thickness. This has a sharp point, and is used as a dart to throw at an enemy or wild beast. In his left hand, he has another stick, about a foot long, fastened to the tail of a fox or wild cat, which serves him as a handkerchief to wipe off the sweat. Besides those accoutrements, the men wear a kind



kind of sandals, made of the raw hide of an ox or elephant, when they are obliged to travel over stony ground. Some have also buskins to preserve their legs from bushes and briars; but usually they have no covering either on the legs or thighs.

The women wear caps, with the crowns a little raised, made also of cats-skin, and tied under their chin. This covering they for the most part wear night and day in all seasons. They use two crosses or mantles, one over the other, made of skin, sometimes bordered with a fringe of raw leather; and those garments being only fastened with a thong about their necks, their bodies appear naked down to the middle. They have an apron larger than that of the men, and a covering of the same nature behind. Round their legs they wrap thongs of half-dried skins, to about the thickness of a jack-boot, which encumber them so much, that they walk with difficulty. Women of figure, instead of sheep-skin, wear that of a tyger, or wild cat. They also have a pouch about their necks, in which they carry something to eat, whether at home or abroad, with their pipe, tobacco, and dacha; the latter, which is an herb of an intoxicating quality, like tobacco, being used in the same manner by both sexes.

The principal ornaments, both of men and women, are brass or glass beads, with little thin plates of glittering brass and mother of pearl, which they wear in their hair, or about their ears. Of each of those kinds of beads strung, they also make necklaces, bracelets for the arms, and girdles. The elegance of dress being supposed to consist in the quantity of ornaments, their arms are sometimes covered with bracelets from the wrist to the elbow.

An ornament peculiar to the men, is the bladder of any wild beast they have killed, which is blown up, and fastened to the hair, as a trophy of their valour.

Both men and women powder themselves with a dust called bachu; and the women spot their faces with a red earth or stone; a practice that adds to their beauty, in the opinion of the natives, but which, in the eyes of Europeans, renders them much more frightful and shocking than they naturally are.

All infants, soon after their birth, are laid in the sun, or by the fire, and rubbed over with fat or butter mixt with foot, to render them of a deeper complexion; and this cosmetic operation they afterwards perform almost every day in their lives.

The Hottentots are not more cleanly in their diet than in their dress. They prefer the entrails of cattle, and some wild beasts, with very little cleaning, to the rest of the flesh; and eat their meat almost raw. Their food however consists chiefly of roots, herbs, fruits, or milk; for they seldom kill any of their cattle, unless at a festival, contenting themselves at other times with such as die either of diseases or old age, or what they happen to take in hunting. In a scarcity of food, they will eat the raw leather that is wound about the womens legs, or the soles of shoes; nor is it a practice uncommon, however horrible, to feed on the vermin that breeds in their mantles, a species of insect much larger here than in Europe. Notwithstanding their

excessive indelicacy, they abstain from swine's flesh, with that of some other animals, and from fish that have no scales. They rather devour their meat than eat it, pulling it to pieces with their teeth and hands, and discovering a canine appetite.

They eat no butter, though they make a good deal of it for the purpose of anointing themselves, and selling to the Dutch, who probably use it only for their shipping. In making it, they put the milk into some skin, made in the form of a soldier's knapsack, the hairy side inwards. Two persons taking hold of it, one at each end, they whirl it round, till the milk is converted into butter. The butter-milk, without any cleansing or straining, the Hottentots drink most greedily.

Their common drink is cows milk, or water; and the women sometimes drink ewe's milk, but this the men never touch. Since the arrival of the Dutch amongst them, it appears that they are become very fond of wine, brandy, and other spirituous liquors. Gluttony and drunkenness are their favourite vices, and in these they indulge themselves as often as they have opportunity.

Like the Tartars and Arabs, they frequently remove their dwellings for the conveniency of fresh water and pasture. They encamp in a circle formed by twenty or thirty tents, and sometimes twice the number, contiguous to each other; within the area of which they keep their smaller cattle in the night, and the larger on the outside of their camp. Their tents are made with slender poles, bent like an arch, and covered with mats or skins. They are of an oval form, the longest diameter being about twelve or fourteen foot, and the shortest ten. The height in the middle is near six foot, and at each end little more than three. In the former of those parts is a shallow hole, dug in the ground, about a yard diameter, where they make their fire, and round which the whole family sit or lie night and day, in such a smoke, when it is cold, or they are dressing victuals, as to any European would be intolerable; there being seldom any other vent than by the door, which is always in one of the ends. Such a circle of tents or huts as has been described, is called by the Hottentots a kraal.

The furniture of the tents consists of little more than a few skins of wild beasts, with an earthen pot in which they boil their meat. The only domestic animals they keep are dogs, which, in respect of their species, are no less ugly than their masters, but useful in driving, as well as defending their cattle.

The few wants of the Hottentots, and their brutal indelicacy with respect to diet, by exempting them from the most powerful incentives to labour and exercise, conduce to render them the most indolent people on earth. They will almost rather starve, at least eat dried skins, or shoe-soles at home, than hunt for their food; yet when they do apply themselves to the chase, or any other exercise, no people discover more activity. Those amongst them who can overcome their natural laziness so far as to enter into the service of the Europeans, are found to be not only diligent, but remarkably faithful. In their intercourse with their own tribes,

tribes, they are reputed hospitable and generous. They hardly ever eat a piece of the venison they have caught, or drink their beloved drams alone, but call in their neighbours to partake of the entertainment as far as it will go.

When a wild beast appears in the neighbourhood, the whole kraal or village assembles, and dividing themselves into small parties, surround the place in which they suppose he is concealed. As soon as he is discovered they set up a general cry, at which the frightened animal endeavours to break through and escape them. If it prove to be a rhinoceros, an elk, or an elephant, they throw their lances at him, darts and arrows on such an occasion not being sufficient for the purpose. If the beast be not killed at the first discharge, they repeat the attack, and load him with their spears; and as he runs furiously at the persons who wound him, those in his rear follow him close, till they provoke him to return, after which he is again assailed by the party towards whom he formerly tended. Repeating their attacks thus on every side, the creature is for the most part destroyed, without any of the people having received the smallest injury.

In the attacking a lion, a leopard, or a tyger, their darts and arrows are employed; and therefore they begin their engagements at a greater distance than when they charge an elephant or a rhinoceros. The creature has generally a number of darts and arrows upon his back before he can approach the hunters, the pain occasioned by which increasing his rage, he lies at the assailants with the greatest fury; and while the person he attacks nimbly avoids the onset, the others pursue him with their spears, and complete the victory. Sometimes a lion takes to flight with many poisoned weapons in his flesh, avoiding instant slaughter only to expire by a slower death.

Elephants are frequently taken in traps or pitfalls, without any hazard. Those animals being observed to go in great companies to water, following in a file one after another, and usually taking the same road, unless disturbed; the Hottentots dig pits in their path about eight foot deep, and four or five broad, in which they fix sharp stakes pointed with iron, covering the mouth of the pit with small sticks and turf, that it may not be discernible. One or other of the animals generally falls with his fore feet into this ambush, when the stakes piercing his unwieldy body, the more he struggles to extricate himself, the more firmly he is fixed. The rest of the herd observing the misfortune of their companion, abandon him, whilst the Hottentots possess themselves of their prey. Cutting the body into pieces, they carry home the flesh, which they voraciously devour as long as it lasts. The rhinoceros and elk are frequently taken in the same manner.

The Hottentot who kills any of those animals, or a lion, leopard, or tyger, singly, has great honours and privileges conferred upon him. At his return from an exploit of this kind, the men of the kraal depute one of their seniors to congratulate him on his victory, and desire that he will honour them with his presence. The request being granted, the deputy returns to the kraal, and sets himself down upon his heels, a mat

being placed close by him, in the middle of the assembly for the reception of the expected visitor. When the latter arrives and is seated, the old deputy piles plentifully upon him, accompanying the discharge all the while with a verbal address. The hero who is the object of the ceremony, rubs the honourable tribute into his skin with great eagerness, having first scratched off the grease with his nail. A pipe of tobacco is then lighted, which is smoked successively by all the people present, till nothing remains in the bowl but ashes, which are strewed by the deputy upon the hero, who receives them with the same satisfaction that he had testified at the former mark of their esteem. The ceremony being ended, and the neighbours having congratulated him on his advancement to this high honour, they disperse, and return to their respective tents. The champion afterwards fastens the bladder of the beast which he had killed to his hair, and is henceforth universally esteemed a brave man, and a benefactor to his country. His wife, or wives, if he has more than one, are not suffered to approach him for three days after this ceremony, but are forced to ramble in the fields. At the expiration of this period they return to the tent, where they are received with great joy and tenderness. A fat sheep is killed, and their neighbours invited to the feast; during which the prowess of the hero, and the honour he has obtained, are the chief subject of their conversation.

Of all the wild beasts on which they feed, they esteem the flesh of the tyger the most delicious. When an animal of this species is killed, the whole kraal partake of the repast, and the person who furnishes it meets with a double share of praise, as he not only rids the country of an enemy, but affords them a luxurious entertainment.

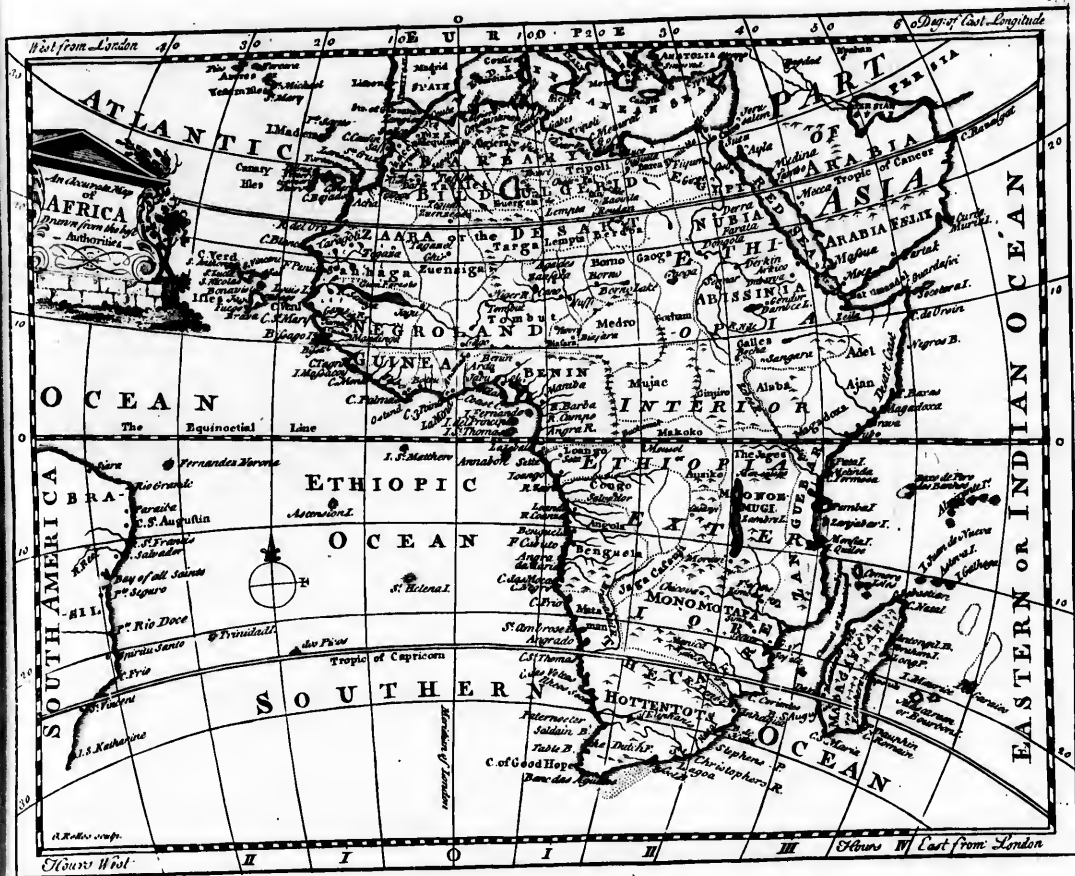
The manner in which a Hottentot swims is peculiar. He stands upright in the sea, without touching the bottom with his feet; and with his head, neck, and shoulders above water, he moves faster in that element than an European can walk.

Their smiths not only fashion their iron, but melt it from the ore. Having collected a heap of iron-stones, which are found in several parts of the country, they put them into a hole in the ground, heated and prepared for their purpose. They next make a fire over the stones, which they keep up till the iron melts. When this has happened, the melted iron runs into another hole, a little lower than the first, and after becoming cold, is broke in pieces with stones. The workmen again heat those pieces in other fires, and beat them with stones, till they are shaped into the heads of lances, darts, and such weapons as they use; for they hardly ever form any other utensils, but arms of this metal.

A people so unacquainted with luxuries, cannot be supposed to have much traffic. They barter cattle with the Hollanders, for wine, brandy, or tobacco; and such of the elephants teeth as they do not use in making ornaments for themselves, they for the most part exchange with the Portuguese and other Europeans, who touch at any part of their coast: for this commodity they sell very little to the Dutch.

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and in the room of plates or napkins, they content themselves with the nafty corners of the mantles which they wear.

The Hottentots allow of polygamy, but seldom have more than three wives at a time. It is death amongst them to marry, or lie with a first or second cousin, or any nearer relation. A father seldom gives his son more than two or three cows, and as many sheep upon his marriage; and to a daughter, either one cow, or a couple of sheep. There being no fortunes amongst them, they match only for love; and it is not uncommon for the chiefs to intermarry with the families of the poorest men.

A widow who marries a second time, is obliged to lose a joint of one of her fingers; and a similar am-

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putation to be done with decency, is such a piece can be found. Here depositing alive the innocent victim, they stop up the mouth of the den with stones or earth; or if no such cavity can be found, the infant is either tied to the lower bough of a tree, or left in some thicket to perish. Sometimes those deserted infants are found by the Dutch, who carry them home to their houses, and cause proper care to be taken of them, not omitting to imbue their minds with the principles of religion. Such however is, for the most part, the disposition of those exposed females, that on knowing their extraction, they renounce their Christianity, throw off the European habit, and running away to some Hottentot camp, assume the sheep-skin mantle, and conform themselves to all the customs of the people from whom they are descended.

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## C H A P. III.

*Of marriages—the exposing of female infants, and of superannuated persons—burials—religion—government—war—Dutch settlements at Cape Town.*

A YOUNG Hottentot hardly ever commences a treaty of marriage without the approbation of his father. When this is obtained, those two pay a visit to the father of the intended bride, with whom having smoked, talked of indifferent things for some time, the father of the lover communicates the occasion of the interview. The person to whom the proposal is made, after consulting his wife, immediately returns an answer. If the offer be rejected, the visitors retire without more words; but if approved, the young woman is called, and told that a husband is provided for her. From this determination she has only one way to appeal, which is by preventing the bridegroom from consummating the nuptials the next night. If she should prove victorious in that encounter, the lover abandons the enterprise, but if she has been overpowered, she must submit to the match, in spite of the most invincible aversion. The day after the consummation of the marriage, the young husband kills a fat ox, or more, according to his circumstances, for the wedding dinner, to which the friends of both parties resort, with compliments of congratulation.

The entertainment being ready, the men form a circle in the area of the kraal, and the women another; the bridegroom sitting in the middle of the former, and the bride in the center of that composed of her own sex. The priest then enters the men's circle, and pisses upon the bridegroom, who joyfully rubs into his skin the descending evacuation. Going afterwards to the female circle, he confers the same favour upon the bride, till his store is exhausted; repeating all the while his best wishes for the happiness of the new married couple.

The meat is then served up in earthen pots, besmeared with grease. If any of the company have been taught the use of knives by the Europeans, they will perhaps use them on this occasion; but the greater part has recourse to their fingers; and they devour the meat as voraciously as so many dogs. Sea-shells, without handles, usually serve them instead of spoons; and in the room of plates or napkins, they content themselves with the nasty corners of the mantles which they wear.

The Hottentots allow of polygamy, but seldom have more than three wives at a time. It is death amongst them to marry, or lie with a first or second cousin, or any nearer relation. A father seldom gives his son more than two or three cows, and as many sheep upon his marriage; and to a daughter, either one cow, or a couple of sheep. There being no fortunes amongst them, they match only for love; and it is not uncommon for the chiefs to intermarry with the families of the poorest men.

A widow who marries a second time, is obliged to lose a joint of one of her fingers; and a similar am-

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putation is performed for every new husband with whom she may contract. Either man or woman may be divorced, on shewing sufficient cause before the kraal; but the woman is not permitted to marry again, though the man is allowed that liberty.

A Hottentot never being master of a hut or tent till he marries, unless his father dies and leaves him one, the first object of a new married couple is to provide a habitation; and till that is done, they are entertained in the tents of some of their relations. The care of supporting the family rests almost entirely on the wife. She fodderes the cattle, milks them, cuts out the firs, searches every morning for roots for their food, brings them home, and dresses them, while the lazy husband lies indolently stretched in the tent, and will hardly give himself the trouble of getting up to eat what his laborious wives have provided for him; of whom the more he has, he is always proportionably the more slothful. If at any time he deigns to attend his cattle in the field, it is considered as an act of condescension, and is exceeding rare; nor is it much oftener that he will go a-hunting with the men of his kraal, to bring home a piece of venison, or a dish of fish. The wives, however, are not permitted to intermeddle in the business of buying or selling, this being the sole prerogative of the men.

When a woman is delivered of a live son, there is great rejoicing. The first thing they do with the child, is to daub it all over with cow-dung. They next lay it before the fire, or in the sun, till the dung is dried; which being rubbed off, they wash the infant with the juice of certain herbs, laying it again in the sun, or before the fire, for a little time. They afterwards anoint the child from head to foot with butter, or sheep fat melted; an operation which is repeated almost daily through life.

If the woman has twins, and they are girls, the father asks leave of the kraal, to expose one of them, either upon pretence of poverty, or that his wife has not milk for them both; and in this request the men usually indulge one another. The same barbarous custom of exposing the female infant is practised, when the twins are a boy and a girl; but they always preserve the boys, though they happen to have two at a birth. The devoted infant is carried to a distance from the kraal, to be exposed in a cave, or hole in the earth, the haunt of some wild beast, if such a place can be found. Here depositing alive the innocent victim, they stop up the mouth of the den with stones or earth; or if no such cavity can be found, the infant is either tied to the lower bough of a tree, or left in some thicket to perish. Sometimes those deserted infants are found by the Dutch, who carry them home to their houses, and cause proper care to be taken of them, not omitting to imbue their minds with the principles of religion. Such however is, for the most part, the disposition of those exposed females, that on knowing their extraction, they renounce their Christianity, throw off the European habit, and running away to some Hottentot camp, assume the sheep-skin mantle, and conform themselves to all the customs of the people from whom they are descended.

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The same inhumanity which the Hottentots so frequently discover in respect of their female infants, they likewise betray in the horrible treatment of their aged parents. When the father of a family has become superannuated, he is obliged to assign over all his effects to his eldest son, or in default of such, to his next male heir. The latter then erects a tent or hut in some unfrequented place, and having assembled the men of the kraal, acquaints them with the condition of his relation, desiring their consent to expose him in the distant hut; a request which is usually granted with great readiness. On the day appointed for the removal, the heir gives a great entertainment to all the people in the neighbourhood, who having taken a formal leave of the aged person, the latter is transported to the hut, where his fate is either to be starved or devoured by wild beasts.

When a person dies a natural death, he is immediately bundled up in his sheep-skin mantle, and thrown either into the cavity of a rock, or the den of some wild beast in the neighbourhood, the digging a grave on those occasions being a method of burial never practised. The corpse is seldom permitted to remain above ground more than six hours, and is attended to the cave by all the men and women of the kraal.

At the death of a father, the eldest son is entitled to all his possessions, the younger children depending so much upon the latter, as to be hereditarily his servants, or rather slaves, unless he pleases to enfranchise them; and even the subsistence of the mother is entirely dependent upon him.

So late as the beginning of the present century, it was questioned whether this people had any ideas of religion, but it is now generally admitted that they believe in a Supreme Being, creator of heaven and earth, whom they style Gounja Gounja, or Gounja Ticquos, God of Gods. To this supreme God, however, they pay no adoration, alleging in apology for their conduct, that their first parents grievously offended him, in consequence of which he cursed them, and all their posterity with hardness of heart. The principal object of their worship is the moon, which they hold as an inferior visible god, and a representative of the high and invisible. On the first appearance of the new and full moon, they assemble in great numbers, dancing wildly, clapping their hands, distorting their bodies, and howling in a hideous manner. Regarding this planet as the arbiters of the weather, they never fail to supplicate its favour when that is unseasonable. *Mutchi atza*, cry they, *I salute you, you are welcome: Chevagua kaka ebori oungua, Grant us pasture for our cattle, and plenty of milk.* Such invocations they frequently repeat, dancing and clapping their hands all the while, and at the end of every dance, crying, Ho, ho, ho! Those extravagant orgies are continued, with prostrations on the earth at intervals, the whole night, and part of the next day; exhibiting rather a scene of wild and fantastic diversion, than of religious ceremonies.

They likewise pay divine honours to a powerful evil spirit, whom they consider as the author of all the calamities in life. Nor are the souls of reputed saints

and heroes amongst them without their share of religious worship. To the memory of those the natives dedicate fields, mountains, woods, and rivers; and when, at any time, they happen to pass by such consecrated objects, they offer a short prayer to the genius of the place, sometimes dancing and clapping their hands, as in the adoration of the moon.

Besides the objects above-mentioned, the Hottentots worship a species of fly, about the size of a hornet. Whenever they observe this insect approach their kraal, they immediately assemble round it, singing and dancing all the while it continues amongst them, and likewise strewing over it the powder of buchu, called by botanists spiraaum. They strew the same powder on the top of their huts, and over the whole area of the kraal, in testimony of their veneration for the adored fly; to which they also sacrifice two sheep, as a thanksgiving for the favour shewn to their kraal, believing that such a visit prefigures great future prosperity. If the insect should happen to light upon a tent, they ever afterwards look upon the owner of it as the favourite of heaven, and pay him extraordinary respect. The best ox of the kraal is immediately sacrificed, to testify their gratitude to the little winged deity, and to honour the saint he has been pleased thus to distinguish. To this reverend person the entrails of the beast, in their opinion the choicest part, with the fat and the caul, is presented; and the latter being twisted as a rope, the saint ever afterwards wears it like a collar about his neck, day and night, till itrots off; anointing his body likewise with the fat of the sacrifice, as long as it lasts.

On many other occasions, they also kill sacrifices, and have festivals; as on destroying wild beasts, obtaining a victory, the recovery from a fit of sickness, and the like.

The Dutch, we are informed, have sent several divines to the Cape as missionaries, who have used every endeavour to convert this savage people from their idolatry, but hitherto without any effect.

The Hottentots are divided into several nations, each of which has its king or chief, called konquer, whose office devolves upon him by hereditary succession. He has the power of making peace or war, and presides in all their councils and courts of justice; but his authority is said to be limited, and he can determine nothing without the consent of the captains of the several kraals, who seem to be the Hottentot senate. The captain of each kraal, whose office is also hereditary, is the chief magistrate of his department in time of peace, and their leader in war. With the head of every family, he determines all civil and criminal causes within the kraal; such differences as happen between one kraal and another, and matters of general concern, being determined by the king and senate. Formerly their chief magistrates were distinguished only by finer skins, with a greater variety of beads and glittering trifes; but the Dutch, since their arrival at the Cape, have presented to the king or chief of every nation of the Hottentots in alliance with them, a brass crown, and to the captains of each kraal a brass-headed cane, which are now the badges of their respective offices.

In their councils the king sits on his heels in the center, and the captains of the kraal ranged around him in the same posture. At his accession, it is said, he promises to observe their national customs; and the same engagement is entered into by the chiefs of the kraal. Neither the sovereign nor the inferior magistrates are allowed any revenue, the respect of the people being all the distinction they enjoy.

Being entirely destitute of letters, they have no written laws, but are guided by ancient customs, from which they hardly ever deviate. Murder, adultery, and robbery, they constantly punish with death; and if a person is suspected of any of those crimes, the whole kraal join in apprehending him. A day or two after his seizure, he is brought to trial, when the people forming a ring, and sitting down upon their heels, the criminal is placed in the center, the witnesses on both sides are heard, and the party suffered to make his defence. The case being then considered, the captain collects the suffrages; and if the prisoner be condemned by a majority, he is executed on the spot. The captain first strikes him with a truncheon which he carries in his hand, and then the rest of the judges falling upon him, drub him to death; after which the corpse is buried in the usual manner.

Civil causes, also, are determined by a majority of voices, and satisfaction immediately ordered to the injured party, out of the goods of the other. From those decisions there lies no appeal to a superior court; the king and his council, as has been said, interposing only in matters of general concern.

No person possesses any private property in land, the whole country being a common, where they feed their cattle promiscuously, moving from place to place, for the sake of water or fresh pasture, as necessity requires. Each nation, however, has its respective territory, the limits of which frequently occasion war amongst those that are contiguous. But encroachments of this nature are not always the only cause of contention. Stealing each other's cattle likewise often proves the ground of fresh quarrels. For though every kraal punishes theft amongst themselves with death, yet it is considered as an act of heroism to rob those of another nation; at least the people are so backward in giving up the offender, as frequently to provoke hostilities.

One part of the armour of the Hottentots is a lance, resembling a half-pike, with the head or spear of it poisoned; which they sometimes use as a missile weapon, and at others to push with in close fight. Their bows are made of iron or olive wood, and the string, of the sinews or guts of some animal. Their arrows are bearded and poisoned likewise, when they engage either an enemy, or a wild beast not intended for food; and in the same manner they use a dart of a foot long, which they throw with remarkable dexterity. When they have spent their missile weapons, they have recourse to stones, seldom making a discharge in vain.

Every able bodied man is a soldier, and possessed of a set of such arms as has been described. They are all instantly, and neither officers nor private men have any pay. Though the country produces large elephants, they have not yet learned the art of taming them, but

they train up bulls or oxen to run upon the enemy, which those animals do with great fury.

When they march into the field, every man follows his captain, the chief of his kraal. The several companies, with horrid cries, advance to the charge at the command of their chief; and when those in the front have shot one flight of arrows, they retreat, and make room for the rear; the different files alternately relieving each other, till all their missile weapons are discharged.

The skill of the general consists chiefly in managing his bulls, which never charge each other, but spend their whole rage upon the men, whom they often gore in a dreadful manner. When the fate of the battle is determined, the tumultuous noise that accompanied the onset, is repeated by the conquerors, who often pursue their victory with great slaughter. If one battle proves not decisive, it is usual for some neighbouring power to interpose, and make up the quarrel, so that a war is seldom continued for any length of time.

The chief town at the Cape of Good Hope; belonging to the Dutch, extends from the sea-shore, along the Table Valley. It contains upwards of three hundred handsome houses, laid out in spacious streets, having courts before them, and large gardens behind, with all the regularity and neatness common to that people. The houses are built of stone, but thatched, and seldom more than one story high, on account of the extreme boisterous winds, to which they are so much exposed.

At a little distance from the town, in the same valley, the Dutch have a fort or citadel, built of stone, in form of a pentagon, for the defence of the landing-place. The garrison consists of about two hundred men, and here the governor and principal officers of the company have their respective apartments. Beyond those limits are several beautiful country seats, vineyards, and farms, extending far into the country, exclusive of two other great colonies or settlements, one called the Stellenbosch colony, and the other the Drakensteigh or Waveren colony, occupying between one hundred and two hundred miles to the northward and eastward of the Cape, but intermixed with the Hottentot nations, who still graze their cattle upon such lands as are not enclosed and cultivated by the Dutch.

The trade of the Dutch Company at the Cape is very considerable. They have here between five and six hundred officers and servants, besides slaves, who amount to near six hundred more. The country was discovered by the Portuguese, and was once in the possession of the English, who left it for St. Helena.

The country of Mataman or Matapan, which lies between the Hottentots on the south, and the Portuguese colonies, in Congo, on the north, is an uninhabited coast, where no European nation has yet found it worth their while to settle colonies, or even factories. With respect to Monomotapa and Monomugi, the inland countries between the Hottentots on the south, and the Upper Ethiopia on the north; all we know of them is, that the natives are Pagan negroes, and sometimes bring their gold and elephants teeth to the bordering nation on the coast, the inhabitants of which purchase those articles, and barter them again with the Europeans for spirits, cloathing, arms, ammunition, utensils, toys, &c.

## BENGUELA, ANGOLA, CONGO, and LOANGO.

**T**HESSE countries are situate between the equator and Cape Negro, which lies in 16 degrees south latitude; and most of them are under the dominion of the Portuguese, who have great numbers of negro princes subject to them.

The chief towns are Benguela, St. Paul de Loando, St. Salvador, and Loango. The latter of those, which is the largest, stands about five miles from the seaside, in 4 degrees 20 minutes south latitude. Most of the towns belonging to the negroes, consist of a few huts, built with clay and reeds in an irregular manner; and as every tribe has its particular king, or sovereign, his palace is usually distinguished by a spreading tree before his door, under which he sits, and converses, or administers justice to his subjects. The towns are generally in or near a grove of trees, mostly of the fruit kind; and besides being very populous, stand so close to each other, that the country has the appearance of being one continued city. In the territory of Loango, the huts are made of cane, wattled with twigs, and covered with leaves or branches of trees. They consist for the most part of two or three rooms, the innermost of which is allotted for the use of the women. Each house has usually a small yard, likewise enclosed with cane, and wattled. Those belonging to their great men, and the principal merchants have walls about ten or twelve foot high, forming a walk eight foot wide, which reaches near forty paces from the houses, but has so many windings, as to encrease the space it occupies, at least to five times that distance.

The inhabitants are as black as any of the negroes, but more civilized, especially in Congo, where the Portuguese fathers have converted many of the natives to Christianity, and introduced amongst them the European dress, on which account they now take off great quantities of imported manufactures. In other parts, the common dress of both sexes is only a piece of cloth about their waists, which is tucked in such a manner, that the corners hanging down on the left side, almost touch the ground. In the mornings and evenings, the women likewise wear a piece of cloth about their shoulders, which the men do not; and the former have about their ancles, as an ornament, a large brass ring of five or six pounds weight. This cumbersome ornament, to which however they are prodigiously attached, seems to be almost the only distinction they enjoy; for they do all the servile offices both within and without doors, as planting, reaping, carrying burdens, dressing the provisions, combing and twisting their husbands hair into various forms, and painting their bodies. When they are not engaged in these works, they usually employ themselves in making mats.

The diet of the better sort of people is mostly fowls, and stewed fish; but those of the lower class live chiefly on roots, and canky; a kind of bread made of Indian

corn, beat small, which they mix with some roots, and boil it in dumplins. They have great numbers of plantain and banana trees, as well as of palm trees; and of the latter they not only make wine, but extract oil from the fruit, which they use in diet, and for anointing their bodies. Pine apples are in great plenty, and there are some limes; but no lemons; and the oranges are generally ill tasted. The cotton trees in Loango grow to an extraordinary size.

When any of their great men, or Europeans, have occasion to travel, they are conveyed in a hammock, fastened to a long light pole, near the end. One man before, and another behind, will in this manner carry a lusty person several miles without resting; but on a long journey, six men are usually employed, who relieve each other in their turns.

The people of Loango, instead of money, use pieces of cloth made of silk grass, about the bigness of a sheet of paper. They estimate our goods by an imaginary coin, a custom which it is probable they have borrowed from the Portuguese manner of counting by rees. A piece of blue bafts is valued at a thousand, a piece of painted callico at six hundred, a small keg of powder three hundred, and so of the rest. Of the last mentioned article, with guns, anabases, brass-pans, and pewter basens, they are exceeding fond; as they likewise are of knives, small black beads, and coral, to make bracelets. Men slaves are purchased from three thousand six hundred to four thousand of their standard coin; and women, boys, and girls, in proportion.

The trade of all those countries consists chiefly in slaves, of whom they bring the greatest part eight or nine hundred miles, from the territory called by them Poamboe, which is probably the same with Ethiopia. But they frequently make excursions nearer home, in strong parties; and where they meet with any people who are not formidable by their numbers, or the strength of the government under which they live, those they drive before them, like cattle, to a trading town, and sell them for slaves. It is remarked, however, that the slaves thence obtained are far less hardy and laborious than those of Whidah, or the Gold Coast; and they are generally great lovers of brandy and tobacco.

Both in Congo and Loango there is a great number of kings, or petty sovereigns, most of them in some kind of subjection to the Portuguese, who permit them however to govern their own people, according to the custom of their country. Though those territories be situated under and near the equator, they are not so excessive hot as in higher latitudes. One reason assigned for this observation is, that their day never much exceeds twelve hours in length; and the other, that the rainy season continues four months, viz. from June to September inclusive. At this time, the rivers, particularly of Congo, overflow the level country, like



like the Nile, and render it no less fruitful than Egypt. Even of the higher lands hardly a spot is now uncultivated, owing to the agricultural improvements in which the natives have been instructed by the Portuguese, who have also introduced amongst them European corn, as well as fruits and plants.

Except in some parts of Angola, whither the English and Dutch resort for slaves, the Portuguese monopolize the foreign trade in all those countries. They bring thence elephants teeth, wax, and peltry, consisting of the skins of buffaloes, and other beasts; for which they give the natives cotton and linen cloths, or slight stuffs, tools, utensils, tobacco, brandy, and other spirituous liquors. They sometimes purchase slaves and

teeth, even with the gold which they bring from Brazil; whither, it is said, they do not send less than a hundred thousand slaves annually, from this coast, and some other settlements in Africa.

Negroes, we are informed, are purchased cheaper at Angola than in Guinea Proper; the price of young blacks, in their prime, being under three pounds a head, and that of boys and women in proportion. The treatment of those miserable creatures on the voyage, however, is shocking to humanity. They are kept upon no better food than horse beans; seven or eight hundred of them are packed in a vessel together; and during almost the whole time of the passage they are forced to lie double.

## G U I N E A.

## C H A P. I.

*Of the situation—seasons—air—negroes—molattoes—vegetable produce—minerals—animals.*

GUINEA Proper comprehends Benin and the Slave Coast, the Gold Coast, the Tooth or Ivory Coast, and the Grain or Pepper Coast. It is situate between 15 degrees west, and 15 degrees east longitude, and between 4 degrees 30 minutes and 10 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude. It is bounded on the east by unknown parts of Africa, on the south by Congo and the Atlantic Ocean, on the west by the same ocean, and on the north by Negroland.

In this country, the wet season continues for the most part from April to September inclusive, and during the other months of the year the weather is dry and hottest, though the sun is then farther from them than during the former period. Neither the commencement nor the duration of the wet season, however, are the same at all places on this coast, but between the vernal and the autumnal equinox they generally have excessive rains, attended with violent storms of wind, as well as thunder and lightning. The winds at this time blowing from the southward, and there not being any harbour upon the coast, if a vessel then happens to be in those seas, she is inevitably driven upon the coast, unless she can stand out to sea, or get into the mouth of the river Sierra de Leon before the approach of the storm. But even in the fair season, it is difficult going ashore on this coast, on account of the surf, or swelling of the sea, which constantly prevails. The most violent storms or trovadoes, are in July and August, during which time the sea rages to such a degree, as to have the appearance of fire, whence the sailors call it *the burnings*, and at this time it is almost impossible to go on shore.

During the hot season, the winds are here periodical, blowing from midnight till one or two in the afternoon, from land; after which, shifting to the southward, they blow from the sea.

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The rivers of this country falling from high mountains not far from the coast, they form very rapid torrents, and in the wet season overflow the valleys, the consequence of which is, that the air is frequently tainted with thick stinking fogs, extremely prejudicial to the health, especially of those who have not been accustomed to the climate. The rivers being made cloudy by the rains, are not any of them navigable, from the river Sierra de Leon, in the west, to that of Benin, or Formosa, in the east; but they abound, as well as the seas, in variety of good fish.

The face of the country is agreeably diversified with mountains and valleys, woods and open fields. The hills are adorned with trees of an extraordinary height, and the interjacent plains are rich and extensive, producing corn and fruits in great abundance. Numerous villages likewise contribute to delight the eye of the beholder; but the most pleasant and fruitful part of the country is that about Fida, or Whidah.

The negroes have flat noses, thick lips, and short woolly hair; with black eyes, the white of which, as well as their teeth, form a beautiful contrast to their complexion. They are generally under, or about the middle size, and well made; many of them, however, have exomphalos, occasioned either by the violence of ignorant midwives at their birth, or by straining in their infancy to walk; for they are never taught to go upright, but creep upon a mat, on all fours, till they have strength to erect themselves; notwithstanding which, it is rare to see any of them distorted. The women, for the most part, are not near so well shaped as the men; and their breasts are remarkably pendulous.

The habit both of men and women, is a paan, or cloth, two foot broad, about the waist. Those of the better sort have another cloth of considerable length thrown over their shoulders, yet so as their arms, legs, and a good part of their bodies, appear naked. Their ornaments consist of a multitude of rings, or bracelets, of gold, ivory, or copper, according to their circumstances, worn on their arms and legs, with necklaces

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and girdles of coral, one over the other. The plaiting and adorning their hair, is a principal object of their attention; especially of the women. The hair of some of the negroes is longer than that of others, and many of them by hanging weights to it, endeavour to pull it out of the natural curl; after which they form it into different fashions, with little thin plates of gold or copper, or with beads, coral, and shells, that make a glittering appearance. Some of the women throw over their heads a veil, to screen them from the sun, and some of the men wear caps; but many of them use no covering on that part.

The negroes are reputed not to want sense, but they exercise it chiefly in studying to defraud one another; a disposition which the example of the Europeans has tended rather to confirm than eradicate. Abandoned however as they may be, in respect of morals, they are exceeded in depravity by the malattoes, who are a mixed race, the offspring of female negroes by European men. Those are of a tawny complexion, professing the religion of the Portuguese, from whom they are descended, but retaining many of the Pagan superstitions. The men are drunken, lewd, thievish, and treacherous to the last degree; and the women prostitutes to both negroes and Europeans, to the former privately, and to the latter publicly, without any shame or restraint. They are observed also to be extremely covetous, yet such masters of their temper, as to be undisturbed by any vicissitude of fortune. By a happy infensibility of mind, they will appear contented, even when they have been unexpectedly deprived of all their effects; and they will sing and dance after losing a battle, with as much apparent triumph as if they had obtained a victory.

Some parts of the country abound in rice, millet, maize, or Indian corn; but there are others so subject to floods, that the soil produces little except rice. Sugar canes grow to great perfection, but are not much cultivated. Here are also yams and potatoes, which often serve the natives instead of bread.

The palm-tree is more plentiful in Guinea than in any other country, and the cocoa-nut tree likewise very frequent. The latter, however, the natives do not put to so many uses as in the East-Indies; contenting themselves with drinking the milk of the cocoa when it is young, or eating the nuts when they are ripe.

The Guinea pepper is found on the Grain Coast. It grows on a shrub, in long, slender, red shells or pods, separated into four or five divisions. Pimento, or Spanish pepper, also grows here; as does a very strong sort of stinking tobacco, which the negroes smoke, but is so offensive that a European can hardly bear the smell of it.

The timber trees here are generally of prodigious magnitude, and of the trunks of them, hollowed, the natives form their canoes. Some kinds have a very beautiful grain, streaked red and yellow, and particularly adapted for tables and cabinets. The capotree, which bears a sort of cotton, is also in great plenty; and many other trees, not only admired for their beauty, but remarkable for the shade which they afford.

The minerals of the country are iron, copper, and silver; but of gold it does not appear that any mines are opened. In the rainy season, the water pouring in torrents from the hills, washes away the earth, and undermines pieces of rocks, which being carried down by the stream, the cavities where the gold lay concealed, are sometimes discovered, and large pieces of the mineral picked out; but much the greater quantity is washed down in little particles, no bigger than sand, the former being called rock-gold, and the other gold-dust. When the rains abate, the natives resort to all the little streams, and gathering the sand in heaps, put it afterwards into tubs, where they wash it in water from the adhering earth. The streams where the gold is found, are generally at a distance from the sea; so that the greater part of it is brought down by the negroes at the season for trading, when they expect some vessels upon the coast.

Amongst the animals of Guinea, the elephants are so numerous, that more ivory is brought from the country called the Tooth Coast, than from any other part of the world. Here are found lions, tigers, leopards, wild hogs, jackalls, wild dogs, foxes, and crocodiles; but no camels, though this species be so numerous to the northward of the river Niger. Several kinds of wild cats are frequent, one of which is the civet cat. A species of civet is here, also yielded by a mouse. No animals are more common than monkeys. Some of them are said to be near five foot high, and so bold that they have been known to attack a man. Another sort is about two foot high, perfectly black, and with white beards. In this part of Africa is also found the camelion, of which travellers affirm that it frequently changes its colour. This animal is less than a rat, but considerably larger than a mouse. Some naturalists have imagined that it can live several months, and even years, without food; but the most probable opinion is, that it subsists, as some other creatures, on flies; and that it catches them with its tongue, which is almost as long as its body.

The flesh of their neat cattle is hard and dry, and their sheep, which are covered with hair, make very indifferent food; yet both are sold at a high price. The cows yield very little milk, and that of an exceeding bad quality. The goats, hogs, and deer, are the best meats which they use. The horses are small, and used sometimes for the saddle, as well as asses; but neither they nor any of the cattle are employed in the draught, or to carry burdens; all commodities, where the conveniency of water carriage cannot be had, which is rarely obtained, being transported on porters backs, to the distance even of a hundred miles.

Here are serpents of various kinds, and some of enormous dimensions. Those of the smaller sort frequently enter the houses and bedchambers, where the negroes superstitiously cherish them with greater tenderness than they shew to their own children, paying them even divine honours.

A species of large ants is particularly troublesome to the inhabitants, who are also pestered with gnats and flies, so frequent in all the hot countries.

The country abounds in variety of sea and river-fish, which are the principal support of the Europeans, as well as of the natives on the coast, and compensate not only the bad quality, but the dearth of flesh.

## C H A P. II.

*Of the government—laws—arms—religion—marriage—diseases—physicians—funerals.*

THE government of Guinea is divided among a few sovereigns, who enjoy unlimited power, and have under them a great number of petty princes, whose tributary dominions exceed not the bounds of an English parish. Each of the great monarchs is held in the highest veneration by his respective subjects, who never appear in his presence, but either kneeling or prostrate on the ground. When they attend him in the morning, they prostrate themselves before the gate of his palace, kiss the earth three times, and clapping their hands together, use expressions significant even of adoration. He has his viceroys, governors, and other officers, as European princes have; of whom he constantly entertains four or five thousand with meat and drink. Some of those are frequently permitted to eat in his presence, but none of them either to see his majesty eat, or to know in what part of the palace he sleeps; this being an indulgence granted only to the king's wives, of whom he seldom retains a smaller number than a thousand. The duty of those ladies, however, is not restricted to the common offices either of female or domestic life. They are frequently sent on the king's embassies, and employed in executing such commands as seem more suitable to the other sex; as to punish criminals, pull down houses, and the like. When the king goes abroad, five or six hundred of them run before him, or attend him, he never having a man in his train. But he spends the greatest part of his time in his palace, administering justice to his subjects, and transacting affairs of state; or conversing with the European factors and merchants, who find him usually in a state hall of audience, richly habited in gold and silver stuffs. Though he never eats before company, it is said he will drink very plentifully both with the Europeans and his own subjects.

The chief officers under the king are the *cabicero's*, whom he consults in all affairs of importance, and by whom he administers justice to the people.

Though there be no written laws in Guinea, particular punishments are appropriated to certain crimes by custom. Murder is usually punished with death, if the person killed was a free-man; but for the murder of a slave, a fine only is exacted. Adultery is also punished with death, where it is committed with any of the king's wives, or the wife of a great man. The punishment of theft is for the most part by a heavy fine, and restitution of the stolen goods; but if the offender has nothing to pay, he either suffers death, or becomes a slave to the injured person. So likewise in cases of debt, where the party is insolvent, himself, his wife, and children, are liable to be sold for slaves.

Every able-bodied man is obliged to march into the field in defence of his country, or at the command of his prince; but there are some who make arms their only profession, and engage in the service of neighbouring nations, when their own is at peace. In the maritime parts of Guinea the use of fire-arms is now known, but in the inland country their armour consists of a bow and arrow, with a lance, sword, dart, and shield; all of them formed by the natives themselves, with no better tools than a stone for their hammer, and another for their anvil. Their shields are of an oval figure, above four foot long and three broad, made of light basket-work, usually covered with the skin of a tiger, or other animal, but sometimes with thick gilt leather, and ornamented with bosses of copper.

The natives of Guinea usually acknowledge the existence of one Supreme Being, the creator of the universe; but from an opinion that he is above noticing the state of poor mortals, they pay him no adoration, though they offer sacrifice and prayer to a multitude of inferior deities. The chief deity of the Fidaians, a considerable kingdom of Guinea, is a serpent of particular species, whose bite is not mortal. They address themselves to this animal on the most important occasions; as for seasonable weather, the preservation of the state, or whatever else concerns the public welfare. A grand temple is dedicated to this serpent in Fida, and a smaller one in almost every village, with priests and priestesses to officiate in them. The king annually makes presents and offerings to the great temple, consisting of gold, cattle, pieces of silk, European merchandize, and various kinds of meat and drink, which, on the apprehension of any public calamity, are frequently repeated.

In the great temple is kept a serpent of an enormous size, to which the people pay their devotions, whether the king formerly used to go every year on pilgrimage, but of late he deposes a certain number of his wives for this purpose.

Such is the veneration of the Fidaians for this species of snake, that they will not hear any thing spoken in derision of them; stopping their ears, and running away, if any European should laugh at the superstitious reverence which they pay to those objects. Some years ago, a hog happening to devour one of those snakes, a proclamation was immediately issued for destroying all the hogs in the country. The slaughter proceeded with great fury, till at the instance of some of their rich owners, enforced with considerable presents to the king, the decree was revoked.

The next objects of worship amongst the Fidaians, are lofty trees, to which they apply in sickness, or on any private misfortune. When the winds and waves are so tempestuous that no foreign vessel can visit their coast, which usually happens in July and August, and sometimes in other months, they offer sacrifice to the sea, another of their principal gods; throwing into it all sorts of merchandize, meat, drink, and cloathing, to appease the enraged element.

Besides those public objects of adoration, every man at Fida has a numerous set of gods, of his own choosing.

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Every thing they meet with on going abroad, whether animate or inanimate, they rank in this class, after it has undergone the following trial. They immediately pray to it for something they stand in need of, and if they happen by any means to obtain their desire, they ascribe their success to the influence of this new god; but if they are disappointed, they conclude that it cannot, or will not help them, and henceforth treat it with contempt.

In the kingdom of Fida, or Whidah, both priests and priestesses are treated with uncommon respect, their persons, and all that belong to them being held sacred and inviolable. The people have imperfect and confused notions of heaven and a future state; and some of them mention a local hell for the punishment of the wicked, to which, however, in their practice they seem to pay but little regard. Some of them believe that both black and white men were created by the Supreme God at the same time; whilst others ascribe the creation to a great spider, which they call Ananfia.

Every priest, or feticheer, has a different god, to which the people under his care apply on public occasions, or in time of general calamities. When they are deliberating on war and peace, they bring sacrifices, and consult the god by their priest, who sometimes performs the ceremony alone, and returns an answer to those who come to enquire of him. At other times he consults the idol in their presence, from which however they expect no vocal reply; but the priest, throwing up some nuts, or small pieces of leather, foretells success or miscarriage to the undertaking, according to the distance at which those objects fall from each other.

A solemn oath is always taken before one of those idols, the person drinking a draught after it, and praying that the god may strike him dead, or the liquor burst him, if he does not perform his engagement, or if the thing be not true which he attests. The priest however claiming a dispensing power, it is usual, upon great occasions, to make him swear, that he will not absolve the party from his oath; and to secure his observance of this promise, they require of him the most dreadful imprecations to confirm it. But perhaps the most effectual restraint against a violation of the engagement, is the opinion universally prevalent amongst them, that whoever commits such a crime, will infallibly burst or die soon after.

When the weather is unseasonable, the whole town or country consult their priest how the vengeance of heaven may be appeased; when he usually advises them to offer certain sacrifices, which is readily complied with. For the performance of those rites, every village has a sacred grove set apart, which they will not suffer to be profaned, or cut down upon any occasion.

Every person has his particular household god, before which he constantly performs his devotions on the day of the week when he was born. This they call their Bassam, as they do the day itself, and on it they drink no wine or strong liquor before sun-set. They are also then habited in white, or their skins painted

with that colour. Another day of the week is set apart for divine worship, when the poor sacrifice poultry, and the rich a sheep to their god, without the assistance of a priest. These sacrifices are eaten by the respective families; and here, as well as in Cassraria, the guts and inwards, boiled in the blood, is reckoned the most delicious repast.

What notion they entertain of the deities they worship is uncertain, any farther than that they consider them as beings of great power, who watchfully inspect their behaviour, and reward or punish them in this life according to the nature of their actions. They seem neither to have much expectation nor dread of futurity, though they generally agree that the souls of good men survive after death. A few of them speak of a paradise, not unlike the Elysian fields, intended for the spirits of those who have religiously kept their holidays, observed their oaths, and abstained from forbidden meats. Such as have been deficient in any of those particulars, it is their opinion, are drowned in a certain river, and a period put to their existence; for hardly any of them, seem to entertain a notion of eternal punishment, unless they have received it from the Christians. Some individuals amongst them believe in the doctrine of transmigration.

Though all the negroes worship some creature or other, yet they all have not images in their houses. It is said that some of the natives of the mountainous inland country pay adoration to a living man, in the manner of the Tartars; and they believe that he dooms them to happiness or misery after death, according to their deserts. It has been alledged that they also worship the devil, keeping annually to his honour a solemn festival, of eight days continuance. That a festival is kept appears to be undeniable; but we are informed by other authority, that it is observed with the view of keeping the devil out of their country.

On this occasion, seven days are spent in feasting, singing and dancing, and from the beginning to the end of those rejoicings, great liberties are taken with impunity. The eighth day in the morning, they hunt the devil out of every town and village, with horrid cries and howling; at the same time throwing dirt and stones after the invisible fugitive. When the men have continued this frolic as long as they think fit, they return home, where they find the good women employed in cleansing and scowering all their pots and utensils, from the impurity which they are imagined to have contracted by satan's residing amongst them.

Besides this festival, they have another after harvest, when they sacrifice to their gods for affording them the fruits of the earth.

In contracting marriage the consent of a woman is never asked, but she is disposed of, when a child, by her parents, with whom she lives till she arrives at years of maturity. When she is brought to her husband's house, she is allowed to dress, and live at her ease for a few days; after which she is obliged to dig, plant, and sow the ground; the men leaving to their wives the work of the field, as well as the business of the house. There seems to be very little difference in this respect between their wives and slaves. Those

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that live the easiest amongst them, are the wives of the merchants, and fishermen, who have no lands to manure. Every man has one wife called his *bossim*, dedicated to his household god, who is exempted from working, and enjoys many other privileges in the lifetime of her husband. The *bossim* is usually some young beautiful slave, with whom the husband is under an obligation of spending his time on the night of his birth day, and of the day of the week appropriated to the service of their gods. There is also another wife exempted from labour, who is entrusted with the direction of all domestic affairs. Of these two wives the husband is exceeding jealous, and endeavours to keep them to himself; but with respect to the conduct of the rest, he is not so much concerned. The common people wink at their wives bestowing favours on other men, and will even promote an intrigue, provided they can make any thing by it.

The unmarried women on the coast take very great liberties, which is considered as no reproach, nor ever prevents them from getting husbands; but this is to be understood only of the inferior people. Some females are purchased by almost every township, to supply the necessities of unmarried men. These women have huts by the way-sides, where they entertain such as are willing to become their gallants, for the value of a farthing. This institution is regarded as an act of public charity, in so much that it is usual for rich negro women to bequeath a legacy at their death towards establishing such endowments.

Notwithstanding the coast of Guinea is found so unhealthy to European constitutions, the natives have very few distempers. The most fatal to them of any is the small-pox, which sweeps them away like a pestilence, as is generally the case in hot climates. The venereal distemper is likewise fatal to a great many, few escaping it amidst the number of prostitutes with which the country abounds; nor have the natives hitherto learned any method of cure. Worms are here an epidemical distemper; not such as afflict people in the stomach and bowels, but a species which lodge between the skin and the flesh, and excite intolerable pain, till they are drawn out; an operation which sometimes lasts a month, or longer.

As soon as the head of the worm has pierced the tumour, which it raises on the surface of the body, and the animal is come out a little way of itself, they endeavour to extract it by winding it about a stick a little at a time; desisting from the operation when it proceeds not with ease, and renewing it another day, till the whole is extracted. If the worm breaks, the patient suffers great pain, either from its rotting in the body, or exciting an inflammation in another part. Some of the negroes are infested with nine or ten of these worms at a time, and the Europeans are not entirely free from them. They are generally a yard in length, and sometimes double that quantity. A canine appetite is also reckoned among the diseases of the Guinea negroes, which has been imagined to proceed from drinking excessively of palm wine.

The diseases to which Europeans are chiefly subject on this coast, are fevers, dysenteries, and the cholera.

No. 12.

These disorders are ascribed not only to the excessive heat of the day, and the coldness of the night, but to the thick putrid fogs, that arise from the salt-marshes near the sea, and the mouths of the rivers where the factories are usually situated; and also to the miasma proceeding from the fish, which the natives lay to rot upon the shore. But whatever be the cause, it is certain that few Europeans, especially such as come from the temperate, or colder climates, escape a dangerous fit of sickness on their arrival in this country; and that many fall a sacrifice to the morbid quality of the air, either almost immediately, or in the space of some months.

The only physicians amongst the natives of Guinea are the priests, who we may well suppose are extremely ignorant of the medical art. When their prescriptions fail of success, they have recourse to sacrifices and charms; and should these likewise not prove effectual, so great is the confidence of the people in those men, they impute the miscarriage to any thing rather than the unskillfulness or inability of the priest.

Besides exercising the office of physician, the priests likewise act in the capacity of prophets and conjurers, professing infallible power in the use of charms and incantations, to the no small influence of their authority, as well as the increase of their emolument among the superstitious people.

When a man of figure dies, his wives, his relations, slaves, and dependents, immediately set up a dismal howl. His wives shave their heads, cover with a patched garment of rags such parts of their bodies as are usually clothed, and colour the rest with a white paint or clay; running about the streets, and bewailing themselves in the most dismal manner for several days successively.

Whilst the corpse remains unburied, all the relations, friends, and neighbours attend it, and join in the lamentations of the family. On those occasions, it is customary to bring with them presents of gold, linen, liquors, fruits, and other eatables. The corpse being richly habited, is put into a coffin, with a considerable quantity of gold, coral, and other valuable effects, suitable to the circumstances of the deceased. The body is carried to the burying-place, preceded by a great number of musketeers, who fire their guns, while some of the attendants walk behind in a disorderly manner, roaring forth their lamentations with the utmost exertion of their voice.

When the corpse is interred, most of the company return to the house of the deceased, where they feast and drink for several days.

Instead of a tomb, the negroes usually build a house, or plant a garden over the grave, and at Axim, they set images of clay upon it, which they wash every year on the anniversary of the funeral, when the expense is as great as at the time of the interment.

When a king is buried, it is customary to kill his slaves, and his *bossim*, in order to attend him in the other world. Nor is this horrible sacrifice performed with the smallest appearance of sympathy: for the wretched victims are wantonly tormented by the executioners for several hours.

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C II A P.

## C H A P. III.

*Of games—sports—music—language—trade.*

SOME tribes of the negroes are much addicted to gaming, and will stake all they possess upon the issue. The ancient game of the natives is similar to that of draughts, but the Europeans have now taught them to play likewise at cards and dice. Their rural sports are hunting, shooting, and fishing; and so plentiful is game in some parts of the country, that a man may load himself with it in a few hours. Having no dogs to spring the game for them, nor horses to ride after it, as with us, guns, nets, and snares, are what they use on those occasions. In fishing, however, they are provided with all the necessary tackle; and this is the principal employment, as well as diversion, of those tribes that live near the coast.

Eight hundred, or perhaps a thousand of them, go out a-fishing at once. They have hooks, harping-irons, nets, and all the implements that are used by European fishermen. Every canoe, or boat, is of one piece, made out of the body of some large tree. Those of the greatest size are thirty foot long, and six broad, which the Europeans hire to carry their merchandize to and from their ships, and along the coast from one country to another, but a smaller kind is generally used in fishing. They are rowed, according to their size, by two, three, seven, nine, eleven, and sometimes fifteen watermen; there being always an odd number, when more than two are employed, as one of them steers the canoe. Instead of oars, they row with an instrument in the form of a shovel, with which they push themselves swiftly along, looking the same way that they row.

The common musical instruments are trumpets made of elephants teeth, bored through, with which they make a loud, but disagreeable noise. They have also a kind of drum, made of a wooden bowl, with a sheep-skin stretched over it, in the form of a kettle-drum, using two wooden hammers for drum-sticks, or sometimes beating them only with their hands, in concert with the trumpets. Another instrument equally harsh, and used likewise in concert with the two preceding, is a hollow iron bell, which yields a sound by being beat upon. The least shocking of any of their music is performed on an instrument in the shape of a harp. They sing and dance to their music, however, such as it is, and seem to be as much charmed with it as Europeans are with the best voices and instruments, and the finest compositions of the Italians.

The language spoken by the natives of Guinea is an extremely disagreeable and uncouth sound, nor have the Europeans ever been able to express their words in writing. It appears to be very different from that of the Hottentots, who communicate their ideas to one another, in many instances, by articulate sounds, which has been compared by some travellers to the voice of a turkey-cock. Such, however, is the diversity of dialects in the language of Guinea, that in

the space of sixty miles on the Gold Coast, there are six or seven different tribes, whose rude articulations are only intelligible to those of their respective divisions.

The four principal articles of trade on the coast of Guinea, are gold, slaves, elephants' teeth, and drugs; under the latter of which are comprehended Guinea grain and pepper, civet, cardomums, indigo, and gums of several kinds, particularly gum-tragacanth, wax, and red wood.

The European merchants never go up into the country to purchase gold, which is always brought to the forts and factories by the trading negroes, who are extremely fraudulent in their dealing. They mix copper, and other substances of less value, both with their rock-gold, and gold-dust. Some pieces they cast so artfully, that quite round, of the thickness of a shilling, the piece shall appear to be pure gold, while perhaps the inner part of the mass is filled with copper or iron. The common false mountain-gold is a mixture of silver, copper, and a proportion of gold, very high coloured, which renders the cheat not easily discernible. For being obliged to receive an infinite number of small pieces in a pound, it is almost impossible for the merchant to examine each, and the metal likewise looking so well, it is hardly suspected. The natives also tinge a powder of coral, or the filings of copper, so artificially as to make them resemble gold-dust, till in a month or two they lose their facitious lustre.

The method which the factors take to distinguish true gold from false, when in large pieces, is to cut it through, by which means the contents of the piece are ascertained. But if the gold be in dust, they put it into a basin, winnowing and blowing it, till the counterfeit metal flies away, and leaves the pure gold behind.

The value of gold, at an average, brought annually from the Guinea coast by all the European nations that trade hither, is computed to amount to the value of three hundred thousand pounds and upwards; of which the English are supposed to import one third, the Dutch another, and the French, Portuguese, and Prussians another third.

The slave-trade is carried on in much the same manner as that of the gold. The negro factors and merchants come down to the coast with their slaves, agree with the Europeans for the price of them, and likewise the value of the goods which they are to accept in exchange. It is, however, often necessary for the European merchant to pay those people the price of slaves before-hand, as the negro factors have not always stock sufficient to go to market without credit; an indulgence which they sometimes abuse, by never fulfilling their contract.

As Guinea is occupied by a multitude of petty princes, who are frequently at war with each other, the slaves are generally such as are made prisoners by either party; and it being the practice, when they invade a country, to carry all the inhabitants into captivity, the spoil consists not only of men, but of women and children. The list of those unfortunate people is much increased by the great number of such

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persons as have forfeited their liberty, either on account of debt, or of some misdemeanour. Men sell even their wives and children, on receiving any offence, whilst others lessen their families from an apprehension that they shall not be able to maintain them. If a famine, or great scarcity happens, they will even sell themselves to one another for bread. Instances are known of children selling their parents when they have been weary of them, and wanted to enjoy their possessions. In times of peace, nothing likewise is more common, than for the negroes of one nation to steal those of another, and sell them to the Europeans. In those various ways is this horrible traffic carried on, to the disgrace of humanity, and of every principle which ought to actuate civilized nations.

When a ship arrives upon the coast to purchase slaves, the first business is to pay the duties, and make a present to the king or governor of that part of the country, for permission to trade. The king's slaves are to be taken off at almost what price he pleases to put upon them, before the merchant is allowed to deal with his subjects. The price being agreed upon, the European surgeon views all the slaves naked, men, women, and children. Men that are supposed to be above thirty-five years of age, are usually rejected, as are all that have any lameness, or other defect, and such as are afflicted with a distemper not easily cured. Even the loss of a tooth is sometimes urged as an objection. When the infirm are set aside, the rest are branded by the merchant with a hot iron, to distinguish them, and locked up in some prison till they can be sent on board; the Europeans having no forts or factories in many places, where they meet with the greatest number of slaves. The price of an able-bodied man may be about five pounds, the women a fifth part less, and the children in proportion to their respective ages. When they are sent on ship-board, their former masters strip them of every rag, so that the merchant receives them perfectly naked; in which state they remain till they arrive in America. Cold is however the least of the hardships which they suffer on this passage, being packed so close together, that six or seven hundred are usually stowed in a ship. The decks are so divided that they are forced to lie, or sit double on the hard boards during the whole voyage; and all the men are loaded with irons, to prevent them from attempting their escape.

Ivory may be had in small quantities along the whole Guinea coast, but it is met with chiefly in that part of the country which has obtained the name of the

Tooth Coast. It is said that there are large plains where teeth are found in great plenty, which belonged to elephants that either died naturally, or were killed by people unacquainted with the trade of those bones.

The other articles of trade are the Guinea pepper, wax, and drugs, which are chiefly procured upon the Grain Coast. What quantity of those commodities, or of teeth, is brought from Guinea every year appears not to be well ascertained. A late writer computes, that the English, Dutch, French, Danes, and Brandenburgers, export from Europe to Africa, about the value of two hundred thousand pounds in goods; bringing thence annually in gold, slaves, ivory, and drugs, to the value of three millions; and that the Portuguese, who are possessed of such vast tracts of land upon the eastern, as well as the western coast of Africa, trade for as much as all the other Europeans put together, in slaves and teeth.

The goods exported by the Europeans to Africa, are chiefly calicoes, cottons, linen, and woollen stuffs, serges, and perpetuanas, with wrought iron, pewter, and brass; such as swords, knives, hatchets, nails, hammers, pewter-dishes, plates, pots, and cups, brass-pots, kettles, and other household utensils; fire-arms, powder, shot, brass and glass toys, beads, bugles, and cowries, or blackamoor's teeth, with brandy, English spirits, and tobacco.

It was computed, that the African Company, in its flourishing condition, gained annually to England nine hundred thousand pounds. Of this sum eight hundred thousand consisted in slaves, which, in the infancy of their trade, were in great demand over all the American plantations, to supply their own wants, and carry on a clandestine commerce with the Spanish West-Indies. Barbadoes required annually a supply of four thousand negroes, Jamaica ten thousand, and the Leeward Islands six thousand; and the Company not being able to answer the demand, having imported only forty-six thousand three hundred and ninety-six slaves between the years 1680 and 1688, a number of interlopers arose, and contended for a share of the trade. From this time the Company visibly decayed; inasmuch that in the eight following years they imported to the West-Indies only seventeen thousand seven hundred and sixty slaves, while the private traders imported seventy-one thousand two hundred and sixty-eight. The original African Company was afterwards dissolved, and a new one created by act of parliament; but at present, this trade is not near so advantageous as formerly.

## NEGROLAND, ZAARA, and BILEDULGERID.

**N**EGROLAND, or Nigritia, is bounded on the south by Guinea Proper, on the west by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north by Zaara, and on the east by unknown parts of Africa. It is situate between 18 degrees of west, and 15 degrees of east longitude; and between 10 and 20 degrees of north latitude; the great river Niger running through the whole length of it, and falling by several channels into the Atlantic Ocean.

Towards the coast, the country is for the most part low and flat; but farther from the sea, it is mountainous, and covered with wood, at a little distance from the Niger, up which river the tides flow four or five hundred miles.

The rainy season usually begins before the middle of June, and continues till October, being generally most violent at the commencement and close of this period. During those four months the sea-breezes seldom blow, but instead of them easterly winds, directly down the river, which from November to March blow very fresh, especially in the day-time. The greatest heats are in May, three weeks or a month before the rainy season begins.

The inhabitants of this country, on the north side of the Niger, are not born with flat noses, as their southern neighbours; but many fantastical mothers reckoning such a shape beautiful, produce it in their children by artificial means. Broad nostrils, thick lips, and large breasts, are here in much esteem; and one breast is generally larger than the other.

During the early period of infancy, they dip their children over head and ears in cold water, three or four times in a day; and after drying, rub them with palm-oil, particularly the back-bone, small of the back, elbows, neck, knees, and hips. At first, a child is of an olive colour, and does not turn black till a month or two. When a month old, it receives its name, and its head is shaved. Children go naked till they arrive near the age of puberty, at which time all the males are circumcised, and they assume their habit, which is not uniform in different parts of the country. Some, of both sexes, wear only a piece of cloth round their waists; whilst others, of the men, use a loose covering over their shoulders, and the women over their whole body, except the arms and legs. They usually dress their hair with glittering shells and toys, and many of them wear white caps.

Their houses are little low huts, built with wooden rockades set in the ground, in a circular or square form, thatched with straw. The furniture generally consists of a mat or two to lie down upon, two or three earthen or wooden dishes, and the same number of spoons.

Almost every town has two common fields of clear ground, one for the rice, and the other for the rest of

their grain. The former is cultivated by the women, and the latter by the men; and after harvest, the whole produce is equally divided amongst the inhabitants. In some places, however, every man is entitled to the corn and rice which he sows; but none has a property in any particular part of the field, the country being considered as a common.

The people of Negroland eat crocodile's eggs, snakes, monkeys, and alligators, with almost every species of animal; but their principal food is rice, pulse, Indian corn, stinking fish, and casseon, which is flour mixed with broth. Their liquors are palm-wine, mead, brandy, and rum, when they can be procured; but their ordinary drink is water.

Every man is allowed to retain as many wives as he pleases, and some have no less than a hundred. The wife is turned off at pleasure; and, at her dissolution, is obliged to take with her all her children, unless the father chooses to keep any of them.

The people of this country are generally Mahometans, the Arabs who made a conquest of the coast of Barbary in the seventh century, having since spread themselves so far as the river Niger, and propagated their religion among the natives.

Their government, of which hardly any thing is known, it is probable resembles that of Guinea. Their principal manufacture is cotton cloth; and their arms are swords, bows and arrows, spears, and darts.

The gold of Negroland is reputed of excellent quality, and the natives bring it to the merchants on the coast, in small bars from ten to forty shillings each. They also bring slaves, sometimes to the number of two thousand in the year, most of whom they say are prisoners made in war. Those wretched captives are tied by the neck with leather thongs, about a yard distant from each other, thirty or forty in a string; having generally a bundle of corn, or an elephant's tooth on each side of their heads. They are also obliged to carry water in skin bags, to support them on their journey; having no opportunity of being supplied with any for several days, on their way through the woods and mountains.

Besides the slaves brought from distant parts, many are purchased along the river, who are either taken in war, condemned for crimes, or have been stolen, which is a practice very common amongst them. The company's servants, however, seldom buy the latter, where they entertain any suspicion of such means having been used, without sending for the alcaide, or chief men of the place, and consulting with them on the subject. Since the introduction of this trade, all punishments are changed into slavery; and great advantage being derived from those condemnations, they strain hard for crimes, in order to reap the benefit of selling the persons accused. Not only murder, theft



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*Habit of a Lady of Indestan.*



*The above figure in the Habit of a Lady of Indestan,  
was taken from the Original picture drawn at Indestan.*

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theft, and adultery, but almost every trifling fault is punished in this manner. The slaves sold on the banks of the Niger, exclusive of those brought from the inland parts, are computed to be about a thousand, more or less, in the year.

The other articles of trade are bees-wax and elephants teeth; the latter of which are either picked up in the woods, or obtained by killing the animal. Whether the elephant ever sheds its teeth, is a point which naturalists have not yet been able fully to ascertain; but there seems to be some ground for this opinion, as teeth are frequently found in the woods, without the appearance of any part of the jaw being annexed. So large is the size of those teeth, that some of them have been known to weigh a hundred and thirty pounds. One tooth which weighs a hundred pounds is worth more than three teeth which weigh a hundred and forty pounds. Those which are broken at the point are considerably less in their value. Some are white, others yellow; but the difference in colour occasions no difference in price.

Contiguous to Negroland on the north, lies Zaara, or Sahara, beyond which, in the same direction, is situated Biledulgerid. The latter is bounded on the north by the empire of Morocco; each of them, on the east, by unknown parts of Africa; and on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean. Both of them are a barren desert, and so destitute of the necessaries of life, that when the caravans pass over it, in travelling from Morocco to Negroland, the camels are half loaded with water and provisions for the journey. There are here no towns, but some inhabitants, supposed to be the descendants of those Arabs who subdued Africa soon after the death of their prophet Mahomet. They live in tents, and being acquainted with the few springs that are in the desert, wander from one part of the country to another, where they expect to meet with subsistence for themselves and their cattle. They are of a tawny, not black complexion; their language is Arabic, and their religion Mahometanism.

## M O R O C C O.

### C H A P. I.

*Of the situation — rivers — mountains — climate — chief towns.*

**T**HE empire of Morocco is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea; on the east by the kingdom of Algiers; on the south by Biledulgerid; and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean. It is situated between 2 and 11 degrees of west longitude, and between 28 and 36 degrees of north latitude; being, according to the smallest computation, five hundred miles long, and four hundred and eighty broad.

It is distinguished into three great divisions, namely that of Fez in the north, Morocco Proper in the middle, and Suz in the south.

When the Saracens made a conquest of the north of Africa in the seventh century, this was much the largest kingdom they erected, containing great part of the coast of Barbary to the eastward, and part of Spain on the opposite shore. It is now, however, restricted to the three provinces above-mentioned; the most northerly of which was the Mauritania Tingitana of the Romans, so named from the port-town of Tingis or Tangier, situate on the south-west coast of the straits of Gibraltar.

The chief rivers are, the Mulvia, Suz, Rabatta, Cebu, and Lecus. The Mulvia runs from south to north, separating the kingdom of Fez from Algiers, and discharging its waters into the Mediterranean. This is a large deep river, admitting small cruising vessels, and might be made commodious for ships of greater burthen. Its sources are said to lie eight

hundred miles from the sea, within the desert or desert, and it runs almost its whole course in the same meridian.

The river Suz, which runs from east to west, through the province of that name, discharges itself into the Atlantic Ocean, close to the port-town of Santa Cruz.

The Rabatta runs almost in the same direction with the preceding, and finishes its course at the piratical port of Sallee.

The river Cebu, at the mouth of which lies Mamora, another piratical port, with the Lecus, which discharges itself at the port of Larrache, fall likewise into the Atlantic Ocean. None of these rivers are navigable for ships, and the ports at their mouths will admit only small vessels. The most commodious bays, though unsafe in some winds, are those of Tangier and Tetuan. The Spaniards are in possession of Ceuta, opposite to Gibraltar, and of Penon de Velez east of it; but those harbours are likewise not safe.

Sallee is esteemed the best port in Morocco, and is a good harbour after a ship has entered it; but there is not more than twelve foot of water on the bar at a full tide.

The mountains of Atlas run through the country from east to west, and abutting on the western ocean, gave name to that sea. It is agreed that those celebrated mountains, which, according to the fiction of the poets, supported the heavens, come not in competition either with the Alps, or the Apennines. They consist of a number of hills of four, five, or six hundred yards perpendicular height, with an easy ascent, rising as it were in ranges one above the other;

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interspersed with a few houses, some rocky precipices, and groves of fruit and forest trees. They are now no longer enchanted, nor meet we with any of the nocturnal flames, melodious sounds, or imaginary beings attributed to them by the ancients.

Between the mountains of Atlas and the Mediterranean, the country contains extensive fruitful plains, but very little of those species of wood distinguished by the name of timber. Notwithstanding its southerly situation, it is not so hot as the Spanish valleys, on account of its being more open, and the mountains of Atlas always cool. In general the weather is temperate and serene; but in the month of March, the north-west winds are very violent.

The chief towns in the kingdom of Fez, are Fez, Mequinez, Tetuan, Tangier, Ceuta, Arzilla, Larache, Mamora, and Sallee.

Fez, the capital of the province, and of the whole empire, is situate on the river Cebu, in 6 degrees of west longitude, and 33 degrees odd minutes north latitude. It is divided by the river into two cities, one called New Fez, and the other Old Fez. The former is three miles in circumference, adorned with upwards of fifty mosques or Mahometan temples. The houses of people of condition consist of several squares, but those of tradesmen are very mean. The streets, which are narrow and unpaved, are dirty in winter and dusty in summer. Travellers lodge in caravanseras, or houses built by the public for their entertainment; but they must buy and dress their own provision. Both cities taken together are so populous, that they can raise forty thousand men at a very short warning. They are each surrounded by antique walls and towers; but not of considerable strength. Here is always a garrison consisting of a good body of horse, who are employed in collecting the corn of the adjacent country, and laying it up in magazines erected for that purpose; and upon all the little streams in the neighbourhood there are mills for grinding it. The palaces in which the king and court formerly resided are in ruins, the imperial residence having been fixed at Mequinez for many years; but Fez has still as brisk a trade as any town in the empire.

Mequinez, where the court now resides, is situate in a pleasant plain, in 5 degrees of west longitude, and 34 degrees of north latitude. The town is divided into several quarters, or rather contains several cities united. The palace is a distinct city: the quarter of the Moors is another: the Negro town a third; and the Jews have a quarter to themselves, in which not less than fifteen thousand reside, who are governed by a shick, or magistrate, according to their own laws, and are under the king's protection. They are so necessary to the state, that the kingdom could not well subsist without them, and are the only bankers in the country. The Christian slaves are also allowed an alcaide, or governor, who is of their own religion.

There is here a monastery of Spanish Friars, endowed with a revenue of five hundred pistoles a year, for the entertainment of captives, to prevent their embracing Mahometanism. They have an infirmary

capable of accommodating a hundred persons. This endowment is also favoured with the emperor's protection, on account of the presents which the guardians annually make to him, and of their taking care of his sick slaves.

Notwithstanding the advantages of this charitable institution, there are at Mequinez a number of renegades, who have renounced Christianity, and profess the religion of the country. The people of this class are the most vicious and abandoned of the whole inhabitants, and despised both by Moors and Christians. They are generally entertained in the army, where they are only half provided either with victuals or cloaths, except such as understand engineering, or can be useful to the Moors in fitting out their piratical vessels at Sallee, who never fail of being greatly esteemed. They have their own alcaide, or governor, in the same manner as the Christians and Jews.

The city of Tetuan is situated on the ascent of a rock, about eight miles from a bay of the Mediterranean Sea, near thirty miles south of Ceuta, and fifty south-east of Tangier. The town is about a mile long, and half a mile broad; the streets narrow, unpaved, and full of dunghills in winter. It is however one of the best built towns in the country. The houses usually range about a little open square, surrounded in the front with piazzas supporting galleries; and in the middle of the square people of condition have always a fountain. The town contains about thirty thousand inhabitants, of which five thousand at least are Jews, who have here seven synagogues. Those people are the only brokers between Christians and Moors; and though all the trade of the place passes through their hands, they are said to be very poor.

It is remarkable of this city, that the people walk over the flat roofs of their houses, and thence visit one another, more than by the streets. It is surrounded by an ordinary wall, and defended by an old castle, consisting of two courts. The outward square is flanked with towers, but the walls are not cannon proof, and is commanded by adjacent hills.

On a hill above the town is a burying-place, adorned with a great number of cupolas and pyramids; but what is chiefly worth notice in Tetuan, is the bashaw's palace. Here are fine apartments for the bashaw's four wives; each apartment consisting of five rooms, namely, one large room, covered with a cupola, in the center of four smaller rooms: behind which are the bagnios of the women, and the lodgings of the female slaves. Both the doors and ceilings of the apartments are very lofty. Immediately over them are four noble terrasses, overlooking the town and a fine vale beneath it, with a river, and part of the Mediterranean Sea. At the end of each terrace is a turret with lattices, where the women sit at work, and may have a view of all that passes without being observed.

Tangier is situate on a bay of the sea, near Cape Spartel, at the entrance of the straits of Gibraltar. It was the capital of the ancient Mauritanica Tingitana, and said to have been built by Antæus, who gave it the name of Tingi or Tingis, afterwards changed

changed by the emperor Claudius for that of Traudusta Julia. It was taken from the Moors by the Portuguese, and by them transferred to Charles the Second, king of Great Britain, with the princess Catherine, infant of Portugal, in 1661. The charge of keeping up the fortifications, however, and of maintaining a numerous garrison against the continual attacks of the Moors, was so great, that the works were demolished, and the garrison withdrawn in 1683. Lying on the declivity of a hill, it is very hot in the summer, and the houses being white, it makes a tolerable appearance from the sea; but is now a place of little strength, and has hardly any trade.

Arzila, and some other port-towns on the west coast, belong still to Portugal. Those are strong fortresses, such at least as the Moors with their indifferant militia cannot take; and the same may be said of the port of Ceuta, which remains in the possession of the Spaniards.

Sallee and Mamora having been already mentioned, we proceed to the city of Morocco, the capital of the province of that name. It is situate in a large plain on the river Niffis, in 9 degrees of west longitude, and 31 of north latitude. Both the city and fortifications are now in a declining state, the seat of the empire being translated to Mequinez. The houses are said to have formerly amounted to a hundred thousand, all built with flat roofs; but at present, the city contains not above a fourth part of that number. It is surrounded by a wall and some antique fortifications, too weak to defend it against a siege.

The chief town in the province of Suz is Taradant, or Tenant, situate in a spacious plain, on the river Agus, in 10 degrees of west longitude, and 30 of north latitude. It was formerly the residence of the king, but now has little in it that requires a particular description.

## C H A P. II.

*Of the inhabitants—dresses—dwellings—entertainments—manner of life—music—marriages—funerals—religion—government—forces—trade.*

THE people of Morocco consist of three classes, who differ from each other in their way of life. Those are the Moors, the Arabs, and the inhabitants of mount Atlas. The Moors that are not exposed to the weather, have generally good complexions, and the ladies for the most part fine features, as have also the natives of the mountains; but the Arabs are tawny. All the three tribes are commonly of a good stature, and well proportioned. Their usual dress is a close-bodied frock or tunic, over which they wear a hyke, or mantle, which is a woollen blanket, generally six yards long, and near two broad. This garment serves both the Arabs and Kabyles, or inhabitants of the mountains, for a complete dress in the day, and for their bed and covering in the night. Those two classes wear no drawers, which the Moors of both sexes constantly use, especially when they go abroad or receive visits. The virgins are distinguished from the matrons in having their's made of needle-work,

striped silk or linen. When the women are at home, they lay aside their hykes, and sometimes their tunicks, wearing only a shirt; and instead of drawers, bind a towel about their loins. But when they appear in public, they always fold themselves so close in their hykes, that without the addition of a veil, which they also wear, very little is to be seen of their faces. They all affect to have their hair long, which they gather into a roll upon the hinder part of the head, binding and plaicing it afterwards with ribbands, and tying over it a triangular piece of linen, wrought into a variety of figures with the needle. Persons of better fashion wear above this a farmath, which differs not much in shape from the piece of dress last mentioned, but is made of thin flexible plates of gold or silver, variously wrought, and engraved in imitation of lace; and over all, many wear a handkerchief of crape, gauze, silk, or painted linen, bound close about the farmath, from which it falls down behind. But they never reckon themselves completely dressed, till they have tinged the hair and edges of their eye-lids with the powder of lead-ore. The sooty colour, thus communicated to the eyes, is thought to add wonderful gracefulness to persons of all complexions.

Many of the Arabs go bare-headed, binding their temples with a narrow fillet, to prevent their hair from being troublesome; but the better sort, and the Moors in general, wear caps or turbans.

The Moors, the original inhabitants, live in towns, and are the most numerous: the Arabs live in tents, removing their camps, when they want fresh pasture for their cattle: and the dwelling of the Kabyles are thatched cottages, each containing but one room, in which they also house their young cattle.

People of figure among the Moors have a variety of dishes at an entertainment, mixed up with almonds, dates, milk, honey, &c. But the Arabs and Kabyles have neither utensils nor conveniences for such luxury; two or three wooden bowls; a pot and kettle, being the whole kitchen furniture of the greatest emir or prince. All ranks of those people however eat in the same manner, first washing their hands, and then seating themselves cross-legged round a mat, or low table, upon which their dishes are placed. They use no table cloth, each person contenting himself with a share of a long towel that lies round the mat. Knives and spoons are hardly ever used; as the meat being well roasted or boiled, requires no carving. The whole company dipping the fingers of their right hand into the dish, take what portion they can conveniently for a mouthful, making it first into little balls or pellets, in the palms of their hands. Whenever a person has finished his meal, he rises up and washes himself, without paying any regard to the company, and another immediately takes his place. There being no distinction of tables, the master and servant eat at the same without ceremony. When they sit down to their meals, and before they enter on any business, they always pronounce with the greatest reverence and fervency *Bismilla*, which signifies *in the name of God*; and at the conclusion, *Albandalla*, or, *God be praised*.

The Moors rise early, constantly attending their public devotions at break of day. Every person employs himself afterwards in the exercise of his trade or occupation, till ten in the morning, the usual time of dining. Having finished their meal, they return to business till afa, the afternoon prayers, at which time all work ceases for the day, and the shops are shut up. Supper commonly follows the prayers of magreb, or sun-set; and afterwards repeating the same at the setting of the watch, when it begins to be dark, they immediately go to bed.

The Arabs follow no regular trade or employment, their life being one continued round of idleness or diversion. When no pastime calls them abroad, they do nothing all the day but loiter at home, smoke their pipe, and repose themselves under some neighbouring shade. They have not the smallest relish for domestic pleasures. What they chiefly value is their horses, in which almost their whole enjoyment consists; being seldom in good humour, except when they are hunting and riding at full speed.

People who live in such a manner can have but little taste for the recreations of music, and accordingly that of the Arabs is suitable to the rude nature of their instruments. Almost the only one in use is the bladder and string, which is sometimes accompanied with another in the form of a kettle drum, that serves as a bass in their concerts. The music of the Moors, however, is more artificial and melodious. Besides several sorts of flutes and hautboys, they have a violin of two strings, and a bass double-stringed lute, bigger than our viol, with several small guitars of different sizes, each of them tuned an octave higher than another.

Every man is allowed four wives, with as many concubines as he pleases; and marriage is celebrated here in the same manner as in other Mahometan countries. Funerals likewise are solemnized in the usual mode of those nations. Women are hired to lament and howl over the corpse, who tear off their hair, and cut themselves till they bleed. After some time the corpse is carried to the burying-place, the priests singing as they go, *Laila, il lala, Mahomet reffoul Allah: God is a great God, and Mahomet his prophet*. Having set the body upright in the tomb, with the face towards Mecca, they leave it in that posture.

With respect to their burying-places, every person, according to his quality, purchases a piece of ground, a little out of town near the highway-side; enclosing it with a wall, within which they usually plant flowers, and sometimes erect a dome or spire over the graves. The women visit the tombs of their husbands and other relations every Friday, which is their sabbath; and here they perform their devotions, being never suffered to enter a mosque, nor to receive any visits from the priests. On those occasions they carry with them, as an offering, meats and fruits, which are eat by the poor when they retire.

The Mahometans of this country are of a different sect from those of Turkey. They have a mufti or high priest of their own, who resides at Mequinez; under

whom are priests in every town, who determine all causes, civil as well as ecclesiastical, and officiate in their mosques. Besides those there are saints or marabouts, that live retired in the mountains and unfrequented places, for whom the people have so great veneration, that if a criminal can make his escape to a person of this character, the officers of justice dare not seize him, and the saint frequently procures the offender's pardon. All the marabouts, however, do not live as hermits, nor use great austerities; for some of them have large possessions, and indulge themselves in every kind of pleasure. Those orders of men are held in the greatest veneration; the people esteeming it a great favour to kiss their feet, or even the hem of their garments; deluded with an opinion of pretended sanctity, which is acquired and supported by imposture.

A protestant may enjoy greater freedom under the government of Morocco than in any popish kingdom or state; for they admit universal tolerance in matters of religion, allowing even the slaves to have their own priests and chapel in the capital of the empire.

Morocco is governed by a sovereign, who has the title of emperor, and possesses unlimited power, which he often exercises in the most cruel, brutal, and capricious manner. The magistrates under him are either cadies, who are of the ecclesiastical order, or military officers; each of whom determine all causes within their respective departments. Notwithstanding the tolerance allowed in religion, the laws in other cases are extremely severe. If a renegado, after professing himself a disciple of Mahomet, returns to Christianity, he is burnt without mercy. Murder, theft, and adultery, are also punished with death. Various modes of punishment are inflicted on those who commit crimes against the state, such as impaling, dragging the person along the streets at a mule's heels till his flesh is torn off, throwing him from a high tower upon iron hooks, hanging him upon hooks till he dies, or crucifying him; in doing which the emperor, or his eunuchs, frequently act the part of executioners. What greatly adds to the horror of those dreadful scenes, is that the accused person is denied the privilege of making any defence, and is often innocently sacrificed to malevolence, or the wantonness of uncontrolled oppression.

The forces in different parts of the empire are very numerous. It is computed that the black cavalry and infantry do not amount to less than forty thousand men, and the Moorish horse and foot to as many. The blacks are esteemed the best troops, and of those most formidable are the cavalry. The people of Morocco, however, are very ignorant in the management of great guns and bombs, leaving those chiefly to the direction of renegado Christians, of whom there are some thousands in their armies. They have a train of a hundred and fifty brass guns in the palace of Mequinez, besides several mortars, which are sometimes drawn out in times of danger.

It appeared on a late enquiry, that the whole naval force of this empire consisted but of two twenty-gun ships, the largest not above two hundred ton, and a French

French brigantine they had taken, with a few row-boats. Yet with those vessels well manned, they issue out from Sallee and Mamora, and make prize of great numbers of Christian merchant ships, the crews of which they carry into captivity. Though at peace with Britain, they make no scruple of seizing and carrying her ships into Sallee, if they find a passenger on board belonging to any country with which their nation is at war. It is however their common practice to set the ships and crews at liberty, after robbing them of some merchandize. The charge of those piratical cruizers is borne entirely by private adventurers, and the emperor retains a tenth of all the prizes they make. This sovereign is also entitled to a tenth of all corn, cattle, fruits, and produce of the soil, with a duty on whatever is exported.

Having no shipping to carry on trade by sea, the Europeans bring them whatever they want from abroad; as linen and woollen cloth, iron wrought and unwrought, arms, gun-powder, lead, and the like; taking in return, copper, wax, hides, Morocco leather, wool, gums, dates, almonds, and other fruits.

Their trade on the continent is either with Arabia or Negroland. They send to Mecca caravans, consisting of several thousand camels, horses, and mules, twice every year, partly for traffic, and partly on a religious account; great numbers of pilgrims taking those opportunities of paying their devotions to their prophet. The goods they carry to the East are woollen manufactures, Morocco skins, indigo, cochineal, and ostrich feathers; and thence they bring back muslins and drugs. By their caravans to Negroland they send salt, silk, and woollen manufactures, bringing gold and ivory in return, but chiefly negroes, for recruiting the emperor's black cavalry. The caravans are exposed to great danger, not only from the Arabs who infest the deserts, but from the burning sands, which are often blown by the violent winds in so great a quantity, as to bury the travellers alive. Such, however, is the ardour inspired by the thirst of gain, and the force of superstition, that in spite of all those disasters, the caravans never fail to undertake their journey at the usual season.

## B A R B A R Y .

**BARBARY**, in the largest acceptation of the name, includes the whole southern coast of the Mediterranean from the Atlantic Ocean to Egypt; but in a more limited sense, the kingdoms of Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli.

The kingdom of Algiers is situate between 30 and 37 degrees north latitude; and between 1 degree of west, and 9 degrees of east longitude; being bounded on the west by the river Mulvia, which separates it from the empire of Morocco; on the north by the Mediterranean; on the east by the kingdom of Tunis; and on the south by mount Atlas. It is generally a mountainous country, computed to be about six hundred miles long, and four hundred broad. Amongst its rivers the principal are, the Mulvia, Saffran, Major, and Guadalbarbar, which run from south to north, and discharge themselves into the Mediterranean sea.

This kingdom is divided into three provinces, namely, Tlemfaut or Tremefan on the west, Titteric in the middle, and Constantina on the east.

The chief towns in the province of Tremefan are; 1. Tremefan, situate almost under the meridian of London, in 35 degrees of north latitude, about sixty miles south of the Mediterranean. This was formerly a rich and populous city, capital of a kingdom of the same name; but it is at present an inconsiderable town. 2. Oran, or Warran, a port-town on the coast of the Mediterranean; and, 3. Marsalquiver; the last two being under the dominion of Spain since the year 1732.

The chief town in the province of Titteric is Algiers, the capital of the kingdom, situate in 36 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and 3 degrees 30 minutes

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east longitude. It stands on the side of a hill rising gradually from the sea, near the mouth of the river Saffran; and is defended by a pier or mole, five hundred paces in length, stretching from the continent to a small island, which is fortified with a castle and large batteries of guns. The walls are three miles in circumference; the port of an oblong form, a hundred and thirty fathom long, and eighty broad, defended by several batteries of great guns. The houses are built very compact, and computed to contain a hundred thousand Mahometans, fifteen thousand Jews, and two thousand Christian slaves.

The environs of the city are beautifully diversified with country seats and gardens, whither the more opulent inhabitants retire during the summer. The villas consist of little white houses, shaded with a variety of fruit-trees and ever-greens, which afford a most delightful prospect. The gardens are well stocked with melons, fruit, and pot-herbs of all kinds; and enjoy a great command of water, from the many rivulets and fountains with which the place is supplied.

In the southern part of this province is the highest mountain in Barbary, called Jurjura, being part of the range of hills which go under the name of Atlas. It is in length about eight leagues, lying nearly in a direction from north-east to south-west, and appears to be a chain of naked rocks and precipices. By its rugged situation it secures a number of Kabyles from becoming tributary to the Algerines.

The province of Constantina is situated between the river Booberack, which separates it from Titteric on the west, and the river Zaine, which divides it from

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the kingdom of Tunis on the east. One of its chief towns is Bugia, formerly the capital of the kingdom of the same name, situate at the mouth of the river Major, about twenty leagues east of Algiers. It is a fortified town, built upon the ruins of a large city, of which a great part of the wall yet remains. Besides a castle on the hill, which commands the city, two others stand at the bottom for the security of the port; but they all were not able to defend the shipping in the river's mouth, when attacked by Sir Edward Spragg the English admiral, in 1671; for he took and destroyed nine Algerine men of war in this harbour.

Another of the chief towns is Constantina, the ancient Cirta, capital of the province. It stands on the river Rummel, upwards of ninety miles to the southward of Bugia. The greatest part of the town has been built upon a kind of peninsular promontory, inaccessible on all sides, except towards the south-west, and situated on a precipice of at least a hundred fathom perpendicular.

Barbary enjoys a wholesome temperature of air, neither too hot in summer, nor too sharp and cold in winter. The winds are generally from the sea, or from the west (by the north) to the east. Those from the east are common at Algiers from May to September, at which time the westerly winds take place, and become the most frequent. Sometimes, particularly about the equinoxes, the violence ascribed by the ancients to the Africus, or south-west wind, called by the mariners on this coast *Lalatch*, is sensibly experienced. The southerly winds, which are usually hot and boisterous, are not frequent at Algiers. In July and August, however, they sometimes blow for five or six days successively, rendering the air so extremely suffocating, that during their continuance, the inhabitants are obliged to sprinkle the floors of their houses with water.

The winds from the west, the north-west, and the north, are accompanied with fair weather in summer, and rain in the winter; but the easterly winds, as well as the southerly, are for the most part dry, though usually attended with a thick and cloudy atmosphere.

It is seldom known to rain in this climate during the summer; and in the greater part of the sahara, or desert, on the south of Algiers, particularly in the *Jereads*, they have hardly any rain at all. The first rains fall some years in September, and in others a month later; after which the Arabs break up their ground, and begin to sow wheat, and plant beans. This commonly falls out about the middle of October; but the sowing of barley, and the planting of lentils and garvancos, a species of cicer or chick-pea, is a fortnight or three weeks later, or not till the end of November.

Two bushels and a half of wheat, or barley, are judged here to be sufficient to sow as much ground as a pair of oxen will plough in one day, which is nearly equal to one of our acres. One bushel yields ordinarily from eight to twelve, though some districts afford a much greater increase; but we do not learn

that any part of Barbary affords more than one crop in the year.

In some parts of the country, where they have a command of water during the summer, the natives cultivate rice, Indian corn, and particularly a white sort of millet, which the Arabs call *drah*, and prefer it to barley for the fattening of their cattle. Oats are not cultivated by the Arabs, the horses of this country feeding altogether upon barley; neither is big, or winter-wheat, so much as known in this climate.

The Moors and Arabs continue to tread out their corn, after the primitive custom in the East. When the grain is trodden out they winnow it, by throwing it up with shovels, lodging it afterwards in mattamores or subterraneous magazines.

This country produces great numbers of palm-trees, almond-trees, apricots, plums, cherries, mulberries, apples, pears, peaches, nectarines, pomegranates, prickle-pears, olives, and walnuts; but no hazel filberts, gooseberry or currant bushes. The lemon, and sometimes the Seville orange-tree, is always in a succession of fruit and blossoms; but the China orange, which is here a foreigner, bears only towards the latter end of autumn. The grape ripens about the end of July, and is cut for the vintage in September. The wine of Algiers, before the locusts, in the years 1723 and 1724, made such vast destruction of the vineyards, was reckoned not inferior to the best *hermitage*, either in briskness of taste or flavour. But from that time it much degenerated; and we believe, has not hitherto recovered its usual qualities, though perhaps it may still dispute the superiority with the wine of Spain or Portugal.

None of the gardens here are laid out with any degree of regularity, the whole being a confused mixture of trees, with beds of cabbages, turneps, beans, garvancos, &c. nay, sometimes of wheat and barley dispersed amongst them. The soil is for the most part of such a loose and yielding nature, that an ordinary pair of oxen is sufficient to plough an acre of the stiffest sort of it in one day. The colour of it is not always the same, being in some places black, and in others inclining to red; but both kinds are equally fruitful, and impregnated with great quantities of salt and nitre.

In the salt-petre works of Tlemfan, they extract six ounces of nitre from every quintal of the common mould, which is there of a dark colour; and at Doufan, Kerwan, and some other places, they procure the like quantity from a loamy earth, and of a colour between red and yellow. The banks of several rivers, to the depth sometimes of two or three fathom, are studded in the summer with nitrous and saline particles and exudations. To this strong impregnation of salt, we may with justice attribute the great fertility for which this country has ever been held so remarkable, without any other manuring than the burning of the stubble in a few places. It is however extraordinary, that the province of Bizacium, which was formerly in so much repute for the richness of its soil, is at present the most barren and unprofitable part of those kingdoms.

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The salt-pits of Arzew are enclosed with mountains, encompassing an area of about six miles. The pits appear in winter like a lake, but are dry in summer, the water being then exhaled, and the salt left behind crystallized. In digging, several different layers of this salt are discovered, some of which are an inch, and others more in thickness. The whole area consists of a succession of similar strata; and in the same manner are the saline between Carthage and the Gulletta, those of the Shott, and of other places, either bordering upon, or lying within the Sahara.

Jebbel Had-Deffa is entirely a mountain of salt, situated near the eastern extremity of the lake of Marks. The salt here is of a different quality and appearance from that of the saline, being as hard and solid as stone, and of a reddish or purple colour. Yet what is washed down from those precipices by the dews, becomes perfectly white, and loses the bitterness it originally possessed in the rock. The salt in the mountains near Lwotiah and Jibbel Minifs, is of a bluish or grey colour, and without undergoing the like accidental purification as at Had-Deffa, is very agreeable to the palate; the former of those rock-salts being sold at Algiers for a penny an ounce.

This country abounds likewise in hot and sulphurous springs. In some of those waters are little more than luke-warm, others are of a greater heat, and very proper to bathe in, whilst the Hammam-Meskouteen, and the upper spring at Mercega are much too hot for that purpose; the former boiling a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

Besides the hot mineral effluvia that are constantly discharged by the Thermæ, there remains below the surface an inexhaustible fund of sulphur, nitre, and other inflammable bodies, which frequently prove the cause of local earthquakes in different parts of the country.

Lead and iron are the only metals that have hitherto been discovered in Barbary. The latter is white and good, but in small quantity; and the lead ore, which is very rich, might be obtained in large quantities, if the mines were under proper regulation.

Besides the horse, the mule, the ass, and camel, used in Barbary for riding and carrying burdens, there is another animal, called the kumrah, used for the same purposes. It is got betwixt an ass and a cow: it is single-hoofed like the ass, having the tail and head of a cow, but without horns, and the skin is more sleek than that of either of its parents.

The neat cattle of this country are generally very small, the fattest of them when brought from the stall, rarely weighing above five or six quintals, or hundred weight. Neither is their milk in proportion to their size; hardly any of them yielding a fourth part of the quantity afforded by an English cow. The Barbary cattle have likewise another imperfection, which is that they always lose their calves and their milk together.

The Arabs make their cheese principally of the milk of sheep and goats; and instead of rennet, they use, especially in summer, the flowers of the great-headed

thistle, or wild artichoke; putting the curds, thus made, into small baskets of rushes, or palmetta leaves, and afterwards pressing them. They have no other method of making butter, than by putting their cream into a goat-skin, which being suspended on a rope stretched from one side of the tent to the other, they move it backwards and forwards, till the separation is made.

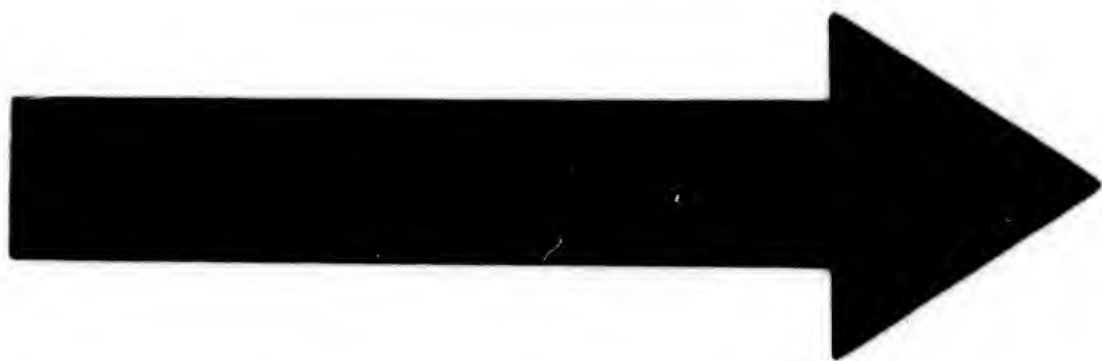
The Arabs rarely kill any of their flocks, living chiefly upon the milk and butter, with what they procure in exchange for their wool.

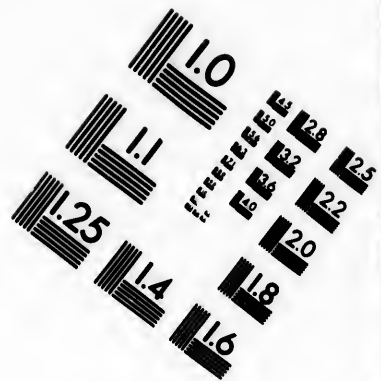
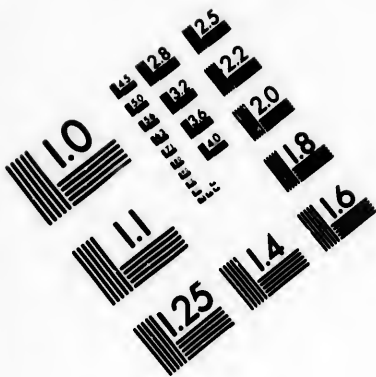
Of cattle that are not naturally tame, these kingdoms afford large herds of the neat kind, called bekker-el-wash. This species is remarkable for having a rounder body, with a flatter face, and horns bending more towards each other than in the tame kind. They are of the size of the red deer, which they likewise resemble in colour.

Besides those animals the country produces red and fallow deer, the antelope, the bear, the ape, the fox, &c. with the rabbit, hare, and wild boar, which are every where in great numbers.

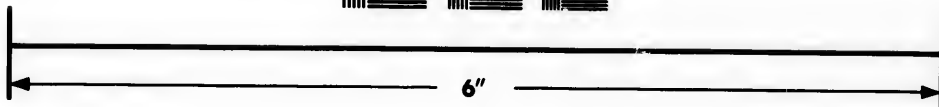
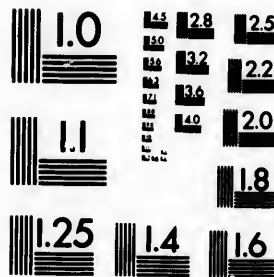
Among the wild beasts are the lion and panther, with an animal called the dubbah, about the size of the wolf, but of a flatter body, and naturally limps upon the hinder right leg. The tyger is not a native of Barbary.

As arts and sciences are now hardly known in Barbary, the people are proportionably superstitious. They hang about the children's necks the figure of an open hand, which the Turks and Moors paint upon their ships and houses, as an antidote and counter-charm to an evil eye. The number five is here reckoned extremely unlucky. Grown-up persons carry always about them some paragraph of the Koran, which, as the Jews did their phylacteries, they place upon their breast, or sew under their caps, to prevent fascination and witchcraft, and secure themselves from sickness and misfortunes. The virtue of those charms and scrolls is supposed to be so universal, that they likewise hang them upon the necks of their horses and other beasts of burthen. They repose great confidence in magicians and forcerers; and on some extraordinary occasions, particularly in a lingering distemper, they use several superstitious ceremonies in the sacrificing of a cock, a sheep, or a goat, by burying the carcass under ground, by drinking a part of the blood, or by burning or dispersing the feathers. For it is a prevailing opinion over all this country, that a great many diseases proceed from some offence given to the jennou, a sort of being placed by the Mahometans between angels and devils. Those creatures, like the fairies, are supposed to frequent shades and fountains, and to assume the bodies of toads, worms, and other little animals, which being always in our way, are liable every moment to be hurt or molested. When any person therefore is sickly or maimed, he concludes that he has injured one or other of those trans migratory spirits; on which the women who are dexterous in those ceremonies, go on a Wednesday with frankincense, and other perfumes to some neighbouring spring, and there sacrifice a hen or a cock, an ewe or a ram,





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a ram, &c. according to the sex and quality of the patient, and the nature of the distemper.

The government of Algiers resides ultimately in the Turkish soldiers, who are computed to be about seven thousand; the Moors and Arabs, though more numerous, not claiming any voice in the public affairs of the state. Offensively, however, the supreme power is lodged in the hands of a sovereign prince distinguished by the title of dey, who ascends the throne not in right of succession, but by the election of the Turks. This kingdom is not subject to the grand signior, though the dey pays some regard to him as the head of their religion. The revenues of the government arise from the tribute paid by the Moors and Arabs; a detachment of the soldiers being sent into each province annually to collect it. The prizes they take at sea sometimes equal the taxes on the natives. The dey has several thousand Moors in his service, both horse and foot; and each of his boys or viceroys, in the provinces, has a body of them under his command. The naval force of the Algerines, however, has been for some years on the decline; but a friendly intercourse with them being useful, and even necessary to those nations which trade in the Mediterranean Sea, almost every maritime power of Europe has here a consul, whose chief business is to maintain a free communication between the ships of his country and this port.

The kingdom of Tunis, the ancient Africa Proper, is situate between 6 and 11 degrees of east longitude, and between 30 and 37 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the west by the kingdom of Algiers, on the south by mount Atlas, and on the east and north by the Mediterranean; extending in length from north to south about four hundred miles, and in breadth, where largest, two hundred and fifty miles.

The chief rivers are Guadalbarbar, the western boundary; and Megarada, which runs through the middle of it; both rising in mount Atlas, and discharging themselves into the Mediterranean Sea.

One of the chief towns is Cairoan, situated on the eastern coast; said to be the first town the Saracens built, and the residence of their sultans who had the dominion of Barbary.

On the same coast, ninety miles south-east of Tunis, is situated the town of Africa, supposed to be the Adrumatum of the ancients; and twenty-five east of Tunis, stands Sufa, the ancient Ruspina.

Tunis, at present the capital of the kingdom, is situated in 10 degrees 51 minutes of east longitude, and in 36 degrees 40 minutes of north latitude, in a fine plain, near a spacious lake. It is a large populous city, and a place of some trade.

Thirty miles north of Tunis, on a peninsula formed by two bays of the Mediterranean sea, lies Carthage, or rather the place where it stood; for it is now only a mean village. Here are still some marble ruins, and several arches of the aqueduct, which conveyed water to the city from a fountain thirty miles distant.

Byferta, the ancient Utica, which was built before Carthage, is a port-town on the Mediterranean, situate in 9 degrees of east longitude, and 37 of north latitude.

The kingdom of Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the west by Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the east by Egypt, and on the south by Nubia and unknown parts of Africa. The country of Tripoli Proper has a fruitful soil; but Barca is for the most part a desert, though it formerly was a considerable territory annexed to Egypt. Here stood the ancient temple of Jupiter Ammon, and the town of Cyrene, whence sprung those philosophers distinguished by the title of the Cyrenaic sect.

The governments of Tunis and Tripoli resemble that of Algiers; only in the two former the grand signior has a bashaw, who is consulted in matters of state, and collects the tribute demanded by the Porte.

In respect to the original of those piratical states, it appears that the Moors of Spain, in being expelled that country, and transported to the coast of Barbary, took every opportunity of revenging themselves on the Spaniards, by taking their merchant ships, and plundering their towns on the coast; which, being well acquainted with the country, they greatly molested. To restrain those outrages, Ferdinand V. king of Arragon, fitted out a fleet in the year 1505; in which, Peter, count of Navarre, embarking with a body of land forces, he besieged and took the town of Oran, on the coast of Barbary, then inhabited by Moors who had been driven from Granada and Valencia. He afterwards made himself master of Bugia, and several other towns upon the same coast, with the small island which lies in the bay of Algiers; by which he obstructed the navigation of the Moorish shipping in that port, and filled the town with apprehensions of being reduced under the dominion of the Spaniards.

In this extremity, Selim, then sovereign of Algiers, having heard the same of Barbarussa, the Turkish corsair, sent to desire his assistance against the Spaniards. The pirate was cruising in the Mediterranean when he received the invitation; and being flattered with the prospect of the enterprize, dispatched eighteen galleys and thirty small barks to Algiers, marching hither by land himself, with what forces he could assemble on a sudden. The Algerines receiving advice of his approach, marched out with Selim at their head, to welcome their deliverer; and having conducted him to the town, amidst the acclamations of the people, he was lodged in the prince's palace. This general joy however proved of short duration; for the pirate, who for many years had made no scruple of seizing whatever came in his way, immediately formed a plan of obtaining the sovereignty of the place. Having found means to assassinate Selim privately, he caused himself to be proclaimed king, and massacred all those who he imagined might oppose his designs. The greater part of the natives abandoned the city, leaving the usurper in the peaceable possession of his conquest; but upon his promising them protection, and the enjoyment of their former laws and liberties, they returned and acknowledged him their sovereign. Having fortified the place, however, and secured his possession, he treated them with all the severity that might be expected from a conqueror of the most cruel disposition towards those whom he had effectually subdued.

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This revolution happened at Algiers in 1516. The son of prince Selim flying to Oran for protection, prevailed on the Spaniards the year following to fit out a strong fleet, with an army of ten thousand landmen on board, to assist him in the recovery of his dominions; promising, if he succeeded, to acknowledge the king of Spain as his sovereign. The Spanish fleet being arrived near Algiers, was dispersed or shipwrecked in a violent storm, and many of the forces that had escaped the dangers of the sea, were either cut in pieces, or made slaves by the Turks. Barbarussa, elated with this success, began to treat the Moors both in town and country with greater insolence than ever; which so far provoked the rest of the Moorish princes, that they raised a confederacy against him. Having assembled ten thousand horse, with a good body of foot, and chosen the king of Tenez their general, they immediately proceeded in order to lay siege to Algiers. Barbarussa receiving intelligence of their motions, marched out to meet them, with only a thousand Turkish musqueteers, and five hundred Moors in whom he could confide. With this force he totally routed the confederates, who being without fire-arms, were soon thrown into disorder by the musqueteers. The conqueror entering Tenez, possessed himself of the throne of one of his rivals, who fled for security to mount Atlas.

About the same time an insurrection happened in the kingdom of Tramefen, which lies to the westward; and the rebels hearing of the great success of Barbarussa, invited him to come and deliver them from the oppressions which they alleged to have suffered from their native sovereign. A message so agreeable to the ambitious Turk was received with the greatest alacrity; and sending for a reinforcement of troops, and his artillery from Algiers, he set out towards Tramefen, where by his superiority over a militia destitute of fire-arms, he soon obtained a complete victory. The king of Tramefen escaped from the field of battle, but his traitorous subjects afterwards murdered him, and sent his head to the conqueror, who entered the city of Tramefen in triumph, and was proclaimed king.

Tramefen being in the neighbourhood of Oran; he justly apprehended that the Spaniards would not long permit him to enjoy his conquests in quiet; on which account he entered into an alliance with Muley Hamet, king of Fez, the most powerful of the African princes, and who was no less an enemy to the Spanish nation than himself; not doubting but by this support he should be able to defend the extensive territories he had conquered, against all the power of the Christians. About this time, however, Charles V. coming to the possession of the crown of Spain, and being implored by the prince of Tramefen to assist him in the recovery of his father's kingdom out of the hands of Barbarussa, he sent over ten thousand men under the command of the governor of Oran, who being joined by a body of Moors and Arabs, marched towards Tramefen. Barbarussa immediately sent to the king of Fez to hasten his assistance, and marched in person, with fifteen hundred Turkish musqueteers and five hundred Moorish

horse, to watch the motions of the governor of Oran, till the succours should arrive. But being surrounded by the Spaniards, and endeavouring to break through them in the night time, he was cut in pieces with all his Turkish infantry; on which the Spanish general continuing his march to Tramefen, the young prince was restored to his throne.

The king of Fez arrived in the neighbourhood of Tramefen with an army of twenty thousand men; but hearing of the defeat of his ally, he made a precipitate retreat. The Spaniards had now a fair opportunity of making themselves masters both of Tenez and Algiers, the inhabitants of which had abandoned all thoughts of resistance; but the governor of Oran contenting himself with accomplishing the design of the expedition, sent back the forces to Spain. On this unexpected event, the Algerines proclaimed Cheredin, the brother of Barbarussa, their king; who met with no disturbance till the year 1629, when a conspiracy was formed by the Moors and Arabs, to free themselves from the Turkish yoke, and recover their ancient liberties. Cheredin conscious of his weakness to resist their united forces, especially if they should be joined by the Spaniards, whom he apprehended to be at the bottom of the design, dispatched an express to Selim, at that time the grand signior, with the view of procuring his assistance. He represented, that if the Turks should be driven from Algiers, all Africa would soon fall under the dominion of the Spaniards; and therefore urged the necessity of being supplied with a strong reinforcement of troops, promising to resign his dominions to the Porte, under whom he should be content to act in future only as bawhaw or viceroy.

The Ottoman emperor accepting Cheredin's offer, sent two thousand janisaries to his assistance; publishing a proclamation at the same time, granting to all the Turks who should resort to Algiers, the same privileges as the janisaries enjoyed at Constantinople. This resolution was no sooner known than people of desperate fortunes, and all persons whose crimes had rendered them obnoxious to the government; immediately entered themselves in the service of Cheredin Barbarussa; who with this reinforcement was soon in a condition not only to frustrate the conspiracy, but render himself absolute master of that part of Barbary. He likewise subdued the island, of which the Spaniards had possessed themselves at the mouth of the bay of Algiers; and erecting on it a fortress, he increased his piratical fleet, and so infested the coasts of Spain and Italy, that a merchant ship could not stir out of any port, without falling into the hands of his corsairs. Not content with scouring the seas, he made frequent descents upon the shore, carrying numbers of Christians into slavery; and this at the time when Charles V. then emperor of Germany and king of Spain, was in the height of his glory.

At last however Charles, incensed at the ravages committed on his subjects by those pirates, and being farther incited by pope Paul III. assembled a fleet of five hundred sail, including transports and galleys, in which he embarked with an army upwards of twenty thousand men, and sailing from Spain, arrived before

the bay of Algiers in the end of October. He had landed about two thirds of his troops, and summoned the place, which was upon the point of surrendering to him, when a sudden storm arising, great part of his fleet was shipwrecked, and all his provisions destroyed. At the same time such heavy rains fell on the shore, that his forces could no longer keep the field. Abandoning therefore the enterprise, he re-embarked his troops, one third of which had perished either by shipwreck or the sword of the enemy in his retreat. Had this expedition been undertaken more early in the season, in all probability it had succeeded, and Charles V. had added Africa to his empire, which was already extended over the best part of Europe and America.

After the death of Cheredin Barbarussa, the Ottoman princes governed the kingdom of Algiers by their bashaws till the seventeenth century. At this time the janisaries, or militia of the province, representing to the grand signior the intolerable oppression of those delegates, which could not fail, if continued any longer, of exciting the Moors to revolt, they requested the privilege of electing one of their officers, with the title of dey, to be their governor; promising not only to acknowledge the grand signior for their sovereign, but to raise supplies sufficient to maintain their forces, which would save the Porte an immense charge. The request being granted, they appointed a dey; by a succession of which elective magistrates the country has ever since been governed. In no part of the world, however, are there so frequent instances of the people's deposing and murdering their princes. Those sovereigns reign with absolute authority for a few years, months, or weeks; and sometimes a few hours put an end both to their dominion and their lives. Hardly any of them dies a natural death; affording each an example of the precarious existence of that power which is conferred by a fluctuating and capricious soldiery. At present the Algerines are entirely independent of the Ottoman court, and acknowledge the grand signior in no other capacity than as he is the head of their religion.

According to the constitution of this country, a dey ought to be elected by the Turkish militia without one dissenting voice. When the throne is vacant, the soldiery assemble at the palace, and the aga or chief officer demands who shall be their dey. Each calls out the name of the person to whom he is most attached; but when they disagree in the choice, they renew the ceremony, till they pitch upon one who is universally approved. It is not uncommon, however, for the election to be carried by violence; and in those contentions many are killed and wounded.

It may well be imagined that the janisaries, in whom the right of election resides, are sufficiently conscious of their own importance in the state. Every private soldier of this body has the title of effendi, or lord, and demands a respect from the natives not inferior to that which is usually paid to a prince. They are exempted from all taxes and duties, and seldom punished for any crimes, except those against the state. Nor is any justice to be obtained against them, where

the native Moors, Arabs, Christians, or Jews, are one of the parties concerned. All of those denominations either fly the streets, when they see a janisary coming, or stand close up to the wall in the most respectful posture, till he passes. What adds to the importance of this body, is that out of it all officers in the kingdom, whether civil or military, are chosen.

Those janisaries who are unmarried, have the greatest privileges. They are lodged in spacious houses provided at the public charge, attended by slaves, and are entitled to have their provisions one third under the market-price, exclusive of their pay, and a large allowance of bread. The married men enjoy not those advantages, but are obliged to find their own houses, and provision for their families out of their pay. One reason alledged for this distinction, is because the government is entitled to all the estate and effects of those that die, or are carried into slavery without children; but the principal is, that the married men are supposed to have more regard to the natives with whom they are connected by alliance, than the unmarried soldiers. For the same reason the sons of married janisaries are not allowed the privileges of natural Turks, or even preferred to any office under government. On account of those discouragements hardly any janisaries marry, unless the renegadoes that are admitted amongst them, who are not very numerous. They all are allowed, however, to purchase female slaves, and keep as many concubines as they please, without any restraint.

The greatest crime here next to treason, if it be not held of the same nature, is the expressing any compassion or tenderness for the natives. In several parts of the country, however, Moorish troops are employed, who assist in oppressing their fellow-subjects, and levying the tributes the dey imposes. Notwithstanding the tyranny exercised by the Turks over the Moors and Arabs, yet if any Christian power threaten an invasion, the oppressed inhabitants unite their forces with the Turks in repelling the attempt; dreading the government of Christians more than the usurpations of those of the same faith with themselves.

The Europeans trade with Tunis and Tripoli for corn, oil, wool, soap, dates, ostrich feathers, and skins of wild and tame beasts; but one of the principal branches of their commerce is slaves. The European Christians taken by their piratical ships they set very high ransoms upon, or force them to serve at sea and land in all sorts of employment and drudgery. They have also some traffic for negro slaves to the southward. Their camels they usually sell in Egypt, and their fine horses to the French. Their commerce, however, is inconsiderable in respect of their piracies, by which they are furnished with every manufacture of Europe; and for the goods thus obtained, their brokers are Jews, who are very numerous in all the towns of Barbary, and maintain a trade not only with the inland country, but with foreign nations.

The north coast of Africa was doubtless peopled from Asia, from which it is separated only by the isthmus of Suez and the Red Sea; but the Phœnicians or inhabitants of Tyre seem to have preceded all other nations

rations in sending hither colonies. The first town they built on the Barbary coast was Utica, afterwards called Dyferta; near which runs the river Bagarda or Bagradas, where we are informed that Atilius Regulus, and his whole army, attacked with warlike engines, and slew a serpent, which measured a hundred and twenty foot in length.

Carthage is supposed to have been built much later than Utica, namely, in the year of the world 3120, before the building of Rome a hundred and thirty-five years, and eight hundred and eighty-three before the birth of Christ. This celebrated city, the grand rival of Rome, is said to have been founded by Dido or Elifa, a Tyrian princess, who flying hither to avoid the rapacity of her brother Pygmalion, king of Tyre, purchased lands of the natives at this place, within three leagues of Utica, where a colony of Tyrians had already settled. At this time, it is probable, the territory of Carthage was comprehended within very narrow limits, till gradually increasing in power by the great extent of their commerce, the inhabitants stretched their dominion as far as the Atlantic Ocean.

The first war in which we find the Carthaginians engaged, was occasioned by their refusing to pay the annual tribute due to the prince of the country for the lands which they possessed. Proving unsuccessful in this contest, they were obliged to relinquish their claims, till after procuring fresh supplies and reinforcements from Tyre, they not only again asserted their independency, but enlarged their territories.

The next war of this growing republic was with the city of Cyrene, which stood between Carthage and Egypt, in that part of the country now called Barca. This war arose from a dispute about the limits of their respective territories, for determining which it was at last agreed, that two men should set out at the same hour from either city, and that the place where they happened to meet should be fixed as the boundary of the contending states. The two Carthaginians pitched upon for this service were brothers, named Phileni, who being swifter of foot than their adversaries, the Cyrenians pretended that the agreement had not been properly observed, and they would not submit to the decision, unless the two brothers would allow themselves to be buried alive in the place where the parties had met. To this proposal it is said they readily acceded; and in honour of their memory, the Carthaginians erected a pillar and two altars on the spot, on which they sacrificed to those extraordinary lovers of their country. But whatever credit may be due to an anecdote apparently improbable, and relative to a transaction so remote in antiquity, it is certain that two altars, distinguished by the name of the Phileni, were erected, and remained many years on the borders of those states. Nor was any thing more common among the ancients, than the erecting altars and sacrificing upon them at the conclusion of a treaty, or any memorable event.

The acquisitions of the Carthaginians, after this period, were not confined to the continent of Africa; they made themselves masters of Sardinia and Corsica, with the Balears, or the islands of Majorca, Minorca, and

Ivica; whence passing into Spain, they also subjected to their dominion a great part of the south coast of that country. At what precise time they stretched their conquests to Sicily, historians have not informed; but from a treaty between them and the Romans, made immediately after the institution of the consulship, it appears that they were then in possession of part of this island, as well as of Africa and Sardinia. By the same treaty, the Romans agreed not to sail farther westward than the Fair Promontory near Carthage.

About two hundred and sixty-four years after the building of Rome, and four hundred and eighty-four years before Christ, the Carthaginians entered into an alliance against Greece with Xerxes king of Persia; and while the latter marched with a prodigious army to attack the Greeks upon the continent, the former transported a large body of troops into Sicily, in expectation of reducing under their dominion the remaining Grecian cities in that island. Those forces however were defeated in a battle, which happened on the same day with the memorable engagement at Thermopylæ. In the three hundred and thirty-sixth year of Rome, they renewed their attempt on the Grecian cities in Sicily with greater success, and were upon the point of taking Syracuse, the capital of the island, when the plague broke out in their army, and destroyed the greatest part of them, while the remainder was cut in pieces by the Syracusians. The news of this disaster occasioned an insurrection in Africa, where two hundred thousand of the malecontents laid siege to Carthage; but being destitute of provisions, and disagreeing about the command, they soon dispersed.

In the year four hundred after the foundation of Rome, a treaty was concluded between the Romans and Carthaginians, for their mutual defence; about which time the latter made another attempt to reduce the Grecian cities in Sicily, but were again defeated by Timoleon, who had come to the assistance of the islanders with a body of Corinthians. Agathocles, the Syracusan general, afterwards carried the war into Africa, and in confederacy with some princes of the country, laying siege to Carthage, threatened the subversion of that state. While the Carthaginians were in this distress, an ambassador arrived from Tyre, soliciting a reinforcement of troops against Alexander the Great; but they could not manifest their attachment to their mother-city in any other manner, than by receiving the women and children from Tyre, and affording them a refuge in their country. Mean while the Carthaginians looked on the calamities that befell them as occasioned by the wrath of heaven, for some omissions in their worship, particularly in having substituted the children of slaves and poor people, in the room of a certain number of those of the best families, which their superstition required should be sacrificed annually to Saturn; when to avert the anger of that god, they sacrificed two hundred children of the first rank. Besides those who suffered in this horrible carnage, we are informed three hundred persons voluntarily made offer of their lives, to atone for the criminal neglect. Notwithstanding those oblations,

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the affairs of the Carthaginians became still more desperate. While their enemies pressed them without, Bomilcar, their general, fomented an insurrection in the city, with the view of raising himself to the sovereign power; but being deserted by his party, he suffered a cruel and ignominious death.

The suppression of this rebellion was soon followed by the raising of the siege, in consequence of a misunderstanding between Agathocles and his allies; after which the Carthaginians recovered all the places they had lost, and again established their empire over the African princes.

Sicily, as well as Italy, being threatened with an invasion by Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, the Carthaginians renewed their confederacy with the Romans, for the preservation of their territories in that island. Pyrrhus, notwithstanding this alliance, made a descent with his forces in Sicily, and reduced all the towns belonging to the Carthaginians, except Lilybæum; but this place making a vigorous defence, and the Romans gaining some advantages over his forces in Italy, he was forced to return thither, after abandoning all his conquests in the island.

The alliance between the Carthaginians and the Romans, which had been renewed, subsisted only a short time after this epoch. It is not improbable that the latter, now become the uncontrolled sovereigns of Italy, began to think of enlarging their empire by foreign conquests; and that they had for some years cast their eyes on the fruitful island of Sicily, separated from the continent by a narrow strait. A favourable opportunity fixed their attention on this object. Some Sicilian rebels seizing on the important city of Messina, and offering to deliver it up to the Romans, they accepted the proposal, and immediately sent over a reinforcement of troops to support the insurrection. This incident occasioned the war between the Romans and Carthaginians, usually called the first Punic war, which began four hundred and eighty-eight years after the building of Rome. To this war succeeded two others, the most furious and obstinate that are recorded in history, and in the course of which it was long doubtful whether Rome or Carthage would reign the mistress of the world; till at last, the forces of the latter were totally vanquished, and the city destroyed, in the six hundred and ninth year after the building of Rome, and before the Christian æra a hundred and forty-six years.

According to the description of Carthage by ancient writers, it was situated on three hills in a peninsula, almost surrounded by the sea. It measured in circumference twenty-two miles, and contained two harbours within its works; one for men of war, and the other for merchant vessels. On the isthmus stood the citadel, called Byrsa, defended by a triple wall, and towers at proper distances. The walls were two stories high, built upon arches. In the lower arches, were kept three hundred elephants, with their provisions and warlike accoutrements; and in the upper arches were store houses and stables for four thousand horse, and barracks for twenty thousand foot. When the Romans invested the city, it contained seven hundred

thousand souls; and there was found in it four hundred and seventy thousand pound weight of silver, besides what was plundered by the private soldiers, and buried in the ruins.

The character of the Carthaginians is said to have been strongly tinged with craft, covetousness, and treachery; insomuch that Punic Faith became a proverbial phrase at Rome. It must however be acknowledged, that they had a great genius for navigation and foreign commerce; and the bravery, as well as military skill, which they displayed in the several wars with the Romans, afford evident proof that their capacity was not confined to the arts of peaceful industry alone.

The religion of the Carthaginians appears to have been the same with that of the Canaanites or Phœnicians, from whom they descended. That they worshipped a multitude of deities is obvious from the preamble of a treaty concluded between them and Philip of Macedon, reciting that the compact was made in the presence of Jupiter, Juno, and Apollo; in the presence of the demon or genius of Carthage; in the presence of Hercules, Mars, and Neptune, and all the confederate gods of Carthage; in the presence of the sun, moon, earth, rivers, meadows, &c. The gods which they chiefly invoked, however, were the moon (called Cœlestis, and sometimes Urania) and Saturn, named Moloch in sacred history. To the latter they sacrificed their children, sometimes burning them in a brazen statue of Saturn, heated for that purpose; sounding at the same time drums and trumpets, that the cries of the victims might not be heard. It was considered as a meritorious piece of heroism in their mothers to assist at those sacrifices with dry eyes, and without the least symptom of regret, the offering not being thought acceptable to Saturn, if made with any reluctance. But as the most violent superstition could not perfectly reconcile their minds to the horror of those unnatural rites, they were usually contented with making their children pass through the fire; in which their miserable offspring frequently perished. In great calamities, however, they actually burnt them, choosing for this purpose the most beautiful and noblest youths of the nation; and on those occasions, they have sacrificed children to their deity from morning till night.

The civil constitution of Carthage is now but imperfectly known. The chief magistrates in the commonwealth were the two suffles, said to resemble the Roman consuls, and sometimes styled kings. They were elected annually, but by whom is uncertain. They not only assembled the senate, and presided in it, but had sometimes the supreme command in military as well as civil affairs. At the expiration of their office, they became pretors of course, retaining henceforth the privilege of proposing new laws, and of calling both the judges and the officers of the revenue to an account. The senate consisted of men of the first quality; but whether they held their seats by election or inheritance, or what their number was, it does not appear any farther than that several hundreds enjoyed this dignity. The senate was the last resort in all appeals. Here laws were framed, ambassadors had their audience, and

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*Morning Habit of a Grecian Lady.*



*This Lady's Habit is almost Turkish; the principal difference being in the Size of the Turban: Those of the Grecian Ladies are considerably larger & consequently less graceful.*

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and resolutions were taken either in respect of peace or war. When the senate could not agree, the matter was brought before the people, or rather their representatives; but by whom the latter were elected, we are not informed.

There was also another body of the state, called the tribunal of one hundred, though it consisted of a hundred and four persons, elected out of the senate. The members of this court were empowered to call their generals to account, whose authority had long been unlimited. Out of the complete number, five formed a kind of secret committee, who acted very arbitrarily; and those had likewise the power to fill up all vacancies that happened in the tribunal.

After the destruction of Carthage, Africa was divided into several provinces by the Romans, who maintained their acquisition till the fifth century, when the Vandals made themselves masters of all the northern parts of this continent, which remained under their dominion upwards of a hundred years. But in the reign of Justinian III. about the year 534, his general Belisarius having defeated the Vandals in several battles, reunited Africa to the Roman empire. It continued subject to the emperors of Constantinople till the year 647, when Osman, the third caliph of the Saracens, made an entire conquest of the coast of Barbary. The country was afterwards divided into many petty kingdoms and principalities, where the Christian religion, which had flourished before the invasion of the Vandals, was totally abolished, and that of Mahomet established in its room. The Turks afterwards subduing the Saracens, erected the four governments of Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, which exist according to the constitutions that have been described.

Among the most celebrated men whom Africa has produced, are Tertullian, Cyprian, Julius Africanus, Arnobius, Lactantius, Victor Uticensis, and St. Austin,

all bishops of the church. The warriors of greatest fame, were Amilcar, and his three sons, Hannibal, Asdrubal, and Mago; and Terence and Apuleius the only poets whose names have descended to posterity with undisputed applause.

Besides the settlements already mentioned, several others on the coast of Africa are possessed by European powers. The Portuguese hold Cape Palmerino, Cape Lelido, Lebolo, Benguelas or Fort St. Philip. The Dutch have Tortuga, Angra de Negroes, Fort d'Elmina, and ten or twelve more, farther north. The English have a fort at Cape Coast, in 5 degrees of north latitude, and another at Anamaboe, at no great distance from the former; besides Tantumquerry, Winnebah, Accra, Prampram, and Whidah; all which are under the direction of the African Committee. The British government also has Senegal, situated at the mouth of a cognominal river in Negroland, supposed to be the north branch of the Niger, in 16 degrees of north latitude. Here the French built Fort Louis, at the mouth of the river, in 1692. The English took it from them, but it was retaken by the French the same year; and they built Fort St. Joseph, three hundred leagues up the river, on which they erected many other settlements; all which capitulated to Great Britain in 1758, and the possession of them was confirmed by the treaty of peace in 1763. The French hold the small island of Gorée, near Cape Verd, in 14 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude, about a league from the main land. It has a good bay, and is strongly fortified. This place was occupied by the Dutch in 1617; who built upon it Fort Nallau, which was taken by the French in 1677. It remained in the possession of that crown, till 1758, when it was taken by a British squadron; but restored to France by the treaty of Paris.

## OF THE PRINCIPAL ISLANDS ON THE COAST OF AFRICA.

**BEGINNING** our circuit on the south-east coast of this continent, the most considerable island which we meet with is that of Madagascar, or Laurence, situate between 43 and 51 degrees of east longitude, and between 12 and 26 degrees of south latitude. This island is about eight hundred miles in length from north to south, and generally between two and three hundred broad. It is diversified with hills, valleys, and woods, and is well watered with springs and rivers. It abounds in corn, cattle, fish, fowl, and all sorts of animals and vegetables that are found on the continent of Africa. The country is divided amongst a great many petty sovereigns; who making war on each other, sell their prisoners for slaves to the shipping which call here; taking cloaths, utensils, and other necessaries in return. This island was discovered by the Portuguese in 1492; but, though it wants not good harbours, no European nation has hitherto planted any colonies here, it producing no merchandize that will

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bear the expence of so long a voyage, except negroes. Besides those, however, there are other inhabitants on the coast, of a tawny complexion, who seem to be descended from the Arabs, as their language and religious rites have a mixture of Mahometanism, Judaism, and Paganism; but they have no mosques or temples, nor any stated worship. European pirates frequently have their stations in the harbours of this island, and were so powerful towards the end of the last century, that five English men of war were sent thither to suppress them.

The Comorro Islands, the number of which is five, lie between the coast of Zanguebar and the north end of Madagascar. That which is the most frequented by Europeans is the island of Johanna, where ships touch for refreshments in their passage to Bombay, and the Malabar Coast. It is about thirty miles long, and fifteen broad, and produces great plenty of black cattle, goats, fowls, rice, potatoes, yams, honey,

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wax, bananas, tamarinds, lemons, oranges, pine-apples, and other fruits. The inhabitants are negroes, and profess the Mahometan religion. They are a plain, hospitable, inoffensive people, little covetous of wealth, and have hardly any idea of war. The women, as in other parts of Africa, cultivate the ground, and perform all laborious works, while the men indulge themselves in ease. The island contains only two small towns, which are built with stone and timber; the other houses being mean cottages scattered over the country. Amongst the superstitious notions of this people, they entertain strange apprehensions of mischief from the devil, whom they burn in effigy once a year. They also avoid, for a considerable time, the place where any person has happened to die; either from a dread of departed spirits, or because they consider the place as polluted. They seem to live under a monarchical form of government, in which women are not excluded from the sovereignty, but so far are the royal personages from assuming any state, that they converse with their subjects in the most familiar manner.

The other islands of Comorro resemble the preceding so nearly in every circumstance, that it is unnecessary to give any account of them.

Maurice, or Mauritius Island is situate in the Indian Ocean, in 56 degrees of east longitude, and 26 of south latitude. It is of an oval form, about thirty-seven miles in circumference, and abounds in woods of various kinds, particularly ebony. This island was discovered by the Portuguese, and afterwards possessed by the Dutch, who found it destitute of inhabitants, and consequently uncultivated, without any other useful animals but deer and goats. They stocked it, however, with cattle and poultry, and introduced almost all the plants of Asia and Europe. Rice, sugar-canes, and tobacco, are also raised here, but in no great quantities; nor does the soil seem favourable for the production either of corn or wine.

The island of Bourbon is situated in 20 degrees south latitude, about forty leagues south-west of Mauritius. It is thirty leagues in circumference, finely diversified not only with hills and valleys, but with wood and water. The soil is generally fruitful, except in one part of the island, which has been burnt up, and rendered barren by a volcano. The Portuguese discovered it in 1545, and stocked it with hogs and goats, as if they had intended to make a settlement, but afterwards relinquished the design. Captain Castleton, an English commander, touched here in the year 1613, and was so much pleased with the beauty of the island, that he gave it the name of the English Forest; but our East India Company did not consider it as an object worthy their regard. The French took possession of it in 1654, and gave it the name of Bourbon; but the few persons they left upon it afterwards came away in an English ship. The French, however, still claim the property, though they visit the island for no other purpose, than that of supplying their vessels, on their voyage to India, with such provisions as it affords.

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St. Helena is situate in 6 degrees 3 minutes of west longitude, and in 16 degrees of south latitude; lying in the Atlantic Ocean, about three hundred and fifty leagues west of the coast of Africa. It consists of a congeries of rocks, near twenty miles in circumference, and to the windward utterly inaccessible. The natural soil is red, friable, and resembles ashes; from which circumstances, and the existence of sulphur in many of the cliffs, some have conjectured that it has once been the seat of a volcano. The soil is generally thin; but in some of the valleys it is now become near two foot deep, and very fertile. The inhabitants have not hitherto been able to raise wheat, though of late years they have cultivated barley with success. Their gardens produce yams, plantains, bananas, water-melons, French beans, and several kinds of wholesome herbs. The fruits of the island are oranges, lemons, apricots, peaches, pomegranates, and apples. Vines have also been introduced, that yield excellent grapes, but which have not yet been treated successfully in any of the attempts to make wine. Here is a good stock of black cattle, sheep, goats, and hogs, with a breed of spirited little horses, admirably suited to the rugged roads. There is also plenty of domestic fowl, such as turkeys, geese, ducks, &c. with pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, and a number of sea birds. The chief support of the natives, however, is derived from the fish, which are excellent and of various kinds. Here are no beasts or birds of prey, nor any venomous creatures; but the island is exceedingly infested with rats and mice. One of the principal advantages of St. Helena is, that it abounds in excellent water streaming from the rocks, and conveyed in rivulets through every part of the island. After heavy rains, indeed, the water is apt to be a little brackish, occasioned by the salt incrufted on the rocks; but by collecting the water in cisterns when the weather is mildest, this inconvenience is avoided.

The English East India Company settled this island in the last century, for the convenience of affording refreshments to their ships, especially those that are homeward-bound. The most commodious landing-place is in Chapel or James's Valley, where is a little town, consisting of between fifty and sixty houses, which with a small church, and a dwelling for the governor, were built: at the Company's expence with materials sent from England about four and twenty years ago. Most of the houses are used as places of public entertainment when the shipping arrive. In the other parts of the island the houses are generally situated in little valleys between the cliffs; and the number of families is computed to be about a hundred and fifty. All the landing-places are secured by batteries of heavy cannon, and in James's Valley is a strong fort, usually garrisoned by about three hundred men.

Ascension Island is situate in 8 degrees of south latitude, two hundred leagues north-west of St. Helena, and is about ten leagues in circumference. It is almost entirely destitute of vegetable produce; but the European vessels usually call here in their way from

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+ The 18<sup>th</sup> of October 1815, there was landed  
on the Island a most venomous and furious Beast,  
but too well known by the name of Napoleon.

India, to refresh themſelves with turtle, which they find on the ſhore in great plenty.

The Iſland of St. Matthew is ſituate in 2 degrees of ſouth latitude, a hundred leagues north-eaſt of Aſcenſion, and is about eight leagues in circumference. This iſland was diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who occupied it for ſome time; but afterwards withdrawing their colony, the place has ever ſince been uninhabited; and contains nothing that can invite navigators, except a ſmall lake of freſh water.

Annobon is likewiſe ſituate in 2 degrees of ſouth latitude, two hundred miles weſtward of Congo, and is nearly ten leagues in circumference. It is generally mountainous, and abounds in cattle, hogs, poultry, oranges, cocoa-nuts, and other tropical fruits, with Indian corn and rice. Moſt of the inhabitants are negroes, who either have been imported, or are the deſcendants of others formerly brought from the continent of Africa. The Portugueſe diſcovered this iſland in 1571, and have ſince continued to poſſeſs it. There is a convenient road for ſhips on the lee-ſide of the iſland.

The Iſland of St. Thomas is ſituate under the equator, in 8 degrees of eaſt longitude. It is of a round figure, about forty leagues in circumference, and was diſcovered by the Portugueſe in the ſame year with the preceding. It is well ſupplied with wood and water, and in the middle is a high mountain, the top of which is almoſt conſtantly covered with clouds. The heat and moiſture of the air render it extremely unhealthful to northern conſtitutions; but the Portugueſe, with the negroes and mulattoes, who inhabit it, are ſaid to live to a great age. Here is plenty of corn, rice, and fruits, with a good deal of ſugar-cane; and the Portugueſe have alſo introduced the cinnamon-tree. The chief town on the iſland is called St. Thomas, containing five or ſix hundred houſes, and is the ſee of a biſhop.

Princes Iſland is ſituate in 2 degrees of north latitude, about forty leagues north-eaſt of St. Thomas, and as much to the weſtward of the continent of Africa. It abounds rice, Indian corn, fruits, roots, and herbs. Cattle, hogs, and goats, are alſo in great plenty; but the chief commodity is ſugar-canes.

The Iſland of Fernando Po is ſituate 3 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude, ten leagues to the weſtward of the continent. It is about thirty miles long and twenty broad; inhabited by the ſame ſort of people, and producing the ſame commodities with the two iſlands laſt mentioned. The Dutch finding them conveniently ſituated for trade, and affording plenty of proviſions, twice attempted to drive the Portugueſe from St. Thomas, and at laſt ſucceeded in the enterprize. But almoſt all their men dying, they abandoned their conqueſt, and the Portugueſe have ſince remained in the peaceable poſſeſſion of thoſe iſlands; at one or other of which they uſually call for reſreſhments in their voyages to and from India, and in their paſſage from Brazil to Africa.

The Cape Verd Iſlands are ſituate between 23 and 27 degrees of weſt longitude, and between 13 and 19

degrees of north latitude. The number of them is ten, lying about four hundred miles weſt of Cape Verd in Africa, and ſubject to Portugal.

The Canary Iſlands, conſiſting of ſeven, are ſituate between 12 and 21 degrees of weſt longitude, and between 27 and 29 degrees of north latitude, in the Atlantic Ocean; the moſt eaſterly of them being about a hundred and fifty miles from Cape Non, on the coaſt of Biledulgerid. They were formerly called the Fortunate Iſlands, not only on account of the fertility of the ſoil, but the temperature of the air, which, notwithstanding the natural warmth of the climate, is conſtantly reſreſhed by cool breezes from the ſea. They had been diſcovered by the Carthaginians, but were afterwards unknown for many ages, till again diſcovered by the Spaniards, in 1405.

Ferro, the moſt weſterly, is about ſeven leagues in circumference. This iſland is generally mountainous; but there are ſeveral valleys abounding in paſture, corn, a variety of fruits, and ſugar-canes. It is however deſtitute both of ſprings and rivers, and the inhabitants are obliged either to bring their freſh water from the neighbouring iſlands, or preſerve it in ciſterns at the time of the rains. After the diſcovery of this iſland, it was made the firſt meridian by moſt nations, till they choſe to begin their computation from their reſpective capitals.

Palma is nearly of the ſame extent as Ferro, from which it is diſtant between thirty and forty miles north, and affords the excellent kind of wine uſually called Palm ſack.

Gomera, which is ſituated about thirty miles eaſt of Ferro, abounds in corn and fruit, but has not much wine.

Sixty miles eaſt of Ferro, lies Teneriff, computed to be in circumference a hundred and twenty miles. This iſland likewiſe abounds in corn, wine, and fruit; but ſome parts of it are rocky and mountainous. The Peak of Teneriff is eſteemed one of the higheſt mountains in the world. It is about two miles perpendicular height; riſing in the form of a ſugar-loaf, and may be ſeen at ſea more than a hundred miles diſtance. Some Engliſh gentlemen who had the curioſity to viſit this amazing mountain, inform us, that having ſet out from Oratavia, one of the principal towns in the iſland, they paſſed over ſeveral rugged hills and ſandy plains in their way to the foot of the Peak; where they found huge maſſes of rock, that ſeem to have tumbled down from the ſummit. When they had aſcended the mountain about a mile, they were obliged to quit their horſes, and climb up the hill on foot; and having traſverſed a ſteep black rock about a mile, they reached the top of it, which was perfectly flat. The air here was ſo cold, that they found it neceſſary to keep great fires all night. Next morning they proceeded to that part of the mountain called the Sugar-Loaf, which is exceeding ſteep; and the ſoil being a deep ſand, it was difficult to paſs over. On reaching near the top of the Peak, the wind was very high, and their faces were ſcorched by the conſtant breathing of a hot ſulphurous vapour which iſſued from the hill. The top of the Peak

was occupied by a large basin, or crater, above a musket-shot over, and four yards deep; the brim, on which they stood, being not above a yard broad. In this cavity were small loose stones, mixed with sulphur and sand, which sent out a hot suffocating steam. About two thirds of the way up the mountain there was a great deal of snow and ice, but none on the top; which they ascribed to the heat that issued from the crater. From the top to the foot of the mountain, they found neither shrubs nor trees, except a few pines. There is reason to conclude that this mountain has once been a volcano. For three or four miles round the bottom, the ground is almost covered with calcined rocks; and from the Peak to the south-west, almost as far as the shore, are seen the tracks of the lava, or the brimstone and melted ore that ran that way. Some of the calcined rocks resemble iron-ore; and towards the south-west are high mountains of a bluish earth, with stones which are covered with a yellow rust. There are also several streams of water, evidently impregnated with vitriol. In 1704, there happened in this island an eruption of some volcanos, accompanied with a most terrible earthquake, by which whole towns were swallowed up, and many thousands of the inhabitants perished.

The principal town of this island is St. Christopher's, the seat of the viceroy. It stands partly on the side of a hill, partly on a plain, and has two parish churches, with several convents, hospitals, and chapels. The houses of people of condition have large gardens and orchards of palms, citrons, and other fruits; and the adjacent country abounds with vineyards.

The island called the Grand Canary, or Canary Proper, lies about thirteen or fourteen leagues south-east of Teneriff, in 15 degrees 50 minutes of west longitude, and between 27 and 28 degrees of north latitude. It is about fifty leagues in circumference, and is a more level and fruitful country than the preceding. The chief town, called Palma, and by some Canaria, is situated in the north part of the island, at a little distance from the sea. It is a large, clean, pleasant town, and enjoys a serene, temperate air; being likewise the residence of the governor, and the see of a bishop. Here is a beautiful cathedral, richly adorned, besides several other churches and convents. The country abounds in corn, wine, fruits, cattle, game, fish, fowl, and fine pastures. The fields also afford a great variety of flowers, and the groves echo with the music of those birds, called from this island the Canary birds.

Fortaventura, or the Island of Good Fortune, is situated between the Grand Canary and the continent of Africa; and is sixty-five miles in length, but of a very irregular breadth. This island affords little or no wine, but abounds in corn, fruits, cattle, fish, and fowl; and chiefly in goats, which is the principal food of the inhabitants.

Lenceroa lies a little to the northward of Fortaventura, to which it is similar in respect of its produce, but much inferior in size.

On the discovery of those islands, about the year 1405, the king of Castile granted the property of three of them to John de Betancour, a French gentleman in his service, who resided there during the remainder of his life, as sovereign of the Canaries. But the posterity of Betancour resigning them to the crown of Castile, all the Canary Islands have since continued in the possession of the Spaniards. The rich wines in which they abound are the principal article of exportation; and of those, it is computed, ten thousand hogheads are annually sent to Britain in time of peace.

About a hundred leagues west of Morocco, in the Atlantic Ocean, lie the Madeiras, consisting of several small islands, the chief of which is Madeira Proper, situate in 18 degrees of west longitude; and between 32 and 33 degrees of north latitude. This island, which has the appearance of having been produced by subterraneous fire, in some remote period, is about a hundred and twenty miles in circumference, and nearly of a triangular shape. It is said to have been discovered by an English gentleman in 1344, and conquered by the Portuguese in 1432. The woods being burnt down, and the soil made fruitful by the ashes, it was afterwards planted with vines, which hitherto continue to be the chief produce of the island.

The country is agreeably diversified with little hills and valleys, which are watered by many small rivulets. The chief town is Funchal, situated on a bay of the sea on the south-east part of the island. It is the residence of a bishop, and has a cathedral, with three parish-churches, besides several chapels and convents in the city, which is the residence of the governor. This island produces incredible quantities of wine, which has the peculiar good quality; that it keeps best in the warmest weather, and the hottest climates, where other wines turn sour. The adjacent islands are small, and produce little wine; but are subject, as well as the principal one, to the crown of Portugal.

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## E U R O P E.

**Q**UITTING Africa, we pass over into Europe, another of the four great divisions of the terraqueous globe; a quarter distinguished not only by the temperature of its climates in general, but by the civilised state of the inhabitants, whose progress in the cultivation of the arts and sciences is unexampled in the history of mankind. Europe is bounded on the south by the Mediterranean Sea; on the west by the Atlantic Ocean; on the north by the Frozen Ocean, part of the Atlantic; and on the East by Asia, from which it is separated by the Archipelago, or Egean Sea; the Strait of the Hellespont, or Dardanelles; the Propontis, or Sea of Marmora; the Euxine, or Black Sea; the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Afoph; the river Don or Tanais, and a line

drawn thence to the river Tobol, that joins the rivers Irtis and Oby, the united streams of which fall into the Frozen Ocean, between Europe and Asiatic Turkey. The continent of this quarter is situate between 10 degrees of west, and 65 degrees of east longitude; and between 36 and 72 degrees of north latitude; being three thousand miles in length, and two thousand five hundred in breadth. It contains the following countries, viz. Turkey in Europe, the dominions of Hungary and Bohemia, Germany, Poland, Russia, Sweden, Denmark and Norway, the Netherlands, France, Switzerland, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Great Britain, and other islands. We begin with Turkey in Europe.

## T U R K Y I N E U R O P E.

## C H A P. I.

*Of the situation—mountains—rivers—Crim Tartary—Little Tartary—Budziac Tartary—persons, dress, manner of life, and government of the Tartars.*

**T**URKY in Europe is situate between 17 and 40 degrees of east longitude, and between 34 and 49 degrees of north latitude, being about a thousand miles in length, and nine hundred in breadth. It is bounded on the north by Russia, Poland, and Sclavonia; on the east by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellespont, and Archipelago; on the south by the Mediterranean; and on the west by the same sea, and the Venetian and Austrian territories. It includes the provinces of Romania, Bulgaria, Servia, Bosnia, Ragusa, Wallachia, Moldavia, Bessarabia, Budziac and Oczakow Tartary, Crim and Little Tartary, Albania, Epirus, Macedonia, Thessaly, and all the ancient Greece, with its numerous islands in the Archipelago.

The chief mountains are, 1. The Iron-gate mountains, which in part divide the Turkish provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia from Transilvania. 2. The mountains of Rhodope or Argentum, anciently sacred to Mars, because reputed to be the place of his nativity. They run almost from the Gulph of Venice

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to the Euxine Sea, dividing Romania from Servia. 3. Mount Athos, now called Monte Santo, a promontory abutting on the Archipelago, or Egean Sea, so high that, according to Thucydides and Virgil, it throws its shadow into the island of Lemnos, forty-five miles to the east of it. 4. Chimera, a mountain in Albania. 5. The celebrated Parnassus and Helicon in Achaia, now Livadia: Pelion and Ossa in Attica.

The principal rivers are, 1. The Nieper, or Boristhenes, which rises in the middle of Muscovy, runs west by Smolensko, then running south through Poland, passes by Mohilow, beyond which it enters the Russian Ukrain, passing by Kiof and Circassia, and continues its course south-east, separating Little Tartary from Budziac Tartary, and falling into the Black Sea, near Oczakow. On this river the old Cossacs inhabit, who frequently cross the Black Sea, and plunder the maritime places on the coast of Turkey: 2. Bog, a river of Poland, which runs south-east through the province of Podolia and Budziac Tartary, falling into the Euxine Sea, between Oczakow and the mouth of the Nieper. 3. Niefter, which rises near Lemburg in Poland, and running south-east, divides Podolia in Poland from Moldavia in Turkey; and afterwards separating Bessarabia from Budziac Tartary, falls into the Black Sea near Belgorod. 4. Pruth, a river that has its source in the province

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of



of Red Russia in Poland, and running south-east through Moldavia, discharges itself into the Danube.

5. Danube. This river, which is one of the finest in Europe, rises in the Black Forest in the province of Suabia, in the south-west of Germany: running north-east through Suabia, it visits Ulm, the capital; whence directing its course eastward, it runs through Bavaria and Austria, passing by Ratibon, Passau, Enz, and Vienna; then entering Hungary, it runs south-east from Presburg to Buda, and thence to Belgrade; after which it divides Bulgaria from Walachia and Moldavia, and discharges itself by several channels into the Black Sea, through the province of Bessarabia. It is so deep between Buda and Belgrade, that the neighbouring powers frequently have fleets of men of war upon it; but below the latter, the cataracts render it unnavigable to the Black Sea; and it is also obstructed by several cataracts above Buda.

6. Save, a river which rising in Carinthia, runs eastward through Carniola and Croatia, and continuing its course south-east, forms the boundary between Slavonia and Turkey, discharging itself into the Danube at Belgrade.

7. Aluta, which rising in the province of Transylvania, runs south, and forms part of the boundary between Christendom and Turkey; after which, continuing its course in the same direction through Walachia, it discharges itself into the Danube, almost opposite to Nicopolis.

8. Unna, a river of Bosnia, which running from south to north through that province, and afterwards rolling eastward between Croatia and Bosnia, falls into the Save, and forms likewise part of the boundary between Christendom and Turkey.

9. Drino, which running through Albania, falls into the Gulph of Venice.

10. Morava, a river that rising in the mountain of Rhodope or Argentum, runs north through Servia, by Nissa, and falls into the Danube at Semendria, to the eastward of Belgrade.

11. Mariza, which emerging in Bulgaria, runs south, passing by Adrianople, and falls into the Archipelago near the Dardanelles.

Crim Tartary, the ancient Taurica Chersonesus, is a peninsula lying on the north part of the Black Sea, by which it is bounded on every side, except where a narrow isthmus joins it to the continent on the north. It is situate between 33 and 37 degrees of east longitude, and between 44 and 46 degrees of north latitude.

The chief towns of this province are Bachasraï, the capital, and Kassa; the latter of which is situated in the north-east part of the peninsula, in 37 degrees of east longitude, and 44 degrees 55 minutes north latitude. It has a brisk foreign trade, and is the best built town in the country, having been many years subject to the Genoese. The Christian churches are mostly converted into mosques, or sold by the Turks to the Greek and Armenian Christians. This town gives name to the straits which lead to the Palus Mæotis.

Little Tartary is situated north of Crim Tartary, between 34 and 40 degrees of east longitude, and between 46 and 48 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by Russia, on the east by the

Palus Mæotis and the river Don, on the south by the Black Sea, and on the west by the river Nieper or Boristhenes.

The town of Precop, called by the natives Hor Capi, stands on the isthmus which unites Crim to Little Tartary. It is a wretched poor place, consisting of Tartar huts. The natives have here cast up an entrenchment across the isthmus, to defend them against the Russians; but notwithstanding this obstacle, the Russians, in the years 1738 and 1739, made two hostile irruptions into the country, which they plundered of all that they could remove.

Budziac Tartary is situated between Russia on the north; the river Nieper, which separates it from Little Tartary on the east; the Euxine or Black Sea on the south; and on the west by the river Niefter, which divides it from Bessarabia. The chief towns are Zenna and Oczakow. The latter is a sea-port, situated on the Euxine Sea, to the westward of the rivers Nieper and Bog, in 35 degrees of east longitude, and 46 degrees of north latitude.

The inhabitants of those countries are of a short square make, with their noses and faces flat. They have generally tawny complexions, and their eyes lie remarkably deep, but are very piercing. The cloaths of the common people are made of sheep-skins with the wool on; but their chiefs are clothed in furs; girt about them with a leathern girdle. The dresses of the women differs not much from that of the men, only their vests are longer, and they wear drawers which reach down to the heels. Their heads are covered with a handkerchief, and their hair hangs down upon their shoulders.

The Tartars, like the Scythians their ancestors, lead a wandering life; removing their families from place to place, in waggons, as they are prompted either by novelty, or a change of pasture for their cattle. When they fix for a considerable time, they erect mean huts of wood and turf. They seldom apply themselves to husbandry, eating very little bread; and prefer horse-flesh to all other food. They are very hospitable, and will not suffer a traveller to pay any thing for the subsistence either of himself or his horse, but they thankfully receive a small present of tobacco or spirits in return. Being of the Mahometan religion, they are allowed as many wives as the Turks, and the chief men among them have numbers of women and eunuchs in their families; but persons of inferior rank usually confine themselves to one woman.

The Tartars are governed by a cham, who is properly no more than the viceroy of the grand seignior, on whom he is entirely dependent. When the Ottoman emperor is at war, the cham is obliged to join his army with a hundred thousand troops, who are allowed no pay, but subsist by the plunder which they make in their incursions into the enemy's country. Upon the first advice they receive of a war designed against the Christians, they prepare for the field with great alacrity, and repeat a short prayer for the success of their expedition, particularly requesting, that they may take great numbers of slaves, beautiful girls and

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boys, with other booty; to all which petitions, their wives never fail to say amen. When they have accoutred themselves in their armour, and provided their bags of flour, they immediately mount their horses, and march to the place of rendezvous. Every person for the most part takes with him two or three horses, to bring home his slaves and plunder, or to remount him in case of necessity. If any horse dies, the owner invites his friends to feast on the flesh of the animal.

When the cham joins the Turkish army, it is usual for the commander of the latter to order some hundreds of oxen, and several thousand sheep, to be roasted for the entertainment of the Tartars; but this is the only meal with which they are treated during the whole campaign. Till such time as they can supply themselves with food by depredations on the enemy, they live upon their own talcan or bag of flour, which they carry with them, fastened behind their saddles; mixing it occasionally with mare's milk, or, if that cannot be procured, with water. To this some of them add cheese, or horse-flesh dried in the sun. The subsistence of their horses is not more expensive, or difficult to procure. In the winter, they will scratch deep in the snow, to come at the herbage underneath; and in want of other food, will eat the tender twigs of trees, or even the bark.

#### C H A P. II.

*Of the provinces of Bessarabia—Moldavia—Walachia—Bulgaria—Servia—Bonia—Dalmatia—Romania—Macedonia—Albania—Epirus—Thessaly.*

**T**HE province of Bessarabia is situated on the west side of the Euxine sea, on the mouths of the Danube, being bounded on the south by this river, and on the north by that of the Niefter. The chief towns are Belgorod, situate on the Black Sea, near the mouth of the Niefter, in 31 degrees of east longitude, and 46 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude; Bend, which stands on the same river, about a hundred miles north-west of the preceding. In their persons, and way of life, the inhabitants of this province nearly resemble the Tartars.

The province of Moldavia is situate between 25 and 29 degrees of east longitude, and between 45 and 48 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the east by Bessarabia; on the north-east by the river Niefter, which divides it from Poland; on the west by Walachia and Transilvania; and on the south by the Danube, which separates it from Bulgaria. It is two hundred and forty miles long, and a hundred and fifty broad. The soil is fruitful, and the country abounds in corn, wine, rich pastures, a good breed of horses, oxen and sheep, venison, game, fish, and fowl, with all sorts of European fruits. The inhabitants are Christians of the Greek church, and have been tributary to the Turks since the year 1574. The grand seignior appoints a prince to rule over them, who is usually a native of the province; the interest of which, however, he is constantly ready to

sacrifice to the will of his sovereign, by whom he is delegated to serve as an instrument of oppression. Besides the yearly tribute paid to the sultan, which is very large, they are obliged to raise a great body of troops at their own expence, when his forces take the field.

The chief towns of this province are, Jazy, the capital, situate on the river Pruth, in 28 degrees of east longitude, and 47 degrees 15 minutes north latitude; and Chotzin, situate near the frontiers of Poland, on the river Niefter.

Walachia is situate between 23 and 26 degrees of east longitude, and between 43 and 46 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north-east by Moldavia; on the north-west by the Iron-gate mountains, which separate it from Transilvania; on the south-west by the Danube, which separates it from the province of Servia; and on the south-east by the same river, which divides it from Bulgaria. It is two hundred miles long, and a hundred broad. The air, as in the adjacent provinces, is temperate, and the soil fertile; producing excellent corn, wine, oil, pasture, and all kinds of European fruits, with great numbers of sheep and oxen, and a valuable breed of horses.

The chief towns are, Tergowisco, or Tarvis, the capital, situate on the river Laniza, sixty miles north of the Danube; and Buchorest, which stands on the river Dombrowecen.

The constitution of this province is the same as that of Moldavia, being governed by a native, appointed by the grand seignior, and for the most part exceedingly rapacious. The only privilege enjoyed by the inhabitants is the free exercise of their religion, which is the Christian, of the Greek communion; and to this toleration probably it is owing, that they have never revolted from the Ottoman power, and put themselves under the protection of the Austrian princes.

Bulgaria is bounded on the north by the Danube; on the east by the Black Sea; on the south by mount Hæmus or Argentinum, which separates it from Romania; and on the west by Servia. In length from east to west, it is about four hundred miles, and upwards of a hundred in breadth. This is a mountainous province, but has some fruitful valleys, which afford good crops of corn and pasture. The inhabitants are generally husbandmen, and Christians of the Greek communion, who would enjoy the fruits of their labour in tranquillity, were they not much annoyed by robbers, that possess the inaccessible parts of the mountains. The chief towns are, 1. Sophia, situate on the river Ischar, a hundred miles south of the Danube. It stands in a plain between two high mountains, on one of which the snow lies during the greater part of the summer; yet several hot baths are in the valley. It is an open town, without walls or fortifications; and was anciently called Særdica, where one of the general councils was held. 2. Silistria, or Dorestro, a large town situated on the same river, seventy miles north of Sophia. 3. Nicopolis, situated at the confluence of the rivers Danube and Ischar. This town was built by Trajan, in memory of his victory

victory over Decebalus, king of the Dacians; and here Sigismund, king of Hungary, was defeated by Bajazet, emperor of the Turks.

Servia, anciently called Mysia Superior, is bounded on the east by Bulgaria; on the south by Macedonia; on the west by Bosnia; and on the north by the rivers Save and Danube. The capital of this province is Belgrade, situated at the confluence of the Danube and the Save, in 21 degrees 2 minutes of east longitude, and 45 degrees 10 minutes of north latitude, three hundred and forty-three miles south-east of Vienna. This was lately a large beautiful city, defended by one of the strongest castles in Europe, and inhabited by Christians. It has often been the object of contending nations. It was taken by prince Eugene of Savoy, in 1717, and remained in the possession of the Austrians till 1739, when it was restored to the Turks, in whose hands it has continued ever since, with the whole province of Servia.

Other towns of note are, 1. Semandria, situated on the Danube, thirty miles south-east of Belgrade, once the capital of the province, but now in a ruinous condition. 2. Widin, or Vidin, lying on the river Danube, a hundred and twenty miles south-east of Belgrade; a town frequently taken and retaken by the Christians and Turks, but now in possession of the latter. 3. Nissa, situated on the river Morava, a hundred and thirty miles south-east of Belgrade, formerly possessed by the Imperialists, but yielded to the Turks, with the whole province of Servia, about thirty years ago. 4. Scopia, or Uscopia, likewise situated on the river Morava, near the foot of mount Rhodope, seventy miles south of Nissa; a populous city, and has a flourishing commerce.

The province of Servia is beautifully diversified with mountains and valleys, woods and open fields. The soil is fruitful, and, where cultivated, produces corn and wine; but being a frontier province, possessed alternately by the Imperialists and Turks, it is neither populous, nor well improved.

The province of Bosnia, part of the ancient Illyricum, is bounded on the east by Servia; on the south by Dalmatia; on the west by Croatia; and on the north by the river Save, which separates it from Slavonia. The chief town is Bofna Seraio, situated on the frontiers of Turkey, in 19 degrees of east longitude, and 45 degrees of north latitude, a hundred and twenty miles west of Belgrade.

The province of Dalmatia is bounded on the north by Bosnia; on the east by Servia; on the south by Albania; and on the west by the Adriatic Sea, or Gulph of Venice. The greatest part of this country is in the possession of the Turks; but the Venetians have several considerable towns on the sea-coast. The chief Turkish towns are, 1. Trebigna, situate near the Gulph of Venice, in 19 degrees of east longitude, and 42 degrees 40 minutes of north latitude; sixty miles south-east of Spalatro. 2. Narenza, situate on a bay of the Adriatic Sea, twenty-five miles north of Ragusa. 3. Antivari, a port-town, standing on a rock in the Gulph of Venice, ten miles west of Dulcigno.

This province, as well as the preceding, was part of the ancient Illyricum. The country is mountainous, but generally fruitful, and produces a considerable quantity of corn, wine, and oil.

The town of Zara was formerly the metropolis of Liburnia, or the great peninsula which runs into the sea; but is at present the capital of a more extensive province. The buildings are said to be elegant, and the inhabitants as much civilized as in any of the cities of Italy. It is confirmed by the latest travellers, that the sea is constantly gaining ground on the coast of this country; as appears from the pavements of streets observed under water, as well as from some noble fabricks discovered a few years since, in cleaning the harbour of Zara.

Of the city of Nona hardly any vestiges remain; but at San Filippo and Giacomo, may be seen the ruins of an aqueduct, either built or repaired by the emperor Trajan.

Vestiges yet remain of the walls of Asseria, the circumference of which is clearly distinguishable above ground, and measures three thousand six hundred Roman foot. They form an oblong polygon, and are built with common Dalmatian marble. The thickness is generally about eight foot, but in one of the extremities eleven. The height in some parts is thirty foot.

Near the river Kerka, the Titius of the ancients, at Suppliacerqua, are seen some old arches, supposed to have belonged to the city of Burnum, otherwise called Liburna.

In the district of Trau, which was anciently distinguished for the excellence of its marble, the most remarkable object is the pissaphaltum, or pitch that drops from a rock.

No vestiges remain of the city of Spalatro; but three miles hence lie the ruins of the ancient Epitium. The place is now called Stobrez. Near the road hither by land from Salona, are several arches of Dioclesian's aqueduct, vulgarly called *Ponte secco*, and above it is an insulated mass called *Kamen*, i. e. the stone, by way of excellence, where in former times a small fort has stood, as appears from the vestiges of the walls.

The situation of Epetium was extremely beautiful. The city stood on the sea-side, but on a plain much above the level of the water. The vestiges of its walls are still distinguishable on the banks of the small harbour of Stobrez, and appear to have been built of solid materials, but without that nice connection which is admired in the Roman fabricks. A subterraneous passage, the mouth of which remains in its primitive state, extending far under the ruins of the city, seems to have served in ancient times for an outlet to the waters. Near the parochial church, which is a quarter of a mile from the shore, appear the foundations of a tower, which flanked Epetium on that side; and the church is built on those old foundations.

On an eminence near the river Cettina, the Tiliurus of the ancients, stood the city of Equum, where vestiges of the amphitheatre are yet to be seen. The canals are still visible which served to convey the

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From Trigl to Duare, the Cettina precipitates from rock to rock in a very romantic manner, and about a mile from the place last mentioned, forms a magnificent cascade. The vultures of those parts, near the mouth of this river, are dreadful animals, measuring above twelve foot from the tip of one wing to the other. They frequently carry away lambs, sometimes sheep, and even the children of the shepherds.

In the district called the Primorie, which is the Paratalassia of the ancients, the only town at present is Macaroca, supposed to have risen out of the ruins of the ancient Rataneum, or Retinum.

The Morlacks, a part of the inhabitants of Dalmatia, have several customs distinct from those of the other natives of the province. The obligations of friendship, among them are particularly revered. They have even made it a kind of religious point, and tie the sacred bond at the foot of the altar. The Sclavonian ritual contains a particular benediction for the solemn union of two male or two female friends, in the presence of the congregation. The male friends thus united are called *probati*, and the females *posajstrene*, which signify half brothers, and half-sisters.

The Morlacks, whether of the Roman or Greek church, have very singular ideas about religion; and the ignorance of their teachers daily augments this evil. They are firmly persuaded of the reality of fairies, nocturnal apparitions, witches, and enchantments.

When a Morlack husband mentions his wife, he always premises, by your leave, or begging your pardon; and when the husband has a bedstead the wife must sleep on the floor.

The infants here are allowed to suck their mother's milk while she has any, or till she is with child again; and though this should not happen for six years, they continue all the time to receive nourishment from the breast. The breasts of the Morlachian women are in general so large, that they can give the teat to their children over their shoulders, or under their arms.

Romania, the ancient Thrace, is bounded on the east by the Black Sea, the Bosphorus, and Propontis; on the north by the mountains of Rhodope and Argentum; on the west by Macedonia; and on the south by the Archipelago. It is about three hundred miles long, and a hundred and fifty broad.

The capital of this province, and of the Turkish empire, is Constantinople, anciently called Byzantium, but at present Stramboul by the people of that nation, and by others the Port, on account of its harbour being the finest of any in Europe. This city, which stands on the western shore of the Bosphorus, was rebuilt by the emperor Constantine, in the fourth century, who transferred hither the seat of the Roman government. Upon his death it obtained the name of Constantinople. It is situate in 29 degrees 20 minutes of east longitude, and in 41 degrees 4 minutes of north latitude. It is of a triangular shape, washed by the sea on two sides, and rising gradually from the shore, in the form of an amphitheatre. The view of

No. 14.

it from the harbour is confessedly the finest in the world, exhibiting a multitude of magnificent mosques or temples, with their domes and minarets, and the seraglio, intermixed with gardens and groves of evergreens. The expectations excited by this prospect, however, are disappointed on entering the city, where we find the streets narrow, the houses of the common people low, and built of boards, and the palaces of the great men concealed by high walls before them. The city is surrounded by a wall about twelve miles in circumference, and the suburbs are very extensive.

The royal palace or seraglio is built upon a point of the triangle, which runs out between the Propontis and the harbour, and consists of a number of apartments richly furnished, but not very commodious; many of them being detached, and at a distance from the body of the palace. The principal gate is guarded by fifty capigi or porters, and the second by the same number; who all wear high stiffened caps, but no other arms than a little staff. In the first court of the palace is an hospital, and the mint for coining money. In the second is the divan, or the supreme court of justice; with the treasury, about which runs a piazza; and in the middle of the court are fountains, surrounded by trees. Those two courts are open to the public; but no strangers are admitted beyond the second, except ambassadors with their retinues, when they come to an audience.

Of the mosques or temples, seven are exceedingly magnificent, called the royal mosques, which are surrounded by spacious areas at a distance from other buildings. The principal is that of Sophia, standing opposite to the great gate of the seraglio, upon an eminence gently declining to the sea-shore. This fabric was originally a Christian church, built by the emperor Justin, and beautified by Justinian. It is of a square figure without, three hundred and forty foot long, and two hundred and forty broad; but within, its form is circular. In the front is a portico, supported by marble columns; and part of the temple is covered by a grand cupola, thirty-six yards in diameter, sustained by four stately pillars eight fathoms in thickness. In this mosque, which receives light from twenty-four windows, there are upwards of a hundred columns, of the most curious marble, some of them porphyry and Egyptian granite; with which the whole building is likewise lined.

Besides this mosque, there are several others not much inferior in magnificence; amongst which the most remarkable are, that built by the emperor Solyman; the Validia, founded by the mother of Mahomet IV. and the new mosque built by sultan Achmet. The mosques have usually hospitals, and endowed schools, belonging to each of them. Within side those temples, the only ornaments are branches for candles, ivory balls, and large crystal globes, no painting or imagery being permitted. The floors are covered with carpets, and in each is a marble pulpit, from which the mollahs sometimes preach to the people.

Here are also several magnificent bagnios and caravanferas. The latter usually consist of spacious stone

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buildings, of a square figure, encompassing large courts, about which runs a cloyster or piazza, and a gallery over it. In some of those places, travellers are provided with a mattress and quilts to lie on, and have their entertainment gratis, at the public expence; but this is seldom accepted. Travellers usually buy their provision in the market, and dress it themselves, or send for meat dressed from the cooks shops, where they meet with it at a very reasonable price.

The Atmeidan, where horse-races were anciently run, is still used in a similar manner; for here the Turks throw the gerit or dart, riding full speed at the mark. This square retains its former dimensions, being yet four hundred paces long, and a hundred broad; but it is now destitute of the fine statues and obelisks with which it was once adorned. One grand obelisk, however, consisting of a single piece of granite marble, fifty foot high, yet remains entire, enriched with hieroglyphics which are now unintelligible. It appears from some Greek inscriptions that this pillar was thrown down by an earthquake, and after lying on the ground a considerable time, was again erected by the emperor Theodosius. This is almost the only monument of antiquity that remains entire; but fragments may yet be seen of some other pillars and obelisks.

The baskin, or exchange, where all merchandize is sold, is a very magnificent building. No tradesmens shops are in any other part of the town; nor any markets but the bazars, where provisions are exposed to sale.

In the markets for live cattle, slaves of all ages and both sexes are publicly sold, who are generally Christians. Amongst the most beautiful girls thus exposed, the Turks frequently recruit their harems, employing old women to examine, whether those whom they are inclined to purchase retain their virginity.

The suburbs of Constantinople in extent exceed greatly that of the city. The principal of those, called Galata, is on the other side of the harbour, opposite to the seraglio. The houses here are better built than those within the walls of the city, and are inhabited chiefly by foreigners, who enjoy their freedom, both in regard to their religion and other customs. Another suburb is called Cassumpasha, where are many docks, for building and repairing ships and galleys. A third suburb, near Galata, on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus is Pera, where the ambassadors and ministers of foreign princes reside; and here are the best buildings belonging to Constantinople. The town of Scutari, likewise separated from the city by the Bosphorus, which is upwards of a mile in breadth, is usually reckoned another suburb. This is a large populous place, whither the merchants of Persia and other eastern countries resort. The sultan has here another seraglio, to which he frequently retires with his ladies.

The second city of the empire stands likewise in the province of Romania. This is Adrianople, situate in 26 degrees 27 minutes of east longitude, and in 42 degrees of north latitude, in a fine plain on the river Mariza, about a hundred and fifty miles north-west

of Constantinople. The ancient name of this city was Orestes; but being destroyed by an earthquake, it was rebuilt by the emperor Adrian, from whom it has since been denominated. It is about eight miles in circumference, and contains several grand mosques; but the private houses are built in the same mean style with those of the metropolis. The pleasantries of the place occasions it to be often visited by the grand seignior, who has here a seraglio equal in beauty, though not in extent, to that of Constantinople. This city was taken by the Turks in 1362, and became the seat of their empire, before they made a conquest of Constantinople.

The next considerable town in Romania is Philippoli, so named from king Philip, the father of Alexander the Great. It is situate in an extensive plain on the river Meriza, in 25 degrees of east longitude, and 42 degrees 20 minutes of north latitude, two hundred miles north-west of Constantinople; inhabited chiefly by Christians of the Greek communion, and is the see of one of their archbishops. Here they shew a chapel, in which, according to their tradition, St. Paul preached to the Philippians. The town is surrounded by an old wall, but is at present a place of little strength. It was taken from the Grecian emperor by the Turks in 1360.

Gallipoli is a port-town situate in 27 degrees of east longitude, and 40 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude, at the entrance of the Propontis, or sea of Marmora, twenty-five miles north-east of the Hellespont or Dardanelles, and a hundred miles south-west of Constantinople. The inhabitants, according to computation, consist of ten thousand Turks, and four thousand Christians, besides a great number of Jews. There are two harbours for galleys, but neither of them admits large vessels. This was the first town the Turks made themselves masters of Europe, in 1358.

The old castle of Romania, usually called Sestos, lies on the European side of the Hellespont, in 27 degrees of east longitude, and 40 of north latitude. This place, with Abydos on the opposite shore, are celebrated by the poets for the amours of Hero and Leander. Here it was that Xerxes laid bridges over the Hellespont, on which he passed his army when he invaded Greece; and at this place likewise the Turks take an account of all vessels bound to Constantinople.

Of Heraclia, once a great city, which stood in the midway between Constantinople and Gallipoli, little more remains at present than some ruins; within seven or eight miles of which lies Rodorto, a town of considerable trade, inhabited by a mixture of Turks, Jews, and Christians.

The province of Macedonia is bounded on the east by Romania, and part of the Archipelago; on the north by Servia; on the south by Thessaly, with the gulphs of Salonichi and Costeffa; and on the west by Epirus. The chief towns are, Costeffa, Philippoli, Amphipolis or Empoli, and Janiza.

Costeffa is situate on a bay of the Archipelago, in 25 degrees of east longitude, and 41 degrees of north latitude, about two hundred miles west of Constantinople.

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nople. The bay to which it gives name, is sometimes called the Bay of Monte Santo, or the Holy Mount, from the great number of Greek monasteries upon it.

Philippi, so named from Philip the father of Alexander, is likewise situate on the confines of Thrace, in 25 degrees of east longitude, and 41 degrees of north latitude. In the plains near this city, Augustus Cæsar and Mark Anthony obtained the decisive victory over Brutus and Cassius.

Amphipolis or Empoli, situate on the river Strymon, was anciently the capital of Macedonia, but is now a poor town.

Janiza or Pella, the birth-place of Philip, and afterwards of Alexander, was the seat of the kings of Macedonia till the time of Perseus; but has no remains of its ancient-grandeur. It lies about thirty miles south west of Salonichi.

The province of Albania is bounded on the east by Macedonia; on the north by Dalmatia and Servia; on the west by the Gulph of Venice; and on the south by Epirus. In length, from north to south, it is about a hundred and fifty miles, and in breadth a hundred.

One of the chief towns is Scodra or Iscadar, situate near the river Boiano, twenty-five miles from the Gulph of Venice. It was once the capital of Illyricum, and is still a large city.

Alessio or Lissus is situate in 20 degrees of east longitude, and 42 of north latitude, near the mouth of the river Drino. It had once a capacious port, the work of Dionysius the Tyrant, who leading a colony hither, enlarged and walled the place round. In more modern times, it is celebrated for being the birth-place of George Castriot, usually called Scanderbeg, who often defeated the Turkish armies with a handful of men.

Dulcigno, a port-town, is situate on the Gulph of Venice, in 19 degrees of east longitude, and 42 of north latitude, fifty miles south-east of Ragusa.

Durazzo, the Dyrrachium of the Romans, is situate on the Gulph of Venice, in 20 degrees of east longitude, and 41 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude. Hither the Romans usually passed over from Italy to Greece. It is memorable for being the place of Cicero's banishment, and of Pompey's retreat when Cæsar had possessed himself of Rome.

Ragusa stands on the Gulph of Venice, in 21 degrees of east longitude, and 41 of north latitude. The city and territory form a Christian republic under the protection of the Turks, where the Christians enjoy greater privileges than in any other part of the Ottoman dominions.

The province of Epirus, now Canina, is bounded on the north by Albania; on the west by the sea, near the entrance of the Gulph of Venice; on the south by Achaia; and on the east by Thessaly, from which it is separated by the mountain of Mezna, the ancient Pinus. It is about a hundred miles long, and sixty broad. The chief towns are, 1. Chimæra, situate in 20 degrees 29 minutes of east longitude, and 40 de-

grees 10 minutes of north latitude; a port-town, eighty miles south of Durazzo, and twenty north of the island of Corfu. 2. Butrinto, another port-town, thirty miles south of Chimæra. 3. Arta, or Larta, sixty miles north-west of Lepanto. This was the ancient Ambracia, the residence of the kings of Epirus. 4. Hygalo, situate on a bay of the Gulph of Venice; the ancient Adium, famous for a temple of Apollo; but afterwards more famous on account of the victory obtained by Augustus over Anthony and Cleopatra, and for quinquennial games there instituted.

The province of Thessaly, now Senna, is bounded on the west by Epirus; on the north by Macedonia; on the east by the Archipelago; and on the south by Achaia. One of the chief towns is Larissa, called by the Turks Assabarda, situate in 23 degrees 30 minutes of east longitude, and in 39 degrees of north latitude; a large populous city, and the see of a Greek bishop. It stands delightfully on the river Peneus, having mount Olympus on the north, and the plains of Thessaly on the south; and is famous for being the place of Achilles's nativity.

Salonichi, or Thessalonica, is situate at the bottom of a bay of the Egean sea, to which it gives its name, lying in 24 degrees of east longitude, and 41 of north latitude. It is a populous town, has a good foreign trade, and consuls from several kingdoms and states reside here. The inhabitants are mostly Christians of the Greek communion, and have an archbishop for the government of the church.

Pharfa, situate in 23 degrees of east longitude, and 39 of north latitude, a little south of Larissa. This is supposed to be the ancient Pharalus, where Cæsar obtained the decisive victory over Pompey.

Janna, whence this province takes its modern name, is situate on a lake forty miles north of Lepanto, in 22 degrees of east longitude, and 39 of north latitude.

In this province, besides mount Olympus, which the ancients esteemed the highest mountain in the world, are those of Pelion and Ossa, mentioned likewise so often by the poets, and not much inferior in height. Between the two last mentioned mountains lay the celebrated plains of Tempe, represented by the ancients as equal to the Elysian Fields, and noted for producing fine grapes, with other fruits of a delicious flavour. According to the account delivered by Strabo and Ælian, this beautiful vale extended five miles in length, and in breadth near an acre and a half. On the right and left it was bounded by gentle convexities; the Peneus glided along the middle; and the surrounding groves were harmoniously vocal with the music of the finest birds. Livy, however, mentioning this celebrated place, informs us, that the Romans, in marching through it, were struck with a degree of horror rather than delight: for besides that the defile was difficult to pass, there were steep rocks on each hand, down which the prospect was apt to cause a dizziness; and the awfulness of the scene was heightened by the noise and depth of the interfuent Peneus.

## C H A P. III.

*Livadia.*

**T**HE province of Livadia contains that part of ancient Achaia lying north of the Morea or Peloponnesus, formerly distinguished by the names of Attica, Hellas, or Proper Greece. It is bounded on the north by Thessaly; on the east by the Egean Sea, or Archipelago; on the south by the gulph of Lepanto, which separates it from the Morea; and on the west by the Ionian Sea.

The capital of this province is Setines, the ancient Athens, situate in 24 degrees 15 minutes of east longitude, and 38 degrees 5 minutes of north latitude. It stands in the middle of a large plain, near the river Ilissus, about forty miles east of the isthmus of Corinth. This celebrated city, during its flourishing state, is said to have been upwards of twenty-four miles in circumference, but the extent of it at present is computed to be only about four. It enjoys a fine temperature, and a serene sky; and the air is clear and wholesome, though not so delicately soft as in Ionia. The town stands beneath the acropolis, or citadel, not encompassing the rock, as formerly, but spreading into the plain, chiefly on the west and north-west. The houses are mostly mean and straggling; many with large areas or courts before them. The streets are very irregular, and anciently were neither uniform nor handsome. In lanes, the high walls on each side, which are generally white-washed, reflect strongly the heat of the sun. The town is supplied with water in channels from mount Hymettus, and in the bazar or market-place, is a large fountain. The Turks have several mosques and public baths; and the Greeks have convents for men and women, with many churches, in which service is regularly performed.

The acropolis, or citadel, which was the most ancient part of Athens, is now a fortress, with a thick irregular wall, standing on the brink of precipices, and enclosing a large area, about twice as long as broad. Some portions of the ancient wall may be discovered on the outside, particularly at the two extreme angles; and in many places it is patched with pieces of columns, and with marbles taken from the ruins. The rock is lofty, abrupt, and inaccessible, except the front, which is towards the Piræus; having now, as formerly, only one entrance. It is destitute of water fit for drinking, and supplies are daily carried up to it from one of the conduits in the town. The ascent to the acropolis is by traverses and rude fortifications furnished with cannon, but without carriages, and neglected. A little beyond the second gate stand the ruins of the propylæa, which graced the entrance to the citadel.

The temple of Victory, which stood on an abrupt rock, has its back and one side unincumbered with the modern ramparts. The columns in the front being walled up, it is entered by a breach in the side, within the propylæa. It was used by the Turks as a magazine for powder, till about the year 1656; when a

sudden explosion, occasioned by lightning, carried away the roof, with a house erected on it.

The principal ornament of the acropolis was the parthenon, or great temple of Minerva, which appears from the description transmitted by antiquity to have been a most magnificent fabric. The beasts of burden, which had conveyed up the materials, were regarded as sacred, and recompensed with pastures; and one, which had voluntarily headed the train, was maintained during life, without labour, at the public expence. In the year 1676, when this temple was converted into a mosque, it was reckoned the finest in the world. In the middle of the pediment was seen a bearded Jupiter, with a majestic countenance, standing and naked. The right arm was broken. The thunder-bolt, it has been supposed, was placed in that hand, and the eagle between his feet. On his right was a figure, it is conjectured, of Victory, clothed to the mid leg; the head and arms gone. This was leaning on the horses of a car, in which sat Minerva, young and unarmed; her head-dress, instead of a helmet, resembling that of a Venus. The generous ardour visible in this pair of celestial steeds, was such, we are told, as bespoke the masterly hand of a Phidias or Praxiteles. Behind Minerva was a female figure, without a head, sitting with an infant in her lap; and in this angle of the pediment was the emperor Hadrian, with his arm round Sabina, both reclining, and seeming to regard Minerva with pleasure. On the left side of Jupiter were the mutilated figures of five or six other deities, exquisitely carved.

There yet remains much admirable sculpture about this fabric, which however is likely soon to perish, through the ignorant contempt of its present masters.

The ruin of the erékheum is of white marble, the architectural ornaments of exquisite workmanship, and uncommonly curious. The columns in the front of the temple of Neptune are standing, with the architrave; and also the skreen and portico of the temple of Minerva Polias, with a portion of the cell, retaining traces of the partition wall. The portico is now used as a powder magazine. The door-way of the vestibule is walled up, and the soil risen near to the top of the door-way of the pandrosæum, a small, but very particular building, of which no satisfactory idea can be communicated by description.

Descending from the acropolis, and making the circuit of that eminent part of ancient Athens, one of the first objects that strike our view, is a cave once sacred to Apollo and Pan, which appears to have been adorned with votive tablets.

The hill of the acropolis is more abrupt and perpendicular, as well as narrower, at the extremity opposite to the propylæa, where beneath the wall, is a cavern, the roofing place of crows and daws. Proceeding thence to the side of the acropolis next to mount Hymettus, the hill is indented with the theatre of Bacchus; beyond which begins an out-work of the fortress, standing on ancient arches, supposed to be the remains of a stoa or portico, which was connected with the theatre called the odæum. The wall of the inner front of the proscenium is still standing, very lofty,

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*Habit of a Persian Lady, from Mr. de Ferriol.*



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lusty, with open arches; serving as part of an out-work of the castle; and a portion of the exterior wall of the right wing is also visible.

The venerable hill of the areopagus, celebrated for its solemn tribunal, is ascended by steps cut in the rock; and by it, is a small church of St. Dionysius, near one ruined, and a wall now choaked up, in which they pretend that St. Paul was hid on some occasion.

The temple of Theseus is of the Doric order, and in the style of its architecture greatly resembles the parthenon. It is yet entire, except the roof, which is modern and vaulted, with an aperture or two for the admission of light. It is at present a Greek church dedicated to St. George. The sculptures still extant about this temple, though much impaired, witness the hand of a master. The exploits of Theseus and Hercules were carved on the metopæ, in sixteen compartments, in alto relievo, and the following subjects are intelligible, viz. Theseus killing the sow of Crommyon; throwing Seyron from a rock into the sea; wrestling with Cereyon; destroying the Minotaur; driving the bull of Marathon to Athens; Hercules strangling the Nemean lion; with Iolaus destroying the hydra; receiving the golden apples from a nymph, one of the Hesperides.

The next object that occurs without the town, at some distance in the plain, is a marble gate, which separated the old city from Hadrianopolis, or New Athens. This gate serving as a boundary, is marked with two inscriptions. Over the arch on one side are these words in Greek, "What you see is Athens, the old city of Theseus;" and on the other front, "What you see is the city of Hadrian, and not of Theseus." Beyond it, within the region of New Athens, lies the majestic ruin of the temple of Jupiter Olympus. It consists of prodigious columns, tall and beautiful, of the Corinthian order, fluted; some single, others supporting their architraves. The columns are about six foot in diameter, and near sixty in height. The number without the cell was one hundred and sixteen or twenty. Seventeen were standing in 1676; but a few years ago, one was overturned, with much difficulty, and applied to the building a new mosque in the bazar or market-place. It is remarkable, that two stones of a step in the front had coalesced at the extremity, so that no juncture can be perceived; and the same observation has been made on a step of the parthenon. In both instances, the effect is probably owing to a concretionary fluid, which pervades the marble in the quarry.

Some stone-work of the Panathenean stadium still remains at the two extremities by the Ilissus. The area, which produces grain, measures six hundred and thirty English foot in length. On the left hand, near the top, is a subterraneous passage through the mountain, once under the seats. This was a private way by which the president of the games, the magistrates, and priests entered to take their places, after the spectators were met; and by which, it is supposed, those who contended and were unsuccessful, made their retreat. Such avenues appear to have been not uncommon in the stadiums of Greece.

No. 15.

Going on from the stadium without crossing the Ilissus, a solitary church presents itself on the left hand at a distance, and before us a temple of white marble, seated on the rock by the side of the river. This, as well as the parthenon and the temple of Theseus, has been transformed into a church, named St. Mary on the Rock. This temple, which is much impaired, is believed to have been the famous Eleusinium, belonging to Ceres and Proserpine.

Beyond the Eleusinium, in Agræ, was a temple of Diana Agræa, where the goddess was represented as bearing a bow, and named Agrotera, the huntress. In 1676 this temple was a church. It was of white marble, and the floor mosaic. The site is now occupied by another church, which is a mean structure. Beneath the Eleusinium, in a rocky dell, is also a small church with some buildings, and trees, and vestiges of the fountain Callirhæe, the same with that which obtained the name of Enneacrunus, after Pisistratus had furnished it with nine pipes.

The site of the lycæum is now marked by a well and a church, and many large stones scattered about.

Besides the ancient buildings yet remaining, innumerable fragments may be found, of statues, columns, and other pieces of architecture, which evince the magnificence of this celebrated capital in the time of its splendor.

The Turks here are in general more polite, social, and affable, than is common to their nation, and partake in some degree of the Greek character. The citizens of Athens are yet distinguished by a native quickness of apprehension, but which, not being duly cultivated, instead of producing genius, degenerates into cunning. They are reputed a most crafty, subtle, and acute race; and it has been jocosely affirmed that no Jew can live among them, because he would be continually out-witted.

The habit of the modern Athenians is a black vest, with a loose coat over it lined with furs; and their cap resembles the crown of a hat. On their legs they wear easy black boots, which fit in wrinkles; but never shoes or slippers as the Turks. The women wear coloured gowns, usually red or blue, reaching down to their feet, and over them a short vest of silk; but never appear abroad without a veil. Their hair is plaited, and hangs down low on their backs.

Provisions of every kind are here good and cheap; the frequent and severe frosts having an influence on the market. Hares, game, and fowl, may be purchased for little more than the value of the powder and shot. Oranges, lemons, and citrons, grow in the gardens: the grapes and melons are excellent, as are also the figs, which were celebrated of old. The wines are wholesome, but the pitch, infused to preserve them, communicates a taste which proves at first disagreeable to strangers. When the olives blacken, vast flocks of pigeons, thrushes, and other birds repair to the groves for food. Wild turkies are here not uncommon, and partridges very frequent. In winter, woodcocks likewise abound; descending, after snow on the mountains, into the plain, and as suddenly retreating. In the time of frost, they enter the gardens of the town in great droves, rather than cross the sea;

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and are sometimes taken with the hand. Snipes, teal, widgeon, ducks, and the like, are also found in great plenty.

The large horned owl, the favourite bird of Minerva, which the ancient Athenians placed as her companion in her temple in the acropolis, is here also to be seen. This species of bird is as ravenous as an eagle, and it pressed by hunger, will attack lambs and hares.

Frequent traces may yet be perceived of the demi or boroughs, which were anciently scattered over the territory of Athens; and several still exist, but mostly reduced to very inconsiderable villages. Many of the ancient wells also occur on Lycabettus, at the Piræus, and all over Attica. Some are seen in the vineyards and gardens nearly in their pristine state. They consist of a circular rim of marble, about a yard high, standing on a square pavement; adorned not inelegantly with wreathed flutings on the outside; or plain, with mouldings at the top and bottom. The bucket is a kettle, a jar, or the skin of a goat or kid distended; and close by is commonly a stone trough, into which they pour water for the cattle. The territory of Athens was anciently well peopled, and the city was supplied with corn from Sicily and Africa. At present Attica is thinly inhabited, and seems to produce grain sufficient for the natives; but the edicts prohibiting exportation are continually eluded, and public distress ensues almost yearly on this account.

The olive groves are now, as anciently, a principal source of the riches of Athens; and the honey of Attica continues to maintain its repute, particularly that of Hymettus.

The wild beasts, which find shelter in the mountains, greatly annoy the shepherds, who constantly guard their flocks with large fierce dogs. The person who killed a wolf, was entitled by a law of Solon to a reward; if a female, to one drachma, seven-pence half-penny; if a male, to five drachmas. Afterwards a talent, or one hundred and eighty pounds sterling, was paid for a young wolf, and double that sum for one full grown. The peasant now produces the skin in the bazar or market, and is recompensed by voluntary contribution. Parnes, the mountain towards the Cephissus, is haunted, besides wolves, by deer and foxes, as it formerly was by wild boars and bears.

In the east part of Attica, on the lofty promontory of Sunium, stood the temple of Minerva Sunias, visible from afar on the sea. This structure was of white marble, and probably erected about the same time with the great temple of Minerva called the parthenon, in the acropolis at Athens; having the same proportions, but greatly inferior in magnitude. The order is Doric, and it appears to have been a fabric of exquisite beauty. It had six columns in front. Nine columns were standing on the south-west side in the year 1676, and five on the opposite, with two antæ or pilasters at the south-end, and part of the pronaos. The number is now twelve, besides two in front, and one of the antæ.

Ten miles south-east of Athens lies the plain of Marathon, famous for the victory there obtained by the Athenians over the Persians, under the command of Miltiades. This celebrated plain is long and narrow,

and the soil reputed exceedingly fertile. The barley which it produced was anciently named Achillean, perhaps from its tallness; and at present it yields corn of the most luxuriant growth. The principal barrow, probably that of the gallant Athenians, mentioned by Pausanias, still towers above the level of the plain. It is of light fine earth, and has a bush or two growing on it. At a small distance northward, is a square basement of white marble, perhaps part of the trophy erected by the Athenians; but we now look in vain for the pillars on which the names were recorded.

About fifteen miles north-west of Athens, on the west bank of the Cephissus, near the sea-coast, lie the ruins of Eleusis, a city that contended with Athens for empire, until it was taken by Theseus. Here stood the magnificent temple of Ceres, where the Eleusinian mysteries were performed. Some marbles uncommonly massive, and some pieces of the columns remain on the spot. The breadth of the cell is about a hundred and fifty feet; the length, including the pronaos and portico, two hundred and sixteen feet; and the diameter of the columns, which are fluted, six inches from the bottom of the shafts, is six feet and a half. The temple was a decastyle, or had ten columns in the front, which was to the east. The peribolus or inclosure, which surrounded it on the north-east and on the south side, measures three hundred and eighty-seven feet in length from north to south, and three hundred and twenty-eight feet in breadth from east to west. Between the west wall of the inclosure and temple, and the wall of the citadel, was a passage forty-two feet six inches wide, which led to the summit of a high rock at the north-west angle of the inclosure, on which are visible the traces of a temple *in antis*, in length seventy-four feet six inches from north to south, and in breadth fifty four feet. It was perhaps the temple sacred to Triptolemus. This spot commands a very extensive view of the plain and bay.

At a small distance from the north end of the inclosure is a heap of marble, consisting of fragments of the Doric and Ionic orders; the remains probably of the temples of Diana, Propylæa, and of Neptunc, and of the propylæum or gate-way. Near it is the bust of a colossal statue of Ceres. She carries on her head a basket, carved on the outside, with handfuls of wheat, ears, roses, and bundles of poppies. A basin, supposed to belong to the statue, lies at a little distance from it, on the sides of which is represented the procession of Ceres, in basso relievo. A procession was made by the Athenians in commemoration of this goddess rambling about the world in search of her daughter Proserpine, stolen by Pluto, after she had lighted her torches at mount Ætna; the whole company having torches in their hands. A well yet in the village, may be that which was called Callichorus, where the women of Eleusis were accustomed to dance in honour of Ceres.

Twenty miles west of Athens lies Megara, once the capital of a considerable territory, but at present only a village consisting of low mean cottages. It retains, however, the ancient name, and is pleasantly situated on the slope of an eminence indented in the middle.

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middle. On each side of this vale was an acropolis or citadel; one named Caria, the other from Alcaethous, the builder of a wall. In 1676 the city-wall was not entirely demolished, but comprehended the two summits, on which are some churches, with a portion of the plain towards the south. No vestiges remain of any of the numerous public edifices, temples, and sepulchres, which once adorned this city; a defect that seems to be justly imputed to the nature of the stone at this place, which was very white, uncommonly soft, and consisted almost entirely of cockle-shells.

Delphi, the modern Caltri, stands on the side of mount Parnassus, about half way to the top, in 22 degrees of east longitude, and 38 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude, ten miles north of the gulph of Lepanto. This celebrated place was much resorted to by the ancients, on account of the temple of Apollo, and the dark cave, whence the Pythian priestesses used to deliver her oracles sitting upon a tripod. The mountain Parnassus appears with two tops, from one of which, called Kyanpeia, the Delphians threw the famous Æsop. Between the two summits rises a spring, supposed to be the fountain of Castalia, the water of which is exceeding cold.

Not far from Parnassus, is mount Helicon, likewise consecrated to Apollo. They are both rocky hills, covered with snow during a great part of the year.

Lepanto, the ancient Naupactus, is situated near the north shore of the entrance of the gulph of Lepanto, in 23 degrees of east longitude, and 38 of north latitude. The town is surrounded by fruitful vineyards, and fields, producing corn, rice, olives, oranges, lemons, and citrons, in great plenty. The wine is esteemed the best in Greece.

Livadia, which gives name to the province, is an ancient port-town, situate on the Gulph of Lepanto. It is at present a populous trading place, consisting of Turks and Greek Christians.

Thiva, the ancient Thebes, was the capital of that subdivision of Greece called Bœotia; situated about forty miles north of the isthmus of Corinth, and thirty north-west of Athens. It was built on an eminence between two rivulets, the Imenus and Dirce. It is said to have been founded by Cadmus; and according to the ancient mythology, the walls of it were raised at the sound of Amphion's lyre. Besides Bacchus and Hercules, supposed to have been born here, this place has produced several great men, particularly Pindar, Epaminondas, and Pelopidas.

The most noted river in Livadia is the Achelous, called by Homer the prince of rivers. It rises in mount Pindus, and running southward, discharges itself into the bay of Corinth.

#### C H A P. IV.

##### *The Marca.*

AMONG the ancients, this country obtained the name of the Peloponnesus, from Pelops, the son of Tantalus, who led hither a colony. It is a peninsula situate in the Mediterranean Sea, between

21 and 24 degrees of east longitude, and between 36 and 38 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude. Its length from the isthmus of Corinth, where it joins Livadia, is about a hundred and eighty miles, and the breadth a hundred and thirty.

The chief rivers in this country being so frequently mentioned in the ancient poets, it may not be improper to enumerate them. First, therefore, of Alpheus, which, according to poetic fiction, passed under the Ionian sea, and emerged again in Sicily. This river rises in the mountain Stympthalus, whence running through Arcadia, it being joined by the rivers Celadon and Amarynth, with several rivulets, falls into the Ionian sea. 2. The Eurotas, rising in Arcadia, passes through Laconia or Lacedæmon, and discharges itself into the bay of Colochina. 3. The Inachus, a river of Argolis, running south east into the Sinus Argolicus. 4. Styx. The Styx was properly a fountain dropping a deadly water, accounted sacred, between Nonacris and Pheneus in Arcadia; but gave its name to a fictitious river in hell, so much venerated amongst the gods, that an oath of any of those by it was inviolable, and which, whoever presumed to break, was stripped of divinity, and debarred nectar for a hundred years.

The capital of the country at present is the Napoli di Romania, the ancient Naphio, situated at the bottom of a cognominal bay, formerly called Sinus Argolicus, in 23 degrees 20 minutes of east longitude, and 37 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude. It stands on a promontory, under which is a good harbour; but the passage so narrow, that no more than one ship can enter it at a time. The town is naturally strong, and likewise has a castle for its defence. It is the see of an archbishop, and is computed to contain sixty thousand Grecian inhabitants, besides Jews and Turks.

Argos stands on the river Inachus or Naio, west of Napoli. This city, which was dedicated to Juno, was the capital of the kingdom of Argos, till Perseus removed the seat of the government to Mycenæ. At the siege of this place, Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, was killed by a tile, thrown by an old woman. The town is yet of considerable extent, consisting of mud-built cottages, with churches, walls, gardens, and open areas interspersed. The devastations of time and war have effaced the old city; no vestiges now remaining of its numerous edifices, the theatre, the gymnasium, the temples, and monuments, which it once boasted, contending even with Athens in antiquity, and in favours conferred by the gods.

Corinth is situate between the bays of Lepanto and Engia, in 23 degrees of east longitude, and 37 degrees 50 minutes of north latitude. It stands on high ground beneath the acrocorinthus, with an easy descent towards the gulph of Lepanto. Except in the bazar or market-place, the houses are interspersed with cypresses, corn-fields, and gardens of lemon and orange-trees. The chief remains of antiquity are at the south-west corner of the town. Those are eleven columns supporting their architraves, of the Doric order, fluted, and wanting in height near half the common proportion to the diameter. Within them, is one taller, though not entire, which probably contributed

tributed to sustain the roof. They are of stone, not marble. This ruin is believed to be of very remote antiquity, and a portion of a fabric erected not only before the Greek city was destroyed, but before the Doric order had attained to maturity. Perhaps it is the styphléum mentioned by Strabo. Corinth was the most illustrious of all the Greek cities, and grew to great power and riches by the commodiousness of its situation. But imprudently insulting the Roman ambassadors, it was involved in a war with that nation, under the conduct of Mummius, who took and burnt the city to the ground. In this conflagration different metals running together produced a third, which was held in great esteem, and called æ Corinthium. It was afterwards restored by Cæsar to its ancient splendor, and made a Roman colony. The acrocorinthus or citadel was reckoned impregnable: whence, according to some, the proverb, *Non civis hœmisi cœtingit adire Corinthum*; which others explain of the courtesan Lais. The inhabitants of Corinth are generally Christians, and it is the see of a Greek archbishop.

The air here is reputed to be bad in summer, and in autumn exceedingly unhealthy; but the adjacent country abounds with corn, wine, and oil.

The narrowest part of the isthmus of Corinth is about six miles over; and here, on a mount called Oncius, were celebrated the Isthmian games every five years. The stadium, however, is now not visible, but some fragments remain of the ancient buildings. A few vestiges may be traced of the wall built by the Lacedæmonians across the isthmus from sea to sea, to secure the Peloponnesian peninsula from the incursions of the Athenians. Attempts to unite the two gulphs by cutting across the isthmus, were successively made, without effect, by Demetrius, Julius Cæsar, Caligula, and Nero, and afterwards by Herodes Atticus, a private person.

Olympia, now called Longinico, is situated in 22 degrees of east longitude, and 37 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude. Of this celebrated place hardly any vestiges now remain; but it will ever be held in veneration for its precious era by the chronologer and historian. Here the games were celebrated the beginning of every fifth year; a period of four years complete being called an olympiad.

Nemæa is situated twenty five miles south of Corinth, famous likewise for its games, which were celebrated every third year.

Lacedæmon, or Sparta, now called Mistra, is situate on the west side of the river Eurotas, in 23 degrees of east longitude, and 36 degrees 45 minutes of north latitude. The territory of Laconia, of which it was the capital, was much less in extent than that of Athens, however it might be equal, or even superior in power. From the constitution of this celebrated republic, which prohibited every kind of magnificence, we cannot expect to meet with any traces of ancient buildings. In its flourishing state, this place remained without walls, the bravery of the citizens, as Nepos remarks, being instead of them. At length, however, when the government fell into the hands of tyrants, who distrusted their defence by arms, a wall

was built round it, at first slight, and in a tumultuary manner, but afterwards strengthened by Nabis.

Forty miles south-east of Mistra, stands Epithrava, the ancient Epidaurus. This city had several temples, and in the acropolis or citadel, was a remarkable statue of Minerva. At present, however, no traces of the buildings, except a few fragments, remain; the site being either sown with corn, or over-run with bushes, flowering shrubs, cedars, and almond-trees. Five miles from Epidaurus was the sacred grove of Æsculapius, in which stood the temple of that deity, which was always crowded with sick persons. Beyond this building was the dormitory of the suppliants; and near it a circular edifice called the Tholus, built by Polyclethus, of white marble. The grove, besides other temples, was adorned with a portico, and a fountain, remarkable for its roof and decorations. The bath of Æsculapius was one of the benefactions of Antoninus Pius, while a Roman senator; as was also the house for the reception of pregnant women and dying persons, who were previously removed out of the enclosure, to be delivered, or to expire in the open air. The remains of those buildings are heaps of stones, pieces of brick wall, and scattered fragments of marble. The springs and wells by the ruins are now supposed to possess many excellent properties. To those and a good air, with the recreations of the theatre and of the stadium, joined to the medicinal knowledge of the priests, may be attributed both the recovery of the sick, and the reputation of Æsculapius. Since the god failed, some faints have succeeded to the business; and it is not uncommon in this country to see patients lying in bed in the churches.

The serpents of Epidaurus were sacred to Æsculapius, as were the tortoises of mount Cithæron to Pan. One species, yellower than common, was peculiar to this region, and came, perhaps from being never molested. Those reptiles, some of which are very large, and not venomous, still abound. Of this kind, probably, was the huge serpent, which, when the Romans in a time of public distress sent a solemn embassy to the Epidaurians, requesting the passage of the god, failing to the ship, coiled itself in the stern; and being taken for Æsculapius, was carried to Rome in great solemnity.

Forty miles west of Lacedæmon, stands Megalopolis, situated at the foot of a mountain on the river Alpheus. This town, once the capital of Arcadia, was built under the auspices of Epaminondas, after the battle of Leuctra, many inconsiderable towns being joined in one great city, the better to withstand the Spartans. The place is now called Leontari.

Belvidere, situated on the river Peneus, the capital of the territory of Belvidere; whence are imported those small raisins which are called by its name. This town stands on the site of the ancient Elis, the place of the nativity of the philosophers Phædo and Pyrrho.

Modon is situated on the south coast of the Morea, and is defended by one of the strongest fortresses in the country. It has a commodious harbour, and is a place of considerable trade.

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## C H A P. V.

*Of the genius, dress, manners, customs, and history of the Greeks.*

HAVING finished the survey of the Grecian territories, we shall next take a view of the inhabitants, who, notwithstanding they no longer possess the spirit of liberty which distinguished their illustrious ancestors, yet retain the other features of the national character, to the almost invariable observance of the manners and customs of antiquity. The same ardor of imagination, the same vivacity of temper, and turbulence of disposition, so conspicuous in the Greeks of old, are discernible in those of the present time. Even the charge brought against the ancient Grecians, of being addicted to lying, *Græcia mendax*, may with justice be applied to the moderns. The custom continues equally familiar of confirming their assertions with an oath, which is also the same that was used by the ancients. Nothing is more common than to hear fathers and mothers swear by the lives of their children, and their own heads, or by those of other persons.

In their buildings the modern Greeks observe the same disposition as the ancients. The men and women have separate apartments, called *andronitis*, and *gynæconitis*, of which the latter, for the security of their wives, is always in the interior part of the building. There are no chimnies in the Greek houses. A brazier is placed in the middle of the room, that those who are not sufficiently warmed at a distance, may more conveniently draw near it; and this utensil, as in ancient times, is placed upon a tripod.

To defend the face from the heat and smoke of the brazier, it is covered with a tendour, or square table; over which is a carpet, with a cloth of silk, more or less magnificent. Round this apparatus, sofas or cushions are placed, for the accommodation of the company. The tendour is used chiefly by the ladies, while engaged at their embroidery, an employment which occupies the greater part of every day during the winter, the remainder being spent in receiving the visits of their friends.

The ancient custom of retaining the nurse who fostered their children, still subsists among the best families in Greece. When she has reared one child, she is thenceforward incorporated into the family, and bears the name of *paramata*, a word which signifies second mother.

The Greek ladies, conformably to the custom of the ancients, present the hand to be kissed by their daughters, their slaves, and other persons who are their inferiors. The manner in which the girls salute those of their own sex and rank, is kissing the eyes, while they mutually take hold of each others ears. This custom likewise, as appears from Theocritus, is very ancient.

The Greeks have an enthusiastic passion for black eyes; and the women still continue the custom of painting the eyebrows, and the hairs of the eye-lids,

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of a black colour, which they perform by means of a preparation of antimony and gall-nut.

The women have different modes of dressing the head, more or less ornamented. Sometimes the hair flows in tresses on the shoulders, at other times it is formed into a roll, or negligently tied with flowers. In the last of those methods, we may recognize the practice of the Lacedæmonian ladies. The young women of Greece formerly wore their hair knotted, which is also the custom at present. Almost the only circumstance in which the dress of the modern Greek ladies differs from that of the ancient, is that they no longer follow the custom of wearing aigrettes, in their hair, because their caps are made to cover their head.

The veil worn by the Greek ladies is generally of muslin, bordered with gold; and that of the common people, of a coarser sort of plain muslin; but it is always white. When a woman prepares to go abroad, she puts up her hair, and raises her veil, which answers to the description given by Claudian of Venus rising from her toilet.

The usual female dress consists of a petticoat, and a loose robe, tied round with a girdle, so famous in the ancient poets. The latter is generally embroidered, and frequently fastened by a buckle with diamonds or emeralds, resembling that of Venus as described by Homer. On their heads, some women wear a mitra or scarf, of the same form which was anciently used.

The dress of the men is the same with that of the Turks, which will be afterwards described.

The laws of hospitality, for which the ancient Greeks are so much famed, are religiously observed by the moderns; and they still delight in feasts, pastimes, public spectacles, and luxury. Being prohibited from all exterior pomp and splendor, they compensate this restriction by their magnificence within doors. In the houses of the richest men, may be observed all the taste, disposition, and grandeur of the ancient inhabitants of Athens. The walls are elegantly painted with vases and flowers; the ceilings are carved and gilt in a superb style, and surrounded with plastered cornices of excellent workmanship.

At the marriages of the modern Greeks an epithalamium is still performed, and the celebrated torch of Hymen continues to blaze in the procession to the nuptial bed, near which it is afterwards placed, where it burns till the whole is consumed. If by any accident it should be extinguished, the most ominous presages would be drawn; on which account it is watched with as much care as the sacred fire formerly by the vestals. Various other ceremonies attending the marriages of the ancient Greeks are likewise still practised. One custom, however, is peculiar to the moderns, which is, that by their religion they are enjoined continence the first night of marriage. This injunction was formerly established in some other countries of Europe, and was introduced at the fourth council of Carthage, in the year 398. As the priests had the power of dispensation, the custom was probably the source of great emolument to that order.

The same resemblance which is apparent between the nuptial ceremonies of the ancient and modern Greeks,

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Greeks, subsists in those of the funeral, and is conspicuous in the custom of lamenting the deceased with all the demonstrations of sorrow, of washing the dead body, dressing it with flowers, and of the funeral feast.

At their convivial entertainments, the modern Greeks discover not only the ancient excess, and simplicity of behaviour, but also use the festal crowns, so frequently mentioned by the poets. The lyre and guitar are still their chief musical instruments.

In respect of the language of the Greeks, notwithstanding it has suffered great corruption from the ignorance of the people, and the use of Turkish expressions, yet it preserves all the richness and harmony of the ancient Greek tongue; with this difference, that the verbs of the moderns are more easily conjugated, being curtailed of the aorists; and that the use of the dual number is also discontinued. The language of love appears to be particularly emphatic amongst those people, and abounds with the warmest expressions of passion, which they lavish profusely on their mistresses. Significant, however, as is their language, it is held inadequate for displaying the vehemence of their amorous fire, and the most extravagant actions are used to demonstrate their passion for the fair.

It is the opinion of some learned men, that the Greeks descended from Javan or Ion, the son of Japhet, and grandson of Noah, and that from the name of Ion, all Greece was anciently called Ionia. But whoever were the first inhabitants, it is universally agreed that the chief cities owed their origin to colonies of the Egyptians and Phœnicians; the former of whom instructed the people in laws and polity, and the latter in writing and navigation.

The most ancient town in Greece was Sicyon, built in the year of the world 1915, 2089 before Christ, and 1313 years before the first Olympiad. It stood in the north-east part of the Peloponnesus, near the site of Napoli de Romania, and is said to have continued a thousand years.

The kingdom of Argos commenced in the year of the world 2148, and 1856 years before Christ, in the time of Abraham. It was founded by Inachus, and stood also in the north-east part of the Morea.

Besides the former colonies, the Egyptians sent several others to Greece in the time of Moses. We are informed in particular, that Cretors built twelve towns, which being afterwards united, 1556 years before Christ, became the city of Athens.

About the year 1455 before Christ, Cadmus, the Phœnician, founded Thebes in Bœotia, situated thirty miles north-east of Athens. He is said to have not only introduced letters, but to have instructed the natives in the religion of Syria.

Danaus, the brother of Sesostris king of Egypt, being accused of a conspiracy against his brother, fled into Greece, where he obtained the throne of Argos in the year of the world 2553, and before the Christian æra 1451 years.

In the year of the world 2682, Pelops, a native of Phrygia in Asia Minor, procured the sovereignty of part of Peloponnesus, and communicated his name to the whole peninsula, which is now called the Morea.

Troy is supposed to have been taken by the Greeks in the year of the world 2816, and before the Christian 1184. At this period ends that part of the Grecian history which is styled fabulous.

Lacedæmon, or Sparta, appears to have been founded about the same time as Athens. The first king of this city was Eurotus, but it was afterwards governed by the Heraclidæ, or descendants of Hercules, the son of Jupiter and Alcmena. Aristodamus, the first king of this race, left his dominions to his two sons Eriethenes and Procles, in the year of the world 2900, and before the Christian æra 1104. Those princes during their lives reigned jointly, as did likewise their posterity for almost nine hundred years, till the death of Cleomenes.

Lacedæmon has been rendered particularly famous by the institutions of Lycurgus its lawgiver. This extraordinary personage was the son of Eunomus, one of the two kings of the country, and conducted the affairs of government during the minority of his nephew Charilaus; to whom, upon coming of age, he resigned his authority, after making great alterations in the constitution of the state. He instituted twenty-eight senators, to serve as a mutual check both upon the kings and people, when either of them attempted to encroach on the privileges of the other. Succeeding princes established five other magistrates, called ephori, elected by the people, and who continued in office only one year. These were vested with a power of calling their kings to account, and even of imprisoning their persons.

By another institution of Lycurgus, the lands were equally divided among the people, with the view of abolishing every distinction, except such as might be acquired by virtue alone. For the same end he also prevailed on the inhabitants to divide their moveable goods and chattels. To banish avarice from the commonwealth, he prohibited the use of gold and silver coin, ordaining that money should be made of no other metal but iron; which was so heavy that it required a cart and oxen to draw the value of twenty pounds sterling.

He next abolished all useless arts, compelling those who professed them to remove out of the country. He also obliged the citizens to eat in public, at common tables, upon the most homely fare. Every table held fifteen persons, to which none could be admitted without the consent of the whole board. Each person was obliged to furnish every month one bushel of flour, eight measures of wine, five pounds of cheese, two pounds and a half of figs, and a small sum for dressing their viands. So indispensable was the duty of attending at meals, that when king Agis, on returning from a successful expedition, presumed to eat with his wife in private, he was fined for this transgression of the laws.

All the male children were also obliged to eat at common tables, where they were entertained with serious discourses upon government, and nothing that tended to corrupt their morals was ever permitted in conversation. An injunction particularly inculcated to the youth at those meetings was secrecy. When any of them entered the hall, the eldest man in the company

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No persons were permitted to give their children a private education, but all were instructed publicly in the moral duties and in bodily exercises. They were taught to despise all foppery in dress, and to submit with patience to pain and fatigue. Such, we are told, was their constancy, that at a festival celebrated in honour of Diana, the boys would suffer themselves to be whipped to death without uttering a groan.

The Spartans spent great part of their time in the halls, where the usual subjects of conversation were the love of their country, and the public good. Besides all mechanic employments they were discharged from practising even agriculture, this business being left entirely to the helots or slaves.

They always implored the divine aid on entering upon a war, and it was an inviolable law among them never to turn their back upon an enemy, however superior in number. If any person had committed such an act of cowardice, he was condemned by the laws to go with the half of his beard shaved; and besides being treated with universal contempt, he might be beaten with impunity, by any member of the state.

The laws of Lycurgus were in some instances extremely barbarous. Of this kind were those which enjoined the exposing and taking away the lives of such infants as appeared of weakly constitutions, or were born in any measure deformed. Of the same nature was that, which, under the pretext of inspiring fortitude, ordered their bravest youths to be whipped to death, without having committed any crime. The cruel treatment of the helots was also extremely unjustifiable; nor is less censure due to the indecent custom of suffering the women to appear and dance naked in the presence of the men.

When Lycurgus had reviewed his laws, and experienced their good effects on the community, his next object was to render the obligation of them permanent. For this purpose he informed the Spartans that there yet remained one point very necessary to be considered, about which he resolved to consult the oracle of Apollo; requiring them to take an oath, that they would inviolably maintain the established form of government until his return. On his arrival at Delphos, and enquiring of the oracle, whether the laws which he had made were good, and sufficient to render the Spartans happy and virtuous, he received for answer, that nothing was wanting, and that as long as the Lacedæmonians observed those laws, they would be the most glorious and happy people in the world. Lycurgus having transmitted to Sparta the response of the oracle, voluntarily put an end to his life by fasting; an event which he considered as of the greatest advantage to the Lacedæmonians, since in virtue of their oath they would be obliged to a perpetual observance of his laws.

The first king in Attica was Cecrops, the Egyptian, who erected the court of areopagus. The members of this assembly held their sessions in the open air,

and tried causes only in the night, that their attention to the pleadings might not be diverted, nor their inclinations biased by the appearance and deportment of the pleaders. Amphictyon, the third king, formed an alliance between twelve Grecian nations, which assembled twice a year at Thermopylæ, to offer their common sacrifices, and deliberate on the affairs of the several states. This convention was called the assembly of the Amphictyons, after the name of the king by whom it was introduced.

The most remarkable reign in this period is that of Egeus, the son of Pandion, under which are placed the expedition of the Argonauts, the labours of Hercules, and the wars of Minos, the second king of Crete, with the Athenians.

The twelve cities built by Cecrops, however, were not united till the reign of Theseus, after which period they are known by the name of Athens. On the death of Codrus, who devoted himself to die for his country, the title of king was abolished by the Athenians, and his son Medon governed the city under the appellation of archon. At first this dignity was for life; but the Athenians thinking that the office bore too great a resemblance to the regal power, ordained that their archons should be elected every ten years, and afterwards changed this regulation for that of an annual appointment, the authority of the archons being at the same time greatly abridged. Great disorder, however, soon proved to be the consequence of the limitations which had been imposed on the power of the chief magistrate; to remedy which evil, the people put themselves under the direction of Draco, a man of integrity, who, in order to restrain the licentiousness which prevailed, inflicted death as the punishment of every crime. But the severity of this regulation being found to defeat its own purpose, the people chose for their archon the famous Solon, esteemed the first of the seven sages of Greece, who repealed all the laws of his predecessor, except that for the punishment of murder, and made several other important regulations.

Solon travelling to the courts of Crætus and Egypt, and returning, after ten years absence, to Athens, found the city in great confusion. Three factions were contending for the supreme authority. At the head of one of these was Pisistratus, who at length obtained sovereign power; but who, though usually styled a tyrant, reigned with great moderation thirty years. He was succeeded by his sons Hippias and Hipparchus, who, after they had reigned about eighteen years, were deposed by Hermodius and Aristogoton, two popular Athenians; and Athens recovered its democratical government in the same year that the kings were expelled from Rome.

The government of Corinth was first established in the year of the world 2628, and before the Christian epoch 1376. This city was subject to Argos, until he was dispossessed by Sisyphus, whose descendants for some time enjoyed the regal power, but were deprived of this rank by the Heraclidae, about a hundred and ten years after the siege of Troy. The government was afterwards occupied by the descendants of Barchis, under whom it was changed from a monarchy into an aristocracy.



aristocratical form. The supreme power was now lodged in a senate, which annually elected out of its own body a chief magistrate, called prytanis; but Cypselus at last, having insinuated himself into the favour of the people, usurped the sovereignty of Corinth. This prince, from the encouragement he gave to learning and learned men, was esteemed one of the sages of Greece.

Macedonia was not originally reckoned a part of Greece, but of Thrace. The first king of this country is said to have been Caranus, who began his reign 794 years before Christ, in the year of the world 3210. The Macedonians were anciently so considerable a people, that sometimes they put themselves under the protection of the Athenians, and at others, of the Thebans and Spartans, until at last, under Philip and Alexander, they not only subdued all the other states of Greece, but made an entire conquest of the Persian empire.

When the Greeks became numerous, they not only sent colonies to Asia Minor, where they founded many of the principal cities, but also sent others to Italy and Sicily; in the former of which they built Tarentum, and in the latter the city of Syracuse.

The first war that occurred among the Grecian states broke out between the Lacedæmonians and the Argives, about their title to the little country of Thyrea. When the two armies were upon the point of engaging, it was agreed, in order to spare the effusion of human blood, that their right to the territory in dispute should be decided by a combat of three hundred men on each side. Both parties fought with such resolution, that only three of the combatants survived, viz. two of the Argives, and one of the Lacedæmonians. The darkness of the night separating them, the two Argives returned to Argos, to carry the news of the victory, which they apprehended belonged to them, as they were two to one. The Lacedæmonian, however, having remained in the field of battle, the victory was also claimed by that republic; nor could the dispute be decided till both parties came to a general engagement, in which the Argives were defeated.

The next intestine war of the Grecian states was between the Lacedæmonians and Messenians, who were situated westward of Sparta. This war commenced in the year 743 before the Christian æra, when Euphaes was king of Messenia, and Polydorus and Theopompus were kings of Sparta. The Lacedæmonians, among other injuries, complained that the Messenians had ravished their daughters, when the latter were performing their devotions at a temple which stood on the confines of the two states. The Lacedæmonians laying siege to the city of Alpha took it by storm, and massacred all the inhabitants; at the same time making a vow that they would not lay down their arms, nor return to Sparta, till they had subdued all the cities of the Messenians. Two battles were afterwards fought, but neither of them proving decisive, the Messenians consulted the oracle at Delphos about the success of the war, when they were advised to appease the wrath of the gods by sacrificing a virgin of the blood royal;

and for this purpose Aristomenes, one of their princes, offered his own daughter. The Messenians were at this time so formidable, that the Spartans did not think fit to attack them again, but continued in arms during the space of seven years, from a regard to the oath which they had taken. Beginning at length to apprehend that the state would suffer by their long absence from their wives, they commissioned their friends at Sparta, who had not taken the oath, to lie with their wives, in order to increase the breed. The children that proceeded from those embraces, were afterwards esteemed infamous, and denominated the Partheniataz. Being ashamed of this opprobrious distinction, when they grew up, they transported themselves to Tarentum in Italy.

The war continuing seven years more, Aristomenes, king of the Messenians, obtained a complete victory, and even made prisoner Theopompus the Spartan king, whom, with three hundred other captives, he offered in sacrifice to Jupiter of Ithoma; and in a short time after this event, killed himself on the tomb of his daughter, who had been formerly sacrificed at his own desire, in obedience to the oracle of Delphos.

The war between those two nations revived after the death of the king, and in the end the Messenians were forced to submit to the Lacedæmonians, who obliged them to take an oath that they would become their subjects, and deliver one half of the produce of their lands annually in the market of Sparta.

The Spartans treating their new subjects with great cruelty and insolence during forty years, the latter broke out into rebellion, and were successful in several battles; but when the war had continued fourteen years, they were again obliged to submit. Some that fled transported themselves to Sicily, where they built the city of Messina; but those who remained behind were reduced to the condition of helots or slaves to the Spartans.

In the year 470 before the Christian epoch there happened in Laconia a great earthquake, which destroyed many towns, and threw the whole country into great consternation. The helots taking advantage of the disorder in which their masters were involved, broke out into rebellion, in the hope of regaining their freedom. By the late accession of the Messenians their party became so formidable, that the Spartans applied for assistance to the people of Athens, who ordered for this purpose four thousand of their troops, commanded by the celebrated Cimon. When these auxiliaries approached Lacedæmon, however, some of the Spartans suggesting that the Athenians designed to make themselves masters of the city, they refused their assistance, and would not permit them to join the Lacedæmonian army. The Athenians were so exasperated at this unprovoked outrage, that they took several cities which depended on Sparta, at the same time receiving the helots under their protection, and declaring themselves perpetual enemies to the Lacedæmonian republic.

All the states of Peloponnesus declared for Sparta, except Argos, which stood neuter; and out of Peloponnesus, Megara, Locris, Bœotia, Phocis, Ambracia, Leucadia, and Anactorium, likewise the port of Lacedæmon.

dæmon. The allies of the Athenians were Platea, the Messenians of Næupaclus, the greater part of the Acarnanians, the Cyclades, and most of the islands in the Egean Sea; with several cities of Thrace, and of Asia Minor. The Lacedæmonians being joined by their allies, marched into Attica with an army of sixty thousand men, and invested Athens. But Pericles, who commanded in the city, having previously deprived the enemy of the means of subsistence, either by destroying or securing all the provisions in the country; and the latter being likewise informed that the Athenian fleet was making descents in Peloponnesus, they abandoned the siege, and returned with precipitation to their own territories.

Next year the Spartans and their allies again assembled their forces, and marched into Attica, where the Athenians, as formerly, continued to act on the defensive. A terrible plague, however, which ravaged almost the whole continent of Asia, breaking out in the city, great numbers of the inhabitants were destroyed. In this miserable condition, they were reduced to make offers of peace to the invaders upon very disadvantageous terms, but which were not accepted by the latter.

Mean time the Spartans, finding their country perpetually harassed by the Athenian fleet, and having neither a sufficient force to guard their coasts, nor money to pay their troops, sent an embassy to Darius king of Persia, to propose an alliance with him, and request his assistance. The ambassadors, however, were made prisoners on their route, and being sent to Athens were put to death in an ignominious manner, to retaliate a similar insult which had been recently offered by the Lacedæmonians.

Never was any war carried on with greater barbarity than that which subsisted at this time between the Grecian states. The inhabitants of Lesbos being about to enter into an alliance with Sparta, the Athenians sent a fleet to subdue the island, which after they had effected, they massacred in cold blood all that had expressed their approbation of that alliance. The Spartans, on the other hand, put all the Platæans to the sword, after they had surrendered at discretion. During the first seven years of the war hostilities were exercised chiefly in mutual depredation; but in the tenth year, each of the parties being wearied with those incursions, they concluded a peace for fifty years, which continued, however, but a very little time.

A rupture happening in Sicily between the Greeks who were allies to the Athenians, and the Syracusians who were a colony of the Corinthians, allies of the Spartans; the celebrated Alcibiades persuaded the Athenians to enter into a war against Syracuse, in which proving unsuccessful, he was condemned by his countrymen to die, but made his escape to Sparta. Here he was for some time entrusted with the command of the Lacedæmonian troops, in which character he acquitted himself with applause; but not being acceptable to some of the leading men, and discovering that a design was formed against his life, he removed to the court of Tissaphernes, viceroy to the king of Persia in Asia Minor.

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The Athenian fleet and army that were employed in the siege of Syracuse being entirely defeated, their two generals, Lycias and Demosthenes, were made prisoners, and put to death by the enemy. On receiving the news of this disaster, most of the allies of Athens in Greece immediately deserted them, and entered into an alliance with Sparta; particularly the islands in the Egean Sea. By this important accession of the maritime states, the Spartan fleet, which had hitherto been very inconsiderable, became equal to that of the Athenians, whose strength was much exhausted by some battles in which they had lately been defeated. At this crisis, the Athenians imputing all their disasters to the want of a good general, invited Alcibiades into their service again, who accepting the offer, gained several victories over the Spartans; but being unsuccessful in one engagement at sea, the Athenians condemned him a second time; upon which he retired into Thrace, where he had previously secured an asylum.

Fortune seemed to abandon the Athenians with the loss of their general: for the viceroy of Asia Minor assisting the Spartans with a strong naval armament, Lyfander their admiral obtained a complete victory over the Athenian fleet, and blocked up the capital by sea; while Agis king of Sparta besieging it on the land side, compelled the city to surrender, almost at discretion, after the war had continued twenty-seven years. The victorious general putting a strong garrison into the castle, appointed for the government of the city thirty archons, who, on account of their oppression, were denominated tyrants by the Athenians. All the Grecian cities that were before subject to Athens, were restored to their liberty, and had no longer any dependence on that republic.

After this conquest, Lyfander sent to Sparta all the rich plunder and treasure that he had acquired, which is supposed to have not a little contributed to the ruin of that state. This fatal consequence was apprehended by some of the wisest men among them, and to prevent it as much as possible, they made a law, that none but iron money should pass in trade; and that all the gold and silver should be deposited in the public treasury, to be used only when the exigence of the nation required.

The Lacedæmonians had no sooner reduced Athens, than they began to tyrannize over the other Grecian states, not only oppressing those that had been their enemies, but even their most considerable allies. Attacking the Bæotians unexpectedly, they put a strong garrison into their capital city of Thebes, and governed the inhabitants in the most arbitrary manner. Having expelled some of the Theban magistrates, the citizens were so much alarmed that four hundred of the principal of them fled to Athens. There the malecontents of both cities entered into a conspiracy to expel the Lacedæmonians, and recover their liberties. The chief of this association were the celebrated Epaminondas and Pelopidas. Twelve of the conspirators going in disguise to Thebes, found means to surprize Leontides and Archias, the Spartan generals, when they were intoxicated with wine, and killed them. Immediately inviting the assistance of all that loved their country,

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the desertion became so general both in Thebes and Athens, that the garrisons in each were compelled to surrender, and the inhabitants of the two cities resumed their ancient form of government.

The Thebans, some time after, under the command of Epaminondas and Pelopidas, engaged the Spartans in a pitched battle at Leuctra, and obtained a complete victory. Another battle was afterwards fought between the armies at Mantinea; but the two Theban generals being killed by the enemy, the glory of this republic was extinguished with them.

Athens, Sparta, and Thebes, enjoyed thus in their turns the sovereignty of the Grecian states, till at length they were all subdued by the superior power of Macedon, which before the reign of Philip had been only an inconsiderable kingdom. Two circumstances in particular contributed to raise this politic prince to the grandeur which he attained. The one was a silver mine discovered in his own territories; and the other, the divisions that he found or created among the cities of Greece. By the first of those he was not only enabled to purchase the leading men in most of the republics, but to support such an army as might be sufficient for effectuating the purpose he had in view. His policy, however, led him to proceed with caution in his design. In the sacred war, in which almost all Greece was engaged, he avoided taking a part openly on either side, but fomented the divisions of the opposite parties, as the surest way to exhaust their strength, and facilitate the conquest he intended.

The sacred war was occasioned by the people who inhabited the country in the neighbourhood of Delphos, ploughing up some lands which belonged to the temple of Apollo. This action being considered as sacrilege by the votaries of that deity, the offenders were summoned before the court of Amphictyons, which consisted of representatives from every state in Greece. The cause being heard before this tribunal, the Phocians, who were the delinquents, were condemned to pay a large fine; but they insisting that the sovereignty of Delphos belonged to them, refused to submit, and immediately had recourse to arms; engaging on their side the Lacedæmonians, and several other Grecian states.

When the several states had been considerably weakened in this war, Philip began to invade their territories; at which being alarmed, the wisest among them were of opinion, that the most prudent step was to make peace among themselves, and prepare to oppose his invasions. This measure Demosthenes recommended with great warmth to the Athenians; but they yielded not to his advice in time to adopt it with success.

Philip at length entering into an open war with the Athenians and their allies, obtained over them, at Cheronea, a complete victory, which put an end to the liberties of Greece. They submitted to acknowledge him generalissimo of all their forces against Persia, but while he was preparing for this expedition, he was assassinated by Pausanias, a young nobleman of his guards.

His son Alexander succeeded to the throne at the age of twenty years. The first object of this young prince

was to reduce such of the Grecian states as had revolted, particularly Thebes, which he entirely demolished. Assembling afterwards a body of forces, consisting of five thousand horse, and thirty thousand foot, he passed over the Hellespont into Asia. But his conquests in the East having been related in treating of Persia, the reader is referred to the account delivered in that history.

After the death of Alexander, his captains divided his dominions among themselves. Antipater, as guardian to Arideus, the natural brother of the late king, took upon him the regency of Macedon; and Alexander's widow, Roxana, being afterwards delivered of a son, the several generals pretended to govern their respective territories only in quality of regents, until the two young princes should come of age. These, however, being both murdered, and Antipater dying soon after, his son Cassander assumed the title of king, claiming not only the kingdom of Macedon, but the sovereignty of all Greece. This country being afterwards divided among many other princes and states, who were perpetually at war with each other, the Romans, under pretence of assisting their allies, and procuring the liberty of some of the Grecian states, having sent hither a considerable force, they at length made a conquest of the whole, and reduced all Greece to the form of a Roman province. In this state it continued till the division of the Roman territories, when it was comprehended in the eastern empire, till this was subdued by the Turks.

#### C H A P. VI.

##### *Of the Greek church in the Turkish empire.*

**M**OST of the Christians in Turkey are of the Greek church, who are more numerous than the Mahometans in several parts of the empire. They are governed in spirituals by four patriarchs, viz. those of Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem; to each of whom a particular jurisdiction is allotted. Within the province of Constantinople are included Asia Minor, Greece, and the more northerly Turkish dominions, with the islands of the Archipelago. That of Alexandria contains Egypt, Lybia, and part of Arabia. The patriarch of Antioch has the superiority of Syria, Mesopotamia, Isauria, and Cilicia. And the patriarch of Jerusalem presides over Palestine, and part of Arabia. The Armenians, Maronites, and other sects of Christians in Turkey have also their respective patriarchs; and the pope appoints a titular patriarch at Constantinople, as well as a bishop. In general, however, the Greeks and eastern Christians have an inveterate prejudice against those of the Romish church, while on the other hand the latter treat them as infidels, and are continually inciting the Turks to oppress and destroy them.

The Greek churches observe four Lenten every year; the first is coincident with ours, and continues forty-eight days: the second begins the fifteenth of November, and continues forty days: the third is observed in honour of the Virgin Mary, beginning on the first

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of August, and ending the fourteenth. The fourth fast begins on the Monday after Whit Sunday, and continues to the twenty-ninth of June. Besides all those, which are observed with great strictness, they have weekly fasts on Wednesday and Friday; and they fast on the eves of Epiphany, Pentecost, and several other great holidays.

They baptize their children at the age of eight or ten days, dipping them three times in water, which, if the weather be cold, is always warmed. They afterwards anoint the child with consecrated oil, a composition made of cassia, myrrh, storax, and a variety of other drugs, mixt with wine and oil, which is usually kept in alabaster boxes, and distributed by the bishop.

The celebration of the eucharist is performed by the priests with great ceremony. Besides being regularly given in the churches four times in the year, this sacrament is administered to infants that have been christened, when, on account of weakness or any disease, they seem to be in a dangerous situation. Before the return of those stated periods adults are obliged to confess themselves to the priests; but it is not required that they be extremely particular in this exercise, as absolution is obtained upon easy terms. They however esteem a person in a very dangerous state, who dies unabsolved; and if, at the time of death, he lay under the sentence of excommunication, his body is supposed to remain undissoluble, and to suffer great pain in the grave, until the censure of the church be removed. In the doctrine of penance, likewise, those of the Greek church coincide in opinion with the Roman Catholics, and some of them also in respect of transubstantiation; but the latter is maintained only by such as have been educated in the Italian seminaries, or learnt it from the Roman missionaries.

When a person amongst them is sick, he is anointed with oil by the priests, of whom three is the smallest number allowed to perform this ceremony. They anoint even the sick man's house with sacred oil, making the sign of the cross on the doors and door-posts.

Second marriages are not approved by the Greeks, and third and fourth marriages are esteemed wicked. The age at which the parties can contract is fourteen on the side of the man, and thirteen on that of the woman; but the marriage is void, unless ratified by the consent of the parents or guardians. Like the papists, they prohibit marriage with spiritual relations: a man therefore is prohibited from marrying the daughter or sister of his godfather, or any other that is nearly related to him. A divorce is easily obtained among them; for if it be refused, the men make no scruple of maintaining a criminal correspondence with other women.

The only creed they repeat is the Nicene. They censure the worship of images, but adore pictures in their churches, before which, and at the holy table, they burn incense. With this likewise the people are frequently perfumed; and they universally abstain from blood.

Their churches, like ours, stand east and west, and are divided into three parts. The west end is allotted to the women, who are separated by a lattice, through which they can see without being perceived. The middle of the church is occupied by the laymen, and the east end by the clergy. In their churches they neither sit nor kneel, but when fatigued with standing, they are permitted the use of crutches.

At the election of a patriarch a great sum is always demanded of him by the grand seignior, without whose confirmation, or that of the grand vizier, he cannot enter upon his office. Besides this, and large douceurs expected by the sultana and court favourites, he is obliged to pay an annual tribute, for the raising of which he imposes a tax on the bishops and inferior clergy. Every priest pays him a year's profit of his living, on his entrance upon it. He also reaps emotion by marriage licences and dispensations, as well as by perquisites in all civil causes, in which he is the only judge. His revenue, at a moderate computation, may amount to thirty or forty thousand crowns a year; but the greater part of this sum is extorted from him by the Turkish officers, who also levy on every Christian a poll tax, in consideration of the religious liberty which they are permitted to enjoy.

The revenues of the priests are very small, ten pounds a year being esteemed a good living; and out of this an annual sum is regularly paid to the bishop. They are not allowed to exercise any secular employment, and are distinguished from the laity by a black cassock, and a cap of the same colour, in the form of the crown of a hat. Notwithstanding their poverty they are held in great veneration by the people, who always behave towards them with marks of the highest respect.

#### C H A P. VII.

##### *Of the Turkish islands.*

HAVING traversed the continent of the Turkish empire, we proceed to the description of its islands, which are usually ranked either in Europe or Asia, according to their proximity to the coasts of those great divisions of the globe. We shall begin with Cyprus, as being the most easterly.

#### C Y P R U S.

Cyprus is situate between 32 and 35 degrees of east longitude, and between 34 and 36 degrees of north latitude, sixty miles south of the coast of Caramania or Cilicia, and thirty miles west of that of Syria. It is about a hundred and fifty miles long, and seventy broad. Here is one of those mountains called Olympus, but in the whole island there are no springs or rivers, except such as the rains produce; which happening to be deficient thirty years successively, in the reign of Constantine the Great, the inhabitants were obliged to abandon the place for some time. The usual produce of the island is corn, wine, oil, wool, cotton, salt,

salt, and some silk, with plenty of flesh, fish, and fowl. The merchants of Europe and Asia frequently resorting hither, Cyprus enjoys a brisk trade, but it has so much declined in fertility and populousness since it came into the hands of the Turks, that half the lands at present lie uncultivated.

This island was first peopled from Syria, and divided into several petty states; but Amasis, king of Egypt, reducing the whole, rendered it a province of that country. Many of the maritime parts, however, were afterwards separately occupied by the Phœnicians and Greeks, the latter of whom built Salamis; and the island being again divided into several governments, it was made tributary by Cyrus to the crown of Persia; but the inhabitants revolting under Darius, they joined the army of Alexander, and were of great service to that prince at the siege of Tyre. Some years after the sovereignty of the island was resumed by the king of Egypt, and remained in the possession of the Ptolemies, till it was subdued by the Romans. From this time Cyprus became a Roman province, and, with the Asiatic provinces, fell to the share of the emperor of Constantinople. About the year 641, in the reign of the second Constantine, it was taken by the Saracens, but afterwards recovered, and remained in the possession of the eastern emperor till the year 1107, when Richard I. King of England, being denied water here, he was so exasperated, that he landed his forces, and subduing the island, sold it to the Templars. It continued henceforth in the family of Guy Lusignan, the titular king of Jerusalem, until the year 1423, when it was invaded and rendered tributary by the sultan of Egypt. In this state it remained during fifty years, at which time it was transferred to the Venetians by the will of John, the last king of the island, who paid the tribute of forty thousand crowns to the sultan of Egypt. Selimus, emperor of the Turks, however, invaded the island in 1570, and his successors have ever since remained in the possession of it.

The chief towns are, 1. Nicæssa, the capital, and the seat of the beglerbeg or viceroy. It is situated in the middle of the island, and is about three miles in circumference. 2. Famagusta, the ancient Salamis, a port-town towards the east end of the island, almost opposite to Tripoli in Syria. 3. Baffo, the ancient Paphos, situated at the west end of the island. 4. Sereues, on the north side. 5. Salines, on the south. 6. Lymissa or Amathus, situated likewise on the south coast, and reckoned the best port in the island.

The ancient female inhabitants of Cyprus are represented as prostitutes, and are said to have offered themselves to all strangers who visited their coasts; which perhaps was the reason of the island being dedicated to Venus. No vestiges remain of the temple of Paphos, neither is any thing to be seen of the myrtle grove of Adonis, which once covered the promontory on the east side of the island, now called Capo di Griego.

The Christian inhabitants of this island are generally Greeks or Armenians, of whom the former have still an archbishop in the city of Nicæria.

## R H O D E S.

The island of Rhodes is situate in 28 degrees of east longitude, and between 36 and 37 degrees of north latitude, twenty miles sou h-west of Asia Minor. It is about fifty miles long, and twenty-five broad. This island, anciently sacred to the sun, had the names of Ophinta, Alæria, and Erichrea, and is said to have obtained that of Rhodes, from the plenty of roses which it produces. The climate is temperate and agreeable, and the soil abounds with fruit and wine, but yields not a sufficient quantity of corn for the use of the inhabitants, who therefore supply themselves with this article from the neighbouring continent.

The city of Rhodes, which is the capital, is situated on the north-east coast of the island, and furnished with a commodious harbour. It is about three miles in compass; the streets are wide, straight, and well paved, and in the middle of the largest is a row of white marble stones from the one end to the other. The houses are built of hard stone, and the markets well supplied with all necessaries, which are sold at an easy rate. This city, once one of the most flourishing in Asia, was granted by Emanuel, emperor of Constantinople, to the knights Hospitallers of St. John, after their expulsion from the Holy Land; and in the year 1444, they defended it gallantly against the sultan of Egypt. In 1480, they held out a siege of three months, undertaken by Mahomet II. but in 1522, the island was subdued by Soliman II. after a most obstinate defence by the knights, under the conduct of their great master, Adam. The place is defended by three walls, and the same number of moats, which render it one of the strongest fortresses in the grand seignior's dominions; and hither he usually sends prisoners of state, such as the chams of Tartary, and hospodars of Wallachia and Moldavia, when he suspects their fidelity. The inhabitants consist of Turks, Jews, and Christians, but the latter are not suffered to remain within the walls in the night-time.

At the mouth of the harbour of Rhodes, which is fifty fathoms wide, stood the famous Colossus of brass, esteemed one of the wonders of the world. This huge statue, the work of Chares the Lindian, and scholar of Lysippus, was seventy cubits in height: a foot was placed on each side of the harbour, so that ships passed between its legs. This celebrated image was overthrown by an earthquake fifty six years after its erection.

The Rhodians were the naval power next in consideration to the Phœnicians and Carthaginians. They held out long against the Greeks, but at last became their associates, till soliciting protection against the Macedonians, they submitted to receive a Roman governor. From this time the city of Rhodes was reckoned the greatest nursery for learning in the eastern part of the world. Here Cæsar studied, and hither likewise Tiberius pretended to retire for the same purpose. Upon the division of the Roman empire, this island fell to the share of the eastern emperor. In the year

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fort speak Italian, which has been introduced by the Venetians, who were long in possession of the island. The established religion is the Mahometan, though the Christian is tolerated, as in other parts of the Turkish empire.

The earliest accounts of this island are involved in poetical fiction, and the mysteries of the heathen mythology. So far as we can carry our researches into the events of those remote times, it appears that Crete was anciently governed by a king of the name of Saturn, who was dethroned and expelled the country by his son Jupiter, a profligate prince, but to whom, after his death, the people paid divine honours; and this superstition gradually diffusing itself, he became in time the principal god of the whole heathen world.

One of the most memorable occurrences mentioned in the fabulous period of the Cretan history, is the amour of Pasiphaë, the wife of Minos king of the island, who was the son of Jupiter by Europa. Pasiphaë, notwithstanding she had several children by her husband, having an intrigue with one of his officers,

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a channel about five hundred paces broad. The smaller Delos is of an oval figure, about six miles in circumference; and the other eighteen. The former of those islands was much celebrated in ancient times, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana; in honour of whom public festivals were instituted, to which all the neighbouring islands sent hither priests, sacrifices, and choirs of virgins. The number of the Cyclades, which contributed to those solemnities was at first only twelve, but they were afterwards joined by almost all the islands in the Egean Sea, and in process of time by the inhabitants of Greece, and the countries northward of it. Upon the destruction of Corinth by the Romans, the wealth and trade of that city were removed hither; the merchants being invited to this island, not only on account of the goodness of its ports, and the convenience of its situation between Europe and Asia, but chiefly because of its immunities, and exemption from customs and impositions.

According to the poets, Delos was once a floating island. Thucydides informs us that no dog was al-

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1124, it was taken by the Venetians, but recovered by the emperor of the East, in 1227. About fifty-six years afterwards it was taken by the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, who bravely defended it during the space of two hundred years.

## S C A R P A N T O.

Scarpanto is situate in 27 degrees east longitude, and 36 of north latitude, twenty miles south-west of Rhodes. This is the ancient Carpathus, whence arose the proverb, Carpathius leporem, denoting an inconsiderate action which proves hurtful; hares, which were brought into the island having multiplied so fast as to destroy all the corn.

## C A N D I A.

Candia, the ancient Crete, is situate between 23 and 27 degrees east longitude, and between 35 and 36 degrees north latitude. It is about two hundred miles in length, and fifty in breadth. There is here no considerable river, but many little rivulets, of which Lethe is one of the largest. The highest of the mountains is the celebrated mount Ida, which occupies the middle of the island; the nursing-place of Jupiter, and where his tomb was visited in the time of Varro. Notwithstanding the fine descriptions of it in the ancient poets, it is only a huge barren rock, destitute of trees and herbage.

The air of this island is temperate, and the soil rich and fertile, abounding with corn, oil, wine, and fruits of various kinds. The chief commodities are, muscade wine, malmsey, sugar, sugar-candy, honey, wax, gum, olives, &c.

Crete had once a hundred cities, and was therefore called Hecatompolis. At present, however, there are only three or four, and those not considerable; but there is a number of villages, and the country is well inhabited. The common language of the natives is the modern Greek and Turkish; but most of the better sort speak Italian, which has been introduced by the Venetians, who were long in possession of the island. The established religion is the Mahometan, though the Christian is tolerated, as in other parts of the Turkish empire.

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One of the most memorable occurrences mentioned in the fabulous period of the Cretan history, is the amour of Pasiphaë, the wife of Minos king of the island, who was the son of Jupiter by Europa. Pasiphaë, notwithstanding she had several children by her husband, having an intrigue with one of his officers, No. 16.

whose name answered to a bull, was with child by this gallant; when the affair coming to the king's ears, he threw into prison Dædalus, a person who had been accessary to the amour. The latter, however, made his escape, and by the means of sails which he had invented, out-stripping all the boats that were sent to bring him back, he arrived in Sicily; but his son Icarus, not being sufficiently acquainted with the management of his vessel, was cast away.

This Dædalus appears to have been an ingenious man, and the author of several curious inventions. One of those was a labyrinth, into which, whoever entered far, was lost as in a wilderness. Here Minos shut up the Athenian youths whom he required to be sent to him every year, and put them to death; till Theseus, by the assistance of Ariadne, Minos's daughter, found his way out of the labyrinth, after killing those who had been employed to sacrifice the young Athenians.

After the extinction of the regal power, the Cretans formed themselves into a republic, till Q. Metellus conquering the island, made it a province of the Roman empire. It continued under the emperors of Constantinople, till about the year 823, when the Saracens surpris'd and took it, and built the city Candia, which in time gave name to the island. Being retaken by the emperor Nicephorus Phocas, Baldwin, earl of Flanders, and afterwards emperor, gave it to Boniface, marquis of Montserrat, who sold it to the Venetians for a great sum of money. The latter held it above four hundred years, when after a brave defence, it was taken from them by the Turks, in the year 1669.

## D E L O S.

Delos, the center of the islands of Cyclades, is situate in 25 degrees 50 minutes east longitude, and 37 degrees 26 minutes north latitude. There are two islands of this name, called in the plural number Zdeli, the largest of which is also known by the appellation of Rhenia. They are separated from each other by a channel about five hundred paces broad. The smaller Delos is of an oval figure, about six miles in circumference; and the other eighteen. The former of those islands was much celebrated in ancient times, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana; in honour of whom public festivals were instituted, to which all the neighbouring islands sent hither priests, sacrifices, and choirs of virgins. The number of the Cyclades, which contributed to those solemnities was at first only twelve, but they were afterwards joined by almost all the islands in the Egean Sea, and in process of time by the inhabitants of Greece, and the countries northward of it. Upon the destruction of Corinth by the Romans, the wealth and trade of that city were removed hither; the merchants being invited to this island, not only on account of the goodness of its ports, and the convenience of its situation between Europe and Asia, but chiefly because of its immunities, and exemption from customs and impositions.

According to the poets, Delos was once a floating island. Thucydides informs us that no dog was allowed



lowed to be on the island, nor a dead body buried in it. The *Problema Delicum* was famous among the ancient geometers. It consisted in doubling the altar of Apollo in Delos, which was a perfect cube; and was proposed to the people of Delos, for a solution, on consulting the oracle how they might be freed from a plague with which they were infested.

There are still upon this island vast heaps of marble ruins, some of which belonged to the temple of Apollo, as appears by the trunk of his statue found amongst them. This statue was four times larger than the life; for the shoulders were six foot broad, and the rest of the body proportionable. His locks hanging round his shoulders are yet to be seen, with marks in each curl, where it is probable that jewels have been set. His girdle also seems to have been richly adorned, and on the left shoulder he wore a light mantle.

On the sides of the hills, are several landing-places, admirably beautified with porticoes and other structures, as appears from the multitude of pillars, pedestals, and architraves, with many fragments of excellent marble, ranging strait and parallel to each other.

In the Greater Delos also are many magnificent ruins, among which are upwards of six score of altars. Most of them are cylindrical, adorned with festoons, interwoven with the heads of oxen or rams. They are usually about three foot and a half in height, and three foot in diameter. On one of them, below the festoons, is represented a bunch of grapes, whence this altar is supposed to have been dedicated to Bacchus. The mountains here, which are not very high, afford excellent pasturage, and the valleys, if cultivated, would produce corn and wine; but this island, as well as the other Delos, is perfectly deserted, except by the shepherds whom the people of Mycone send hither to attend their herds and flocks.

#### M Y C O N E.

The island of Mycone is situate in 25 degrees 6 minutes of east longitude, and in 37 of north latitude, three miles north-east of the Less Delos. It is about thirty miles in circumference, containing very little wood, and hardly a well in the whole country. The soil produces corn, wine, and figs, with a few olives. It is computed that there are about five hundred sea-faring men on the island, who have many of them the reputation of being rovers. The town of Mycone is supposed to contain three thousand inhabitants. Hither the rovers usually bring their plunder, and here they keep their wives and children. The women in general have a greater reputation for beauty than chastity, and their cloaths reach no farther down than a little below their knees.

The inhabitants of this island are most of them Christians of the Greek church, and have magistrates of their own religion; but a Turkish officer comes annually to collect the taxes which they pay to the Porte. Sometimes they are also visited by a *cadi*, who holds a court for determining such controversies as may be appealed from the magistrates. The island contains no less than fifty Greek churches, which have each

their papa or priests; and there is likewise a nunnery, with some monasteries.

#### N A X O S.

Naxos, or Naxia, is situate in 26 degrees east longitude, and 36 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude, sixteen miles south of Mycone. It is of an oval form, about a hundred miles in circumference. There is here but one town, which stands on the south side of the island, and about forty villages, inhabited by Greek and Latin Christians, of whom the former are most numerous. The mutual animosity of those two sects is incredible, and can only be equalled by the extravagant vanity of both. Their discourse turns almost constantly on the subject of their families and pedigree. At the conclusion of the vintage, the ladies may be seen returning from the country with a train of thirty or forty females, some mounted on asses, and others travelling a-foot; one carrying a towel, another a pair of stockings, a third a dish, and each of the rest something else; so that almost all the mistress's cloathing and the furniture of the house are exposed to view. The lady, poorly mounted, makes her entrance into the town at the head of the procession, while the children march in the middle, and the husband brings up the rear. The gentlemen of Naxia seldom visit each other, but amuse themselves chiefly with hunting either deer or other game. The villages are not very populous, the whole inhabitants of the island being computed not to exceed a thousand persons. There are however two archbishops, one of the Latin, and the other of the Greek church; the latter of whom has a handsome revenue, the islands of Paros and Antiparos being also within his jurisdiction.

The inhabitants, as in most of the other islands, elect their governors from among themselves; but are sometimes visited by a *cadi* or Mahometan judge, to whom they appeal as to the last resort. An officer comes regularly every year to collect the taxes, which amount to ten thousand crowns and upwards. Such is the servile disposition of the people, that the meanest Turkish officer who arrives in the island but occasionally, is considered, while he remains, in a manner as governor of the island, and may order whom he pleases to undergo the *bastinado*. The common people, however, both here and in the neighbouring islands pass the time almost perpetually in merriment. They derive their origin from Bacchus, and confirm their relation to that deity by the plentiful use of good wine.

#### P A R O S.

Paros is situate west of Naxia, in 25 degrees 30 minutes of east longitude, and 30 minutes of north latitude. This island is about forty miles in circumference, and produces plenty of corn and wine. The number of families here is computed at fifteen hundred. Meat of all kinds is generally good; and the mutton, which is small, and fed in the houses with fruits and bread, is particularly admired by travellers for its delicate flavour. Paros was anciently famous for its white marble,

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marble, as well as for the excellent sculptors, Phidias and Praxitiles, whom it produced. It was likewise the country of Archilochus, the iambic poet. The noblest antiquity here discovered is a piece of marble, on which is engraved the most noted Greek epochs, from the reign of Cecrops, the founder of the Athenian monarchy, to Diogenes the magistrate; including a period of one thousand three hundred years. From this curious monument, which is preserved in the University of Oxford, we learn the foundation of the most famous cities in Greece, as well as the time when the several men lived who were the ornaments of that country.

The Turks repose so much confidence in the Greeks of this island, and some others, that they entrust one of their number with the administration of justice, and do not send hither a *cadi* to determine appeals. Here are several good ports, particularly that of St. Mary; but the Turks usually come to an anchor in the port of Drio, which is on the western part of the island.

#### A N T I P A R O S.

Antiparos, about a mile from Paros, is a flat rock, sixteen miles in compass, covered in some places with a stratum of earth, which produces corn sufficient for three or four score families, that inhabit a poor village about a mile from the sea. Here is little deserving notice, except a grotto about forty fathoms high, and fifty broad. The roof, which forms an arch, is embellished with variety of natural fretwork; and in some places there is the resemblance of bunches of grapes, and festoons, of a surprising length. On the right and left are formed several little closets or cabinets. Among other figures is a large pavillion, formed of parts exactly resembling the roots, branches, and heads of cauliflowerers. Those various representations are of white marble, transparent and crystalized, and many of them covered with a white crust. When struck, they give a sound resembling that which proceeds from copper. There are also several columns of marble, in the form of the trunks of trees, which undoubtedly vegetate. For not a drop of water ever falls into the place; and if it did, we can hardly suppose that a few drops, falling from a height of twenty-five or thirty fathom, would form cylindrical pieces, terminating like round caps.

#### C E R I G O.

Cerigo, or Cithera, is situate in 23 degrees 40 minutes east longitude, and 36 degrees north latitude, near the south-east part of the Morea. It is about fifty miles in circumference, a rocky mountainous country, with a barren soil, and but thinly inhabited. The chief town lies on the south side of the island, but has not a good harbour. This island was sacred to Venus, and anciently contained a temple dedicated to that goddess, in which she was represented in armour, as in Cyprus. It is also said to have been the birth-place of Leda.

#### M E L O S.

Melos, or Milo, is situate in 25 degrees of east longitude, and in 36 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude, about sixty miles east of the Morea. It is of a circular form, and about seventy miles in circumference. The island appears to be a hollow spongy rock, which the sea enters by many subterraneous passages, and mixing with the sulphur that is here found in great quantity, occasions almost continual fires. The surface of the earth being hence warmed, it produces in many places, the best grapes, figs, and melons, of any island in the Archipelago. The fields here resemble so many gardens, being separated from each other by stone walls. Hutehens meat, poultry, fish, and game, are here in great abundance; and though the air be unwholesome, and the situation dangerous, yet the inhabitants discover in their temperament the merry disposition; for which the Greeks have been always noted. They are generally sea-faring men, and serve as pilots to ships which sail in the Archipelago. The greater part are of the Greek church; the bishop of which has a good revenue, and many churches under his care; besides several monasteries: amongst the latter is one on mount Elijah, where there is a glorious prospect of several islands in the Archipelago. A rivulet runs through the gardens, and the convent is surrounded with groves of olives, oranges, and cedar trees; which render it a most agreeable solitude.

With respect to the soil of this island, Aristotle observes, that on digging the earth, the cavity naturally filled up. Of this country was Diagoras, the atheist; hence surnamed *Melius*.

#### S A N T O R I N I.

Santorini, or St. Erini, anciently called Thera and Calista, is situate in 25 degrees 35 minutes of east longitude, and 36 degrees 20 minutes of north latitude, being of the shape of a crescent, and about thirty-five miles in circumference. The island or rock of Therasia, lying between the two points, forms a large and secure harbour, at the bottom of which, as well as at each of the extremities, stands a castle. It is said by Pliny to have been raised out of the sea by a volcano; and this account is confirmed by three adjacent islands being since produced also by the means of subterraneous fire. The inhabitants amount to about ten thousand persons, all Greeks; of whom one third is of the Latin communion, and subject to a Latin bishop. A *cadi*, or itinerant judge from the Turks, visits them here annually, as in some other islands. Most of the people live in caves hewn out of the pumice-stone rocks, which are however covered with a stratum of fruitful earth.

#### T H E R M I A.

Thermia, so called from its hot-baths, lies north-east of Melos. It produces a good quantity of wine, silk, cotton, barley, honey, wax, figs, and other fruit; con-

containing about six thousand inhabitants, of the Greek communion, whose bishop resides at Thermia, the chief town of the island, which appears from the magnificence of its ruins to have been once a noble city.

## Z E A.

Zea, or Ceos, is situate about twenty miles north-west of Thermia, and nearly the same distance east of the continent of Greece. It is about fifty miles in circumference: the only town is Carthea, the residence of a Greek bishop, who has a good revenue. There are also several chapels and monasteries in the island. The soil produces corn and wine; but the chief commodity is silk, which is here manufactured. This was the country of Simonides the lyric poet, and the inhabitants were noted in ancient times for their modesty and sobriety.

## S T A N C H I O.

Stanchio, the ancient Coos, or Cos, is situate in 27 degrees 30 minutes of east longitude, and 37 degrees of north latitude, being about eighty miles in circumference. It is a pleasant and fruitful island, producing great plenty of rich wines, the turpentine tree, and other useful plants, with numerous groves of cypress trees, which are carefully preserved by the Turks. The chief town, bearing the same name with the island, is situated on the eastern coast, and fortified with a castle; having a harbour secured by a good mole, and well guarded from pirates by gallees. The ships from Egypt to Constantinople commonly touch here. This island boasted of Hippocrates and Apelles, and was likewise the country of Philetas, the elegiac poet. The *Vesit Cos*, made of silk, were anciently famous for their fineness and colour. In the suburbs of Cos stood a temple of Æsculapius, once a magnificent structure.

## S Y R A.

Syra lies about twelve miles east of Thermia, and is twenty miles in circumference. It produces corn, wine, cotton, figs, and olives, and contains about six thousand inhabitants, who are chiefly Catholics.

## A N D R O S.

Andros, now called Andro, is situated a little to the south-east of the island of Negropont, and is a hundred miles in circumference. The chief town is called *the port of the lower castle*, besides which there are on the island about forty villages. The inhabitants are computed at five thousand, who are all of the Greek communion, except two or three families. Here is not only a Greek but a Latin bishop, with several priests and chapels, and a proportionable number of monasteries. Most of the people of figure live in little castles to defend them from the rovers, who are numerous in those seas. A cadi, and aga, or colonel of the janizaries, reside here; but the people enjoy the privilege of electing their own magistrates. The

island produces great plenty of wine, oil, and barley; but the principal commodity is silk, by which article the natives make above ten thousand pounds every year. The mountains are covered with arbutus-trees, from the fruit of which they distil a spirit, as well as from the mulberries. The inhabitants live chiefly on goats' flesh; but they have also abundance of poultry, venison, partridges, and other game. It is computed, that some years they pay to the grand seignior in taxes, upwards of fifteen thousand crowns. According to Pliny, this island had a fountain, which yearly, on the nones, or fifth of January, ran with a liquor of a vinous taste.

## T E N O S.

The island of Tenos, or Tine, is situated a little south-east of Andros, and is about six miles in circumference. It produces corn, wine, and fruit, with a good quantity of silk. The inhabitants, who are very numerous considering the extent of the island, are chiefly of the Latin communion, owing to their having been many years under the government of the Venetians. This island anciently contained a large temple of Neptune, and was noted for abounding in the species of viper called *tenia*, which hence derived its name. It is said by Athenæus, that here was a fountain, the water of which would not mix with wine.

## N E G R O P O N T.

Negropont, the ancient Eubæa, is situated a little to the north-east of the coast of Livadia, from which it is separated by a narrow channel called the Euripus, or strait of Negropont. This is the largest island in the Archipelago, being ninety miles long, and about twenty broad. It abounds in corn, wine, fruits, fish, flesh, and fowl. The chief town, called Negropont, the ancient Chalcis, lies on the west side of the island, thirty miles north of Athens or Setines, where the strait is so narrow that it is joined to the continent by a bridge. The walls of the town are about two miles in circumference, but the suburbs, inhabited by the Christians, are of greater extent. On the north-east coast stands the city of Caristo, a populous town likewise, and the see of a bishop. The captain bashaw, or admiral of the Turkish fleet, is viceroy of this island and the adjacent parts of Greece, where he has a deputy, and a fleet of gallees generally lie in this port.

The most remarkable circumstance respecting this island is the tides of the Euripus, which have baffled the investigation of all natural enquirers, from Aristotle to the present time. Those tides are regular from the last three days of the old moon to the eighth of the new. The ninth day they become irregular, and continue so to the thirteenth inclusively. The fourteenth they again become regular, and observe stated periods till the one and twentieth exclusively, when they return to a variable course, in which they continue until the twenty-seventh day. When they are irregular, they flow twelve, thirteen, or fourteen times, and

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ebb as often in twenty-four or twenty-five hours; at which times the water is about half an hour rising, and three quarters of an hour falling. But when the tides are regular, they observe the same rule as the tides in the ocean. In the Euripus, however, the tide never rises above a foot or little more.

## S C I R O.

Sciro, formerly Skyros, is situated about twenty miles north-east of Negropont, and is eighty miles in circumference. It is called by the Turks *Salziza Dau*, or the Island of Mastich, on account of the great quantity which it produces of that gum. The soil near the coast is very fertile, but farther up, the country is rocky and barren, yielding only pasturage for goats. The number of inhabitants is computed at one hundred thousand, four fifths of whom are Greeks, and the rest Jews, Turks, and Catholics. Their wealth consists in milk, butter, wine, and silk, of which they make annually to the amount of a hundred thousand crowns.

The city Sciro, capital of the island, lies on the sea-coast, encompassed with good walls and indifferent fortifications. The port is large, but not very safe, the bottom being so soft, that the anchors have not a sufficient hold. Five galleys are constantly stationed here, commanded by an equal number of begs, to each of whom the grand seignior allows twelve thousand crowns yearly, for the charge of the vessels. The houses of the city are built of stone, and have pyramidal roofs covered with tiles. The streets are narrow, paved with pebbles; and the bazars abound with all necessaries, supplied at an easy rate on account of the neighbourhood of *Natolia*.

The mastich of this island, being the best in the world, is entirely appropriated to the use of the grand seignior's seraglio, where the ladies chew it, in order to whiten their teeth, and render their breath more sweet. The tree which produces this gum is slender, and its branches, after bending to the ground, turn upwards: the people make incisions in different parts of the trunk, whence from the beginning of May till the end of June the gum distils upon the ground, which is therefore kept very clean to receive it.

The country produces some cotton, the manufacturing of which affords a subsistence to the poor people; and here is also a considerable quantity of excellent turpentine. Partridges are in great number, and so tame, that they feed all day in the fields like poultry, and at night return to the farmer's house on the call of a whistle.

This island was the country of king *Lycomedes*, where *Achilles*, in the habit of a girl, was educated and lay concealed, to prevent his going to the siege of *Troy*. It was also famous for the exile of *Theseus*, king of *Athens*. It was anciently inhabited by the *Delopes*, a race of robbers, expelled by *Cimon* the Athenian. *Pallas*, who was the protectress of the island, had a temple on the sea-coast, of which some columns yet remaining are supposed to have been a part.

No. 16.

## Æ N G I N A.

*Ængina*, or *Engia*, is situate in the gulph of *Engia*, to which it gives name, in 24 degrees of east longitude, and 37 degrees 45 minutes of north latitude, twenty-one miles east of *Corinth*. It is thirty miles in circumference, and in the chief town, which bears the same name, the number of houses is computed at six hundred.

On the summit of the mountain *Panhellenius* are the remains of a magnificent temple, dedicated to *Jupiter*, and visited from all parts of *Greece*. It was of the *Doric* order. Twenty-one of the exterior columns are yet standing, with two in the front of the *pronaos* and of the *proticum*, and likewise five of those which formed the ranges within the cell. The entablature, except the *architrave*, is fallen. The stone is of a light brownish colour, much eaten in many places, and bearing the marks of great antiquity. In several the junction of the parts is so exact, that they seem to consist of one piece. Digging by a column of the portico of the *naos*, a fragment of fine sculpture was lately discovered. It was the hind part of a griffin of white marble, and probably one of the ornaments which had been fixed on the *freeze*, which has in it a groove, as for their insertion. The temple was enclosed by a *peribolus* or wall, of which some traces are yet extant. The situation of this ruin on a lonely mountain, at a distance from the sea, has preserved it from total demolition amid all the changes and accidents of numerous centuries; and it has a claim to be considered as the most ancient monument of the heroic ages.

This island was the kingdom of *Æacus*, and the inhabitants were called *Myrmidones*, or a nation of ants, from their great application to agriculture. It formerly vied with *Athens* for naval power, and at the sea-fight of *Salamis* disputed the palm of victory with that republic. This rivalry induced the Athenians to an act, that was reproachful to the humanity of a people so much civilized. They passed a decree to cut off the thumbs of all such of the *Æginetæ* as were fit for sea service.

## P O R U S.

*Porus*, another island in the gulph of *Engia*, is eighteen miles in circumference, remarkable only for the banishment of *Demosthenes*, who here poisoned himself to avoid falling into the hands of *Antipater*.

## C O L U R I.

*Coluri*, the ancient *Salamis*, is situated in the same bay, seven miles south of *Athens*, and separated from the continent by a strait about a mile in breadth. This little island, not above ten miles long, and five or six broad, was the kingdom of *Ajax*, the son of *Telemon*, so famous in the history of the *Trojan* war. It was also the country of *Solon*, the celebrated law-giver of *Athens*.

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## S T A L I M E N E .

Stalimene, the ancient Lemnos, is situate in 26 degrees of east longitude, and 39 degrees 50 minutes of north latitude, almost equally distant from the coasts of Romania, Natolia, and Greece. It is about thirty miles long, is very fruitful, producing corn, wine, and other necessaries of life; but there is no wood, and hardly any springs in the island. Their trade consists chiefly in the earth called terra Lemnia, famous for its medicinal virtues. On this island, according to the poets, Vulcan fell from heaven, when he was kicked out by Juno for his deformity, and lamed by the fall. He had here a temple, of which no vestiges now remain. This island had once the name of Dipolis, from its containing two towns, into the forum of which, we are informed by Pliny, that mount Athos threw its shadow at the solstice, though distant hence forty-five miles.

## I M B R O S .

Imbros, or Limbros, is situated a little north-east of Lemnos, towards the Thracian Chersonese. It is a mountainous country covered with wood, and has some villages upon it, but produces little worthy of any notice.

## T E N E D O S .

Tenedos, called by the Turks Bosciada, lies opposite to Troas, or Phrygia Minor, about two leagues from the shore. Its situation near the mouth of the Hellespont, has rendered it important in all ages; vessels bound towards Constantinople finding shelter in its port, or safe anchorage in the road, during the Etesian or contrary winds, and in foul weather. The emperor Justinian erected here a magazine to receive the cargoes of the corn vessels from Alexandria, when detained at the island, where the grain was preserved till it could be transported to the capital. During the troubles of the eastern empire, Tenedos experienced a variety of fortune. The pirates who infested those seas, made it for many years their place of rendezvous; and Othman seizing it in 1302, procured vessels, and thence subdued the other islands in the Archipelago.

The port of Tenedos has been enclosed by a mole, of which no part now appears above water, but loose stones are piled on the foundations to break the force of the waves. The basin is encompassed by a ridge of an adjacent mountain. On the south side is a row of wind-mills and a small fort; and on the opposite, a castle by the shore. This was taken in the year 1656 by the Venetians in four days, but soon after abandoned as not tenable. The houses, which are numerous, stand at the foot, or on the slope, of an acclivity, with a flat between them and the sea, formed partly by soil washed down from above. The inhabitants are reckoned to be about six hundred Turkish families, and three hundred Greek.

Tenedos is about fifty miles in circumference; the coast is rocky, but the inland country a good soil, and deservedly famous for wine of an excellent flavour, known by the name of muscadel. The island is said to have received its name from Tennes, or Tenes, who being exposed in a coffer by his father Cygnus, the Thracian, at the instigation of his mother-in-law, was carried by fate hither, where he became king of the country, and at length was worshipped as a god, on account of his virtues. It was also famous for its earthen ware, which was made of an excellent red clay. A law being passed in this island, that persons found in the act of adultery should be put to death, it was soon after executed on the king's son. On the coins of Tenedus, therefore, according to Aristotle, there were two heads, in memorial of the king and his son, and on the reverse an ox; whence arose the proverbial expression, Tenedia Securis, to denote severity in punishment.

## M E T E L I N .

Metelin, the ancient Lesbos, is situate in 26 degrees 30 minutes of east longitude, and 38 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude. It is about sixty miles long, and twenty-five broad. The soil in some parts is rocky, but in others very fruitful, and produces excellent corn and wine. Castro, the chief town, stands on the north side, on a rocky promontory, which forms two ports, both defended by a castle on the hill, and a fort at the foot of it. The castle is well garrisoned, and is an arsenal of stores for the galleys that cruise against pirates. This was formerly a beautiful city, but at present consists only of ordinary low-built houses. It is supposed to have been the ancient Metelin. Here a cadi, or Turkish ecclesiastic, has the administration of the civil government, and an aga of the janizaries commands the soldiers. There are in the island upwards of a hundred villages.

Lesbos was famous in ancient times for the fertility of its soil, the generousness of its wines, and the beauty of its women. It was the native place of the celebrated Sappho; of Pittacus, one of the wise men; and of Arion, who is said to have charmed the Dolphin with his music. Here also Epicurus and Aristotle read lectures on philosophy.

## S C I O .

Scio, the ancient Chios, is situate in 27 degrees 39 minutes of east longitude, and in 50 degrees 20 minutes of north latitude. It is about a hundred miles in circumference. The land is hilly, and though it affords but few springs, and is very little watered with rain, it is nevertheless fruitful, producing corn, oil, honey, wine, silk, and mastic, in great quantity. The wine produced in a district of the island, called the Arvisian Field, has been famous in all ages for its delicious taste and flavour, whence Virgil gives it the name of nectar.

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The natives are remarkably gay and merry, and the women very handsome. The chief town, Scio, is pleasantly seated on the west side of the island, and had a good harbour fortified by a strong castle, but now in decay. This town was one of those which laid claim to the birth of Homer, and the inhabitants pretended to shew his school near it. The Genoese were long masters of this place, till they were dispossessed by the Turks.

## S A M O S.

Samos is situate in 27 degrees 30 minutes of east longitude, and 37 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude, on the south-east of Chios, within two leagues of the coast of Ionia. It is about eighty miles in compass, surrounded with rocks; but the inland country produces corn, wine, and fruits, in great abundance. This island was the country of Pythagoras, author of the Italic sect of philosophers. Here formerly stood a magnificent temple of Juno, of which no vestiges remain. Neither meet we now with any of the *vases Samia*, made of earthen ware, which were anciently held in so high repute.

## P A T M O S.

Patmos, now Palmosa, is situate in 27 degrees of east longitude, and in 37 degrees 20 minutes of north latitude. Being mountainous and woody it is therefore not fertile, and is most considerable for its commodious harbour, where ships arrive with provisions, which the island does not sufficiently produce. The sterility of the soil rendering it little frequented, it was used by the Romans as a place of banishment: in which situation St. John resided here, and wrote the Apocalypse.

## C H A P. VIII.

*Of the persons of the Turks—dress—diet—diversions—method of travelling—genius and character.*

HAVING finished their survey of the Turkish territories, we proceed to treat of the inhabitants. As the Turks almost always make choice of wives for their personal accomplishments and beauty, the people are generally handsome, and have in their appearance an air of dignity, which is not a little heightened by their dress, as well as by the gravity of their deportment. The men shave their heads, leaving one lock upon the crown. They wear their beards long, except the officers in the palace and military men, who leave only whiskers on their upper lip. They all wear turbans, usually white, but the family of Mahomet green. A turban contains a whole piece of linen or silk, wound about their heads to the bigness of almost half a bushel, and sometimes adorned with lace or fringe. The greater the quality of the man, the turban is proportionably large. They wear a kind of shirt without collar or wristbands, and over it a long vest tied with a sash, the sleeves close, and reaching

down to their wrists. Above the vest they usually wear a loose coat. Their breeches or drawers are close before and behind, and let down when they water, which the men do in a sedent posture, as well as the women. The stockings are of a piece with the breeches; and instead of shoes they wear yellow slippers, which they always put off in entering a house or temple, but never the turban. They carry their handkerchief, knife, and purse, in their bosoms, and a dagger or poniard in their sash. The women wear on their heads a stiffened cap, not much unlike a mitre, their hair hanging down on their shoulders. The rest of their habit is like that of the men, only they are so veiled when they go abroad, that their faces cannot be seen, and those of quality are carried in close litters or chairs. Neither sex ever alters the fashion of their cloaths, which has remained the same for many ages.

Instead of beds the Turks usually lie on a sofa, or raised floor, at the side or end of the room, on which is spread a carpet or mat, and they cover themselves with a quilt. They use no sheets, but lie in linen waistcoats and drawers, as in other eastern countries.

They generally eat as well as sleep, upon the sofa, which is about a foot and half higher than the area of the room. A small table, covered with a piece of leather, is set upon it for the purpose of holding the dishes, and a towel of blue linen is brought for the company to wipe their fingers. They sit down cross-legged at their meals, and before they eat say a short grace, as "In the name of God;" and at the conclusion of the meal, "God be praised." Their diet consists chiefly of rice, mixed with the soup or gravy of stewed meat. The latter, whether roasted or boiled, is always so much done, that they can pull it to pieces with their fingers. Their grand dish here, and in all the East, is *pilo*, which consists of mutton and fowls boiled to rags; and the rice being boiled perfectly dry, the soup made of the meat, which is very high seasoned, is poured upon it. Those who do not choose rice have cakes baked upon the hearth. Their usual liquors are water, sherbet, and coffee. The common people live much upon cucumbers, melons, roots, and other vegetables, but use the same liquors with those of better condition.

The Turks salute one another by laying their right hand on their breast, and bowing the head a little. They play at chess and drafts for diversion, but never for money, being strictly discharged from the latter by a law of their prophet. Some of them delight in the guitar, and have dancing girls to divert them, but never dance themselves. Their manly exercises are shooting at a mark on horseback and on foot, and throwing of darts, which they perform with great dexterity. They seldom go a-hunting, or use any other rural sport.

Here are no post-houses or carriages to accommodate travellers on the road; but every man rides on his own beast, or procures a firman either from court, or from the beglerbeg of the province, which may easily be had. In virtue of this passport he is provided with horses and entertainment gratis to the end

of his journey. If a person has no firman, he pays ten pence (five pence) for every three miles, but nothing for his guide. Caravanferas, or houses for the entertainment of travellers are erected in almost every village. They are built in a square form, surrounded on the inside with a piazza, beyond which are cells for lodging, as in a monastery. Those apartments are furnished with nothing more than mats or clean straw to lie on. In some of them, however, the traveller is supplied with meat as well as lodging, gratis; but provisions are so very cheap in Turkey, that few accept of this favour. As to poor travellers, they sit down with any of their countrymen whom they see furnished with victuals, without any ceremony; and so hospitable are the Turks for the most part to their own people, that they never consider this freedom as a piece of rudeness.

No regular posts are established in Turkey, but persons may be procured at an easy rate, who will carry letters by express, with care, to any part of the empire.

In general the Turks are disposed to an indolent life, passing their time chiefly either in the harams with their women, or in the shade of a spreading tree, where they solace themselves with sherbet or coffee, and with the chewing of opium, or smoking tobacco. Being prohibited from strong liquors on pain of damnation in the other world, and severe corporal punishments; if the great men sometimes indulge themselves in wine, it must be in private. Though totally destitute of liberal education, they are reputed a sagacious, thinking people; and they are seemingly obliging, without being actuated either by benevolence or gratitude. In their demeanour, they are usually sedate and moderate; but when agitated by passion, untractable and outrageous. On common occasions, however, they are capable of great dissimulation; but self-interest being their supreme good, where this object comes into competition, all other considerations must give way. Jealous and vindictive to an extreme degree, they frequently perpetuate revenge from generation to generation. Though unrestrained in the enjoyment of women, they are addicted to unnatural vice; and in matters of religion, they are tenacious, supercilious, and morose. Amidst all the gloomy features of their character, they pay regard to the laws of hospitality, and perform many charitable acts. They visit those that are confined, and discharge their debts. Where people are burnt out of their houses, which being built of wood are frequently exposed to such accidents, a public collection is made for the relief of the sufferers; and some employ their wealth in building caravanferas for the accommodation of travellers, and in erecting fountains, bagnios, and reservoirs.

The chief principle of Mahometan education is to inculcate to their children a high contempt of all other religions, teaching them from their infancy to distinguish the professors of such by the opprobrious name of *giaur*, or infidel. This habit becomes so inveterate when they arrive at manhood, that they will often follow any obnoxious person in the street, repeating all the while the epithet, and even violently pushing against him. Men of

superior rank will behave with seeming courtesy and complaisance, though more often with an air of stern superiority; but you are hardly dismissed, however civilly, when they honour you with the title of *dumus*, or hog, the animal which they hold the most detestable of the whole creation. This contempt for those of every other religion, is not the effect of prejudice alone, for they consider it as most meritorious in the eyes of God and their prophet. Against so general and violent an antipathy, which frequently breaks forth in the most unjustifiable excesses, nothing else could secure for a moment the life and property of the Christians and Jews who reside among them, than the universal advantage of those people to the country and government, which they chiefly contribute to support by their industry, in agriculture, manufactures, and commerce.

#### C H A P. IX.

*Of produce—manufactures—trade—forces—revenues—government—fraglia.*

THIS great empire extending over so many climates, abounds in variety of produce, which consists of rice, wheat, barley, raw silk, cotton, goats hair, coffee, rhubarb, turpentine, opium, fenna, emeralds, pomegranates, dates, almonds, pistachio nuts, wine, oil, figs, raisins, mother of pearl, sal ammoniac, alum, Roman vitriol, bees-wax, saffron, and gums of various kinds. The principal manufactures are carpets, silk, and leather.

The grand seignior's dominions are the best situated for trade of any country in the world. The Red Sea and the Gulph of Persia render the voyage very short to India and China; and by the Mediterranean, the Egean, and the Black Sea, the Turks might extend their commerce to almost every nation of Europe and Africa. They have timber and naval stores in their own territories sufficient to equip the largest fleets; but for want of application all those advantages are lost. They seldom or never undertake any distant voyage, and the greater part of their traffic is therefore carried on in foreign bottoms; their own vessels doing little more than transporting the produce of one province to another.

It is doubtless much more favourable to the balance of power in Europe, that those fine countries should remain in the possession of the indolent Turks, than that they should be occupied by any of the Christian princes. The trading nations of the West were so sensible of this remark, that when it seemed to be in the power of the Imperialists to drive the Turks out of Europe, as was the case under the conduct of prince Eugene, the English and Dutch interposed, and by their mediation put a stop to the Imperial arms.

The forces of the Turks are of two kinds, namely, a standing army and militia. The former of those consists of the *spahis* and *janizaries*, the one horse and the other foot; and the latter of the soldiers that are levied and paid by the gentlemen of the country, who hold their estates from the prince upon the tenure

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of military service. This body of proprietors is distinguished by the name of *Zaims* or *Timarists*, according to the number of men they are obliged to bring to the field.

In time of peace, the usual number of the *spahis*, or horse, is twelve thousand; and they are divided into two bodies, viz. the *Silachtari* and the *Spahoglari*, the former of whom have yellow standards, and the latter red. Their arms were once bows, arrows, and darts, but they now use carbines and pistols. The *spahis* of Asia are usually the best mounted, but inferior in discipline to those of Europe. Their pay is from twelve to a hundred aspers a day, which is about four shillings and two pence of our money. When the grand seignior takes the field in person, he advances to the *spahis* five thousand aspers a man, to furnish them accoutrements. They manage their arms and horses very dexterously; but charge in no manner of order, though with a great deal of fury; so that if their onset be firmly opposed by the enemy, they soon retreat, and can never be induced to rally.

The *janizaries*, who are all foot, compose a more formidable body. Originally they did not exceed seven thousand, but at present the peace-establishment may amount to twenty-five thousand. More than double this number, however, purchase the name and privileges of *janizaries*, who seldom receive pay, or serve in the army. When a young *janizary* is enrolled in the service, he receives from one asper a day to seven, besides his diet. The whole body of efficient *janizaries* is usually stationed at Constantinople, where those who are unmarried live in a particular quarter of the town. They eat in common; and have their clothing provided by the government; but living idly in time of peace, they often grow mutinous, and alarm administration, which they sometimes even overturn. Their disaffection is usually discovered when they come to the divan, whither they are summoned twice a week by their *aga*, or general, and have an entertainment provided for them from the grand seignior's kitchen. If they are under the apprehension of being either oppressed or discountenanced by any minister of the court, they receive the gratuity with the utmost scorn, which they carry to such a length as to throw the dishes upon the floor. When the ministry are apprised of those marks of discontent, they endeavour to conciliate the favour of the troops, by largesses and fair promises, to prevent the disaffection from becoming general; thus maintaining present quiet by a pernicious expedient, the example of which must ever render the public tranquillity more precarious.

Among the *janizaries* marriage is a bar to preferment, on which account the greater part of them live single. They are not remarkable for discipline more than the *spahis*; and like those, their custom is to attack with impetuosity in battle, rather than maintain an obstinate engagement for any considerable time. Both *spahis* and *janizaries* are trained up in the seminaries of the *seraglio*. The former are frequently of Turkish parents, but the latter generally not. Every fifth Christian captive, under fifteen years of age, is reserved for the grand seignior's service; and out of such, after being

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instructed in the Turkish language and religion, the body of *janizaries* is recruited. The rest of the slaves are brought up to such employments as are found most requisite for the several royal palaces. The most ingenious are educated for offices in the state; others are made smiths, carpenters, &c. and some are quartered on the estates of the nominal *janizaries* in *Narolia*, whence likewise the corps at Constantinople is frequently recruited.

Though the *spahis* and *janizaries* are the flower of the Turkish army, the militia furnished occasionally by the *Zaims* and *Timariots* are much more numerous. The quota of every *Zaim* in the empire is from four to nineteen men for the land service; and of each *Timariot* only four. They are also obliged to find men, in the same proportion, for the sea-service. Both *Zaims* and *Timariots* are liable to serve in person by land, but only the latter on board the fleet.

The number of infantry furnished by the several provinces in Europe and Asia, amounts to four hundred thousand; and of the cavalry to a hundred thousand and upwards. Besides those, a great number of volunteers serve at their own expence, in expectation of succeeding the *Zaims* and *Timariots* who may fall in battle, many of whose lands are at the disposal of the *beglerbeg* or viceroy of the province. At present, however, such is the corruption among all ranks of officers in the Turkish empire, little or no regard is paid to public services in the distribution of preferment.

The forces of the grand seignior in Egypt amount to eighty thousand men, notwithstanding which his authority is often disputed by the Egyptian princes, the descendants of the *Mamalukes*, who held the government of this kingdom during several hundred years.

Though great part of the Turkish empire be a maritime country, and it abounds in commodious harbours, yet its naval force bears no proportion to what might be expected in so extensive dominions; but should the Ottoman government increase the number and size of their ships of war, a deficiency of seamen must still be experienced, so long as they remain inattentive to the improvement of navigation and commerce.

The stated revenues of the *Porte* arise from the demesne lands, or lands of the crown; from the duties of import and export; the tribute paid by the *cham* of *Crim Tartary*, *Moldavia*, *Walachia*, and the *Grecian islands*; with the poll-tax on the *Christians*, and those who are not of the established religion. But the greater part consists of the presents and annual payments which are made by the governors and other great officers, and the confiscation of their estates when they die or are displaced. For whatever riches they have amassed during their employment fall at last to the grand seignior, who only allows their wives and families a temporary subsistence.

Besides the customary revenue, the treasures of the mosques or churches, which are very great, may be made use of, if there happen to be war with the *Christians*, or any other pressing necessity. As a reserve

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in extraordinary cases, the emperor has also a private treasure lodged in vaults, where none but the officers of the treasury and the prime vizier ever enter. With all those resources, and a civil establishment rather profitable than expensive to the emperor, an army of five hundred thousand men, entirely supported in time of war by the provinces which furnish them, and with the incumbrance only of the household of the seraglio, the body of efficient spahis and janizaries, and an inconsiderable marine, the revenues of this potentate seem to be equal to the greatest exertions of imperial magnificence and enterprize.

The government of Turkey is vested in the sultan, a prince whose power has been generally considered as absolute, but which we find to be positively limited by religion and law. This monarch, who is likewise styled the grand seignior, or the Porte, assumes several absurd and hyperbolical titles, according to the custom of the East, viz. *The shadow of God, a god on earth, brother of the sun and moon, disposer of all earthly crowns.* As long as he is successful his subjects adore him; but if he prove unfortunate in war, he not only loses his divinity, but is treated with contempt, and frequently deposed. He is never crowned, but is carried from the palace on his accession, and inaugurated at a place called Job, near the walls of Constantinople, where stands the tomb of one of their prophets, which according to their tradition is that of Job.

Over his Christian subjects, who are almost as numerous as the Turks, the grand seignior exercises the most tyrannical authority, as also over the great officers of state, who depend upon him for all that they enjoy; but with respect to his other subjects, he is not more despotic than many Christian sovereigns, perhaps not so much as some of them. The succession to private property is unalterably fixed and regulated by the Koran, and the modes of conveying it established with as much precision as in any part of Europe; at the same time that the Turks have books which they make use of, in other cases, as authorities for their judicial decisions. The obedience of those people to the will of their sovereign seems to proceed not more from any dread of his power, than from veneration for his person and government, which is industriously impressed on their minds in their earliest years. They are taught that it is their duty to leave the world with submission and resignation, when their prince requires it; and that they may assure themselves of seats in paradise, if they make no opposition to the sentence passed upon them. The consequence of those principles is, that when an executioner is sent to bring to the grand seignior the head of any obnoxious person, he hardly ever finds in the devoted victim the smallest effort to resist or evade his fate.

The officers of state are, 1. the grand vizier, to whom the emperor for the most part commits the administration of government both civil and military. The great power and emoluments which accompany this high office render it the object of envy to all those courtiers who are actuated either by ambition or avarice; but the enjoyment of it is extremely preca-

rious, and often terminates in the disgrace, if not in the decapitation of the person who holds it. In the time of peace or war, his station is equally dangerous. During the former, he is exposed to danger from the resentment of the janizaries, ever mutinous and dissatisfied with a pacific administration, under which they consider their own importance as injuriously diminished; and in the latter he is more secretly, but not less dangerously attacked from the quarter of the seraglio, where the sultana-mother, the favourite sultanas, and the chief eunuch, are almost constantly distracting the ear of the grand seignior with their jarring intrigues; or if they happen to unite in their views, their caprice, more active through idleness, is generally directed against the minister, whom, by his possessing the confidence of his sovereign, they esteem as their rival in power. The prime vizier lives in great state, is allowed his guards, gives audience to foreign ministers, and concludes all treaties with them; though, for form's sake, they have an audience with the sultan when they arrive, and another at their departure. The salary of the office is about five thousand pounds, and the perquisites amount to an immense sum; but whatever he has amassed falls in the end to the grand seignior.

There are six viziers of the bench, who are of the prime vizier's council, as are likewise the bashaws of three tails, so called from having three horse-tails or standards carried before them, while the other bashaws have but one. The prime vizier, however, is not obliged to follow the advice of his council, but, after hearing their opinions, is at liberty to determine as he thinks proper. The mufti and civil judges are sometimes consulted in state affairs. The councils of state and the courts of justice are each of them called *divans*. The former is held every day except Friday, at the vizier's palace; and four times a week he holds a divan in the seraglio, to which he goes in great state, attended by the bashaws and great officers in town, and his Albanian guards on horseback. Upon his entering the divan, all that wait in expectation of him prostrate themselves on the ground.

The other officers are, 1. the kizar aga, or chief of the black eunuchs, and keeper of the ladies of the seraglio. 2. The capi agasi, or chief of the white eunuchs, who introduces ambassadors and others to the grand seignior. He has the privilege of wearing a white turbant, and riding on horseback in the seraglio, and attends the emperor to the door of the sultana's apartments, but no farther, the ladies being left to the care of the black eunuchs. 3. The noza de bachi, or governor of the forty pages of the bed-chamber. 4. The feras agasi, who takes care of the repairs and furniture of the royal apartment. 5. The hospodar bachi, who has the charge of the sultan's private treasure or purse. 6. The kilargi bachi, who superintends the confectioaries, kitchens, cellars, &c. 7. The dogandi bachi, or grand falconer. 8. The kokadar, who puts on the emperor's vest. 9. The kikabdar, who holds his stirrup. 10. The selistar, or sword-bearer. 11. The hummangi bachi, or keeper

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of the baths. 12. The kiamica bachi, who has the care of the linen. 13. The geritbeg, who teaches the exercise of the bow and lance.

The officers without the seraglio are, 1. The caimacan, or governor of Constantinople, who is the prime vizier's representative in his absence. 2. The aga, or general of the janizaries, whose power is exceeding great. 3. The chiaux bachi, or chief of the chiauxes, who are messengers of the court, and employed sometimes to take off the head of a bashaw in any of the provinces.

In every large province or beglership are three great officers, viz. the chief priest, who is judge; the reis-effendi, in whom the offices of chancellor and secretary of state are united; and the tefedar or treasurer, who are all of the beglerbeg's council.

There being no hereditary nobility in Turkey, the governors of provinces are seldom ever succeeded in their posts by their children; nor are any of the great offices of government ever given to native Turks, but to the grand seignior's slaves, taken in war, or purchased young, and educated in the seraglio; who having no personal connections in the country, are not likely to enter into a conspiracy against their sovereign. The more effectually to preclude such an event, however, it is a maxim of the court to change their governors often, before they can have time to render themselves popular in the province. This end is yet farther answered by obliging those officers to make frequent presents to the sultan; for the refundment of which they fleece and oppress the people, rendering themselves rather odious than acceptable to those whom they govern.

Amid such general rapacity of the governors, and the inadequate resources of a nation constitutionally averse to industry, and discouraged from the prosecution of extensive commerce, the necessities of the people, it might be supposed, would often produce dangerous commotions. But the cheapness of provisions compensates in great measure the want of affluence; and the empire seems to be so firmly founded on the basis of religion, united with general enthusiasm and the vanity of individuals, that, as with all its political defects it has lasted for ages, it bids fair for stability and permanency.

All the officers of state are usually taken from among the youths who receive their education in the seraglio, the number of whom is very great. The practice in this seminary is to teach them silence; a modest behaviour, and the principles of the Mahometan religion. They are also instructed in the Turkish, Arabian, and Persian languages. Those who are intended for the army learn their military exercises, and such as are designed for public employments, are educated accordingly. We are informed that the youths in the seraglio never having the sight of a woman, frequently fall in love with one another. To this whimsical passion they give the name of Platonic love; but it is said to terminate often in an unnatural commerce, from which the severest punishments prove insufficient to restrain them.

The seraglio is supplied from time to time with young blooming beauties, taken in war, or purchased

in Georgia and Circassia, but chiefly selected by the governors of provinces in the different parts of the empire. When admitted into the seraglio, they are taught music and dancing, and whatever may render them most agreeable to the grand seignior. Amongst those ladies, an unaccountable passion for each other is said likewise to prevail.

There is always in the seraglio a number of deaf and dumb persons, some of whom constantly attend the emperor; and dwarfs that act the part of buffoons, are still retained in this court.

The pride and ostentation of the Turkish court are fully displayed in the ceremonies attending the audience of an ambassador. The first opening of the ambassador's function is to the vizier. At this interview, they both seat themselves, the ambassador on a stool, and the vizier on the corner of his sofa. Mutual civilities pass between them, without any variation in language since the empire began. The ambassador is told, "that as long as his master observes the laws of friendship with them, the grand seignior will correspond." The honours of the castan, sweet-meats, coffee, sherbet, and perfumes, are presented to him; but when he departs they clap their hands, and hiss him out of the room; while two officers who attend him, one on each side, attempt at half-way, to make him turn and salute the vizier, who never stirs off his sofa. He who forgets his character may be surprised into this compliment; but he who does not, keeps on his pace, and drives his leaders before him.

On an occasion that offered of adjusting the ceremonial with an ambassador who thought himself offended, this usage was redressed, and it is to be hoped continues no longer.

The time appointed for the ambassador to be over the water from Pera, is the morning, at the break of day. On his landing, he is received by the chiaux bachi, or marshal of the court, in a house destined for the purpose, the stairs of which are no better than a ladder, and the room exceedingly mean. It is seldom that the chiaux bachi is there at the ambassador's arrival; but the common excuse is, that he is detained in the mosque at his prayers.

When the first civilities are over, an insinuation is made to the ambassador, that he must expect the chiaux bachi will ride at his right hand. This part of the ceremony, long contested, but never given up by the Turks, except when they have been forced to relinquish it, leaves to the ambassador no other resource than that of entering a protest; insisting, however, that a gentleman of his retinue shall ride at his left. This claim, if urged with resolution, generally succeeds; though it has been productive of much altercation and disorder in the march, and sometimes almost of a suspension of the audience.

After waiting some time in a miserable chamber at the water-side, a message arrives from the vizier to let them know that he is ready to proceed to the seraglio. The cavalcade then begins, and marches in state to the vizier's door, where, whether it rains, hails, or snows, the ambassador must remain on horseback in the open street to see his pomp, and to salute his high-

ness and his whole court as they pass by. When they are near the gate of the seraglio, the ambassador's train advances slowly, and on his arrival he finds the vizier seated in the divan-chamber.

In the middle of this apartment, an old square stool is placed for the ambassador; and he is there fixed, if the stool can support him, at least for two hours, bearing the decision of causes he does not understand; though if it be pay-day for the janizaries and spahis, and such an opportunity is generally taken, he is entertained with seeing about two thousand four hundred yellow bags of money told out and distributed, which may employ them upwards of two hours more.

A new scene then succeeds, and the dinner is served. The ambassador continues to sit on his stool, and the vizier on his elevated sofa; a round table is placed between them, at each side of which is laid a handkerchief folded up to wipe the mouth and hands. Fifty dishes, succeeding each other every half minute, come in like a torrent; a principal servant stands near the ambassador with his arms bare, whose office is to tear a fowl in pieces, and to lay the choicest morsels of it before them, all which he performs with his fingers. He commends without ceasing the excellent dinner, whilst the vizier presses his guest to eat, and perhaps enters into a familiar conversation with him. To conclude the repast, one draught of sherbet is served.

The grand seignior all the while peeps through a dark window to see the whole entertainment, and as soon as it is over retires to his audience room.

The chiaux baschi enters with his talkish, or order in writing, to the vizier, to acquaint him that the monarch is on his throne. He receives it with the utmost submission, first touching his forehead with it, then kissing it, and having read it, puts it into his breast, and departs.

After his departure, the ambassador is told that he must cross the court-yard to go to the audience: he is preceded by the chiaux baschi with all his officers and attendants richly clad. He does not, however, immediately enter the audience-room, but is stopt in the court-yard, where, under a tree, by way of bench, is a single old board, on which at other times, the menial servants in the seraglio lie to sun themselves. On this, whether wet or dry, clean or dirty, he is desired to sit till he be vested with the castan. When the ceremony of vesting is over, two capigis baschis seize him by the shoulders, and conduct him to the audience. He finds the sultan in a corner of the apartment, placed on his sofa, higher by much than common, and covered with a canopy, his legs rather hanging. At his side lies a rich sword, and some regalia. He eyes the ambassador askew, and hears his harangue; a copy of which has been given before to the vizier, translated by the drugoman, or interpreter of the Porte; who, after the ambassador has done, repeats it extempore, in the Turkish language, to the grand seignior. When this is finished, the latter speaks a few words to the vizier, who advances towards the middle of the room, and answers the ambassador in their usual common-place style. This

the interpreter explains, and the ambassador is dismissed. Another ceremony, however, awaits him to render the day yet more tedious. After mounting his horse, he is stopped in the second quadrangle of the seraglio, and obliged to wait under a tree, until the vizier passes before him on his return home; after which he is permitted to depart.

## C H A P X.

### *Of the religion of the Turks.*

THE religion of the Turks is Mahometanism, but different from that which prevails in Persia. Mahomet leaving no sons, both those nations derive their spiritual as well as temporal authority from Hali, the husband of his daughter Fatima, or from Abubeker, whose daughter Mahomet married. The Persians preferring the doctrines of Hali, and the Turks those of Abubeker, and charging each other with corrupting and misrepresenting the Alcoran; those two great sects retain stronger mutual prejudices, than they do either against the Jews or Christians; and when they are at war, both nations call the war *the cause of God*, and seldom or never give quarter to one another in battle.

Among the Turks there are four sects which differ only in ceremonials. The first is called the Hannisses, who chiefly inhabit Turkey and Tartary; the second the Shaffees, of which are most of the Arabian tribes; the third the Melchees, who possess the coast of Barbary; and the fourth the Hambelles, who are a small tribe of Arabians.

All the Mahometans, except the Persians, are of one or other of those sects, which are however divided into a multitude of inferior sectaries, distinguished by the names of their respective leaders.

The Mahometans have their dervises, or friars, and convents, as well as the Christians. Those men go meanly clothed, put on a dejected look, fast, pray, and perform penances as the Roman catholics, and have strings of beads by which they number the prayers they repeat. On Tuesday every week, the superior of the convent preaches or expounds part of the Alcoran to them, at the conclusion of which the monks, having made a profound reverence to their superior, fall into a dance, turning round with great agility to the music of a flute, which has however a very doleful sound. Such as it is, this instrument is used by few, the Alcoran prohibiting all but vocal music in their devotions. For the same reason it is, that they ring no bells to call the people to prayers, but summon them from the minarets or steeples of the mosques.

Besides the ecclesiastic recluses, there are many hermits, who go naked, and suffer their hair to grow down to their waists. Those persons are in a manner adored by devout people, and in some parts of the empire take upon them to screen criminals from justice.

The high priest of the empire is the musti, who has the power of appointing all civil magistrates, their civil and ecclesiastical laws being in effect the same. The Alcoran, and the comments upon it, are the rule by

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*A General View of Balbec.*

he neither salutes, converses, or takes notice of any person. No accident can divert him from his prayers; nor may he spit, cough, or rub himself; or if he has been unavoidably defiled by any of those, he must immediately wash, and return to his devotion. Until they begin to pray, they sigh and groan incessantly. The priest opens with the praises of God, all the people following him, and imitating his actions as well as repeating his words; but both prayers and praises are very short.

During the whole Ramazan, or their Lent, which continues a month every year, no person will eat, drink, or smook before sun-set; from which time till the morning, all the towns, and particularly the mosques, are illuminated. After this season they perform the pilgrimage to Mecca, which appears to be the main basis of the Mahometan religion. On this journey the caravan of Damascus, composed of the pilgrims from Europe and Asia Minor, the Arabian, and the principal one from Cairo, then set out. They all have their stated time of departure, and their regular stages. That from Cairo begins the journey thirty

No. 17.

the Mount of Forgiveness, which is about two miles in circumference. Here, according to their tradition, Adam and Eve met, after they had been separated forty years. The eve of the day of sacrifice, the three caravans, each ranged in a triangular form, environ this mountain, and spend the whole night in tumultuous rejoicings. In the morning a profound silence succeeds, they slay their sheep, and offer up their sacrifice on the mountain, with all the marks of the greatest devotion.

On a sudden a scheik, or fantone, rushes from amidst them, mounted on his camel, and ascending five steps, rendered practicable for that purpose, he addresses the people in a set harangue; on the conclusion of which the auditors salute the mountain, and depart.

The religion of the Mahometans is a complication of the basest and most infamous forgeries, with a train of superstitious degrading to the human mind, and which being substituted in the place of essential duties, are directly subversive of every virtue.

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preceded by the *chiaux* (courtiers) with all his officers and attendants richly clad. He does not, however, immediately enter the audience-room, but is stopt in the court-yard, where, under a tree, by way of bench, is a single old board, on which at other times, the menial servants in the *seraglio* lie to sun themselves. On this, whether wet or dry, clean or dirty, he is desired to sit till he be vested with the *caftan*. When the ceremony of vesting is over, two *capigis baschis* seize him by the shoulders, and conduct him to the audience. He finds the sultan in a corner of the apartment, placed on his sofa, higher by much than common, and covered with a canopy, his legs rather hanging. At his side lies a rich sword, and some regalia. He eyes the ambassador askew, and hears his harangue; a copy of which has been given before to the vizier, translated by the drugoman, or interpreter of the Porte; who, after the ambassador has done, repeats it extempore, in the Turkish language, to the grand seignior. When this is finished, the latter speaks a few words to the vizier, who advances towards the middle of the room, and answers the ambassador in their usual common-place style. This

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which they judge of all matters, unless in some extraordinary cases, where the temporal power thinks fit to interpose its authority. The grand seignior scarcely ever alters or reverses the sentence of the mufti; and without his *sesta*, or fiat, no important resolutions are taken, either in regard to peace or war; but if he refuses to ratify or confirm any favourite object of the ministry, he is deposed, and a more obsequious person appointed in his room.

Next to the mufti there are three other judges, of the ecclesiastical order, who have the title of *cadilif-quier*, and are appointed respectively to the provinces of Romania, Natolia, and Egypt; nor can any person be advanced to the rank of mufti, who has not passed through one or other of those offices.

There is besides in every province a *mollah cadi*, or chief judge, to whom the people may appeal from any inferior tribunal. But notwithstanding the ecclesiastics are the only legal judges, the *beglerbegs* and governors of towns and provinces take upon them to inflict punishment, and even death, without allowing the accused person any trial.

The *imams* or priests, who officiate in their mosques, are not appointed by the mufti or any ecclesiastic, nor are they subject to their controul. Any person who can read the Alcoran, and has the reputation of an honest man, may assume this office, on the recommendation of the people of the place to the governor of the town or province, when a mosque is vacant; and as the consent of the governor is necessary towards admitting one to officiate as a priest, so he likewise may dismiss him at pleasure; or the priest may leave his cure, and again become a layman, if he thinks fit. The *imam* reads some part of the Alcoran every Friday, which is their sabbath; but seldom preaches, this being the business of the sheiks, who have usually their education in the convents.

When a Mahometan enters a mosque, he puts off his shoes instead of his cap; and while he is there, he neither salutes, converses, or takes notice of any person. No accident can divert him from his prayers, nor may he spit, cough, or rub himself; or if he has been unavoidably defiled by any of those, he must immediately wash, and return to his devotion. Until they begin to pray, they sigh and groan incessantly. The priest opens with the praises of God, all the people following him, and imitating his actions as well as repeating his words; but both prayers and praises are very short.

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No. 17.

days after Ramazan, and arrives in forty days, just before the *corban*, or great beiram of sacrifice. Five or six days previous to that festival, the three caravans, consisting of about two hundred thousand men, and three hundred thousand beasts of burden, unite and encamp at some miles from Mecca. The pilgrims form themselves into small detachments, and enter the town to perform the ceremonies preparatory to that great one of sacrifice. They pass through a street of continual ascent, until they arrive at a gate on an eminence, called the Gate of Health. From this station they behold the great mosque, which encloses the house of Abraham, and this they salute with the most profound devotion, repeating twice, *Salam Alih Irfoul Alla*, that is, "peace be with the ambassador of God." Thence, at some distance, they ascend five steps, to a large platform faced with stone, where they offer up their prayers. They next descend on the other side of it, and advance towards two similar platforms, separated a little from each other, through which they pass with great silence and devotion.

This ceremony must be performed seven times.

They afterwards proceed to the great mosque that encloses the house of Abraham, and entering it, walk seven times round the little building which it contains; saying, "This is the house of God, and of his servant Abraham." Then kissing with great reverence a black stone, said to have descended white from heaven, they proceed to the well called *Zun-Zun*, and plunge into it with all their cloaths, continually repeating, *Toba Alla, Toba Alla*, "Forgiveness God, forgiveness God." Then drinking a draught of that fetid turbid water, they depart.

The duty of bathing and drinking they are obliged to pass through once; but those who will gain paradise before the others, must perform it once a day, during the stay of the caravan.

About fifteen miles from the town of Mecca, is a hill, or small mountain, called *Ghiabal Arafata*, or the Mount of Forgiveness, which is about two miles in circumference. Here, according to their tradition, Adam and Eve met, after they had been separated forty years. The eve of the day of sacrifice, the three caravans, each ranged in a triangular form, environ this mountain, and spend the whole night in tumultuous rejoicings. In the morning a profound silence succeeds, they slay their sheep, and offer up their sacrifice on the mountain, with all the marks of the greatest devotion.

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## C H A P. XI.

*History of the Turkish empire.*

**T**HE Turks were originally a tribe of Scythian shepherds, who led an itinerant life, wandering from place to place with their flocks and herds, but residing chiefly north of the Palus Mæotis and the Euxine Sea. In the eighth century they travelled southward, and settled in Georgia, between the Euxine and the Caspian Sea, where, after remaining about two hundred years, they removed farther south into Armenia, to which they gave the name of Turcomania. The sultan of Persia, endeavouring at this time to render himself independent of the Saracen caliph of Bagdat, solicited the aid of the Turks, who sent him a reinforcement of troops under the command of Tangrolipia, by the assistance of which he obtained a complete victory over the Saracens. The Turks afterwards made themselves masters of Bagdat, and subdued Persia, as well as the northern provinces of Arabia. At this time they were Pagans; but Tangrolipia, their leader, in order to gain the affection of his new subjects, professed himself a Mahometan, in which his example was copied by the greater part of his followers.

The Turks proceeded to invade the territories of the Grecian emperor in Asia Minor, and divested him of several cities; while the Saracens likewise prosecuted their conquests in Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. The emperor of Constantinople finding his frontiers exposed to the perpetual ravages of the confederates, implored the assistance of the powers in the west of Europe to put a stop to their progress; the Christians of Palestine, then grievously oppressed by the Mahometans, requesting likewise their protection in the strongest terms. The application of the latter was so well received by the pope and clergy of Rome, that they exerted all their influence in the several nations of Christendom, towards exciting them to rescue the Holy Land from the possession of the infidels. This gave rise to the memorable war of the Crusades, which displayed the romantic piety, but disgraced the wisdom of those times.

The chief of those who engaged in this expedition were Hugh, count of Vermandois, brother to the king of France; Robert, duke of Normandy, son of William the conqueror; Raymond, count of Toulouse; Robert, count of Flanders; Stephen, count of Blois and Chartres; Godfrey of Bouillon, duke of Lorraine, with Eustachius and Baldwin his brothers, and an infinite number of inferior nobles and gentlemen, who drew after them almost whole provinces. The disorder accompanying this tumultuous concourse of different nations was equal to the fanaticism which inspired them. Besides those who went as soldiers, old men, women, children, and ecclesiastics, all embarked in the enterprise. This immense multitude began its march in the year 1096; but having been totally improvident for their subsistence on the journey, as if they had expected the miraculous interposition of heaven in their favour, one half of them perished

through famine, fatigue, or sickness, before they had reached the eastern boundaries of Christendom. When they arrived at Constantinople, however, they yet appeared so numerous, that they put the Grecian emperor into the utmost consternation, who began to entertain greater jealousy of this prodigious emigration than he did of the infidels. Instead of joining them with his forces, therefore, he took every opportunity, underhand, to involve them in difficulty and distress; though prudence required that he should grant his assistance in transporting them over the Hellespont. When they landed on the Asiatic shore, they were found to be still near a hundred thousand horse, and almost twice that number of foot.

The first object of their operations was to lay siege to Nice in Bithynia, almost opposite Constantinople, and the usual residence of sultan Solyman. The sultan, who was then absent, marched to the relief of the town; but his troops being defeated, the place surrendered by capitulation, and was put into the possession of the Grecian emperor, in consequence of a previous agreement.

From Nice they proceeded to Antioch, the capital of Syria, when Solyman opposing their march with an army of two hundred thousand men, the Christians gained a complete victory, and at the same time became masters of his camp, which was reputed exceeding rich. Having subdued great part of the territories which the infidels had taken from the Grecian emperor in Asia Minor, and possessed themselves of Antioch, they dispatched a messenger to that monarch, requesting that he would join them with his forces, according to the articles of a treaty subsisting between them. With this demand, however, the emperor refused to comply, upon the pretext that they had not delivered Antioch into his hands; in consequence of which denial, they resolved for the future to act independently of him.

Leaving Antioch they continued their march to Jerusalem, which they immediately invested; but their number was now so diminished, that it is said they did not amount to more than fifty thousand men; a force not superior to the army which garrisoned the place. But a reinforcement arriving of English, Normans, Flemings, and Genoese, they made an assault upon the outer wall, which they carried sword in hand. In a succeeding attack, meeting with an obstinate resistance, which induced them to give way, they were animated to renew their efforts by Godfrey of Bouillon, who pretended that he had seen a horseman descend from the clouds, and assured them that heaven fought on their side. Such was the effect of this artifice on their minds, that, repeating the assault with fresh vigour, they took the city by storm. The celebrated leader, to whose zeal and activity this event had been owing, and who had distinguished himself by his conduct through the whole expedition, was by universal consent crowned king of Jerusalem. He afterwards reduced Ptolemais, Cesarea, Antipatria, Askalon, and other cities; but did not live to enjoy his prosperity more than the space of a year.

Baldwin, surnamed Brugenis, governor of Edessa, and cousin of the late king, was unanimously elected

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in his room, in the year 1100. He took from the infidels the strong city of Tyre, and afterwards obtained three signal victories. He also laid siege to Damascus; but a sickness breaking forth in his army, he was obliged to raise it, and dying after a reign of thirty years, he was succeeded in the kingdom of Jerusalem by Fuik, earl of Anjou, who had married his daughter Melesinda or Margaret.

During this reign divisions happened among the Christians, of whom the different parties sometimes sought the assistance of the infidels, with the view of over-powering their rivals. The Greek emperor likewise laid siege to Antioch, which he claimed as a part of his dominions; and the confederates were obliged to consent that Raymond, earl of Poitou, the governor, should hold that city of the Greek crown. Fuik having reigned eleven years, was killed by a fall from his horse as he was hunting; and leaving two sons, Baldwin and Almerick, the former, who was the eldest, was elected by the Christian princes to succeed him on the throne. Baldwin, at his accession, being only thirteen years of age, his mother was joined with him in the administration of government. The Christians, who had now been in the possession of the Holy Land, and the adjacent countries, more than forty years, had established four considerable states, namely, that of Edessa, which comprehended the countries on the banks of the Euphrates, the district of Tripoli, the district of Antioch, and the kingdom of Jerusalem. Had the princes of those several territories continued unanimous, they might probably have bid defiance to all the power of the Mahometans; but falling out with each other, Sanguin, sultan of Aleppo, and afterwards Noradin his son, availed themselves of their disputes, and recovered most of the conquests which the Christians had made in the country. Those events induced the king of Jerusalem and the prince of Antioch to request fresh succours from Europe, which gave birth to the second crusade.

In this enterprize, which happened in the year 1147, Conrad, emperor of Germany, embarked in person, at the head of a fine army of a hundred thousand men. But the Grecian emperor having joined to oppose him, he lost great part of his troops, by famine and the sword, as well as by sickness, and returned without being able to perform any memorable achievement.

Another crusade was soon afterwards put in motion by Louis the seventh, king of France. This prince carried with him his queen Eleanor, heiress of the duchy of Aquitain; but discovering her to be guilty of some criminal amours at Antioch, he divorced her, and immediately abandoning the enterprize, returned to his own country.

Mean while Saladin, sultan of Damascus, who had made himself master of Egypt in the year 1173, observing great divisions among the Christian princes in Palestine, besieged and took Jerusalem in 1187, after it had remained in the hands of the Christians eighty-nine years. He also made himself master of Antioch; and the most of the towns which the Christians had taken were surrendered to the Turks. The flame of

the holy war, however, being not yet extinguished in Europe, Frederick, emperor of Germany, and several princes of the empire, engaged in another crusade. Arriving in Asia, they gave battle to the Turkish sultan of Iconium, and obtaining a complete victory, took that city by storm. The emperor likewise defeated the sultan in a subsequent action; but attempting to pass a river in the pursuit of the enemy, he was unfortunately drowned. His son Frederick, who, on the death of his father, was proclaimed emperor by the army, recovered the city of Antioch, and had laid siege to Acon or Ptolemais, when the plague making great havoc among his troops, and himself dying of the disease, the Christians in Palestine were again reduced to a very critical situation. In this extremity Richard I. king of England, and Philip Augustus, king of France, were prevailed upon by the pope to undertake another crusade. This expedition commenced in the year 1190, and the armies were transported by sea to the Holy Land. The two kings conducting themselves rather like jealous rivals than cordial allies, agreed only in the operation of besieging Acon or Ptolemais, of which they made themselves masters. Soon after this event the French king returned to Europe, and invaded the king of England's dominions in Normandy. The latter receiving advice of this transaction, hastened to oppose him; but in his passage through Germany, was made prisoner by the emperor, where he was seized, and detained above a year, through the intrigues of the French king, and afterwards obliged to pay a great ransom for his liberty.

The situation in which the Christians were left in Palestine by the precipitate retreat of those two princes, obliged them again to solicit the protection of Europe; and another effort was therefore made for the effectual recovery of the Holy Land. When the forces that embarked in this expedition were arrived at Constantinople, where they expected to have been joined by the eastern emperor, they found an usurper upon the throne, who opposed their passage into Asia. Irritated at this obstruction, they laid siege to Constantinople, and took the city by storm, in the year 1200. The commanders of the Christian confederates elected Baldwin (earl of Flanders and Hainault) emperor of Constantinople, by whose influence the Greek church was induced to adopt the rites and ceremonies of the Latins, and acknowledge the supremacy of the pope. The new emperor however had only part of the European provinces under his dominion, viz. the city of Constantinople and the province of Thrace. To the Venetians was allotted the island of Candia or Crete, with all the islands in the Ionian sea: the marquis of Monferrat obtained Thessaly and part of Peloponnesus, with the title of king: Godfrey of Troyes, a Frenchman, was constituted duke of Athens, and prince of Achaia: the duke of Blois likewise was nominated to a duchy; and various other adventurers obtained territories, all which however they were to hold of the emperor Baldwin, as their supreme lord. With respect to the Asiatic dominions, the family of the Greek emperors was permitted to make a partition of them.

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Adrianople, the second city of Thrace, still remaining in the possession of the Greeks, Baldwin laid siege to it. On which the Greeks inviting the Tartars to their assistance, the latter advanced to their relief, and skirmished several days with the besiegers. At length the Christians being led into an ambuscade, were entirely defeated, and Baldwin the emperor made prisoner. The enemy having inhumanly cut off his hands and feet, left him in the field to perish, where he died three days after, in the thirty-third year of his age, and before he had reigned a complete twelvemonth.

On the death of Baldwin, the confederates elected his brother Henry, emperor of Constantinople, who, with the assistance of the king of Thessaly (marquis of Monferrat), recovered all the places the Tartars had taken in Thrace, and drove them out of that province.

The most formidable of the Mahometan powers at this time, was the sultan of Egypt, who had possessed himself of great part of Palestine, as well as Jerusalem. It was therefore determined, at a council of war held in the island of Cyprus, to attack this potentate in his African dominions. In pursuance of which resolution, about sixty thousand Christians, under the command of the king of France, set sail for Egypt in the year 1249. In four days they arrived within sight of Damietta, then one of the strongest towns in Egypt, and situated at the mouth of the most eastern branch of the Nile. Here they found a great body of the infidels assembled to oppose their landings; but upon the first charge, they mostly dispersed, and the Christians effected their design with very little molestation. A rumour being spread in the Mahometan army, that the sultan was dead, the garrison retired from Damietta without waiting the approach of the enemy, and the Christians immediately took possession of that important fortress. A supply of forces arriving from France, Lewis, leaving the queen with a good garrison at Damietta, began his march towards Grand Cairo, with an army of twenty thousand horse, and forty thousand foot. The infidels avoided a general battle; but so harassed the Christians in their march, and cut off their provisions, that in the space of three months the latter had hardly been able to advance forty miles. An epidemic distemper which broke forth among the troops, likewise greatly diminished their numbers, and those who had not been seized with the contagion, were however much impaired in their health. In this situation, while the van was separated a good distance from the rear, the Mahometans fell upon them, and gave them a total defeat. The greater part of the Christian army perished in the field, and such as escaped the slaughter were made prisoners of war, among which number was the king. It was debated in the Turkish councils whether they should not massacre all the unfortunate captives, to deter the Europeans for the future from undertaking those romantic expeditions; but the prospect of emolument from the ransom of many considerable men, prevailing over their revenge, they agreed to give the king and his people their liberty, upon condition of delivering up Damietta, and paying

such a sum as the utmost resources of France could with difficulty furnish.

The miscarriage of so many successive and ruinous enterprises had not yet extinguished that ardour which animated the Christian powers, towards expelling the infidels from the Holy Land. Another crusade was undertaken in 1270, in which prince Edward (afterwards Edward I. of England) was engaged, who landed at Ptolemais in the beginning of the subsequent year. Not meeting however with the support he had expected, after remaining in Palestine a year and a half, he returned to England. Immediately on his departure, Alphis, or Elpis, sultan of Egypt, assembled a great army, and invading Syria, made himself master of Tripoli, afterwards reducing to his subjection Sidon, Bezetus, and Tyre, with all the other towns which the Christians possessed, except Ptolemais. He consented however to a truce for five years with the garrison of this city, which was not well observed by the Christians. For having received some succours from Europe, they plundered the adjacent country, then under the dominion of the sultan of Egypt, who, upon their refusing to make any satisfaction for this outrage, laid siege to the city. The sultan soon after died, but his son Araphus, continuing the warlike operations, took the place by storm, and gave the plunder of it to his soldiers. This event was succeeded by the entire expulsion of the Christians from Palestine, which they never more attempted to invade.

Cassanes the Tartar, sovereign of Persia, soon after revenged the quarrel of the Christians on the sultan of Egypt, defeating his army, and recovering most of the towns he had taken in Syria and Palestine. He even rebuilt Jerusalem, at the instance of his queen, who was a Christian and a native of Armenia; offering likewise to join the Christian princes, and establish them again in the Holy Land. But most of the latter being at that time occupied with wars in Europe, the proposal was not accepted, and Cassanes retiring into Persia, the sultan of Egypt again invaded Syria and Palestine, and recovered all he had lost. Aladin, at this time prince of the Turks, dying without issue, the Turkish lords, upon the retreat of the Tartars into Persia, divided the country among themselves; of whom Ottoman, the son of Erthogru, was the chief. During the wars between the Turks and Tartars, Theodorus, the Greek emperor of Nice, died, leaving behind him an infant son. Paleologus, an ambitious nobleman, causing the young prince's guardian to be assassinated, established himself in his room; and taking the city of Constantinople by surprise, expelled Baldwin, the last Latin emperor, in 1261. Most of the Greek cities in Europe soon after revolted, and acknowledged Paleologus their emperor.

Ottoman, the chief of the Oguzian tribe of Tartars, having possessed himself of Bythinia and Phrygia, assumed the title of sultan in the year 1300, and made Neapolis the seat of his government. At his death he was succeeded by his son Orchanes, who taking the fortress of Abydos, at the entrance of the Hellespont, on the Asian shore, transported thence an

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army, and town which the succeeded father, took emperor, and made the body of ordering the of age, flor in the serag best stature Bajazet, the Turkish em till being; de he was inac lent langua the latter against the in a fit of ture.

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army, and made himself master of Gallipoli, the first town which the Turks possessed in Europe. Amurath, the succeeding prince, extending the conquests of his father, took several more towns from the Grecian emperor, and among the rest Adrianople, which he made the capital of his dominions. About this time the body of janizaries was first established, Amurath ordering that every fifth captive, above fifteen years of age, should be retained in his service, and educated in the seraglio; out of whom a certain number of the best stature should be selected for the sultan's guards. Bajazet, the next sultan, proceeded to extend the Turkish empire yet farther, both in Europe and Asia, till being defeated by Tamerlane in the plains of Stella, he was made prisoner. Even in adversity, his insolent language so much provoked the conqueror, that the latter is said to have put him in an iron cage, against the bars of which he knocked out his brains in a fit of chagrin, about two years after his discomfiture.

On the death of Tamerlane, in 1404, the five sons of Bajazet contended for the dominions of their father, when, after a civil war that lasted ten years, during which all the competitors died, except Mahomet, the youngest of the brothers, this prince was acknowledged sole sovereign of the Turkish dominions. He was succeeded on the throne by his son Amurath, in whose reign the Ottoman power was kept in perpetual agitation by the brave achievements of the celebrated Scanderbeg, prince of Epirus. Mahomet, the next sultan, made himself master of Constantinople in 1453, whither, on the extinction of the Grecian empire, he removed the seat of government from Adrianople, and assumed

the title of emperor, which all succeeding sovereigns of the Turks have since retained.

The reign of this prince is memorable for one of the most extraordinary transactions that occur in history. Among the captives taken in Constantinople, was a beautiful Greek virgin, named Irene, with whom Mahomet was so enamoured, that he spent his whole time in her company for almost a year, abandoning the care of the government entirely to his ministers, and hardly ever being seen by the people. The janizaries becoming discontented at this effeminacy of the emperor, began to mutiny, when the bashaws ventured to acquaint him of the danger they dreaded of a revolution. The sultan, after reprehending the freedom of his ministers, replied, that "his subjects should see he had as great a command of his passions as any of them," and ordered that all the great officers of state should attend him in the divan next day. Meanwhile he desired that Irene should be dressed in her finest robes, and appear at the assembly. The hour being come, the emperor placed her on a raised floor, in the middle of his lords, and demanded, if they thought he deserved censure for resigning himself to so charming an object. Every one declaring it was impossible to resist so much beauty, he repeated before the assembly what he had said to the bashaws; and immediately seizing the fair Irene by the hair, struck off her head with his scimitar.

The limits of the Turkish dominions were afterwards gradually extended by conquest, through a long succession of princes, several of whom practised the barbarous expedient of murdering their brothers and nearest male relations on their advancement to the throne.

## H U N G A R Y.

### C H A P. I.

*Of the situation—rivers—lakes—iſlands—chief towns—produce—manufactures—commerce.*

**H**UNGARY is situate between 16 and 23 degrees of east longitude, and between 45 and 49 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the east by Walachia and Transilvania; on the south by the river Drave, which separates it from Sclavonia; on the west by Austria and Moravia; and on the north by the Carpathian or Crapack mountains, which divide it from Poland; being upwards of three hundred miles in length, and two hundred and fifty in breadth. In the time of the Romans, this country formed part of the ancient Pannonia, but received its modern name from a tribe of Scythians, who settled here in the third century. In the whole of this extensive kingdom we hardly meet with one mountain; but it abounds in meadows, bogs, lakes, and rivers, joined to the moisture of which, the great vicissitudes of heat and cold, in the latter part of summer, render the air very

No. 17.

unhealthful. Once in three or four years it is usually visited by a pestilential fever, which occasions the country to be called the grave of the Germans, their armies having been so often destroyed by the diseases of the climate.

The chief rivers are, 1. The Danube, which runs through the whole length of the country, from Presburgh to Belgrade, in a direction from the north-west to the south-east. 2. The Drave, which runs from west to east, and falls into the Danube at Esseck. 3. The Teyſſe, which rising in the Carpathian mountains, passes by Tokay, then runs southward, and falls into the Danube opposite to Salankeman. 4. The Meriſh, which has its source in Transilvania, and running westward, falls into the Teyſſe, opposite to Segedin. 5. Gran, which issuing from the Carpathian mountains, runs south, and discharges itself into the Danube near the city of Gran. 6. The Woag, which rising in the north part of the kingdom, runs south, and falls into the Danube opposite to Komorra. 7. The Raab, which rises in Itiria, and running north-east, joins the Danube opposite to the island

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Schut.

Schut. Those several rivers abound so much in fish, that they would almost subsist the inhabitants if they had no other food.

The chief lakes are, 1. The Balaton, or Platensee, about forty miles long, and twelve broad, situated almost in the middle between the Danube and the Drave. 2. The New Fidel Sea, westward of the preceding, and nearly of the same dimensions. 3. The Boker Lake, in the south-east, in the Bannat of Temeswaer.

No country abounds more in hot-baths; and there are fountains of surprising qualities, particularly a spring of vitriolic water, which turns plates of iron into copper, and others of such a nature as to kill any animal that drinks of them.

In the Danube, a little below Buda, is an island forty miles long, with a great many villages upon it. At the confluence of the Danube and the Drave, is another large island; but the largest and most fruitful is that of Schutz, near Presburg, upwards of forty miles in length, and twenty in breadth. This island was given to prince Eugene of Savoy for his services against the Turks.

This kingdom is divided by the Danube into Upper and Lower Hungary, the former of which is situated towards the north-east. The chief towns of this division are, 1. Presburg, the capital, seated on the north side of the Danube, near the confines of Austria, about forty miles east of Vienna. It is a large, populous, pleasant city, and well built. It is not a place of great strength, but has an antique castle standing on an eminence, where the regalia are kept, and the sovereigns crowned. Here likewise the states assemble, and the supreme courts of justice are held. 2. Newhaufel, situated on the river Neytre, thirty miles east of Presburg, and esteemed a strong town. 3. Leopoldstat, a fortified place situated forty miles north of Newhaufel. 4. Chremitz, standing at the foot of the Carpathian mountains, and reckoned the chief of the mine towns, of which there are many in those parts, viz. Schmitz, Newfol, Humgrunt, Eferies, and Caschaw.

Agria is situated on a river of the same name, in the middle of Hungary. It is a well fortified town, and the castle esteemed one of the strongest fortresses in Europe. Pest is a large town, seated on the north side of the Danube, opposite to Buda, with which it has communication by a moveable bridge, half a mile in length. Segedin is situated on the river Teyffe, ninety miles north of Belgrade. Tokay, celebrated for its excellent wine, stands at the confluence of the river Teyffe and Bodruck, forty miles east of Agria. The other towns of note in the Upper Hungary are, Great Waradin, about one hundred miles east of Buda; Mongatz, a strong fortress, situated near the frontiers of Poland; Zolnock, Unguar, and Temeswaer; the latter of which is the capital of the Bannat of Temeswaer, and the strongest fortress which the Austrians now possess on the frontiers of Turkey.

Lower Hungary is situated between the rivers Danube and Drave. 1. The capital of this division is Buda, which stands on the side of an eminence on the south-west bank of the Danube. It is a populous town,

and defended by a strong castle. While Buda was in the hands of the Turks, its natural baths were in great esteem, and the buildings very magnificent; but they have been much neglected since that time. 2. The city of Gran, Strigonium, is situated on the side of the Danube, thirty miles north-west of Buda. This is the see of an archbishop, who is primate of Hungary. It is a large and well built town, in which the greatest structures are the cathedral, dedicated to St. Stephen, the archbishop's palace, and the castle. 3. Komorn stands on the island of Schut, almost surrounded by the Danube and Waag. 4. Raab, a fortified town, and the see of a bishop, situate near the south branch of the Danube, opposite to the island of Schut. 5. Alba Regalis, or Stul Weissenburg, seated in the middle of a bog, on the river Zanwitz, forty miles south of Gran, where the ancient kings of Hungary were crowned.

The soil of Hungary is exceeding fruitful, and produces excellent corn. The meadows and pastures are likewise rich, and covered with herds of cattle. Game is so plentiful that none are restrained from taking it. Even the poorest people in the country eat partridges and pheasants. The grapes are large and luscious, and produce the best wine Europe; particularly that of Tokay. A vulgar error has till lately prevailed, that the Tokay wine is in so small quantity, as never to be found genuine, unless when given in presents by the court of Vienna: but the extent of ground on which it grows affords sufficient proof of the contrary. It is a common desert wine in all the great families at Vienna, and in Hungary, and is very generally drank in Poland and Russia, being used at table in those countries, like Madeira in this.

Another vulgar error is, that all the Tokay wine is the property of the empress-queen. She is not even the most considerable proprietor, nor of the best wine; so that every year she sells off her own, and purchases from the other proprietors, to supply her table, and the presents she makes of it. The greatest proprietor is the prince Trautzon, an old man, at whose death, indeed, his estate will escheat to the crown; but many others of the German and Hungarian nobility have large vineyards at Tokay. Most of the gentlemen of the neighbourhood have part of their estates there: the Jesuits College at Ungovar has a considerable share of the best wine; and besides those, many of the peasants have vineyards, which they hold of the queen, or other lords, by paying a tythe of the annual produce. There is never any red wine made at Tokay, and the vintage is always late. It commonly begins about the end of October, but sometimes not till near the middle of November. Four sorts of wine are made from the same grapes, which they distinguish at Tokay by the names of essence, aufspruch, maßsach, and the common wine.

As the Carpathian mountains afford great variety of minerals, the chief manufactures of the country are those of hard-ware, which, with their wines, are also the principal articles of their commerce; excluding the numerous herds of cattle with which they furnish the Austrians, and the inhabitants of all the adjacent territories.

C H A P.

Of the performance  
revenue—  
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## C H A . P . II.

*Of the persons of the Hungarians—dress—government—  
revenue—forces—method of travelling—bridges—  
religion.*

THE natives of Hungary are for the most part of a good size, and well proportioned. They are not so large as the Germans, but very active and hardy; and from their country having been long the scene of action between the Christians and Turks, they are inured to a military life, for which a great degree of natural courage seems peculiarly to adapt them. The men shave their faces, leaving whiskers on their upper lip. They wear a fur cap, with sometimes a feather; and a clove coat girt about them with a sash. Their upper garment is a short cloak or mantle, which reaches as low as their middle, and is buckled under one arm. The people of rank of both sexes, however, have not much of the Hungarian dress, and imitate the fashions of the French; only the women throw a veil over them when they go abroad.

This country was formerly an elective kingdom; but the house of Austria usurping the throne upwards of two hundred years ago, it has ever since continued in that family by hereditary succession, notwithstanding the frequent efforts of the Hungarians to restore their ancient constitution. At the election of a king, the custom was for the bishops, the lay-nobility, and the representatives of the several counties and cities, to assemble in the plain of Rackes, near Pest, where having agreed on a successor, who was usually the next a-kin to the deceased monarch, he was attended to Stulweissenburg (Alba Regalis) and presented to the people by the palatine, who demanded three times whether they approved of their new-elected king. Having expressed their consent, the sovereign was invested with a naked sword, which he immediately brandished. Afterwards proceeding to the cathedral, the approbation of the people was a second time asked, by the archbishop, which being granted, the prelate performed the coronation rites; while the spiritual and temporal lords, whose office it was, carried king Stephen's arms, and other parts of the regalia before the new king to the palace. King Stephen's crown is still kept at Preiburg, and is the object of great veneration. The reason of which is said to be, that this monarch having begun to propagate the Christian religion in his dominions, and sending the bishop of Coloiza to pope Benedict VII. to desire he would confirm his late election to the throne, the pope was directed by an angel to send him this crown.

The palatine is the first great officer in the kingdom, and was formerly elected by the states. Since the reins of government were assumed by the house of Austria, this officer has been appointed by the crown; but her present imperial majesty, in consideration of the services rendered to her by the Hungarians in the late wars, has promised that the inhabitants shall henceforth enjoy the ancient privilege of electing, or

at least, of nominating their own palatine. A great part of the executive power is committed to this magistrate. He assembles the states, gives audience to ambassadors, was guardian to their infant princes, and took the administration into his hands, during an inter-regnum or vacancy of the throne.

The common people here are the vassals of the respective lords on whose lands they reside; to whom they not only pay rent, but perform various services. In all cases of litigation their resort is to the courts of those proprietors, who enjoy a prescriptive right of jurisdiction within their own estates, and were the only persons who had any vote at the election of the king; the peasants being merely their slaves.

The ordinary revenue which this kingdom yields to the crown, is inconsiderable, not amounting to much more than a hundred thousand pounds a year, arising chiefly from the duties laid on minerals and cattle. It is usual, however, for the sovereign to demand of the states such sums as are necessary for the support of the government, and other uses; and as the exaction of them may be enforced, the payment is seldom refused.

The whole country is a well regulated militia, esteemed equal, if not superior to any in Europe. The horse are called hussars, and the foot heydukes. Like the Swifs, they let themselves out to any nation that will pay them, when the service of their sovereign requires not their immediate attendance.

The usual way of travelling by land is on horseback, or in an open chariot, drawn by three or four horses a-breast; but having a great many navigable rivers, they travel in summer most commonly by water, which is also the safest method. For the hussars, who have been accustomed to plunder in foreign service, often commit acts of robbery; and many parts of the kingdom are likewise infested with gypsies.

Some of the bridges over the Danube are of great extent. That of Esbeck, which stands at the confluence of the Drave and the Danube, and over the marshes adjoining to those rivers, is five miles in length, and at the distance of every quarter of a mile, is furnished with a tower. This is an important pass, where many skirmishes have happened between the Christians and the Turks. The flying-bridge of boats between Buda and Pest is half a mile in length. But the most magnificent bridge that ever was laid over the Danube, was that erected by the Romans, the ruins of which are yet visible, about eighty miles from Belgrade. It appears to have consisted of twenty piles or pillars of hewn stone, a hundred foot high. The basis of each is a square of sixty foot, and the distance between them a hundred and seventy foot. The following inscription was engraved on the most conspicuous part of the structure. *Providentia Aug. vere pontificis virtus Romana quid non domat sub jugum ecce? Raptur & Danubius.*

Most of the people of this country were disciples of John Hufs, and afterwards of Calvin, but divided into a multitude of sects, some of which entertaining very extravagant opinions, a persecution was raised

against them by the Roman Catholics. Her imperial majesty, however, has promised them a toleration of their religion; and this at present they enjoy.

**TRANSILVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, and BOSNIA.**

All those provinces lie contiguous to Hungary, and are not only under the government of the same sovereign, but afford almost the same produce.

Transilvania is situate between 22 and 25 degrees of east longitude, and between 45 and 48 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the west by Hungary; on the north by Poland; on the east by Moldavia; on the south by Walachia, and the Bannat of Temeswaer. From north to south, it measures about a hundred and ninety miles, and is nearly of the same extent from east to west. It is surrounded by woods and mountains, the Carpathian mountains separating it from Poland, and the Iron-gate mountains from Turkey; besides which there are several others in the middle of the country. The valleys in summer are excessive hot. The chief rivers are, the Alauta, which in part separates the dominions of Austria from Turkey; and the Marish, which rising in the north, runs through part of Hungary, and discharges itself into the Teyffe.

This province is usually divided into four parts, namely, Sieben Burgen, Seculi, the Hungarian district, and the country of the Cingars, or Gypsies. The first of these comprehends two thirds of the country. The inhabitants, who call themselves Saxons, are supposed to be descended from the ancient Dacians. The Seculi lie north-east of the preceding, and are the posterity of the Huns. The inhabitants of the Hungarian district lie on the confines of that kingdom; and the Cingars, or Gypsies, who live in tents, pitch them upon every common, and are mostly smiths or hard-ware men.

The chief towns are, 1. Hermanstat, the capital, situated in a fine plain, on the bank of the river Cibin. This is a strong town, well built, and canals run along the middle of some of the streets. It is the see of a bishop, and the seat of the courts of justice. The chief trade of the place is in wine, mead, and woollen cloth. 2. Cronstat or Corona, a frontier town, near the borders of Moldavia, about sixty miles north-east of Hermanstat, strongly fortified, and surrounded by vineyards. 3. Claufenburg, a large populous city, standing on the river Samos, sixty miles north-west of Hermanstat. 4. Beskricia, situate near the Carpathian

mountains and the mines of Rodna. The other towns of any note are, Hogarus, Segeswaer, Megus, Alba-Julia, Huniad, Thorda, Dohoka, Zatmar, Deva, Marcozeek, Girgio, Uvarthel, Chick, Kifda, Orbay, and Schepfi.

The province of Sclavonia anciently extended almost from the Adriatic to the Euxine Sea, but is now comprehended within much narrower limits; having the river Drave on the north, the Danube on the east, the Save on the south, and the duchy of Stiria on the west. It is about three hundred miles in length, and upwards of sixty in breadth; a level country, and watered with three of the finest rivers in Hungary, besides others less considerable. 1. The chief town is Pofega, situate on the river Orana, a hundred and thirty miles west of Belgrade. 2. Walpo, forty miles north-east of the preceding. 3. Walcowar, seated near the Danube, twenty miles south of Esfeck. 4. Peterwaraden, also near the Danube, fifty miles south-east of Esfeck. 5. Salankamen, situated near the Danube, fifteen miles south-east of Peterwaraden, rendered conspicuous for the victory obtained over the Turks by prince Lewis of Baden, in 1691. 6. Carlowitz, where the peace was concluded between the Austrians and Turks, in 1699. The remaining towns of note are, Semlin, Alt Sirmium, Zagrab, and Gradiska.

The province of Croatia is bounded on the north and east by Sclavonia, on the south by Bosnia, and on the west by Carniola. The chief towns are Carlstadt, which stands on the river Culp, a hundred and forty miles south of Vienna; and Sifeg, situate on the river Save, forty-five miles east of the preceding.

The province of Bosnia lies between Croatia and Servia, and is divided between the Austrians and Turks; the former possessing the country westward of the river Unna, and the latter that on the east side. The chief town in the Austrian division is Unatz, and in the other Whitesch.

Those several provinces are generally level and open, except Transilvania, which is mountainous and woody. They are very fruitful where cultivated, and would produce plenty of corn and wine; but lying on the frontiers of Turkey, and therefore exposed frequently to be eaten up by the armies of both countries, they add but little to the revenues of the sovereign, to whom sometimes they are even chargeable. They are all subject to the empress-queen. The established religion is the Roman Catholic; but many of the inhabitants are protestants, and some of the Greek church.

## B O H E M I A.

## C H A P. I.

*Of the division — situation — rivers — chief towns —  
produce — manufactures.*

**T**HIS kingdom, comprehending Bohemia Proper, Silesia, and Moravia, is situate between 12 and 19 degrees of east longitude, and between 48 and 53 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by Lusatia, the electorates of Saxony and Brandenburg; on the east by Poland and Hungary; on the south by Austria and the duchy of Bavaria; and on the west by the palatinate of Bavaria, and another part of Saxony. It is in length about three hundred miles, and in breadth two hundred and fifty. The country for the most part is mountainous, and the divisions above mentioned are surrounded by high hills covered with woods, which, by obstructing the ventilation, render the air rather unhealthy. Some of the hills are barren rocks; but they abound in mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron. The chief rivers are, the Elbe, Muldaw, Eger, Bobber, the Niesse, Oder, Wesel or Vistula, Moraw, and the Theysse.

The chief towns in Bohemia Proper, which is the largest and most westerly division, are, 1. Prague, the capital of the kingdom, situate on the river Muldaw, in 14 degrees 46 minutes east longitude, and 50 degrees 6 minutes of north latitude; about a hundred and forty miles north-west of Vienna, and seventy miles south of Dresden. This city consists of three towns united, viz. Old Prague, New Prague, and Little Prague. The Old town stands on the east side of the river, and contains a university, and several monasteries. It is surrounded by the New town, from which it is separated only by a moat, having for its defence a wall, with some modern fortifications; but it is so very large as to require an army to garrison it. The Little town is separated from the others by the river, over which is a fine stone bridge. Part of it stands upon an eminence, on which is a castle, and a royal palace, where their ancient kings resided. Here likewise stands the cathedral, with the houses of the nobility. Besides those three parts, there is a suburb of Jews, who are very numerous. This city is one of the largest in Europe, and reckoned the most populous next to London, Paris, and Constantinople; but being commanded by several hills, it has greatly suffered in the late wars.

2. The second considerable city in Bohemia Proper is Egra, which stands on the river Eger, near the confines of Franconia, eighty miles west of Prague. This is a fortified town, and was several times taken and retaken during the late wars.

3. Coninggratz, situate on the river Elbe, fifty miles east of Prague. This town is the see of a bishop, No. 17.

who is suffragan to the archbishop of Prague; and near it are several rich mines, which have been wrought for almost eight hundred years.

4. Glatz situate on the west side of the mountains which divide Bohemia Proper from Silesia, a hundred miles north-east of Prague. The county of Glatz, of which this is the capital, was possessed by the king of Prussia in 1741, and confirmed to him at a subsequent treaty, by the queen of Hungary. It surrendered to the Austrians after a short siege, on the 6th of July, 1760; but was restored to the king of Prussia by the treaty of Hubertsbourg, in 1763.

5. Budweis, situate on the Muldaw, sixty miles south of Prague.

The province of Silesia, now the property of the king of Prussia, is bounded on the north by Brandenburg; on the east by Poland; on the south by the mountains of Reiffenberg, which divide it from Moravia; and on the west by Bohemia Proper. The chief towns are, 1. Breslaw, the capital, situated on the river Oder, a hundred and twenty miles north-east of Prague. It is a large populous city, but of no great strength. It has long enjoyed many considerable privileges, among which is that of being governed by its own magistrates, and of not being liable to have soldiers quartered in it. Those privileges the king of Prussia promised that the inhabitants should retain, when he took possession of the place. Here is a university, and a bishop's see; but by the treaty of Breslaw, it was agreed, that the bishop should thereafter reside at Oppelen.

2. Crossen, capital of a duchy of the same name, and situated on the river Oder, in the north part of the province.

3. Glogaw, situated likewise on the Oder, forty miles south-east of Crossen. It is a fortified town, and the capital of a duchy.

4. Lignitz, capital of a duchy, lying upwards of thirty miles north-west of Breslaw.

5. Jagendorf, situate on the river Tropaw, on the borders of Moravia, seventy miles south of Breslaw.

6. Tropaw, standing on the river of the same name, fifteen miles south-east of the preceding, and the capital of a duchy.

7. Niesse, situate on the river Niesse, forty-five miles south of Breslaw.

8. Oppelen, capital of a duchy, situate on the river Oder, thirty miles south-east of Breslaw.

The third great division of the kingdom of Bohemia, is the marquiseate of Moravia, which is bounded on the north and east by Silesia, on the south by Austria, and on the west by Bohemia Proper. The chief towns are, 1. Olmutz, capital of the province, standing on the river Moraw, seventy-five miles north of Vienna, and upwards of a hundred east of Prague. It is well

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situated

situated for trade, and is the only bishop's see in this division.

2. Brin, a fortified town, situate at the confluence of two small rivers, fifty miles north of Vienna, and thirty miles south-west of Olinutz. The assembly of the states meet at this place.

3. Iglaw, seated on a river of the same name, on the confines of Bohemia Proper, sixty-eight miles south-west of Olinutz, on the road from Bohemia to Hungary.

4. Hradish, seated on an island in the river Moraw, thirty miles south of Olinutz.

In the valleys of Bohemia the soil is fruitful, and produces corn and wine sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants; but the wine is small, and therefore unfit for exportation. The country affords great quantities of good barley and hops, of which they make so much beer, that it forms a considerable article of their trade. Flax and hemp are also very plentiful, and the Bohemians export a good deal of linen. Of this manufacture, particularly what is called Silesia lawns, England purchases a considerable quantity; but it is supposed, that a great part of what is so called is the manufacture of the French, which they carry to Hamburgh, and sell to the English merchants, as the produce of Silesia. Saffron is here a frequent commodity, and the gardens are stocked with the same fruits, herbs, roots, and flowers, as those of Britain. The country abounds in neat cattle, sheep, deer, poultry, and all other animals, wild or tame, that are to be met with in the inland parts of Europe. The horses are of a large size, fit for the draught or troop, and are bought up by the Jews for the French, when they have occasion to recruit their cavalry. The mines are rich in silver, lead, and iron; and here are many precious stones, particularly amethysts, carbuncles, rubies, jasper, and sapphires. The country, however, produces so little common salt, that they are obliged to import this article; but they have a sufficient quantity of salt-petre, and some sulphur.

#### C H A P. II.

*Of the persons of the Bohemians—character—diversions—history—government—language—religion.*

THE Bohemians are of a large stature, inclined to corpulency, robust, and have generally clear complexions. They formerly wore the habit of the eastern countries; but have many years since changed it for that of the more western Europeans. The common people are for the most part of a dull phlegmatic disposition, but those of the better sort are esteemed polite and ingenious. The latter, however, much affect a profuse and expensive way of life, which, joined with their extreme propensity to play, would render them utterly indigent, were it not that the greater part of their estates is by the custom of the country unalienable. In eating and drinking, all ranks in the nation are justly chargeable with intemperance. Feasting not only constitutes a part in every kind of diversion, but is frequently introduced where

people are assembled upon business. The common diversions are hunting, hawking, fishing, or in winter running over the ice and snow in skates and sledges. They have likewise frequent dancing, masquerades, plays, and operas; and so general is the taste of music, that there is hardly a village where the mass is not sung in concert. The houses of the nobility and gentry are built of stone, chiefly on the Italian model. They live mostly on their estates, where they generally exercise an oppressive authority over their vassals.

The annals of this nation, previous to the fourteenth century, are extremely imperfect. It appears that the country was originally divided into a great number of principalities, styled for the most part duchies. About the year 600, those detached provinces were united by Zechius, who was distinguished by the title of the great duke. The next sovereign of whom we find any mention, is Cracus, who is supposed to have reigned about the year 700. He was succeeded in the throne by his daughter Libussa; but the people being dissatisfied with a female administration, were about to depose her, when it is said she pretended to an authority from heaven, to turn a horse loose in the streets, and to take for her husband the man at whose house he should stop. The animal being accordingly let loose, stopped at the door of a peasant, named Primissaus, whom she therefore married, and reigned jointly with him till her death.

The first Christian prince of the country was Borivoius, who began his reign in 856. Some years afterwards Bolissaus restored paganism, having first murdered his own brother Uladissaus I, the preceding king; but he was compelled to admit the re-establishment of Christianity by Otho the Great, who made him also tributary to the empire. In the year 1086, Uladissaus II, was created king of Bohemia by the emperor Henry IV. The German emperors likewise advanced to the throne several succeeding kings, many of whom were deposed by the dukes, where their concurrence was not demanded.

In the reign of Randolph II, king of Bohemia and Hungary, and emperor of Germany, the protestants of the empire entered into a confederacy, called the union, or evangelical league; choosing for their general, Frederic, elector palatine, with whom the protestants of Hungary joined. They renounced their allegiance to the emperor Ferdinand, whom they had acknowledged their king, and in 1610 advanced to the throne the elector palatine, son-in-law to James I, king of Great Britain. He enjoyed his new dignity, however, but a very short time, being defeated the next year by the duke of Bavaria, the emperor's general. From this epoch the throne of Bohemia has been filled by the emperors and their heirs, or princes appointed by them. On the demise of the crown, the landed proprietors assemble, to express their consent to the succession of the person who is nominated to the throne; but they have now no constitutional power to reject or alter the appointment. The present empress-queen always convokes the

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The language of the Bohemians was formerly the Slavonian; but at present most of them speak the High Dutch or German language. The religion of

the kingdom is the Roman Catholic, which has been invariably professed by the inhabitants since the extinction of the sect of reformers, named Hussites, in the fifteenth century.

## G E R M A N Y.

### C H A P. I.

*Of the situation—boundaries—face of the country—rivers—air—divisions of the empire.*

**G**ERMANY is situate between 5 and 19 degrees of east longitude, and between 45 and 55 degrees of north latitude; being six hundred miles long from east to west, and five hundred miles in breadth. It is bounded on the east by Poland, Bohemia, and Hungary; on the south by Switzerland, and the Alps, which separate it from Italy; on the west by the dominions of France and the Netherlands, from which it is separated by the rivers Rhine, Moselle, and Maes; on the north by Denmark, the German Sea, and the Baltic.

In the northern part of Germany there are some rocky barren mountains, which abound with minerals; but the interior parts are interspersed with hills of a moderate height, forests, valleys, meadows, and fruitful fields, especially near the great rivers. In the north of Westphalia and Lower Saxony, bogs and morasses are frequent.

Among the rivers the chief is the Danube, anciently named the Ister, which rising in the Black Forest in the south-west part of Swabia, runs north-east through Swabia and Bavaria to Ratisbon; then almost due east to Vienna; and afterwards, dividing Hungary into two parts, runs south-east to Belgrade in Servia, whence running east through Turkey, it falls into the Euxine or Black Sea by several channels.

The rivers which discharge themselves into the Danube on the south side are, the Iller, or Iser, which joins it at Ulm; the Lech, which passes by Augsburg, and falls into the Danube near Donawert; the Iser, which passing by Munich and Landshut, falls into it opposite to Deckendorf; the Inn, which rising in Switzerland, passes by Inspruck, and terminates at Passaw; the Ens, which falls into the Danube at the town of Ens.

The rivers that discharge themselves into the Danube on the north are, the Regen, which joins it at Ratisbon; and the Nab, which runs through Bavaria, and likewise joins it near Ratisbon.

The Rhine rises in the country of the Grisons, and running north to the Lake of Constance, thence turns westward to Basil, after which it again runs north between Swabia and Alsace, then through the palatinate and electorate of Cologne, and entering the Netherlands, is divided into several branches. The

rivers that fall into the Rhine are, the Neckar, which runs from south to north through Swabia, and falls into the Rhine at Manheim, in the palatinate; the Maine, which runs from east to west, and ends its course at Mentz; the Lhon, which runs in the same direction, and falls into the Rhine below Nassau; the Roer, which also runs in the same direction through Westphalia, and falls into the Rhine at Duytsburg; and the Lippe, which runs parallel to the Roer, and falls into the Rhine at Wesel.

The Elbe, which rises in the confines of Silesia, runs north-west through Bohemia, Saxony, and Brandenburg, and then separating the king of Great Britain's German dominions from Holstein, falls into the German sea, about seventy miles below Hamburg: receiving in its passage the Muldaw, which falls into it below Prague; the Sala, which joins it below Dessau; the Havel, which unites with it at Havelsburg; and the Ilmenau, which falls into it above Harburg.

The Spree, which runs from south to north, through Saxony and Brandenburg, passing by Berlin, falls into the Havel near Potsdam.

The Oder runs from south to north, through Silesia and Brandenburg, and then passing by Stetin, divides Pomerania, and discharges itself into the Baltick, between the islands of Usedom and Wollin.

The Pene runs from west to east, dividing Swedish from Prussian Pomerania, and falls into the Baltic, opposite to Usedom.

The Weser, rising in Hesse, runs north, receiving the Aller at Ferden; then passing by Bremen, falls into the German sea below Carlstat.

The Ems, rising near Munster, and running north through Westphalia, discharges itself into the same sea below Emden.

The Moselle, rising in Lorraine, runs north-east by Toul, Mentz, and Treves, and falls into the Rhine at Coblentz.

The Saar, rising likewise in Lorraine, runs north-west, and falls into the Moselle at Triers.

In the inland parts of Germany, the air is at all times more pure, and the weather less variable than in Britain; on which account the former is colder in winter, and hotter in summer. The country is populous, and adorned with many fine cities, castles, and palaces.

Germany is divided into nine circles, viz. Upper Saxony, Lower Saxony, Westphalia, Franconia, Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine, Austria, Bavaria, and Suabia.



There was formerly a tenth circle, which consisted of the duchy of Burgundy, and the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands; but those territories have long been detached from the empire.

#### C H A P. II.

##### *Circle of Upper Saxony.*

UPPER Saxony is situate in the north-east part of Germany, and comprehends Pomerania, the marquisate of Brandenburg, the duchy of Saxony, the marquisate of Lusatia, and Misnia, with a number of other duchies and counties.

Pomerania, the most northerly division, lies along the shore of the Baltic, forming a tract of land two hundred and fifty miles in length from east to west, and from sixty to seventy-five miles in breadth. It is a flat country, well supplied with wood and water, but generally a cold barren soil. It is, however, advantageously situated for a foreign trade, and has many good harbours, particularly Stetin and Stralsund. The province is divided into two parts by the river Pene; that on the east being called Prussian or Brandenburg Pomerania, and that on the west, Swedish Pomerania, from the crowns to which they belong.

The principal rivers are, the Oder, the Pene, the Rega, the Persant, the Wiper, the Stolpt, the Recknitz, and the Barte. The Recknitz separates Pomerania from the duchy of Mecklenburg, forming a large lake near Damgarten. The Oder, on its entering Pomerania, divides into several branches, forming some large islands, and below Stetin, flows into the Damnth lake, falling afterwards into a fresh-water lake, called the Great Frichestaff, sixteen miles over, discharging itself into the Baltic by three channels, namely, the Divenow, the Swin, and the Penemund. Between the river Pene and the Swin, lies the island of Ufedom; and between the Swin and the Divenow, the island of Wallin.

The chief towns of Pomerania are Stetin and Stralsund, the former of which belongs to the king of Prussia, and the latter to Sweden. Stetin is situated on an eminence on the west side of the river Oder, in 14 degrees 58 minutes of east longitude, and 53 degrees 27 minutes of north latitude, forty miles south of the Baltic, and seventy north-east of Berlin. It is a large, populous, and trading city, regularly fortified and defended by a castle, formerly the palace of the ancient dukes of Pomerania, and esteemed an elegant piece of architecture. In the year 1713, the king of Prussia prevailed on the citizens to suffer his troops to garrison the town, under pretence of defending it against the Russians, and engaging to hold it by way of sequestration, till a peace should be concluded. The Swedes, not knowing how to recover it, ceded it, upon some consideration, to the king of Prussia, with the adjacent territory; an acquisition of the greatest importance to that prince, as he now commands the navigation of the Oder, and has a communication with the Baltic.

Stralsund is situated on the shore of the Baltic, in 9 degrees 12 minutes east longitude, and 45 degrees 5 minutes north latitude, eighty miles north-west of Swin. Standing in a morass, and well fortified, it is strong both by nature and art, and has a good harbour for vessels under two hundred tons. Opposite to this city, lies the island of Rugen, one of the largest in the Baltic. It was anciently joined to the continent, but is now separated by a channel near three miles in breadth. The island is twenty-three miles long, and fifteen broad, and is a plentiful country, abounding in corn and cattle. The chief town is Bergen.

The marquisate of Brandenburg has on the north Pomerania and Mecklenburg; on the east, Poland; on the south, Saxony Proper; and on the west, Brunsvick and Lunenburg, extending two hundred miles in length, and between fifty and a hundred in breadth. The air of this country is cold, the winters long, and the soil for the most part a barren sand; but they have large flocks of sheep, with plenty of venison and other game. Though the climate be too cold for wine, they make a sour fort, which is hardly drinkable. They have some mines of copper, and iron, but of no great value. The chief rivers are the Elbe, the Oder, the Havel, the Spree, and the Warta. Here are also canals made for the convenience of trade; by one of which they have a communication with the Havel and the Elbe, and consequently with the ocean; and by another with the Oder, which opens a communication with the Baltic. There are likewise in the country several lakes, of which one of the largest is Ukersee.

This marquisate is distinguished into three divisions, namely Altmark, Newmark, and Middlemark. The chief towns of the former are, 1. Stendal, the capital of the division, situated on the river Ucht, which falls into Angermund, at the confluence of the Anger and the Elbe.

The most fruitful part of the country is the division of Newmark, the chief town of which is Cultrin, situated on the river Oder, near the mouth of the Warta.

The division of Middlemark is situated in the centre of the marquisate, between the rivers Oder and Elbe. The chief towns are, 1. Brandenburg, lying in the middle of a bog on the river Havel, which runs through it. This town is twenty-six miles west of Berlin, and was once the capital city of the marquisate. 2. Berlin, at present the capital of the Prussian dominions, is situate in 13 degrees 37 minutes of east longitude, and in 52 degrees 53 minutes of north latitude, on the river Spree, ninety miles north of Dresden. This city has been greatly improved within these fifty or sixty years in its trade and buildings. From the river Spree canals have been cut to the Ider on the east, and to the Elbe on the west; by which means the city has a communication both with the Baltic sea and the German ocean. 3. Potsdam, situate on the river Havel, ten miles south-west of Berlin. The king of Prussia has here a palace, which is now his usual

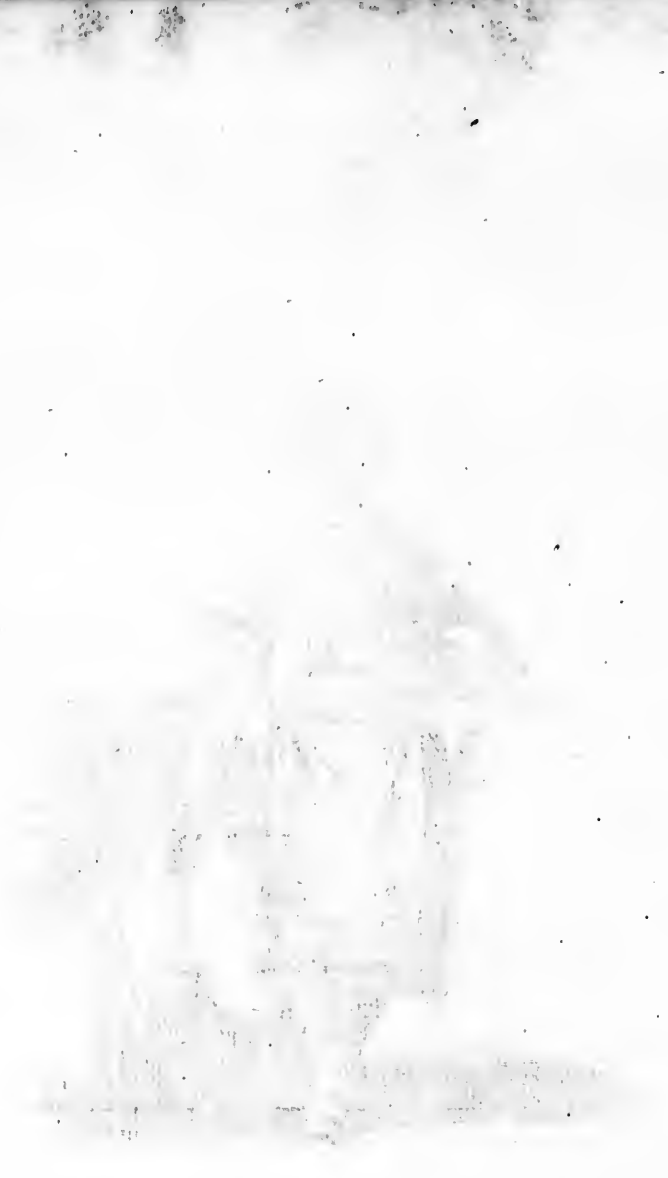
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*Habit of a Georgian in 1768.*



*From the Original of J. B. Le Prince.*

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usual residence. 4. Frankfort upon the river Oder, forty miles east of Berlin. This is a large well-built town, and enjoys a flourishing trade, having a communication with the Baltic by the Oder, and with the Spree and Havel by canals. Here the king has erected an university for Calvinists.

Berlin has been computed to be near one third as large as London, yet it contains not above one eighth part of the inhabitants, which is more, by upwards of twenty thousand, than is supposed to have been the number at the accession of the present king of Prussia. This wise monarch, by the privileges and encouragement which he has granted to manufacturers of various kinds, has induced many industrious foreigners to settle in the capital, where a considerable trade is now established. They make woollen cloth sufficient for the army, and great part of home consumption; Silesia exports linen all over Europe, and to America; and hardly any where can gold and silver lace, or wrought silks, be purchased so cheap as at Berlin.

The number of troops usually in the pay of the king of Prussia, is about a hundred and twenty thousand, two thirds of which, according to the establishment, should be composed of foreigners. This circumstance, however, joined to the small number of inhabitants in the Prussian dominions, must render it difficult to recruit the army in any war with the neighbouring nations.

The pay of a common soldier in this country is eight groch (fourteen pence) a week, besides bread; and of this sum three pence is supposed to go in washing, and materials for cleaning their arms, for which they are so much distinguished. Upon this calculation, a hundred and twenty thousand men cost only three hundred and sixty-four thousand pounds; so that if we reckon thrice the sum, in order to include their ammunition bread, the pay of officers, and cloathing, the whole will not much exceed a million sterling.

The revenues of the king of Prussia about the beginning of the last war, were estimated at one million four hundred thousand pounds; but by the improvement of commerce, and the accession of the Polish territory, they must now be much more considerable. Those revenues arise from a tax of about half the rent of the land, and near forty per cent. on all eatables, soap, candles, &c. Notwithstanding this oppressive impost, such is the regularity that runs through every branch of the government, and particularly the parsimony of the court, that the people, if not flourishing, are at least contented; and their property is guarded by a system of laws, the most plain, determinate, and equitable, of any nation in Europe.

About a mile from Berlin stands Charlottenburg, founded by the first king of Prussia, and now finished by the present in a most exquisite taste.

On an eminence in the neighbourhood is situated Sans Souci, which commands an agreeable view, and seems to have been intended as a summer-house and library to the palace of Potsdam. The apartments are for the most part on the ground-floor, and elegantly finished.

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The king of Prussia is likewise sovereign of several other territories, particularly the duchy of Magdeburg, which is bounded on the north by Mecklenburg, on the east by a part of Brandenburg, on the south by the principalities of Anhalt and Halberstadt, and on the west by Brunswick. It is sixty miles long, and thirty broad, and has the river Elbe running through it. The revenues of this duchy are computed at a hundred thousand pounds *per annum*. The capital city is Magdeburg, anciently Parthenopolis, situated on the Elbe, seventy miles west of Berlin. Before the Reformation it was an archbishoprick, independent of any ecclesiastical superior but the pope; on which account this prelate was styled primate of all Germany. The cathedral is a grand edifice of Gothic architecture, and contained forty-nine magnificent altars. The high altar, yet remaining, is a table of jasper stone, eighteen foot long, eight broad, and two inches thick, valued at two tons of gold. Among other relics are shewn, a piece of the watering-pots, in which, they tell us, Christ converted the water into wine; a wooden slipper of the Virgin Mary, and the basin in which Pilate washed his hands. Here Luther had his education, in the convent of St. Aofin.

This city was once remarkable for the tilts and tournaments instituted by the emperor Henry, surnamed the Fowler, in the year 638; to which none but the ancient nobility were admitted, nor even those without some restrictions. With so much emulation were those exercises celebrated, that at one tournament, in 1473, seventeen gentlemen of Franconia, and nine of Hesse, were killed in the field, besides great numbers lamed and wounded. On account of similar mischiefs, of which the tilts and tournaments were frequently productive, they were at length abolished.

In the religious wars of Germany between the protestants and papists, count Tilly, the catholic or imperial general, took the city of Magdeburg by storm, and massacred all the inhabitants that were Lutherans, to the number of forty thousand; demolishing at the same time all the houses and public buildings, except the cathedral.

The adjacent duchy of Halberstadt is also subject to the Prussian crown. This country is bounded on the north by the duchies of Magdeburg and Brunswick, on the east by Saxony Proper, on the south by the principality of Anhalt, and on the west by the bishoprick of Hildersheim; being thirty-six miles long, and twenty-five broad. The chief town, Halberstadt, stands on the rivulet of Hotheim, thirty miles south-west of Magdeburg. This duchy is one of the most fruitful parts of the king of Prussia's dominions.

The fourth division of this circle comprehends chiefly the dominions of the elector of Saxony, viz. the duchy of Saxony, the marquissates of Misnia or Missin, and Voightland, with the territories of the other princes of the house of Saxony, the principality of Anhalt, and the county of Barbay.

The capital of the duchy of Saxony is Wittenburg, situate on the river Elbe, fifty-five miles north of Dresden. Bautzen, capital of the marquissate of Lusatia, stands on the river Spree, thirty-five miles north-

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east of Dresden; and Gorlitz, in the same marquisate, stands on the river Niessa, fifty miles east of Dresden.

Dresden, capital of the marquisate of Misnia and of the electorate of Saxony, is situate in 13 degrees 40 minutes east longitude, and in 51 degrees 12 minutes of north latitude, on the river Elbe, seventy-five miles north-west of Prague, and eighty-five south of Berlin. It is divided by the Elbe into the old and new towns, which are joined by a fine stone bridge, consisting of eighteen arches. The city stands on a plain, surrounded with high sandy hills, which have been converted into vineyards, but the fruit is not much commended. It is well fortified, and the buildings elegant, but the streets are generally narrow. The elector's palace is a magnificent structure, and abounds in many valuable curiosities both of nature and art. The collection of pictures is reckoned one of the finest in the world, and is valued at five hundred thousand pounds.

Above seven hundred men are here constantly employed in the porcelain manufacture, the annual expence of which is estimated at no more than eighty thousand crowns; and the manufacture yields to the king two hundred thousand crowns yearly, besides the magnificent presents which he occasionally makes, and the large quantity reserved for the use of his household.

The other most considerable article of trade is silver, of which the mines near Fridburg produce every fifteen days near the value of twenty thousand dollars. The metal is brought into the city in ingots, where it is immediately coined, and delivered to the proprietors.

The court of Dresden is one of the most remarkable in Europe for splendor and profusion. Six thousand five hundred ducats are yearly allowed for comfits, and such articles, which is near twice as much as the king of Prussia allows for the whole expence of his table. The revenues of the elector are estimated at about one million five hundred and seventy-six thousand pounds, which arise from the taxes on lands, and a capitation of six dollars on all males, as soon as they commence an apprenticeship, or begin to work. People of a higher rank are taxed according to their class, and are liable to be called to account, if they assume not an exterior appearance correspondent to the extent of their fortune. Every foreigner pays capitation, after residing six months in the country. Jews are taxed at fifty, their wives at thirty, and their children at twenty dollars. There is also an excise on all eatables and liquors; and ten per cent. is levied out of the incomes of the people.

Leipzig is situated in 12 degrees 55 minutes east longitude, and in 51 degrees 20 minutes of north latitude, on the river Pleiss, forty-two miles north-west of Dresden. The city is small, but the buildings are lofty and elegant. The streets are clean and commodious, and the market-places two squares of considerable extent. The town is surrounded with numerous gardens, which are in general laid out in good taste. The wealth of this city consists chiefly in wool; besides which the inhabitants have several profitable manufactures, particularly painted cloths in imitation of tapestry. It is one of the most trading towns in

Germany, and proportionably populous. It is also the seat of a flourishing university, and the Lutheran is here the established religion, as well as at Dresden.

The territory of Misnia includes many other towns of considerable note, where the inhabitants are employed on the general manufactures of the province, which are chiefly linen, lace, and porcelain.

The duchy of Saxony, to which the electorate is annexed is a small territory, bounded on the north by Brandenburg, on the east by Lusatia, on the south by Misnia, and on the west by Anhalt. It is by nature the richest country in Germany, if not in Europe. It contains two hundred and ten walled towns, sixty-one market towns, and near three thousand villages. The annual revenue is computed at upwards of one million three hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling. The chief town is Wittenburg, on the Elbe, fifty-five miles north of Dresden; but the latter is the residence of the electoral family. The elector of Saxony is great marshal of the empire of Germany, and is supposed capable of bringing into the field twenty-five thousand men.

To the elector of Saxony belong likewise the marquisate of Lusatia, and Voightland, with that of Misnia or Meissen. The latter is a fruitful country, producing corn and wine, and is well supplied with wood and water, having also in the hills rich mines. The capital city is Dresden.

The landgrate of Thuringia is bounded on the north by the duchy of Brunswick and the principality of Anhalt, on the east by Misnia, on the south by Franconia, and on the west by Hesse. It is about seventy-five miles in length, and as much in breadth; fertile, abounding with fruits and woods, and well watered with rivers. It is subject to the elector of Mentz, and several other petty sovereigns. The chief town is Erford.

### C H A P. III.

#### *Circle of Lower Saxony.*

**T**HE circle of Lower Saxony is bounded on the north by Denmark, the German sea, and the Baltic; on the east and south by Upper Saxony; and on the west by Westphalia; comprehending the duchies of Holstein, Mecklenburg, Lawenburg, Bremen, Verden, Brunswick-Lunenbourg, Brunswick-Wolfenbüttele, the bishoprick of Hildesheim, and the duchies of Magdeburg and Halberstadt, of which the two latter have been already mentioned.

The duchy of Holstein is bounded on the north by Kewic; on the east by the Baltic sea, and the duchy of Sax-Lawenburg; on the south by the river Elbe, which separates it from Bremen and Lunenburg; and on the west by the German sea. It is about a hundred miles long, and fifty broad; a pleasant fruitful country, and extremely well situated for trade. The king of Denmark, and the duke of Holstein Gottorp, have a joint dominion in great part of it; and of some towns and territories, each is respectively the sole sovereign. There are also some imperial cities and sovereign states, which are governed by their own magistrates.

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The chief of the latter is Hamburg, situate in 10 degrees of east longitude, and 53 degrees 41 minutes of north latitude. It stands on the north side of the Elbe, partly on islands, and partly on the continent, seventy miles north-east of the German ocean. The tide flows through the channels that separate the islands; and the town lies so low, that in spring tides they receive great damage in their houses. The streets are spacious, and the houses, which are built of brick, are very high, and have a magnificent appearance. The city is naturally strong, and likewise industriously fortified. It is exceeding populous, merchants from all parts of Europe resorting hither; whence their goods are sent into the middle of the empire by the Elbe. All sorts of provisions are here in great plenty; and their beer has such a reputation, that the export of it is very considerable. Ships come up to the doors to deliver and take in their lading; the tide flows sixteen miles above the town. The territory is small, but contains some beautiful villas and gardens. There are also several considerable islands which belong to Hamburg. The magistrates consist of four burgomasters or mayors, twenty scjeps or aldermen, twelve common-council-men or senators; and upon extraordinary occasions sixty more of the principal citizens are assembled, in whom is the last resort. It is a free imperial city, subject only to the general laws of the empire; but of late years the people have sometimes disputed the authority of the senate, and the emperor has interposed. The king of Denmark, as duke of Holstein, sometimes lays claim to the dominion of this city, and extorts money from the inhabitants; for being possessed of the fortress of Gluckstadt, near the mouth of the river, it is greatly in his power to distress their commerce. The established religion is Lutheranism, and they will tolerate no other, whether popish or protestant, except in the chapels of foreign ministers.

The city of Lubec is situate in 10 degrees 51 minutes of east longitude, and in 54 degrees of north latitude; on the river Trave, ten miles south-west of the Baltic, and forty miles north-east of Hamburg. It is one of the hanse-towns, and is a rich, populous city, pleasant and well built, containing twenty parochial churches, besides the cathedral, which is a piece of fine architecture, dedicated to the Virgin Mary. The government of Lubec is properly aristocratical, none having any share in it but the nobility and persons of fortune. Their territories, which lie round the city, are about sixty miles in circumference, containing several towns and villages.

In the flourishing state of the hanse-towns, Lubec was the chief of the confederacy, and its inhabitants were not only the greatest traders, but the most formidable naval power in Europe; being able to equip two hundred men of war. They have still a great foreign trade; but ships of burden come up no higher than the town of Travemund, at the mouth of the river Trave, twelve miles north-east of Lubec.

The lands of the bishop have been enjoyed by protestant princes since the year 1561, when the Lutheran religion was established here. They devolve

as an appendage, or inheritance, on a younger son of the duke of Holstein-Gottorp, who is styled duke of Holstein-Eutin, from the place where he usually resides, which is at the distance of four miles from the city.

The duchy of Mecklenburg is bounded on the north by the Baltic; on the east by Pomerania; on the south by Brandenburg; and on the west by the duchies of Holstein, Lunenburg, and Lawenburg; being about a hundred miles long, and sixty broad. The air is unhealthy, and in the winter cold; but the country is fruitful, well watered, and advantageously situated for a foreign trade. It was anciently inhabited by the Vandals. This duchy is subject to two branches of the house of Mecklenburg, namely, Strelitz, and Schwerin, the later of whom possesses the part of the country called Mecklenburg Proper.

The chief towns are, 1. Gultrow, a fortified city, which became subject to the duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, upon the extinction of the line of Gultrow, in 1695. 2. Rostock, situate on a bay of the Baltic, twenty-six miles east of Wismar. This is an imperial city, or sovereign state, and took its name of Rostock from a red pillar, anciently worshipped by the inhabitants. 3. Grabou, situated twenty miles south of Schwerin.

Wismar is situated on a bay of the Baltic, twelve miles north of Schwerin. It was formerly one of the chief hanse-towns, being the station of their men of war; but the Swedes making themselves masters of the place, during the civil wars of Germany, it was confirmed to them by the treaty of Westphalia. Being afterwards taken by the Danes and their allies, it was restored to Sweden by the peace of 1720; with provision that the fortifications should be demolished.

Schwerin, the capital of the duchy, is situated on an extensive lake, called the Schwerin sea, twenty-two miles south of the Baltic. It was formerly a bishop's see, but secularized by the treaty of Westphalia, and being converted into a principality, was allotted to Adolph Frederic, duke of Mecklenburg.

The duchy of Lunenburg, including Zell, is bounded on the north by the river Elbe, which separates it from Holstein and Lawenburg; on the east by the marquisate of Brandenburg; on the south by the duchy of Brunswick; and on the west by Bremen and Westphalia; extending in length about a hundred miles, and in breadth seventy. Part of it is a barren territory, full of bogs and morasses, and part of it is covered with forests; but near the banks of the rivers the land is in many places fertile. As it abounds in wild hogs, deer, and other venison, the German nobility resort hither to hunt in the season. The duchies of Lunenburg and Zell, on the death of George William, the last duke, in 1705, devolved on the electress of Hanover, his only daughter, and are now descended to his present majesty.

The chief towns are Lunenburg, Zell, and Harburg. Lunenburg is situate in 10 degrees 40 minutes of east longitude, and in 53 degrees 38 minutes north latitude; on the river Ilmenow, forty-five miles north of Zell, and thirty-five south-east of Hamburg. The figure

figure of the town is oblong, and the circumference about two miles; the streets broad, and the houses pretty well built. Near the city are salt springs, where great quantities of salt are made; and this manufacture not only affords employment to many of the inhabitants, but a considerable revenue to the sovereign.

Zell is situate at the confluence of the rivers Aller and Fuhse, forty-seven miles south-west of Lunenburg. This was the usual residence of the late duke of Zell, and the courts of justice for both those duchies are commonly held in this city.

Harburg is a port-town, on the south side of the river Elbe, opposite to Hamburg, and thirty-seven miles north-west of Lunenburg. It is well situated for trade, but on account of the vicinity of Hamburg, is far less considerable than it otherwise might be.

The duchies of Bremen and Ferden, or Verden, have the Elbe on the north, Lunenburg on the south-east, and the German sea and the Weser on the north-west; extending about sixty miles in length, and forty in breadth. This country was formerly subject to Sweden, but conquered by Denmark, and transferred by that crown to the elector of Hanover, for a valuable consideration, in 1716. The chief towns are, Bremen, Ferden, Stade, Boxthude, and Rottenburg.

Bremen is situate on the river Weser, seventy miles north-west of Zell, and the same distance south-west of Hamburg. It is well fortified; and what renders it almost inaccessible to an enemy, is, that the adjacent country may be laid under water. It is a port-town, the most considerable for trade of any in Germany, next to Hamburg. But large vessels are obliged to unload six miles below it, on account of the sands in the river. It was one of the hanse-towns, and is still an imperial city or sovereign state, governed by its own magistrates.

Ferden, or Verden, is situate on the river Aller, twenty-six miles south-east of Bremen. It is but a little town, and has a very small territory about it. This, as well as Bremen, was the see of a bishop, before it was secularized in 1648.

Stade lies on the south side of the Elbe, with which it has a communication, twenty-two miles west of Hamburg. It is defended by a fort at the confluence of the Zuenga and Elbe, which form a good harbour for large ships; and so advantageous is its situation for trade, that in time it may rival the most flourishing city in Germany.

Boxthude stands near the banks of the Elbe, in a fruitful country, fifteen miles west of Hamburg, which it supplies with great part of its provisions.

The duchy of Hanover or Calemburg, including Grubenhagen, is bounded on the north by the duchy of Zell; on the east by Brunswick Proper, and the bishoprick of Hildesheim; and on the south and west by the landgrate of Hesse, and Westphalia; being about eighty miles in length, and near forty in breadth, in the south of Grubenhagen; but Hanover, in the north, is not more than twelve miles broad. The country is much over-run with wood, and the soil

not fruitful; on which account, notwithstanding its favourable situation for commerce, it enjoys not a flourishing trade. The chief articles are, timber, cattle, hogs, and some minerals, viz. a little silver, copper, lead, iron, vitriol, brimstone, quicksilver, and coppers; with mum, beer, and bacon. Hanover, the capital of the duchy, is situate in 9 degrees 45 minutes of east longitude, and in 52 degrees 32 minutes of north latitude; on the river Leyna, sixteen miles west of Brunswick. It is surrounded by a wall and other works of no great strength, and the buildings are generally mean. The best edifice is the Roman Catholic church, which was assigned to the papists, on the advancement of the family of Hanover to an electorate of the empire. The elector also agreed to admit in his dominions an apostolical vicar from the pope. The palace, though not magnificent, is commodious, and the appearance of a court is constantly kept, as if the sovereign were present. A French comedy is performed three times a week, to which the public is admitted gratis; and frequently there are concerts, balls, and assemblies. The situation of the town is agreeable, and there are several pleasant seats in the neighbourhood.

The usual residence of his late majesty was at the palace of Herenhausen, a short way distant from the capital. The gardens at this place are much admired, and the waterworks considered as equal, if not superior, to any thing of the kind in Europe.

Another of the chief towns in the electorate is Gottingen, situated also on the Leyna, in the province of Grubenhagen, about fifty miles south of the capital. King George II. erected here an university, which in a few years became so flourishing, under the royal patronage, as to rival every institution of that kind in the empire, and continues to be in great reputation for the study of the sciences.

The elector is absolute here, as in his other German dominions. His revenues are computed at four hundred thousand pounds a year, and he is able to raise thirty thousand men in all his territories, which, besides Hanover, consist of the duchies of Lunenburg and Zell, Bremen and Verden, with the duchy of Lawenberg; the elector of Hanover is hereditary arch-treasurer of the empire, and is usually styled sovereign of Brunswick-Lunenburg.

The duchy of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle is bounded on the north by Zell, on the east by Magdeburg and Halberstadt, on the south by Hesse-Cassel, and on the west by Hildesheim and Hanover; being about forty miles in length, and nearly the same in breadth. The chief towns are Brunswick, Wolfenbuttle, Helmstat, and Bienenberg.

Brunswick, the capital of the duchy, is situate on the river Ocker, thirty-five miles east of Hanover, and thirty miles south of Zell. It was formerly one of the hanse-towns, and an imperial city, governed by its own magistrates; but now the duke of Brunswick is an absolute sovereign. The town is of a square form, about two miles in circumference; the private houses well built, and the duke's palace and the stadthouse magnificent. The city is rich and populous, enjoy-

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enjoying a considerable trade; and the goods they export are chiefly hides, butter, and mum.

Wolfenbüttele is also situated on the Ocker, ten miles south of Brunswick. Being surrounded by bogs and morasses, it is strong by nature as well as art. The duke's palace here is a noble building, and has a library which contains near a hundred and thirty thousand volumes.

Helmstadt is situate four miles east of Wolfenbüttele, and fifteen miles south-east of Brunswick. Here is an university, founded and endowed by Julius, duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttele, the rector of which has the title of count palatine.

The revenues of the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttele are computed to amount to three hundred thousand pounds a year. He is able to raise several thousand men, and is of the Lutheran religion.

The bishoprick of Hildesheim is surrounded by the territories of Hanover and Brunswick-Wolfenbüttele, being thirty miles in length, and almost as much in breadth. The capital, which bears the same name, lies seventeen miles south-east of Hanover. It is an imperial city governed by its own magistrates, the bishop having little temporal authority either here, or in the territories belonging to it. The inhabitants consist both of Lutherans and Papists.

#### C H A P. IV.

##### *Circle of Westphalia.*

THE circle of Westphalia is bounded on the north by the German ocean; on the east by the circle of Lower Saxony; on the south by the landgraveate of Hesse, the palatinate of the Rhine, and the electorate of Triers; and on the west by the Netherlands; being two hundred miles in length, and from a hundred and fifty to two hundred miles in breadth. The north part of the circle is generally an open level country, either a dry, barren sand, or consists of lakes and morasses, which, with its northern situation, render it excessively cold in the winter; but in the southern parts, the air is much milder, and the soil more fertile. The chief rivers are, the Rhine, the Maes, the Weser, the Ems, the Roer, the Lippe, another Roer, the Aa, and the Hunt.

The divisions or provinces comprehended in the circle of Westphalia are, the bishopricks of Liege, Munster, Paderborn, and Osnaburg; the duchies of Westphalia, Cleves, Juliers and Berg; the counties of Minden, Mark, Ravenburg, Schawenburg, Hays, Diepholt, Oldenburg, Delmonhurst, Embden, Beutheim, Tecklenburg, Lippe, Pymont, Lingen, and Steinfort; Corbey Abbey, and the imperial towns, which are so many sovereign states.

The bishoprick of Liege is bounded on the west and north by Brabant; on the east by the duchy of Limburg, from which it is separated by the river Maes; and on the south by the duchy of Luxemburg, and Namur. It is seventy miles in length from north to south, and its breadth between twenty-five and fifty miles. The air is temperate and healthful, and the

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soil fertile, abounding in corn-fields, meadows, and pasture grounds. There are also some mines of lead and iron, and quarries of marble; but it is most considerable for the great quantities of brimstone and vitriol which it produces, as well as mineral waters, particularly near the Spa. It is computed that there are in the bishoprick twenty-four walled towns, and four hundred villages, besides a great number of abbeys and convents. The bishop, who is sovereign, is one of the most considerable ecclesiastical princes in Germany. His yearly revenue amounts to three hundred thousand ducats, or nobles; and he is able to maintain a body of eight thousand men, without oppressing his subjects, who are generally Roman Catholics.

The chief towns are, Liege, Tongers, Huy, Dinant, Bouillon, and Spa.

Liege, the capital, is situate in 5 degrees 40 minutes of east longitude, and in 50 degrees 36 minutes of north latitude; on the river Maes, twelve miles south of Maestricht. It is a populous and rich city, about four miles in circumference. Two branches of the Maes, and other rivulets or canals run through several of the streets, and form little islands. No city in Germany can equal it in fine churches and convents. Of the former there is not less than a hundred; and a multitude of monasteries, which are so pleasantly situated, and have such endowments, that the city is sometimes called the paradise of ecclesiastics. Here is an university of great fame; and among the religious houses one of English nuns. The fortifications of the town are not strong, and are commanded by the neighbouring hills; but the citadel is capable of making a good defence. The magistrates of Liege pretend that it is an imperial city, or sovereign state; but this claim is not acknowledged by the bishop, who exercises absolute power here, as well as in the adjacent territory. He is elected by the sixty major canons, who are generally of noble extraction. The trade of this city is chiefly with Holland, whither they export, down the Maes, great quantities of iron, stone, chalk, &c. bringing in return, herrings, cheese, butter, and all sorts of grocery.

The common women here are employed in the most laborious services; they draw the boats up the river instead of horses; they dig, saw, and carry all kinds of heavy burdens, and are for the most part naked.

Tongers lies on the river Jecker, ten miles north-west of Liege. This was a noted town in the time of the Romans. It was made a bishoprick at an early period; and when taken by Attila, the Hun, it contained a hundred churches, which he destroyed. Upon its decline, the see was removed to Maestricht, and afterwards to Liege.

Huy, or Hugum, is situate on the east side of the Maes, fifteen miles south west of Liege. In ancient times it also was a place of great note, and at present a strong fortress.

Dinant is situate on the river Maese, twelve miles south of Namur.

Bouillon lies on the river Semoy, thirty miles south of Dinant. It is a fortified town, and with a small territory annexed to it, gives the title of duke to the

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bishop of Liege. One of the dukes of this place was the famous Godfrey, who for his conduct and courage in the crusade, in the eleventh century, was made the first Christian king of Jerusalem.

Spa, or Spaw, is situate seventeen miles south-east of Liege, in a bottom surrounded with hills. This place has been celebrated for its mineral waters since the time of the Romans, and company resorts hither from every nation in Europe, both for health and pleasure.

Besides the towns already mentioned, Franchemont, Borchloen, St. Tron, and Meyrick, are also places of some note.

The duchy of Westphalia is situate between the bishoprick of Paderborn on the north, and the territory of Wateravia on the south. It is much encumbered with mountains and forests, and has been annexed, by purchase, to the archbishoprick of Cologne. One of the chief towns is Arensburg, pleasantly situated on the Roer, fifty miles north-east of Cologne. Near it is a fine castle, where the elector of Cologne frequently resides. The town of Werle stands between the Roer and the Lippe; and here the supreme courts of justice are held. Another of the most considerable is Geleek, a fortified town, situated twenty-five miles north-east of Arensburg.

The bishoprick of Munster, lying on both sides of the river Ems, is bounded on the north by the counties of Bentheim and Steinfurt; on the east by the bishopricks of Osnaburg and Paderborn; on the south by the county of Mark; and on the west by the duchies of Cleve and Zutphen; being a hundred and twenty miles long, and eighty broad. It is a barren country, producing hardly corn enough for the subsistence of the inhabitants, but abounds with the best bacon in Europe.

The city of Munster, the capital of the bishoprick, and of the circle of Westphalia, is situate in 7 degrees 50 minutes of east longitude, and in 52 degrees north latitude; on the river Aa, in the most fruitful part of the country, seventy miles north-east of Cologne, and thirty-five south-west of Osnaburg. The town is well built of free stone. Here was concluded the treaty, in 1648, which put an end to the religious wars of Germany, and settled the pretensions of many princes both in the empire and other parts of Europe; sometimes called the treaty of Munster, from the city, and sometimes that of Westphalia, from the province in which it was concluded. In the year 1533, John of Leyden, a taylor by profession, and a fanatic, drove away the bishop and magistrates, and made himself master of the city; but it was taken from him in 1536, after a siege of fourteen months, and he was tortured to death.

Munster was an imperial city, or sovereign state, till the year 1661, when it was subdued by the bishop, under the jurisdiction of whose successors it has since remained, with an annual revenue amounting nearly to a hundred and fifty thousand pounds.

The bishoprick of Paderborn is bounded on the north by the county of Lippe, on the east by the circle of Lower Saxony, on the south by that of the

Upper Rhine, and on the west by the duchy of Westphalia; being about forty miles long, and twenty broad. This is a barren province, remarkable chiefly for its salt springs and other waters, as well as its iron and lead mines. One of those springs disappears twice in twenty-four hours, and returns with such violence that it moves several mills near its source. The other principal commodities of the country are bacon and venison.

Paderborn, the chief town of the bishoprick, is situated thirty miles north-west of Cassel, and fifty south-east of Munster. It is a populous town, of considerable extent, well built and fortified. This was anciently an imperial city, or sovereign state; but is now subject to its bishop both in spirituals and temporals; and the established religion is the Roman Catholic.

The territory of Corbey Abbey lies between the river Weser on the east, and the bishoprick of Paderborn on the west; being about sixteen miles long, and eight broad. The chief town is Corbey, where the abbey stands; besides which, here is Hoxter, a handsome town, situate on the bank of the Weser, five miles south of the abbey. This territory is subject to the abbot, who is a prince of the empire.

The bishoprick of Osnaburg is bounded on the north by the territory of Diepholt; on the east by the county of Minden; and on the south and west by the counties of Steinfurt and Bentheim; being about forty miles long, and thirty broad, and one of the most fruitful countries in the circle of Westphalia. This bishoprick, with the territories belonging to it, is held alternately by a protestant and papist, the nomination of the protestant bishop being vested in the family of Hanover. The present bishop is his royal highness prince Frederick, second son of his majesty, who derives from the bishoprick a considerable revenue. This was the first bishoprick founded by Charlemagne, who dedicated the cathedral to St. Peter and the two martyrs Crispin and Crispianus, exempting the see from all service and homage to the emperor, or any other prince or state.

Osnaburg, the capital, is situate on the river Ouse, in a fine plain. In it are some grand buildings; and the churches are divided between the protestants and papists, the latter being possessed of the cathedral, and the church and monastery of the Dominicans. Both protestants and papists have votes at the election of their magistrates. This town is said to produce the best beer and bread in Westphalia. The chief manufacture is the lincens called Osnaburgs, a great deal of which is exported, as well as Westphalia hams.

The other towns of note in this bishoprick are, Iburg, Quakenburg, Vorde, Faulsenade, Whitlag, and Me'lo.

The duchy of Juliers is bounded on the north by the duchies of Cleve and Gelder; on the east by Cologne; on the south by the palatinate; and on the west by the Netherlands. It is sixty miles long, and thirty broad, abounding in corn and pasture grounds, with good neat cattle, and an excellent breed of horses. It produces also great quantities of wood, for dying.

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This duchy is subject to the elector palatine. The chief town Juliers stands on the Roer, twenty-seven miles east of Maestricht, and as many west of Cologne. It is a small fortified town, defended by a castle, in which was the palace of the ancient dukes. This place was anciently called Juliacum, and according to tradition, built by Julius Cæsar.

Aix-la-Chapelle, or Aken, is situated in a low valley, encompassed with hills of a gradual ascent, twenty-two miles north-east of Liege, and thirty miles west of Cologne. It is an imperial city, or sovereign state, and is said to have been founded in the year 53, by Severus Granus, a Roman prince, brother to the emperors Nero and Agrippa; who being banished Rome, chose this place for his residence, on account of the hot springs. It was also the favourite residence of Charlemagne, who built in it the magnificent church of St. Mary, or Notre Dame, being of an octagonal figure, but usually called the rotundo. He afterwards furnished it with the most valuable relics that could be procured in the Holy Land; calling himself a canon of it, and ordaining that all future emperors should likewise be invested with the same office. The memory of this prince is held in great veneration by the inhabitants of Aix, and in honour of him they celebrate an annual festival on the 14th of January, which is called the feast of St. Charles, when they carry his image about the town, in solemn procession, for the people to adore.

The relics that were purchased by Charlemagne are deposited in a part of the church, allotted for that purpose. On high festivals the priests exhibit sometimes one, and sometimes another of them; but once in seven years all the relics are carried up to the tower, and thence displayed to the people for fifteen days successively, beginning on the 10th of July. On this occasion many thousands of bigotted persons resort hither from all parts of Germany, and the spectators universally kneel while the relics are exhibiting.

This city is governed by its own magistrates, of whom there are fifteen, who annually choose out of their body eight echevins by ballot, the latter electing likewise from among themselves two burgomasters. The burgomasters of the preceding year sit in court, and act in conjunction with those in office. There is likewise a town-bailiff or mayor, who has cognizance in military affairs, passes, &c. and who is named by the elector Palatine, as duke of Juliers.

The street containing the baths is very regular and handsome, with trees planted before the houses. The great pump is placed under a piazza, behind which are several walks for the company. The royal baths are within a court, on the opposite side of the same street; and there are also cold baths adjoining. Several houses have been erected for the accommodation of the company; and they have rooms for assemblies, gaming tables, &c. in the manner of those at Bath, but much inferior in elegance.

The trade of Aix is very inconsiderable, the inhabitants, as in most towns of pleasure, being more addicted to dissipation than industry. There are, how-

ever, a few dealers in cloth, gloves, and stockings; but the greatest manufacture is that of needles, in which branch no less than five hundred persons are constantly employed.

Several kings of the Romans, and many emperors have been crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, at which solemnity the relics above-mentioned were exposed to view; as they likewise are at the coronation of an emperor, wherever the ceremony is performed. The elector of Mentz, as chancellor of the empire, sends a summons to the magistrates of Aix to appear in person, or by their deputies, and bring those relics with them to Francfort, or any other place he appoints for the coronation.

Duren is situate on the Roer, ten miles south of Juliers. This is a small town, well built, with canals or rivulets running through the streets. Among the relics in the church of St. Martin, they shew the head of St. Anne, mother of the Virgin Mary, to which great numbers of pilgrims used to resort. This was formerly an independent state, but is now subject to the elector palatine. The other towns in this duchy are, Munster-Eifel, Emkirchen, Nidec, Boisslar, Linnich, Dalen, Wefenbergl, Sltard, Tudder, and Safteren.

The duchy of Berg is bounded on the north by the county of Mark; on the east by the duchy of Westphalia; and on the south and west by the Rhine, which separates it from the electorate of Cologne; extending along the eastern bank of the Rhine above forty miles, but is not in any part twenty miles broad. It consists chiefly of rocky barren hills, and is neither fruitful nor populous.

The principal town of this duchy is Dusseldorp, pleasantly seated near the Rhine, twenty-five miles north of Cologne, and six south of Keyserwaert; receiving its name from its situation near the confluence of the Rhine, with the little river Dussel. The town is of considerable extent, well built, and fortified; and the elector palatine, who is sovereign of the duchy, has here a palace, in which he frequently resides. The chief trade of the place consists in transporting from Holland corn and several commodities, to Cologne, and other towns in Germany.

The town of Essen, lying fifteen miles north-east of Dusseldorp, is noted for a magnificent nunnery, inhabited by noble ladies, who are allowed to marry, and leave the convent when they please. The other most considerable towns in this country are, Bensberg, Solingen, and Wipperford.

The duchy of Cleves is bounded on the east by the territories of Munster; on the south by Juliers; and on the north and west, by Zutphen and Brabant; being about forty miles long, and twenty-five broad. It is a mountainous woody country, and the soil generally barren; but there are some fertile valleys. It was the Clivia of the Romans, who gave it this name from the steep rocks and mountains with which it abounds.

Cleves, the capital of the duchy, stands near the west bank of the Rhine, ten miles distant from Nimeguen, towards the same quarter. It is a small, but popu-

populous city, defended by a castle, which is however not considerable for strength. The other towns in this duchy are Embrick, Gunnepe, Wesel, Rees, Roertort, Duisberg, Griët, Gortz, Culcar, Santen, Buric, Alphen, Orfoi, and Dinstaken. The inhabitants consist chiefly of Papists and Calvinists; and the king of Prussia, as duke of Cleves, is absolute sovereign of the country.

The county of Mark is situated between the rivers Roer and Lippe. It is about forty miles long, and twenty broad, and is one of the most fruitful countries in the circle of Westphalia, likewise subject to the king of Prussia. The capital of the county is Ham, lying on the river Lippe, twenty-two miles south of Munster. Another of the towns is Saest, twenty-six miles south of Munster; an imperial city, and one of the largest in Westphalia. Besides those, the remaining towns of note are, *ina*, Altena, and Werden.

The county of Ravensburg is situated between the county of Lippe on the east, and the bishoprick of Munster on the west. It is a mountainous barren country, and also subject to the king of Prussia. The chief town is Bilevelt, seven miles from which stands Herfurt, or Hervorden, pleasantly situated at the confluence of the Aa and the Wehre. In this town is a magnificent nunnery, the abbess of which is a princess of the empire, and sends her deputy to the diet or assembly of the states. Since the king of Prussia has become sovereign of this country, those nuns have professed themselves protestants of the sect of Calvin.

The duchy of Minden is situated between the counties of Hoy and Lippe, extending about twenty-five miles in length, and twenty in breadth, for the most part arable land, and abounding in corn.

Minden, the capital city, was a bishoprick before the reformation, but is now secularized; and, with the territory belonging to it, is subject to the king of Prussia. Near this place, the French were defeated by the allied army, under prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, on the 1st of August, 1759.

The county of Hoy is situate between Minden on the south, and the duchy of Bremen on the north. It was subject to its own counts till the death of Otho, the last count, in 1582, when it descended to the houses of Hanover and Lüneburg. The greater part now belongs to his Britannic majesty, and the remainder is the property of the count of Bentheim. The chief town of the Hanoverian division is Hoy, situate on the east side of the Weser. The other towns of any note are, Stolzenow, Nyenburgh, Ucht, Frendenburg, Frenburg, Sierk, Shegerburg, Depenaw, Burenburg, Lavenhaw, and Bruckhausen.

Diepholt is a small county, south of Delmenhurst, subject also to his Britannic majesty, as elector of Hanover. The chief town, Diepholt, lies on the Dummerlake, twenty-five miles west of Hoy.

The county of Lippe, belonging to the count of that name, is situated between the territories of Hanover, and the duchy of Westphalia, being about thirty miles long, and ten broad. The chief town is Diethmold, twelve miles north-east of Paderborn. Another of

the towns is Lippe, situated on the river of the same name, twenty miles west of Paderborn. Here is a considerable trade in timber and planks for ship-building. The town of Hern is supposed to be the place where the Romans under Varus received a signal defeat, and were driven over the Rhine and Danube, which were for some hundred years afterwards considered as the boundaries of the Roman empire. Between Lemgow and Hertfurt, lies the town of Uffen, where are salt springs which afford a great manufacture of that commodity.

Pyrmont county is annexed to the county of Lippe. The chief town is Pyrmont, celebrated for its excellent mineral waters. The county of Riburg is also annexed to that of Lippe. The chief town, which bears the same name, is situate near the head of the river Ems, ten miles west of Lippe.

The county of Schawenburg is bounded on three sides by the territories of Hanover, and on the west by the duchy of Minden. It is about thirty miles long, and sixteen broad; consisting both of good arable and pasture grounds, well watered by the Weser and other streams, and a great lake named the Steinhadersee. It produces salt, timber, coals, alum, chalk, and free-stone. Part of this territory is subject to the count de Lippe, and part to the landgrave of Hesse. The most conspicuous place is the old fortrefs of Schawenburg, standing on a high hill on the east side of the Weser. The others of greatest note are, Buckholt, Stathagen, Oldendorf, and Saxonhagen.

South-west of Osnaburg, lies Tecklenburg, about sixteen miles long, and eight broad, subject to the count of Bentheim. The capital, which bears the same name, is a town of considerable extent.

The county of Steinfort lies north of Munster. It is about twelve miles long, and six broad. The chief town, Steinfort, is situated on the river Aa, fifteen miles north-west of Munster. This territory is now subject to the count of Bentheim.

The county of Linguen is situated between Osnaburg on the east, and Bentheim on the west; being about fifteen miles long, and ten broad. The chief town is Linguen, standing on the river Ems, forty miles north of Munster. The bishop of Munster is sovereign of the county, but the king of Prussia has claimed the town.

The county of Bentheim, which lies north of Steinfort, is about forty miles long, and ten broad; having for its capital a town of the same name, situated in the middle of a forest, thirty miles north-west of Munster. This is the property of the count of Bentheim.

The county of Embden, frequently denominated East Friesland, lies on the German ocean, with the county of Oldenburg on the east, and Groningen, one of the United Provinces, on the west; being part of the country of the ancient Frizons. A great part of it is covered with lakes and morasses; and hardly any either well cultivated, or fruitful. Its situation, however, is remarkably advantageous for foreign traffic; on which account, it was claimed by the king of Prussia, who, in order to increase his maritime power,

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took possession of it on the death of the former proprietor.

Embsen, the capital, is situate on the Dollart Bay, near the mouth of the river Ems, twenty-five miles east of Groningen, and sixty west of Bremen. This was formerly considered as an imperial city, or fove-reign state, under the protection of the Dutch, who used to station a guard-ship at the mouth of the Dollart Bay; but since it was seized by the king of Prussia, the Hollanders have been obliged to relinquish this mark of prerogative. Here is a good harbour, and the place has acquired a considerable trade under the auspices of the Prussian monarch.

#### C H A P. V.

##### *Circle of the Upper Rhine.*

THE countries which constituted the circle of the Upper Rhine, being now under the dominion of the French, except Hesse, only this comes properly within a description of the empire.

Hesse, comprehending the landgravates of Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Marpurg, Hesse-Darmstadt, Hesse-Rhinefeld, and Wetteravia, is bounded on the north by Paderborn and the territories of Hanover; on the south-east by Franconia; and on the south-west by the bishopricks of Mentz and Triers, and the palatinate of the Rhine. It is about a hundred miles in length, and almost as much in breadth. The most considerable tract of this country, especially towards the north, is the property of the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. A great part of it is not very fruitful, and much of it under forest. The plains, however, are covered with flocks of sheep, the wool of which is reputed very fine; and in the mountains are mines of lead and copper.

Cassel, the capital of the landgrave, is situate in 9 degrees 20 minutes of east longitude, and in 51 degrees 20 minutes of north latitude; in a spacious plain, on the river Fulde, forty-five miles north-east of Marburg. The houses of this city are built of wood, but the streets are wide, and the market-places extensive. It contains four churches, and has a brisk trade for wool and woollen manufactures. The castle or palace of the landgrave stands without the town, and is strongly fortified.

Darmstadt, the capital of the division called Hesse-Darmstadt, is situate ten miles east of the Rhine, and is a well built town, though not of considerable extent. The landgrave's palace, in particular, is a magnificent edifice. Marburg, another of the most eminent towns in this circle, is pleasantly situate on the river Lhon, forty miles south-west of Cassel. It is a fortified town, defended by a castle, and here is also one of the best universities in Germany. The sovereign of the place is the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel.

Catzenebogen is a small town, capital of a county of the same name, and lies on the bank of the Rhine, twenty miles north-west of Mentz. The property of it was long disputed by the houses of Hesse and Nassau; but at length was ceded to the former.

No. 18.

Smalcald is situate fifty miles south-east of Cassel. It is a well built town, and has a good trade, especially in hard-ware, having iron mines in the neighbourhood. At this place the protestant princes and states of Germany entered into a league for their defence, and compelled the catholics to consent to a toleration of the reformed religion.

Schwalback is situate ten miles north of Mentz, and is famous for its baths, to which there is annually a great resort of company in the season. In one of the springs the water seems to boil, though so cold as to be used by the people in the neighbourhood for allaying the warmth of their wines.

The other most conspicuous towns are, Rottenburg, Hamburg, and Alsfeld.

The county of Waldeck is bounded on the north by the bishoprick of Paderborn, and on the west by the territories of Cologne; being twenty-four miles long, and nearly as much in breadth, subject to the count of that name. The chief town, Waldeck, is situate on a high hill, twenty miles south-west of Hesse-Cassel.

The territory of the abbey of Hirschfeld lies south of Cassel, and is about twelve miles in length, and nearly as much in breadth. The convent, which gives name to the town, was esteemed an elegant building; but this, with the annexed territory, has been converted into a lay fee; and the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel is both sovereign and proprietor of it.

Southward of Hirschfeld is situate the abbey of Fuld, the territories of which are about thirty miles in length, and more than half as much in breadth. This abbey is endowed with great privileges, the abbot being not only a prince of the empire, but primate of the abbeys in Germany, depending immediately on the pope. The great church here, dedicated to St. Boniface, is a magnificent structure.

Proceeding to Wetteravia, in the southern part of Hesse, we come to the county of Solms, lying south-west of the territories of Marburg. The chief town is Solms; but the count usually resides at the castle of Brunswiek, about fifteen miles to the southward.

Wetzlar, an imperial city, stands on the river Lhon, twenty-eight miles north of Frankfort. It is a fove-reign state, governed by its own magistrates; and the imperial chamber was removed hither from Spire in the year 1698.

Fifteen miles south of Wetzlar, lies Friedburg, also an imperial city. It is a rich trading place, and has been the residence of some of the German emperors.

The county of Hanau is bounded on the north by the territories of Hesse-Cassel; on the east by those of the abbey of Fuld; on the south by the river Maine, and the territories of Mentz; and on the west by the county of Nassau; being about forty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth, subject to its count, who is at present landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. The chief town, Hanau, is pleasantly situated on the river Cantz, thirteen miles east of Frankfort. The town is well built and fortified, and has a brisk trade.

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Budingen, capital of a small county, situate twenty miles north-east of Frankfort, is a large city, and has a fine castle belonging to it.

Gelnhausen is an imperial city, lying twelve miles north-east of Hanau.

The county of Nassau is bounded on the north by Westphalia, on the east by the county of Solms, on the south by the territories of Mentz, and on the west by the electorate of Treves or Triers. The capital bears the same name, and stands on the river Lhon, twenty-nine miles north-west of Mentz.

Dietz is situate also on the river Lhon, and in the same county, twenty miles north of Mentz, and is subject to the prince of Nassau-Dillenburg.

Hadamar stands twenty miles north of Mentz, and gives title to another branch of the house of Nassau.

Wisbaden, situated five miles north of Mentz, is distinguished for its excellent baths.

Frankfort stands on both sides of the river Maine, eighteen miles east of Mentz, and fifteen west of Hanau. It is a large populous city of no great strength, but has a brisk trade, being advantageously situated near the confluence of the Maine and the Rhine. The streets are spacious, and the houses built of a red stone. It is an imperial city, governed by its own magistrates; and here the emperor is usually elected and crowned. In the state-house, where the electors assemble on the choice of an emperor, is kept the golden bull, or statute, containing the rights and privileges of the princes, and other subjects of the empire, which the emperor swears to observe on his accession.

There are here some convents, and the cathedral is in the hands of the Roman Catholics; but they are not permitted to make any processions through the town, the magistrates and most of the inhabitants being Lutherans. Many protestants fled hither from England, during the persecution raised against them in the reign of queen Mary.

Rhinefeld is situate sixteen miles north-west of Mentz, and is subject to the landgrave of Hesse-Rhinefeld, of which territory it is the capital.

The other towns of any note in this circle are Wildenburg, Corbach, Eyenburg, Hamelburg, Bruckennau, Huneld, Hazfeld, Fritzlär, Frankenburg, &c.

#### C H A P. VI.

##### *Circle of the Lower Rhine.*

**T**HE circle of the Lower Rhine comprehends the three archbishopricks and electorates of Mentz, Triers, and Cologne, with the Palatinate of the Rhine, the bishopricks of Spire and Worms, and several imperial cities, with their respective territories.

The electorate of Mentz is bounded on the north by Wetteravia; on the east by Hesse-Darmstadt; on the south by the palatinate of the Rhine; and on the west by the electorate of Triers; being about fifty miles long, and twenty broad. Mentz, or Mayence, the capital city, stands at the confluence of the rivers Rhine and Maine, twenty miles west of Frankfort, and twenty-five north of Worms. It is large and

populous, but not a place of strength, and said to have been built by Drusus, there being here the ruins of a trophy erected to his memory. The streets are narrow, and the private houses mean; but the public buildings are magnificent. The university was founded by Charlemagne, in the year 800. This city claims the discovery of gun-powder and the invention of printing; but both have been disputed.

Bingen is situate at the confluence of the Rhine and Nahe, sixteen miles west of Mentz, and was anciently a Roman fortress.

The Rhinegaw, which is a narrow tract of land, extending twenty miles along the bank of the Rhine, contains so great a number of towns, intermixt with gardens and vineyards, as to have the appearance of one continued city. At the town of Erbach is a grand monastery, where are the tombs of the old counts of Nassau, and of the archbishops of Mentz; and Rodenstein is remarkable for some of the best vines upon the Rhine. Hachot is situate on the river Maine, at which place the custom-house officers, belonging to the elector, receive the duties of all goods that are carried up or down that river.

Besides Mentz, the elector has other extensive territories in Thuringia, Wetteravia, the palatinate, and county of Waldeck. His revenues are computed at upwards of a hundred thousand prunds a year.

The electorate of Triers is bounded on the north by the electorate of Cologne, and the duchy of Juliers; on the east by the territories of Mentz and Wetteravia; on the south by the palatinate of the Rhine and Lorraine; and on the west by the Netherlands. It is about a hundred miles long, and from twenty to fifty broad. The south and western parts of the country are mountainous and woody; but near the rivers Rhine and Moselle it is pleasant and fruitful, abounding in corn and wine, and exceeding populous.

Triers, the capital city, stands on the Moselle, sixty miles south of Cologne, and as many west of Mentz. Having been much exposed to the ravages of war, it is neither large nor populous, but is one of the most ancient cities in the empire, and has been the residence of several emperors. It was the Augusta Trevirorum of the Romans.

Coblentz is the second city in the electorate, and stands at the confluence of the Rhine and Moselle, fifty miles north-east of Triers. It is of a triangular figure, one side washed by the Rhine, another by the Moselle, and the third, towards the land, defended by a wall and out-works. The streets are regular, and the houses well built. The principal edifice is the elector's palace, which stands on the bank of the Rhine, and upon the hill above it, is a castle. The city is populous, and has a flourishing trade, particularly in corn, wine, wood, and iron.

Fifteen miles westward of Coblentz, on the Moselle, stands the town of Meyn, which is defended by a wall and castle, and communicates its name to a large territory. At Berncastle, situate on the Moselle, great quantities of wine are made; as are likewise at Cell, which is situate on the same river, thirty miles north-

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east of Triers. The other most considerable towns are Engers, Oberwesal, Sarbrug, Montroyal, Cochem, Saffich, Bopart, Ulmin, St. Maxamin, Phalis, Wittlich, and Prum.

The electorate of Cologne, which is the most northerly division of this circle, is a long narrow territory, lying on the western bank of the Rhine, near fifty miles in length, and about ten in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the duchy of Cleves; on the east by the Rhine, which separates it from the duchy of Berg; on the south by Triers; and on the west by the duchy of Juliers, and the Netherlands. It abounds in most of the necessaries of life, particularly corn, cattle, and wine; but the latter is not so good as in the more southern countries.

The capital of the electorate is Cologne, situated on the Rhine, sixty-two miles north of Triers, and forty-five east of Maestricht. This is one of the largest and most elegant cities of Germany, and carries on an extensive trade. It is also an imperial city, but partly subject to the jurisdiction of the elector, who has the appointment of some of the magistrates, as well as the chief justice in criminal causes; and his concurrence is necessary in the enacting of all laws. The elector, however, can levy no taxes on the citizens without their consent. Most of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics; but some of the principal merchants and tradesmen are Lutherans, and allowed a church. This privilege is denied to the Calvinists, who have no place of worship nearer than Mulheim, which is distant two miles. Here are eleven collegiate, nineteen parish churches, besides the cathedral, thirty chapels, twelve monasteries, and twenty nunneries. In the cathedral are three tombs, said to contain the skulls of three kings, who came from the East, to worship Christ in his infancy, usually called the three kings of Cologne. They are said to have been first brought to Constantinople by Helen, the mother of Constantine; and being removed to Milan, were transported hither in 1164, when the emperor Frederick Barbarossa possessed himself of that place.

In the church of St. Ursula is shewn the tomb of that saint, who, according to tradition, came over from Britain, to convert the infidel Germans, accompanied by eleven thousand virgins, who all suffered martyrdom. From the great number of churches and convents, and the multitude of relics here preserved, Cologne has obtained the name of the Holy City. The endowments of the cathedral and collegiate churches are so considerable, that many princes and noblemen become canons and prebends of them, and reside in sumptuous palaces surrounded with gardens and vineyards.

The city of Bon is situated on the river Rhine, twelve miles above Cologne. The place is beautiful and well fortified, and here the elector usually resides. The other most noted towns in the electorate are Andernach, Reyserswaert, Dettingen, Broel, Lintz, Nuys, Zous, Rhinebergh, Meurs, and Kempen.

The elector of Cologne is arch-chancellor of the empire for Italy, and has a right with the elector of

Mentz to consecrate the emperor. His revenues are computed to amount to a hundred and thirty thousand pounds a year.

The next division of the circle of the Lower Rhine, is the Palatinate, bounded on the north by the archbishopsricks of Triers and Mentz, on the east by Franconia, on the south by Suabia, and on the west by the territories of France and the Netherlands. It is about a hundred miles long, and sixty broad, denominated the Palatinate of the Rhine, to distinguish it from that of Bavaria. In the temperature of the climate, and the fertility of the soil, this country exceeds any in the empire. It abounds in corn, wine, cattle, fish, and game; and by the rivers Rhine and Neckar, the inhabitants can maintain a traffic with most parts of Germany and the Netherlands.

The capital of the Palatinate is Heidelberg, situated on the Neckar, forty-five miles south of Frankfort. It consists chiefly of one spacious street, and a commodious market-place, of a quadrangular form. On every side except the west, the town is surrounded with hills, whence there is a delightful prospect. On the ascent of those hills stood the elector's palace, a grand edifice, which was mostly consumed by fire in 1764; near which is a fort, called the Star Fort, one of the completest fortifications in Germany. Near the palace lies the celebrated vessel, of so prodigious a size, as to contain eight hundred hogheads. It is said to have been generally kept full of Rhenish wine, which all were obliged to taste of, that visited the late elector's court. Here is an university, and the elector had formed one of the most valuable libraries in Europe; but it was destroyed, or removed to the Vatican, and the emperor's library at Vienna, when the elector was driven from his dominions in 1622. The greater part of the inhabitants of this city consists of protestants; but the elector is a Roman Catholic.

Manheim is situated at the confluence of the Rhine and the Neckar, ten miles north-west of Heidelberg. It is beautifully built, and as well fortified as any town in Germany. On account of a religious difference with some of his subjects at Heidelberg, the elector built here a fine palace, to which he removed his court.

Philippsburg stands on the east bank of the Rhine, eighteen miles south-west of Heidelberg. It is a strong town, surrounded by a morass, and has been frequently besieged by the French, when they invade the palatinate, as being the key of Germany on that side.

Spire is situated on the west side of the Rhine, about fifteen miles from Heidelberg. It is an imperial city, or sovereign state, governed by its own magistrates. Before it was destroyed by the French in 1688, one of the supreme courts of the empire was held here, but afterwards removed to Wetzlar, in the district of Wetteravia. This city is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Mentz.

Worms is situated also on the west side of the Rhine, twenty-five miles north-west of Heidelberg, and the same distance south of Mentz. This is an ancient and imperial city, governed by its own magistrates.

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Its territories are about eight miles in length, and two in breadth, very fertile, and producing a great quantity of wine.

Zweilbruggen, or Deuxponts, so named from the bridges over two little rivers on which it stands, is situate forty miles south-west of Worms. The surrounding territory, about forty miles in length, and twenty in breadth, was subject to the crown of Sweden till the death of Charles XII. in 1718, when it fell to a prince of the palatine family. This duchy of Deuxponts contains the bailiwicks of Zweilbruggen, Meisheim, Lichtemberg, Neufchatel, Landsparg, with part of Guttenberg and Bischweiler.

Simerin, capital of the duchy of Simerin, is situate thirty-five miles east of Triers; having a considerable territory about it, subject to its own prince.

The other most remarkable towns in the Palatinate are Birkenfeld, Oppenheim, Traarbach, Oberstein, Altheim, Keislarlaatern, Simtheim, Spirebach, Bruckfal, Weibstadt, Altrip, Newstadt, Batharach, Eberinberg, Ladenberg, Lauterach, Leningen, Rhinegrave-stain, Veldentz, and Reipolizkirk.

The elector palatine is sovereign of the greater part of the Palatinate; of the duchies of Newburg, Juliers, and Berg; the city of Dusseldorp, and lordship of Ravenstein. He is director of three circles, viz. the Lower Rhine, jointly with the elector of Mentz; the Upper Rhine, as prince of Simmeren, with the bishop of Worms; and of Westphalia, as duke of Juliers, alternately with the king of Prussia, who is duke of Cleves. The revenues of the Palatinate arise by a toll on all vessels going along the Rhine, Neckar, and other rivers; and from the duties on corn, wine, and other provisions; the whole being estimated at three hundred thousand pounds a year. The elector usually keeps a body of six or seven thousand men in time of peace; and in the late wars, maintained twelve thousand regular forces many years.

#### C H A P. VII.

##### *Circle of Franconia.*

**T**HE circle of Franconia is bounded on the north by Hesse and the circle of Upper Saxony; on the east by Bohemia; on the south by Bavaria and Suabia; and on the west by the Palatinate of the Rhine, and the elector of Mentz. It is about a hundred and thirty miles in length, and almost as much in breadth. The country is intermixed with hills, valleys, forests, and champaign; and produces corn and wine, but not in great plenty. It comprehends the bishopricks of Wurtzburg, Bamberg, and Aichstadt; the duchy of Coburg; the marquises of Cullenbach and Anspach; the territories of the master of the Teutonic order; the districts of Bareith, Schwartzenburg, Hennerburg, Wertheim, and Hoenlach or Hoenlac, with several imperial cities.

The western part of this circle is the bishoprick of Wurtzburg, the territories of which are upwards of two hundred miles in circumference, and the richest

of the whole division. Wurtzburg, the capital of the bishoprick, and of all Franconia, is situate in 10 degrees 5 minutes of east longitude, and in 49 degrees 46 minutes of north latitude; on both sides of the river Maine, sixty miles east of Frankfort. Several branches of the Maine and other rivulets run through the principal streets. The bishop's palace is on a hill above the town, and commands a most delightful prospect of the country. It is computed, that there are, at least, four hundred towns and villages in his dominions.

The bishoprick of Bamberg is sixty miles long, and forty broad. Its capital, which bears the same name, is situated on the river Regnitz, forty-five miles north-east of Wurtzburg. There are several other good towns in the bishoprick; and the bishop has castles, royalties, and manors, in other parts of Germany, where the sovereign of Bohemia, and the electors of Brandenburg and Bavaria hold territories of him.

The bishoprick of Aichstadt is situated towards the southern parts of the circle, and is about thirty miles long, and twelve broad. Aichstadt, the capital, stands on the river Altmul, ten miles north of Neuburg, and fourteen north-west of Ingoldstadt.

Those three bishops are princes of the empire, and members of the diet, or assembly of the states.

The territories of the master of the Teutonic order are but small. His chief town is Mergentheim, or Mariendal, a small city, standing on the river Tauber, where the master has a palace. The Teutonic knights were a Dutch order, who undertook to defend the Christian pilgrims in the Holy Land, and assist in recovering Jerusalem from the Saracens. When they were driven from Palestine, and returned to Europe, the pope, according to the authority which he exercised in those times, gave them the territories of Prussia, as the inhabitants of the country were then heathens. The duke of Prussia continued grand-master till the Reformation; but becoming protestant, another was appointed in his room, who is now the elector of Cologne. The knights have estates in almost every popish country. Before any person can be admitted into this order, he is obliged to prove his nobility by father and mother for fifteen descents.

The marquise of Cullenbach lies in the north-east part of the circle, about thirty-four miles long, and thirty broad. The capital is of the same name, situate on the river Maine, twenty-five miles east of Bamberg. The marquis is joint-director of the circle of Franconia with the bishop of Bamberg.

Bareith territory is situated south-east of Cullenbach; being about forty miles long, and ten broad. The capital bears the same name, and lies fifteen miles from Cullenbach. Those two countries are subject to two branches of the house of Brandenburg, who are each of them princes of the empire.

The marquise of Anspach lies towards the south-west of the circle, and is about fifty miles long, and twenty broad. The capital, Anspach, is at the distance of twenty-five miles south-west of Nuremberg. This

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*A View of the City of Madrid the Capital of Spain.*

of them adorned with fountains. The river Regnitz runs through the middle of it, and turns a great number of iron, corn, and paper-mills within the town. This city was the Noricorum Mons, so named from a castle near it, built on a hill by the Nerici, to defend themselves from the Huns, by whom they had been expelled from Austria. Nuremberg is an imperial city, governed by its own magistrates, the legislative authority is lodged in four hundred of the principal inhabitants; and the burgomaster, or chief magistrate, is changed every month. Here are kept the regalia used at the coronation of the emperor, particularly, Charlemagne's crown, mantle, globe, sword, scepter, and imperial cloak. Nuremberg is exceeding populous, and has the best inland trade of any town in Europe. Their clock-work, and manufactures in iron, steel, ivory, wood, and alabaster, are much admired, and afforded exceeding cheap. Thence are exported most of those commodities called Dutch toys.

Besides Nuremberg, there are some other imperial cities within the limits of Franconia, viz. Rottemberg, Ewinstadt, Weinfelsheim, and Weissenberg.

No. 19.

The margravate of Baden lies along the eastern bank of the Rhine, opposite to Alsatia. Baden, the capital, is situate on a hill, five miles from the Rhine, twenty-five miles south of Heidelberg, and twenty north of Strasburg. This place is celebrated for its numerous baths, which are remarkably hot, and strongly impregnated for the most part with alum and sulphur.

Dourlach lies fifteen miles north of the city of Baden, and is subject to the prince of Baden-Dourlach, a Lutheran, whose palace here is a magnificent structure.

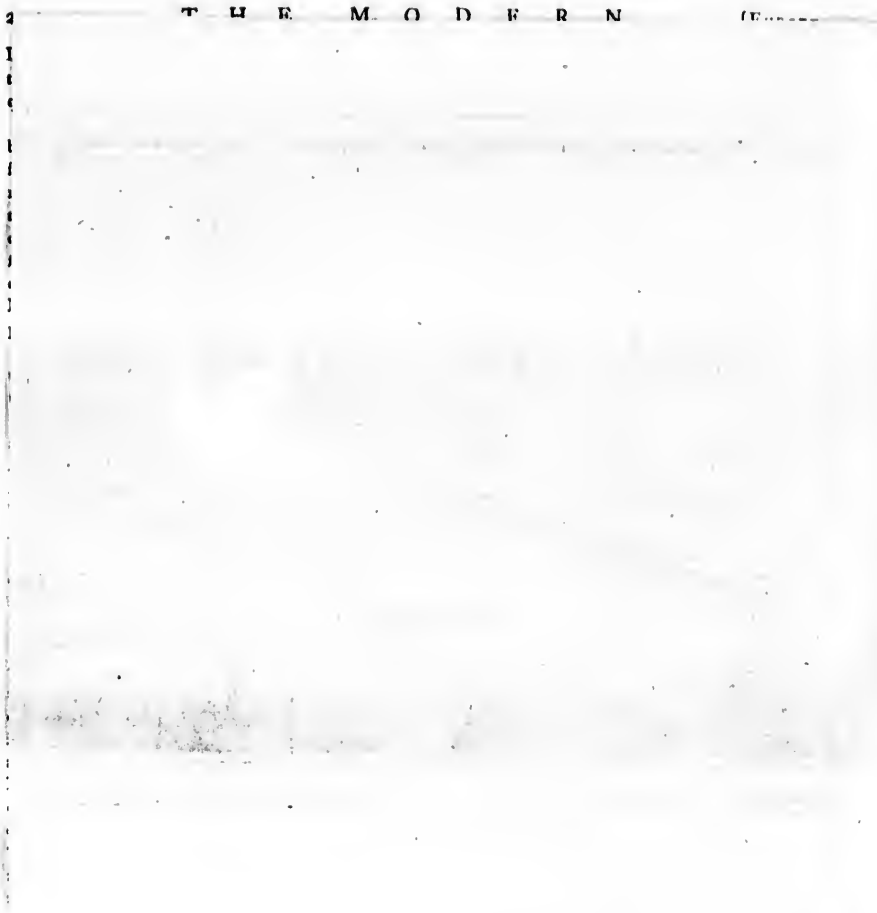
Baden-Weisler is situate twelve miles north of Basil, and gives title to a branch of the house of Baden. Here also are hot baths, but not equal to those last mentioned.

The territory of the Brisgaw, which lies along the east bank of the Rhine, between Furstenburg and Alsace, is subject to the house of Austria. The chief town is Friburg, situate at the entrance of the Black Forest, and, being a frontier town, is strongly fortified.

Ten miles west of Friburg, on the east bank of the Rhine, lies Brisac, another frontier town, well fortified. It is usually called Old Brisac, to distinguish it

from





C H A P. VII.

*Circle of Franconia.*

**T**HE circle of Franconia is bounded on the north by Hesse and the circle of Upper Saxony; on the east by Bohemia; on the south by Bavaria and Suabia; and on the west by the Palatinate of the Rhine, and the electorate of Mentz. It is about a hundred and thirty miles in length, and almost as much in breadth. The country is intermixed with hills, valleys, forests, and champaign; and produces corn and wine, but not in great plenty. It comprehends the bishopricks of Würzburg, Bamberg, and Archfladt; the duchy of Coberg; the marquisates of Cullenbach and Anspach; the territories of the master of the Teutonic order; the districts of Bareith, Schwartzenburg, Hennerburg, Wertheim, and Hoelnach or Hoelnac, with several imperial cities.

The western part of this circle is the bishoprick of Würzburg, the territories of which are upwards of two hundred miles in circumference, and the richest

reformation, but becoming popish, must be appointed in his room, who is now the elector of Cologne. The knights have estates in almost every popish country. Before any person can be admitted into this order, he is obliged to prove his nobility by father and mother for fifteen descents.

The marquisate of Cullenbach lies in the north-east part of the circle, about thirty-four miles long, and thirty broad. The capital is of the same name, situate on the river Main, twenty-five miles east of Bamberg. The marquis is joint-director of the circle of Franconia with the bishop of Bamberg.

Bareith territory is situated south-east of Cullenbach; being about forty miles long, and ten broad. The capital bears the same name, and lies fifteen miles from Cullenbach. Those two countries are subject to two branches of the house of Brandenburg, who are each of them princes of the empire.

The marquisate of Anspach lies towards the south-west of the circle, and is about fifty miles long, and twenty broad. The capital, Anspach, is at the distance of twenty-five miles south-west of Nuremberg. This

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marquifate is fubject to another branch of the houfe of Brandenburg.

The county of Holach, or Hoenlac, which is fituated weftward of Anfpach, is about twenty-five miles long, and fifteen broad, and takes its name from a cattle, the ufual refidence of the count to whom it is fubject.

Henneburg county is fituate between the circle of Upper Saxony on the eaft, and the territories of Fuld on the weft, having the bifhoprick of Wurtzburg on the fouth. The chief town is Henneburg, thirty-four miles north-weft of Bamberg, and fubject to the count.

The county of Wertheim lies weftward of the bifhoprick of Wurtzburg, and is twenty-fix miles long, and twelve broad. The capital, Wertheim, ftands at the confluence of the rivers Main and Tauber, and is alfo fubject to its count.

The duchy of Corburg lies between Upper Saxony on the north, and the bifhoprick of Bamberg on the fouth; its capital, Corburg, being fituated feventeen miles north of the latter. In the caftle of this town, Luther the Reformer was imprifoned fome time, for infulting his fuperiors.

Schwartzenburg is a fmall territory, eaft of Wurtzburg, fubject to its own count.

The territory of Nuremberg has the bifhoprick of Bamberg on the north, with Aichftadt and Anfpach on the fouth. It is about thirty miles long, and twenty broad; one of the moft barren countries in Germany, but greatly enriched by the manufactures of the capital. The city of Nuremberg ftands near the confluence of the rivers Regnitz and Pegnitz, fifty-five miles north-weft of Ratifbon, and forty miles fouth of Bamberg. It is about feven miles in circumference, furrounded by a wall and fome antique works, with a caftle near it; but neither the town nor caftle is of great ftrength. The ftreets, fquares, and market-places are fpacious and well built, and many of them adorned with fountains. The river Regnitz runs through the middle of it, and turns a great number of iron, corn, and paper-mills within the town. This city was the Noricum Mons, fo named from a caftle near it, built on a hill by the Nerici, to defend themfelves from the Huns, by whom they had been expelled from Atria. Nuremberg is an imperial city, governed by its own magiftrates, the legiflative authority is lodged in four hundred of the principal inhabitants; and the burgoafter, or chief magiftrate, is changed every month. Here are kept the regalia ufed at the coronation of the emperor, particularly, Charlemagne's crown, mantle, globe, fword, fcepter, and imperial cloak. Nuremberg is exceeding populous, and has the beft inland trade of any town in Europe. Their clock-work, and manufactures in iron, fteel, ivory, wood, and alabafter, are much admired, and afforded exceeding cheap. Thence are exported moft of thofe commodities called Dutch toys.

Befides Nuremberg, there are fome other imperial cities within the limits of Franconia, viz. Rotemburg, Swinfurt, Weinfcheim, and Weiffenberg.

No. 19.

## C H A P. VIII.

### Circle of Suabia.

THE circle of Suabia is bounded on the north by Franconia, and the palatinate of the Rhine; on the eaft by Bavaria; on the fouth by Switzerland; and on the weft by the Rhine, which feparates it from Alface: it is a hundred and thirty miles long, and a hundred and ten broad; containing the duchy of Wirtemberg, the margravate of Baden, the principalities of Howen-Zollern, Oßringen, and Mindelheim, the bifhopricks of Augfburg, Conftance, and Coire, with feveral abbeys, and free towns.

The duchy of Wirtemberg is fituate in the northern part of the circle, fixty-five miles long, and almoft as much in breadth. It is fubject to the duke of Wirtemberg, whofe ufual refidence is at the capital, Stutgard, where he has an elegant palace. This town ftands on the river Neckar, forty-five miles north-weft of Ulm, and forty miles eaft of Baden; and is much reforted to, on account of its baths.

Tubingen is fituate on the river Neckar, twenty miles fouth of Stutgard; as is likewife the city of Hailbron, twenty-eight miles north of Stutgard, and twenty-five fouth-eaft of Heidelberg. It is an imperial city, and famous for its excellent baths.

The duchy of Wirtemberg enjoys a temperate air, and a fruitful foil, abounding in corn, wine, cattle, rich mines, and plenty of game in the forefts. It is computed that there are in this territory fixty cities, a hundred and fifty towns, almoft feven hundred villages, and fourteen abbeys. The duke is ftandard-bearer of the empire, and great huntsman. This family had embraced the reformed religion, but is lately become Roman Catholic. The other branches of it are Wirtemberg-Neuftadt, Wirtemberg-Æls in Silefia, and Wirtemberg-Bernftadt.

The margravate of Baden lies along the eaftern bank of the Rhine, oppofite to Alface. Baden, the capital, is fituate on a hill, five miles from the Rhine, twenty-five miles fouth of Heidelberg, and twenty north of Straßburg. This place is celebrated for its numerous baths, which are remarkably hot, and ftroingly impregnated for the moft part with alum and fulphur.

Durlach lies fifteen miles north of the city of Baden, and is fubject to the prince of Baden-Durlach, a Lutheran, whofe palace here is a magnificent ftructure.

Baden-Weifer is fituate twelve miles north of Bafil, and gives title to a branch of the houfe of Baden. Here alfo are hot baths, but not equal to thofe laft mentioned.

The territory of the Brißgaw, which lies along the eaft bank of the Rhine, between Furtfenburg and Alface, is fubject to the houfe of Atria. The chief town is Friburg, fituate at the entrance of the Black Foreft; and, being a frontier town, is ftroingly fortified. Ten miles weft of Friburg, on the eaft bank of the Rhine, lies Brißac, another frontier town, well fortified. It is ufually called Old Brißac, to diftinguifh it

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from a town which the French have erected in Alsace, on the opposite side of the Rhine.

Besides those, the house of Austria possesses four forest towns on the frontiers of Switzerland, viz. Rhinefeld, Seckingen, Lautenburg, and Waldshut, with the territory of Constance. Constance, the capital of the latter, stands on the south-west of a lake of the same name, eight miles east of Uberlingen, and twelve west of Bucaw. The town is pleasantly situated, and though not large, is populous, and a place of good trade, the inhabitants exporting their merchandize by the lake and the Rhine, both south and north. The bishop of Constance is a prince of the empire, and one of the directors of the circle of Suabia. At this place a council was called by the emperor Sigismund, in 1414, to prevent a schism in the church; there being three popes who pretended to the chair at the same time. They were all deposed, and Martin V. elected. This council continued sitting four years, and was attended by four patriarchs, twenty-nine cardinals, three hundred and forty-six archbishops and bishops, four hundred and sixty-four abbots and doctors, and ten thousand secular princes and noblemen. It condemned Wickliffe's doctrines as heretical, ordering likewise his bones to be dug up and burnt, forty years after he was dead. It also burnt John Hus and Jerom of Prague for hereticks, though they had the emperor's safe-conduct for their protection.

On the same lake stand Buchorn and Ratelzel, subject likewise to the house of Austria; with the city of Uberlingen, a rich trading place, and celebrated for its mineral waters.

The margravate of Burgaw, on the frontiers of Bavaria, is also subject to the house of Austria. It is thirty miles long, and nearly the same broad. The principal towns are Burgaw, standing on the river Mindel, twenty miles west of Augsburg; and Guntzburg, situate on the Danube, eight miles north-west of Burgaw.

The house of Austria likewise possesses the landgravate of Nellenburg, lying north-west of the lake of Constance. This territory is twenty-seven miles long, and twelve broad; its chief town being Nellenburg, twelve miles north-west of Uberlingen.

To the same house pertains the county of Hohemburg, or Hohenzollern, lying to the eastward of Furstenburg; twenty-four miles long, and twenty broad. The chief towns are Hohenburg, Rottenburg, and Willengen. The county also contains the three imperial cities or sovereign states of Offenburg, or Offingen, Zell, and Gongenbach.

The county of Furstenburg lies on both sides of the Danube, near its source, and is about seventy miles long, but not above a third so much in breadth. The chief town, Furstenburg, is situated on the south side of the Danube, twenty miles north of Schaffhausen. In this county lies the village of Tone-Effingen, in which is one of the fountains of the Danube. The whole territory is subject to the count, who is a prince of the empire.

Sultz, Ems, and Montfort, are three small counties lying on the eastern frontier of Switzerland, having

capitals of the same names, and subject to their respective counts.

Waldburg county lies north-east of the lake of Constance. It is twenty miles long, and about eighteen broad, taking its name from the castle of Weldburg, and is subject to its count.

Koningzeck county lies westward of the preceding, and is subject to the count, who is of the family of the Guelphs.

Kirkburg stands upon the river Iser, south of the territories of Ulm. It is eighteen miles long, and eight broad, and is subject to its count.

The principality of Mindelheim is situate between the bishoprick of Augsburg and the abbacy of Kempfen; being twenty miles long, and sixteen broad. It was conferred on the great duke of Marlborough by the emperor Leopold; but the duke leaving no male issue, it reverted to the emperor at his death.

The principality of Odingen is situated on the frontiers of Franconia. It is about thirty miles long, and eighteen broad. The chief towns are Odingen, Nordlingen, Hochstet, and Blenheim; the two latter of which are celebrated for the victories obtained by the allied army over the French.

Graveneck county is situate between Hohenzollern on the west, and the territories of Ulm on the east, and is subject to the count, who is a prince of the empire. The chief towns are Graveneck and Eglingen.

The county of Lowenstein lies upon the banks of the Neckar, and is subject to its count, who is of the palatine family, and a prince of the empire.

Augsburg stands near the frontiers of Bavaria, at the confluence of the rivers Lech and Wardour, in 10 degrees 58 minutes of east longitude, and in 48 degrees 24 minutes of north latitude. It was called Augusta Vindelicorum, from Augustus Cæsar, in whose reign the Romans planted a colony here. It is a large, populous, well built city, adorned with fountains, and brazen statues of emperors and ancient heroes, and other valuable monuments of antiquity. The cathedral is a grand building, and the hospitals exceed any thing of the kind, both in accommodation and endowments. That which was erected by the family of the Fuggars, lords of the neighbouring country, contains a hundred and six houses, ranged in four streets that meet in the center, and are inhabited by poor people, who have pensions settled upon them. Augsburg is an imperial city, or sovereign state, the senate which possesses the executive power, consists of twenty-three Papists and twenty-two Protestants; and the common-council, which, with the senate, has the legislative authority, of a hundred and fifty of each persuasion. The people likewise consist chiefly of Lutherans and Papists; but the former are most numerous. There is no place where a greater variety of habits may be seen, which are so regulated by the government, that every person's quality, trade, or profession, is known by his dress. The citizens are esteemed excellent mechanicks, especially the goldsmiths and hardware-men. It was in this city that the protestant princes presented their confession of faith

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faith to the emperor Charles V. at a diet held in the year 1530; which occasioned a civil war in the empire, of twenty years continuance. At a subsequent diet, or assembly of the states, in this city, in 1555, it was agreed that the protestants in the empire should enjoy the free exercise of their religion.

Ulm, which may be reckoned the capital of Suabia, stands at the confluence of the rivers Danube and Iller, thirty-six miles west of Augsburg, and ninety miles south-west of Ratibon. It is an imperial city, the government of which is lodged in one and forty aldermen, elected out of the principal inhabitants. Two bailiffs, who preside in their councils, are chosen annually, and the magistrates are all Lutherans, as are most of the inhabitants. It is a place of great trade, and the mechanics are reputed excellent, especially in clock-work. By the Danube the people export to Bavaria and Austria, their own produce, consisting of linen, cotton-cloth, and hard-ware; and receive in return, corn, salt, and iron.

Bibrac, an imperial city, stands on the river Rufs, twenty-miles south of Ulm, in a pleasant fertile country, and much frequented for its hot-bath. The magistracy is divided between the Protestants and Papists, and the people are likewise a mixture of both persuasions.

Bucaw, another imperial city, lies ten miles south-west of Bibrac. Here is a nunnery, the nuns of which are all of noble families, and are at liberty to leave the cloyster and marry when they please. The abbess is a princess of the empire, and her deputy has a vote in the diet.

Memmingen is a large city, seventeen miles south-east of Bibrac.

Leutkirk is another imperial city, twelve miles south-west of Memmingen, in the road from Italy to Germany.

Kempton, also an imperial city, lies fifteen miles south of Memmingen, on the same road.

Eisna is situate twelve miles south of Kempton.

Lindau stands on an island in the lake of Constance, in which is a nunnery, of the same constitution with that at Bucaw; and the abbess, who is sovereign of the territories about it, is a princess of the empire.

Bergentz is situate on the lake of Constance, five miles south-east of Lindau, and is capital of the county in which it stands.

Ravensprug, which lies twenty miles west of Leutkirk, and as many south of Bucaw, is an imperial city, and well built. In the middle of the city stands a tower, with an inscription, importing that the old tower being blown down by a whirlwind, the watchman, who stood on the top of it to give notice of the time of night every three hours, by a trumpet, as is the custom in some German towns, received no hurt by the fall; but that his wife and son were both killed.

Altorf is an ancient town two miles from Ravensprug, subject now to the house of Austria, but formerly to its count; from whom descended the ancient dukes of Bavaria, and the present dukes of Brunswick. This was the burying-place of the Guelphian family; and

here stood the ancient monastery and chapel of St. Ofwald.

Wangen is an imperial city, ten miles east of Lindau.

### C H A P. IX.

#### *Circle of Bavaria.*

THE circle of Bavaria is bounded on the north by Franconia, Saxony, and Bohemia; on the east by Austria; on the south by Tyrol; and on the west by Suabia. The palatinate of Bavaria lies north of the Danube; having Bohemia on the east, and Franconia on the west. It extends about seventy miles in length, and thirty in breadth. The duchy of Bavaria, which lies south of the Danube, is about a hundred and twenty miles in length, and almost as much in breadth.

The capital of the electorate and duchy of Bavaria is Munich, situate in 11 degrees 40 minutes of east longitude, and in 48 degrees of latitude; on the river Weiser, sixty miles south-west of Ratibon. It is a large beautiful city, with spacious streets, and canals running through many of them. The elector's palace was reputed the most magnificent in Germany; and the churches and cloysters are also very grand. The city is surrounded with a wall and fortifications, but not of great strength.

Ingoldstadt stands upon the Danube, in a level fruitful country, forty-five miles north of Munich, and thirty west of Ratibon. It is a fortified town, and well built.

Donawert stands also on the Danube, forty miles north-east of Ulm, and twenty-five west of Ingoldstadt.

Amberg, the capital of the Bavarian palatinate, is a fortified town, lying on the river IIs, thirty miles north of Ratibon.

Newmark is situate in a mountainous rocky country, thirty miles north of Ingoldstadt. The neighbouring mountains being rich in iron mines, the town has a considerable trade in hard-ware.

Sultzbach, capital of the county of the same name, is situate five miles north-west of Amberg, subject to the elector palatine.

Neuburg, capital of a duchy, is situate on the south side of the Danube, fifteen miles west of Ingoldstadt, and subject also to the elector palatine. The town has a good trade, especially in wine.

Ratibon, or Regensburg, stands at the confluence of the rivers Danube and Regen, sixty-two miles north-east of Munich. It is pleasantly situated, large, well built, and populous. It is an imperial city, surrounded with a double wall and other fortifications, but too large to be defended without a considerable army. Here the diet, or assembly of the states of the empire usually meets. The place of convention is a large upper room, hung with tapestry. The imperial throne and seats are covered with gold and silver tissue and velvet. The established religion here is the Lutheran, only the popish bishop has the liberty of saying mass in the cathedral once a week. The city is plentifully supplied with provisions from its own territories,

teries, which afford corn, cattle, and excellent wine; and in time of peace it has a brisk trade, as it lies upon the finest navigable river in Europe.

The city of Passau is situate about sixty-two miles south-east of Ratibon, at the confluence of the Danube, Inn, and Ill, which dividing it into three parts, that are united by bridges, and form one beautiful town. The territory belonging to it lies chiefly on the north side of the Danube, between the palatinate of Bavaria and the Upper Austria. The sovereign of the country is the bishop.

Landshut stands on the river Iser, thirty miles south of Ratibon. It is a beautiful city, pleasantly situated, and here the ancient dukes of Bavaria had their residence.

Freisingen stands on the river Iser, twenty miles north of Munich. It is a large city, and the see of a bishop, who is sovereign of the town, and surrounding territory.

The archbishoprick of Salzburg has the duchy of Bavaria on the north; Stiria and the Upper Austria on the east; and Carinthia and Tyrol on the south and west. It is about seventy miles in length, and sixty in breadth. The capital town, Salzburg, is situate on the river Saltz, seventy miles east of Munich. This is esteemed one of the finest cities in Germany, and has a good trade, especially for salt, which is produced in the neighbourhood. Here also are some rich mines of silver, copper, and iron. The archbishop is sovereign both of the city and territory; and lately persecuted his protestant subjects with extreme rigour.

Eight miles south of Salzburg, on the same river, stands the town of Hall, where the salt-works employ a great number of people. It is said that in the year 1573, a human body was found here in the rock-salt, some hundred fathoms deep, with the flesh, hair, and cloaths entire, which from its antique dress was supposed to have remained in that situation several ages.

Waldeck stands about fifty miles south-east of Munich, and a hundred south-west of Salzburg.

The elector of Bavaria is an absolute sovereign, and has a large revenue, arising not only from his demesne lands, but the tolls on the rivers, particularly the Danube; and from monopolies of salt, corn, and beer, which the subjects are obliged to purchase of his agents. Though the country be in general fertile, those oppressive monopolies render the inhabitants very poor.

#### C H A P. X.

##### *Circle of Austria.*

THE circle of Austria is bounded on the north by Bohemia and Moravia; on the east by Hungary, Slavonia, and Croatia; on the south by the territories of Venice; and on the west by Bavaria. It comprehends the provinces of Austria Proper, Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola. It formerly included the county of Tyrol, and the bishopricks of Trent and Brixen; but those are now detached from it. This country once formed a part of the great duchy or kingdom of Bavaria; but the emperor Otto erected

it into a distinct landgravate, and created his son Albert the first archduke of Austria.

Vienna, the capital of the circle of Austria, and of the German empire, is situate in 16 degrees 20 minutes of east longitude, and in 48 degrees 20 minutes of north latitude. It stands on the river Danube, a little above the confluence of the Wien. The city, which is well fortified, is not, within the walls, more than three miles in circumference; but the suburbs are of much greater extent. It is built of stone, and the houses are five or six stories high with flat roofs. The imperial family has here two large palaces, in which are several grand apartments; but the buildings are neither uniform nor elegant, nor the furniture so rich as might be expected. The houses of the nobility and great officers of state are magnificent structures. The palace of the late prince Eugene, particularly, is much admired, not only for the edifice and the conveniency of the apartments, but for its superb furniture. Several of the convents are also very elegant, especially that of the Austin-Friars, the model of which was taken from the Holy House at Loreto. The colleges which formerly belonged to the Jesuits were likewise fine buildings. In the front of one of them stands a column of copper, with a statue of the Virgin Mary on the top of it; and there are inscriptions on the pillar, importing, that Austria is dedicated to her patronage. The cathedral of St. Stephen is particularly grand, and it has a steeple four hundred and sixty-five foot in height. In this church, which is however too dark, are several grand tombs and monuments, of their princes and great men, and near one of the doors, they shew a stone in the wall, which, according to their tradition, is one of those with which St. Stephen was stoned. The finest suburb is that called Leopoldstadt, separated from the city by a branch of the river, where the houses of the nobility mostly stand. The city has six gates, eighty streets, twenty-nine churches, eight chapels, and eighteen market-places. The university here is equal to any in Europe, in respect to the number of students and their accommodations. The students are divided into four classes, namely, that of Austria, the Rhine, the Hungarians, and the Saxons. Under one or other of those, the students of every nation are comprehended. The imperial library contains upwards of eighty thousand volumes; in which are some curious ancient manuscripts, besides a noble museum. This city was not very considerable till towards the end of the twelfth century, when it was enlarged and beautified by the margrave of Austria; the expence of which is said to be defrayed by the money he got for the ransom of Richard I. king of England, whom he imprisoned in his return from the Holy Land.

Though this city be so far within land, yet the breadth and depth of the Danube give it the air of a port-town. Trading vessels are constantly building and repairing; and here ships of war, of fifty guns, are sometimes fitted out, to serve on the river against the Turks.

Provisions of all kinds are here in great plenty, and perhaps no people indulge the luxury of the table more

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than the inhabitants of Vienna. Persons of quality will have eighteen or twenty different sorts of wine upon the sideboard, with a list of their names laid before every guest at the table. Their freedom in the use of those liquors is equal to the variety which they keep; and it is difficult for a stranger to rise from a meal without a degree of intoxication. Besides drinking, the pastimes at Vienna consist in dancing, fencing, and gaming. In the winter, when the branches of the Danube are frozen, and the ground covered with snow, which is usually the case for two or three months in the year, the ladies ride over the snow and ice in sledges of different forms, resembling swans, scollop-shells, tygers, or griffins. The lady sits on the sledge dressed in velvet lined with furs, and adorned with jewels, wearing on her head a velvet cap. She is drawn by a horse richly caparisoned, with plumes of feathers, ribbands, and bells. As this diversion is chiefly in the night, a groom rides before the sledge with a torch, and a gentleman usually sits behind the lady, and guides the horse.

The furniture of the houses in Vienna is generally magnificent; and, in the winter, it is the common practice of the inhabitants to cover themselves with a feather bed, instead of blankets. A person of the first distinction, and the meanest tradesman, will sometimes occupy different floors of the same house. This city is the usual residence of the emperor, and is likewise an archbishoprick.

Baden lies about seventeen miles to the southward of Vienna, and is famous for its hot-baths in the cure of many chronic diseases.

Haynburg is situated thirty miles east of Vienna, on the frontiers of Hungary. It was formerly the residence of the dukes of Austria, and a place of good trade; but by the removal of the court, and the frequent incursions of the Hungarian malecontents, it is greatly declined.

Krems stands on a river of the same name, which joins the Danube on the north side, about forty miles west of Vienna. It is a large town, and has a flourishing trade; being particularly crowded at two annual fairs, by merchants from Poland, Hungary, and various parts of the continent.

Lintz, the capital of Upper Austria, is situate on the south side of the Danube, a hundred miles west of Vienna, in a pleasant, fruitful country, to which the court frequently resorts in summer; there being here a palace on the north side of the river, which communicates with the city by a bridge.

Enns, situate on the river of the same name, near its confluence with the Danube, ninety miles nearly west of Vienna. This place is supposed to be the ancient Lauriacum, where the Roman emperors resided for some time. The other towns of most note in Austria are Frieftadt, Stain, Everding, Steyr, Wells, Ips, Neustadt, Tuln, Saxemburg, and Starremburg.

The duchy of Stiria, or Steyrmarch, is bounded on the north by Austria, on the east by Hungary, on the south by Carinthia, and on the west by Seltzburg; being a hundred and twenty miles long, and sixty broad. The capital is Gratz, situate in a pleasant

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fruitful country, on the river Muer, eighteen miles south of Vienna. It is a fortified town, well built, and has a castle on an adjacent hill for its defence. The present empress-queen has here also a palace, to which she sometimes retires.

Rakenburg is another strong fortress, on the river Muer, twenty-eight miles east of Gratz.

On the same river, in a fertile country, stands Luttenburg, where the empress also has a palace, fifty miles westward of Gratz.

Eysenartz stands on the little river Seltza, twenty-four miles north-west of Luttenburg. At this place are exceeding rich mines of iron.

Upper Stiria is a mountainous country, abounding chiefly in sheep: but Lower Stiria produces corn, wine, fruit, venison and fish; and the plains are covered with herds of neat cattle. This province, however, is often visited by the Hungarian putrid fever; and the poorer sort of the inhabitants, who live on a low diet, are extremely subject to strumous swellings in the glands of the neck.

The duchy of Carinthia is bounded on the north by Stiria, on the east by Slavonia, on the south by Carniola, and on the west by Seltzburg. It is about a hundred and forty miles long, and fifty broad. The chief towns are Clagenfurt, situated about a hundred and twenty miles south-west of Vienna; and Lavemund, on the river Levant, in a pleasant valley, fifty miles east of Clagenfurt. In the county of Cilley, which lies between the rivers Drave and Save, the chief town is Cilley, or Celia, tolerably well fortified.

The duchy of Carniola, with Windesmark, or the margravate of Windes, is bounded on the north by Carinthia, on the east by Croatia, and on the south and west by Istria and other territories of the Venetians. The capital is Laubach, situate on a river of the same name, forty miles north of Trieste and the Gulph of Venice; a populous, well built city, and the see of a bishop. The town of Zirknitz is remarkable only for a lake in its neighbourhood, sixty miles in length, which totally subsides every year in the month of June, when the bottom of it yields good pasture; but in the end of September the water returns with great violence, spouting up to a considerable height through the fissures of the earth, till the lake becomes several fathoms deep.

Oberlawbach stands sixteen miles south-west of Laubach, and has a flourishing trade with the produce of Italy, which it disperses to all parts of Germany.

Metling, the capital of Windesmark, stands on the frontiers of Croatia, thirty-five miles south-east of Cilley.

Goritz, capital of the district of Gorizia, is situate in Friuli, fifty miles west of Laubach. This place is supposed to be the Naricia of the Romans. The rest of Friuli is subject to the Venetians.

In the province of Istria, a territory belonging to the Venetians, the house of Austria has two sea-ports, namely, Trieste, and St. Vîct, or Fiume, where they have been long endeavouring to establish a foreign trade with the several countries bordering on the Mediterranean. The

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late emperor, Charles VI. was at great expence to enlarge the port of the former of those towns, and make it a station for men of war; but on his losing Naples and Sicily, this project was laid aside.

The province of Carniola is a mountainous country, interspersed with fruitful valleys, which furnish plenty of corn and wine. The inhabitants, being a mixture of Germans, Italians, and Slavonians, speak both High Dutch and Italian,

Windesmark is a mountainous barren country, inhabited by the posterity of the Veneti, a branch of the Slavonian nation, as appears by their language.

In the circle of Austria lie likewise the county of Tirol, and the bishoprick of Trent, the latter of which was anciently considered as a part of Italy.

The county of Tirol, including the bishoprick of Brixen, is bounded on the north by Bavaria and Suabia, on the east by Carinthia and Friuli, on the south by the country of the Grisons and the bishoprick of Trent, and on the west by Switzerland; being a hundred and twenty miles long, and upwards of fifty broad. The chief rivers are the Inn, which falls into the Danube; and the Adige, which runs southward into Italy, and discharges itself into the gulph of Venice. It is generally a mountainous, barren country, but has some fruitful valleys, with several mines of silver, copper, and iron. The chief town is Inspruck, situate on the river Inn, sixty-two miles south of Munich, and seventy north of Trent. The town of Hall, or Impthal, stands likewise on the same river, ten miles north-east of Inspruck. Tirol is at present a ruinous castle, and only mentioned for its giving name to the county. Brixen, capital of the bishoprick is situated on the river Eysack, thirty miles south-east of Inspruck. The territories of the bishoprick extend forty miles in length, and thirty in breadth. It is for the most part mountainous, but has some fruitful valleys, with mines of silver, copper, and iron, mineral-waters, and salt springs. The bishop, who is invested with temporal jurisdiction, is a prince of the empire.

The bishoprick of Trent is situated upon the Alps, which separate Germany from Italy, and has sometimes been reckoned a part of either of those countries. It is bounded on the north by Tirol, on the east and south by the territories of Venice, and on the west by the country of the Grisons; being about seventy miles long, and fifty broad, and having the river Adige running through it. This country produces very little corn, but is not deficient in wine, oil, fruits of different kinds, and cattle. The chief town is Trent, situate in 11 degrees of east longitude, and 46 degrees 5 minutes of north latitude, sixty-seven miles south-west of Venice. It stands in a pleasant valley on the bank of the Adige, but encompassed by three steep mountains, which render it excessive hot in summer, and cold in winter. It is a small city, built of a kind of red and white marble, dug out of the rock on which it stands, and is surrounded by a single wall. The bishop is suffragan to the Venetian patriarch of Aquileia, but a prince of the empire, and sovereign of the adjacent country. In this city, pope Paul III. assembled that great council, which with

some intermissions continued from the year 1545 to 1563, in which the authority of the pope over the church was established, and the Roman Catholic doctrines confirmed. This council consisted of seven cardinals, three patriarchs, thirty-three archbishops, two hundred and thirty-five bishops, seven vicars-general, and a hundred and forty-six doctors and dignified clergy.

Pozen, or Bolsano, is situate on the river Adige, twenty-five miles north of Trent, and is considerable for its four annual fairs, to which the merchants of Italy and Germany resort.

#### C H A P. XI.

*Of the Germans—government—forces—election of the emperor—king of the Romans—archbishopricks and—bishopricks—universities—coins—religion—marriage—history of the empire.*

**T**HE natives of Germany are for the most part of a good stature, rather inclining to corpulency, and their complexions generally clear. Their hair grows to a great length, which the men wear plaited; and in several provinces they wear also mustaches on the upper lip. They are reputed an honest, sagacious, sedate people, brave in war, and their application indefatigable in the pursuit of any favourite object. They are however rather morose than sociable, and haughty rather than complaisant; much addicted to intemperance in eating and drinking, and the men likewise to the smoking of tobacco, for which they use pipes of a great length.

There are in Germany upwards of three hundred sovereign princes and states, most of them arbitrary in their respective territories, but universally subject to the general laws of the empire, the legislative diet of which consists of the emperor, the nine electors, the ecclesiastic and secular princes, and the deputies of the towns. This assembly is convened by the emperor's summons; and the members are obliged by their allegiance to appear at the day and place appointed, either by themselves or their proxies, unless they will run the risk of incurring the ban of the empire, and forfeiting their privileges. As half the diet usually consists of deputies, who vote according to the instructions which they receive from their principals, whom they must consult on every matter of importance, its proceedings are generally slow. This great convention is held for the most part at Ratisbon, but it may be summoned to meet at any city within the limits of the empire.

The power of every member of the diet is not uniformly the same; the concurrence of the citizens and burgeses not being necessary to the making of laws, though they are permitted to debate, and give their opinion when any law is proposed.

The emperor, or the person he appoints to supply his place, proposes every thing that is to be deliberated in the diet, and adjourns the debates when he pleases.

There are in the empire two supreme courts of justice, namely, the Aulic council, held at Vienna, and

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and the chamber of Spire, now removed to Wetzlar in Wetteravia. The judges in each of those courts were formerly sixteen, but now increased to fifty. The emperor names the president, and four more: every elector nominates one; and the rest are appointed by the several circles of the empire. Some of the judges are Protestants, but the greater part Roman Catholics. To those two tribunals lies an appeal from all inferior courts in the empire. If any of the German princes oppress their subjects, or encroach upon each other's territories, a decree of those supreme courts will compel them to do justice to the injured. The judges are generally governed by the civil law and the acts of the diet; but in some cases they are directed by the golden bull, a charter so called from the seal annexed to it being of gold. It was framed by Charles IV. with consent of the princes and states of the empire, and contains the laws relating to the election of the emperor, the privileges of the electors, the rules to be observed at all public solemnities, and the appointing vicars during an inter-regnum. Those laws were pronounced to be irrevocable; but one of them has been violated, in increasing the number of electors from seven to nine.

The emperor has hardly any lands or revenues which properly belong to the empire; but he is at no charge in the administration of the government, or maintaining forces, all expences, whether fixed or contingent, being defrayed by the vassals of the empire. He cannot either make or suspend laws, declare peace or war, nor raise taxes, without the consent of the states. The power however with which he is invested of conferring all honours, and of appointing the generals of their armies, joined to the numerous posts of consequence at his disposal in the hereditary dominions, render his influence in the diet exceeding great. He is entitled to the reversion of all fiefs, in default of heirs, and to all fines, forfeitures, and confiscations of criminals.

The charge of the civil government is defrayed by a tax called Roman months, to which all the princes and states contribute a certain proportion; and their names are matriculated in a register kept by the elector of Mentz, who is chancellor of the empire, specifying the annual sum which each is obliged to pay, as well as the number of forces which they respectively maintain in time of war.

There are one or more directors in every circle of the empire, who are generals of the forces of the respective circles, and execute the decrees and sentences of the diets and supreme councils. They also assemble the princes and states of the circle, to deliberate what measures are to be taken on any extraordinary emergency.

The states of each circle, besides a general, who is usually their director, elect five lieutenants to assist him, or supply his place in his absence. They also appoint for the service of the circle, a treasurer, a receiver, and a secretary. Upper Saxony usually assembles at Leipfick; Franconia at Nuremberg; and the circle of Susbia at Ulm. They treat of the regu-

lation of their coin, magazines, fortifications, and commerce; putting also into execution the decrees of the empire, appointing judges for the imperial chamber at Wetzlar, and the Aulic council at Vienna, and enacting such provincial laws as are not inconsistent with the constitution of the empire.

With respect to the forces which the several princes of the empire may furnish and maintain for the general interest, the following list appears to be a moderate computation, viz.

The elector of Mentz	- -	6000
The elector of Triers	- -	6000
The elector of Cologne	- -	6000
The bishop of Munster	- -	8000
The bishop of Liege	- -	8000
Archbishop of Saltzburg	- -	8000
Bishop of Wurtsburg	- -	2000
Bishop of Bamberg	- -	5000
Bishop of Paderborn	- -	3000
Bishop of Osnaburg	- -	2500
Abbot of Fulda	- -	6000
Other bishopricks of the empire		6000
Abbeys and provostships	- -	8000
Total of ecclesiastical princes		<u>74500</u>

Hungary	- - - -	30000
Bohemia and Moravia	- -	20000
Austria	- -	20000
King of Prussia	- -	70000
Electoꝛ of Saxony	- -	25000
Electoꝛ Palatine	- -	15000
Duke of Wirtemberg	- -	15000
Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel	-	15000
Prince of Baden	- -	10000
Electoꝛ of Hanover	- -	30000
Duke of Holstein	- -	12000
Duke of Mecklenburg	- -	15000
Prince of Anhalt	- -	6000
Prince of Lawenburg	- -	6000
Electoꝛ of Bavaria	- -	3000
Prince of Nassau	- -	8000
Other princes and imperial towns		<u>50000</u>

Secular princes and states	- -	305000
Ecclesiastical princes	- -	<u>74500</u>
		<u>379500</u>

At the demise of an emperor, if no king of the Romans has been previously elected, the elector of Mentz, as high chancellor of the empire, and dean of the electoral college, sends a summons to the other electors to appear at Frankfort on a certain day, for the purpose of choosing a successor to the imperial dignity. At the time appointed the electors march in great state on horseback, from the stadthouse to St. Bartholomew's church, and having taken their seats in the choir, their several sword-bearers standing before them with their drawn swords on their shoulders, divine service begins. On singing the hymn of Veni Creator,



Creator, however, the protestant electors withdraw till mass is over. From the choir the electors proceed to a gallery in the church, where the election is made by a majority of voices. The new emperor being then conducted to the altar, takes an oath to maintain the laws and constitution of the empire inviolable. The emperor must be a prince of German extraction, and at least twenty-eight years of age; but whether a protestant prince can be elected, is a matter not determined by any precedent in the history of the empire, so great a majority of the electors being of the Roman Catholic religion. When the day appointed for the coronation is arrived, the electors, or their proxies, attend the emperor from his palace to the church, where the election had been made; the elector Palatine carrying the crown, the elector of Bavaria the globe, the elector of Brandenburg the sceptre, the elector of Saxony the sword, and the elector of Hanover the standard. With respect to the king of Bohemia, the other secular elector, he has been son of the deceased emperor, and consequently the person elected, for several generations before the year 1740.

Being arrived at the door of the church, the emperor is received at his entrance by the three ecclesiastical electors, who conduct him to the altar, where the archbishop who officiates, anoints his head, breast, neck, and back, between the shoulders and the right arm. He is then conducted to another altar, where being crowned, and clothed with the ancient imperial robes, he is seated on the throne, and *Te Deum* is sung with great solemnity.

A king of the Romans has been frequently elected in the life of the reigning emperor, which is one of the expedients practised by the house of Austria to keep the empire in their family. This dignity, however, is accompanied with very little power, except that in the absence of the emperor the person who enjoys it is entrusted with the administration.

There are in Germany six archbishopricks and thirty-nine bishopricks, of which many have been secularized since the Reformation, and some converted into duchies. The number of universities is twenty-seven. No people applies more closely to study than the Germans; nor is there in any country a greater number of authors. No man can be a graduate in their universities, who has not published one disputation at least; the consequences of which is, that the nation abounds in polemical writings, which rather perplex than enlighten the understanding. Among the dead languages the Hebrew is much cultivated; and next to civil jurisprudence, the science of medicine has here received extraordinary improvement.

## GERMAN GOLD COINS.

	£.	s.	d.
Ducat of the bishop of Bamberg	-	0	9 3
Double ducat of Hanover	-	-	0 18 4
Ducat of Hanover	-	-	0 9 2
Ducat of Brandenburg	-	-	0 9 3
Double ducats of several forms in Germany	-	-	0 18 4

## SILVER COINS.

	£.	s.	d.
Ducaton of Cologne	-	-	0 5 5
Rix dollar, or patagon of Cologne	-	0	4 4
----- of Liege	-	0	4 7
----- of Mentz	-	0	4 7
----- of Frankfort	-	0	4 6
----- of the Palatine	-	0	4 7
----- of Nuremberg	-	0	4 7
----- of Lunenburg	-	0	4 6
Old rix dollar of Hanover	-	-	0 4 7
Double gulden of Hanover	-	-	0 4 8
The gulden of Hanover	-	-	0 2 2
The half gulden of Hanover	-	-	0 1 1
The gulden of Zell	-	-	0 2 3
----- of the bishop of Hildesheim	-	0	2 6
----- of Magdeburg	-	-	0 2 4
Old rix dollar of Brandenburg	-	0	4 7
Old gulden or guilden of Brandenburg	-	0	2 6
New guilden of Brandenburg	-	0	2 3
Half guilden	-	-	0 1 1 ½
Gulden of the elector of Saxony	-	0	2 4
Old bank dollar of Hamburg	-	0	4 6
Rix dollar of Lubek	-	-	0 4 7
----- of the emperor Leopold	-	0	4 6
----- of Ferdinand III.	-	0	4 6
----- of ----- archduke of Austria	-	0	4 5

Besides the sun and moon, to which the ancient Germans paid adoration, they acknowledged several other deities, namely, Teutch, Woden, Thor, and Freia, with others of inferior rank; and from those were the names of so many days in the week transplanted by the Saxons into Britain. The German pagans assembled for religious worship and sacrificed in groves, where they erected arbours of oak and beechen branches. Their sacrifices consisted generally of beasts; but malefactors were also devoted to the altar, as were likewise slaves, and those who had been made prisoners in war. If we may credit the Roman writers, they sometimes sacrificed their children. The women were admitted to the priestly office as well as the men, and both were of families of distinction. They believed in the doctrine of transmigration, and of endless existence in a future state.

Some are of opinion that Christianity was introduced here in the time of the apostles; others that it was not received till the second century, and then only in such provinces as were within the pale of the Roman empire. It appears that several missionaries arrived here from England in the eighth century, who converted the inhabitants that dwelt between the Rhine and the Weser; but the Saxons in the north were not converted, until they were subdued by Charlemagne in the succeeding age.

Popery was the established religion in Germany till about the year 1517, when Martin Luther began to expose the errors of that church. The archbishop of Mentz being required to advance more money to the pope than he was able to raise, obtained leave of his

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holiness to sell pardons and indulgences to the people for all sins, past, present, and to come. This scandalous profanation of the papal authority excited the abhorrence of Luther, who declaimed against this practice in the warmest terms at Wittemberg and Leipsic, where, meeting with the support of the elector of Saxony, he propagated his doctrines in Brunswick-Lunenburg, Mecklenburg, Pomerania, the marquisate of Brandenburg, and the landgrate of Hesse, as well as in most of the imperial cities. The followers of the reformer drew up a protestation, containing the points in which they differed from the church of Rome; which they presented to the imperial chamber at Spire, in 1529, and thence received the denomination of Protestants. Next year they delivered a confession of their faith to the diet at Augsburg, called the Augsburg Confession; and refusing to recede from the doctrines avowed in this declaration, a civil war ensued, in which the emperor Charles V. took the part of the catholicks. This war continued till the year 1552, when the emperor thought fit to grant the Protestants a toleration at Passau, which was confirmed at Augsburg in 1555. On the promulgation of the doctrines of Zuinglius and Calvin, which happened immediately after, much animosity broke forth between the disciples of Luther and those of the other new sect, which so far obstructed the progress of the Reformation, that the greater part of the empire still adheres to the Romish church.

If a prince, or person of distinction in Germany, marries his inferior, she has no title to be endowed, nor can her children inherit till they obtain an act of the diet to qualify them to succeed their father.

The foundation of this empire was laid in the eighth century, by Charlemagne, who was an absolute prince, and constituted governors over the several provinces for years or for life. Under his successors some of those were rendered hereditary, and others assuming the same distinction, asserted an almost total independency on the imperial crown. Many of the great towns purchased the privilege of electing their own magistrates, and being governed by peculiar jurisdiction, subject however to the general laws of the empire.

In the year 888, the emperor Charles III. was deposed by his subjects, who placed on the throne Arnolph, the natural son of the duke of Bavaria, after which the government was no longer hereditary in the family of Charlemagne, but descended for two generations to the posterity of Arnolph.

Conrade, duke of Franconia, was next advanced

to the imperial throne by the German nobility, who appointed Henry, son of Otho, duke of Saxony, to succeed him; and afterwards Otho II. the son of the preceding emperor. This prince obliged the king of Denmark to acknowledge his dependance on the empire, and admit Christianity into his dominions. He also subdued the king of Bohemia, and planted Christianity in that country. His enterprizes, however, were not confined to the propagation of the doctrines of the church. He deposed pope John XII. and advanced Leo VIII. to the papal chair; decreeing also that future popes should be appointed by the emperor.

This emperor was likewise succeeded by his son Otho III. who is said to have first reduced the number of electors to seven. He reigned eighteen years, when he was poisoned by a pair of gloves which were given him by his concubine, for refusing to marry her, as he had promised.

After a succession of four emperors, of the name of Henry, who maintained an almost perpetual contest with the papal authority, the emperor Barbarossa was so much distressed by the pope, that he submitted to the indignity of letting his holiness tread upon his neck. During those contests between the popes and emperors, arose the two famous factions, distinguished by the names of the Guelphs and Gibellines, under the one or the other of which all the princes of Europe were engaged, the former adhering to the popes, and the other to the emperors.

On the death of Frederick II. there was an interregnum of twenty years, six princes contending for the empire, among whom was Richard, earl of Cornwall, brother to Henry III. king of England. The election was carried however by Rodolph, earl of Hapsburg, who first aggrandized the Austrian family, by creating his son Albert archduke of Austria, who afterwards raised his son Rodolph to the rank of king of Bohemia.

Albert was succeeded in the imperial dignity by the earl of Luxemburg, who was poisoned by a monk at the sacrament, with the consecrated elements.

In the year 1411, Sigismund, king of Hungary and Bohemia, was unanimously elected emperor; since which time the imperial dignity continued without interruption in the house of Austria, till the elector of Bavaria was advanced to the throne in 1740; at whose death the imperial crown was conferred on the then grand-duke of Tuscany, formerly duke of Lorraine, the father of the present emperor.

## P O L A N D.

## C H A P. I.

*Of the situation—rivers—air—provinces—chief towns.*

**I**N describing this country we shall treat of its limits and constitution, as they existed previous to the late violent partition of the kingdom between the emperor of Germany, the empress of Russia, and the king of Prussia, mentioning afterwards the particular territories which have been seized by each of those powers.

Poland is situate between 16 and 34 degrees of east longitude, and between 46 and 57 degrees of north latitude; being bounded on the north by the Baltic sea, Livonia, and Russia; on the east by Russia, and Budziac Tartary; on the south by Bessarabia, Moldavia, Transilvania, and Hungary; and on the west by Pomerania, Brandenburg, and Silesia. It is nearly of a square figure, extending either way about seven hundred miles; a level, fruitful country, well watered by lakes and rivers. On that part of it which is washed by the Baltic, are several spacious bays, which form commodious harbours, the principal of which are Dantzick and Koningsburg.

The chief rivers are, 1. The Weisfel, or Vistula, which rising in Silesia, runs eastward into Poland, and having visited Cracow, turns north towards Warsaw, discharging itself into the Baltic at Dantzick. 2. The Warta, which running from east to west, crosses the province of Great Poland, falls into the river Oder in Brandenburg. 3. The Dwina, which separates Poland from Livonia, and falls into the Baltic at Riga. 4. The Nieper, or Boristhenes, which rising in Russia, runs west into Poland, and then turning to the south-east, passes by Kiof, discharging itself into the Euxine sea at Oczacow. 5. The Niester, which rising in Red Russia, and running towards the south-east by Bender in Turkey, falls into the Euxine sea to the northward of the Danube. 6. The Bog, which having its source in Padolia, runs to the south-east, and falls into the Nieper near its mouth. 7. The Bug, which rises in Red Russia, and running north-west, discharges itself into the Weisfel above Plaefkow. 8. The river Niemen, which rising in the middle of Russia, runs northward by Grodno, and assuming the name of the Ruffe, after its confluence with the Wilia, falls into a bay of the Baltic sea, called the Cur-haff.

This being chiefly an inland country, the air is usually clear; and which account the winters are colder, and the summers more hot, than in maritime regions that are situated in parallel latitudes; and in the former of these seasons, the ground is annually covered with snow during several months.

Poland comprehends twelve great provinces, namely, Great Poland, Prussia Regal and Ducal, Samogitia, Courland, Lithuania, Warsovia, Palachia, Polesia, Little Poland, Red Russia, Volhinia, and Podolia.

Great Poland is the most westerly province of the kingdom, and adjoins to Silesia. The chief towns are, 1. Pofna, or Pofin, situate on the river Warta, a hundred and fifty miles west of Warsaw. It is a beautiful little city, standing in a plain surrounded with hills, and is the capital of a palatinate. 2. Gnesna, lying near thirty miles east of Pofna; the see of an archbishop, who is primate of Poland, and viceroys during the vacancy of the throne. This was the first town built in Poland; the inhabitants living always in tents before that time, and removing from place to place with their flocks and herds, in the manner of the Scythians or Tartar nations. In the cathedral of Gnesna is the tomb of St. Adelbert, held in great veneration by the Poles, who make rich presents annually to his shrine, almost equal, we are told, to those offered to the Virgin Mary at Loreto. 3. Kalish, the capital of a palatinate, lying forty miles south-east of Pofna. 4. Siradia, likewise the capital of a palatinate, seated on the river Warta in the south part of the province. The other most considerable towns in this division are Rava, D. Scia, Sreble, and Inowloez, each the capital of a distinct palatinate, to which they respectively give name.

Prussia is divided into the Regal and the Ducal; the former of which, subject to the kingdom of Poland, contains the western part of this division. The chief town is Dantzick, situate in 19 degrees 5 minutes of east longitude, and in 54 degrees 22 minutes of north latitude, on the west bank of the Vistula, which falls into the Baltic sea a little below the town. Dantzick is a large city, encompassed with a wall and fortifications of great extent. The houses are well built of stone or brick, six or seven stories high. The granaries containing vast magazines of corn and naval stores, are yet higher, to which the shipping lie close, and take in their lading. It is an excellent harbour, and has the best foreign trade of any port within the Baltic. The Dutch annually import thither many thousand tuns of corn, timber, and naval stores, and other nations some; but the former have the greatest share of this trade, paying for their merchandise with pickled herrings, spices, sugars, brandy, and other produce of the southern countries; while England and other nations pay chiefly with money for the commodities which they purchase at this place. This is one of the hanse-towns, and the number of inhabitants is computed at two hundred thousand. The magistracy consists of thirty senators, who continue for life; four of whom are burgo-masters.

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Besides those there are thirteen consuls, who elect the burgo-masters out of their own body, and likewise appoint the judges, and all other officers of the city. From the decisions of the judges, an appeal lies to the consuls and burgo-masters, and from this tribunal to the republic of Poland. The king annually nominates a burgo-master out of the consuls to represent his person in the senate; and all sentences of death must be signed by the deputy in the king's name. A hundred burgeses are elected to inspect the administration of government, and defend the people's privileges; and this body, with the concurrence of the senate, has the disposal of vacant benefices in the church. The established religion is the Lutheran; but Papists, Calvinists, and Anabaptists are tolerated. The jurisdiction of the town extends forty miles round the city. They maintain a garrison at their own expence, and coin money with the effigy of the king on one side, and the city-arms on the other.

The city of Culm is situated on an eminence near the Vistula, sixty miles south of Dantzick, and is the capital of a palatinate. On the same river, thirty miles south of Culm, stands Thorn, the best built city in Regal Prussia; the stadthouse of which is reckoned little inferior to that of Amsterdam. Marienburg, the capital likewise of a palatinate, lies on the west side of the Vistula, ten miles south of Dantzick, and was anciently the chief city of the Teutonic knights. Elbing is situated near a bay of the sea, called Frischaff, thirty miles east of Dantzick. The other towns of note in Regal Prussia are, Hailburg, Frauenburg, and Brawnsburg.

Ducal Prussia lies east of the river Vistula, opposite to Regal Prussia, and gives the title of king to the elector of Brandenburg. The chief town of this province is Koningsburg, situate at the mouth of the river Pragal, in 21 degrees 35 minutes of east longitude, and in 54 degrees 42 minutes of north latitude. This is one of the most considerable port-towns on the Baltic, and has a commodious harbour. Here is an university, and a magnificent palace, and the town is the see of a bishop. Memel is seated on that bay of the sea called the Cur, or Curishaff, eighty miles north of Koningsburg, and has a convenient harbour, almost surrounded by lakes and marshes. The town of Pilau, which is situated at the entrance of the Frischaff, has likewise a good harbour; and opposite to it, on the same bay, stands the town of Heligpiel.

The province of Samogitia lies north of Ducal Prussia. The chief towns are Rostenne, seated on the river Dubissa, sixty miles south of Mittau; and Midnick, lying on the river Wernita, twenty miles north-west of Rostenne.

The duchy of Courland is bounded on the north by the river Dwina, which separates it from Livonia; on the east by Lithuania; on the south by Samogitia; and on the west by the Baltic; being about a hundred and thirty miles long, and thirty broad. This is usually reckoned a province of Poland, but the Courlanders elect their own princes, and are governed by their own laws. They are influenced however in their choice either by the Poles or Russians; and of late years chiefly by the

latter. The capital of the duchy, and the usual residence of the dukes of Courland, is Mittau, situate on the river Massa, upwards of thirty miles south of Riga. The town of Goldingen stands on the river Wetaw, about twenty miles south-east of the Baltic.

The province of Warsovia lies eastward of Great Poland, and south of Prussia. The chief town of this province, and the capital of the kingdom, is Warsaw, situate in 21 degrees 5 minutes of east longitude, and in 52 degrees 15 minutes of north latitude; on the river Vistula, a hundred and fifty miles north of Cracow, and a hundred and forty south of Dantzick. Though a place of little or no trade, it is a large populous city, ornamented with several magnificent royal palaces, and here the diet or states of the empire assemble. A plain adjoining to the city was hitherto the scene where the kings of Poland were elected. Czarkow, capital of a palatinate of the same name, is situate on the Vistula, about thirty miles south of Warsaw.

The province of Polachia is situate about the middle of Poland, between Warsovia and Lithuania. The chief town is Bielsk, the capital of a palatinate, near a hundred miles east of Warsaw.

The province of Polesia lies between Lithuania and Volhinia. The chief town is Brest or Brestsch, capital of a palatinate of the same name, situated on the river Bug, a hundred miles east of Warsaw.

The great duchy of Lithuania occupies the north-east division of the country, and is in extent near two hundred and fifty miles either way. It may in some respects be considered as an independent state in alliance with Poland; being governed by its own laws and magistrates, though united under one sovereign, who is the titular head of both nations. The capital of this duchy is Wilna, lying two hundred and twenty miles north-east of Warsaw. The other towns of note are Braslaw, Polocksko, Witstask, Trochi, Minsk, Meislaw, Novogradeck, Wilcomitz, and Grodno, at the latter of which the diet sometimes used to assemble.

The province of Little Poland has Hungary on the south, and Silesia and Moravia on the west. The chief town is Cracow, situate in a fine plain, near the banks of the Vistula, in 19 degrees 55 minutes east longitude, and in 50 degrees 10 minutes of north latitude, a hundred and fifty miles south of Warsaw. This is sometimes reckoned the capital of Poland; but it is at least the best built town in the kingdom. Here the supreme courts of justice are held, and the regalia are kept in the castle; it being the place where the kings were usually crowned, and buried. It is also the see of a bishop, and the seat of an university. In the same province lies Sandomir, capital of a palatinate, pleasantly situated at the confluence of the rivers Vistula and Sanus, seventy miles east of Cracow; and also Lublin, capital of a palatinate, a hundred and thirty miles north-east of Cracow. This is a town of considerable trade, whither foreign merchants resort in great numbers, at three fairs which are held every year.

The province of Red Russia lies eastward of the preceding, and is separated from Hungary on the south

by the Carpathian mountains. The chief towns are, Chelm, Belz, and Lemberg, or Leopold. This is the see of an archbishop, and enjoys a flourishing trade.

The province of Podolia is situate on the east of Red Ruffia, and is divided into the Upper and Lower, the latter of which lies south-east of the former. The capital of the province is Kamineck, seated on the river Smartzick, almost the only fortified town of Poland on the frontiers of Turkey.

The province of Volhinia is situated on the river Nieper, eastward of Little Poland, and is also distinguished into the Upper and Lower Volhinia. The chief town in the former is Lufuc, or Luckow, a place of great trade, and a bishop's see. The Lower Volhinia is inhabited by the Cossacs, who are most of them subject to Ruffia.

## C H A P. II.

*Of the produce—animals—trade—natives—dress—diet—diversions—way of travelling—language—religion—money—government—history.*

**P**OLAND being well watered by lakes and rivers, produces vast quantities of wheat, rye, and oats, which are annually exported to the southern countries of Europe. Nor is this kingdom less remarkable for its numerous herds of neat cattle, which the inhabitants sell to the people of Brandenburg, Pomerania, and the other contiguous territories. The froits of the country are the same with ours, and their grapes also will not make wine. Here is a fine breed of horses, fit either for riding or the draught; and the forests abound in deer, elks, hares, and other game. The wild beasts are bears, wolves, foxes, wild bulls, and wild asses; and in Volhinia, about the Nieper, there are wild sheep and horses. The waters of Poland abound in fish, and they have all sorts of wild fowl. Vast quantities of honey are produced by the bees in the forests. In the northern provinces, the partridges, hares, and some other animals, turn white in the winter, as they do in Sweden and Norway. The country also produces mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron; but the salt-pits are the most considerable, and some of them three or four hundred yards deep.

The exportations of Poland consist in grain, cattle, hemp, flax, linen, hops, hides, tallow, leather, furs, honey, wax, pot-ashes, pitch, tar, masts, yards, plants, salt, beer, vitriol, nitre, lead, iron, copper, glass, coals, earthen ware, and wool. The goods which they import are, woollen cloth, silks, tapestry, jewels, wines, spices, salted and dried fish, raisins, figs, sugars, and tin; the balance of trade being very much against them in most countries.

Neither the habits of the Polish nation, nor the laws of the country, are favourable to manufactures or commerce. No person who follows either of those employments is at liberty to purchase any landed estate, or to acquire any real property in the kingdom; and such is the pride of the nobility and the ecclesiastical order, that they hold those useful members of the com-

munity in the greatest contempt. On this account the manufactures here remain in an unimproved state, and all the inland commerce is carried on by Jews and foreigners, who take every opportunity of imposing upon the natives with whom they traffic.

The Poles are generally above the middle size, and inclined to corpulency. They have good features, with a healthy complexion, and hair for the most part of a light colour. This they wear short, and shave their beards, reserving only whiskers on their upper lip.

The habit of a gentleman is a vest, and over it a loose coat, lined with furs, and girt with a sash, the sleeves fitting close like those of a waistcoat. Under the vest they wear a shirt, which has neither collar nor wristbands. Their breeches are wide, and of a piece with their stockings. Instead of shoes they wear boots of Turkey leather. Their dress is not complete without a poll-ax, and a sabre or broad sword. The sabre hangs by a leather strap, with the handkerchief, knife, and a small stone set in silver, for the purpose of whetting the knife. When they go abroad they wear a short cloak, covered with furs on each side.

The old Polish dress of the women is not much unlike that of the other sex; but at present they generally follow the French mode.

The Poles are very profuse both in their dress and the furniture of their houses. Some of them think they are not well provided, if they have not forty suits of cloaths, and those exceeding rich.

Except in Dantzick, and the trading towns in the north, where the buildings are five or six stories high, the houses for the most part consist of no more than a ground floor; but some are built higher, and after the model of those in Italy. In gentlemen's houses in the country, the apartments are usually ranged in the form of a square. Opposite to the gate of the court stands the body of the house, on one side of which ranges the kitchen, with the offices belonging to it; and on the other, the stables, and lodgings for the men servants. The rooms are for the most part hung with tapestry, and all the furniture rich and elegant. In every house there are stoves, and in all great houses also bagnios, which are much used by the inhabitants. For the accommodation of the public, every town is supplied with a convenience of this kind.

The principal gentry have their horse and foot-guards, who do duty at their houses, and precede their coaches in the streets. When they appear at the diets, or assemblies of the states, some of them are attended by five hundred, and others by a thousand of those retainers. At their meals they are attended by bands of music, and their domestics serve them with the most profound respect. Having little relish for mutton, they usually eat beef or veal, with venison, river-fish, tame and wild fowl, and other game. Bacon and peas, with pig, are favourite dishes; and they are also fond of mushrooms. They season their meat high with spice, and use likewise a great deal of saffron. Their drink is mead and strong beer; and they have all sorts of liquors that are used in other countries of Europe.

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*Habit of a Woman of Wotiac in Siberia, in 1768.*

*from L'Abbe Chappe.*



*The Wotiac Men and Women are in General, a few inches more than four feet high; their head-dress is very remarkable, something like that of the English Ladies in 1773. They first wrap up their heads, says L'Abbe Chappe, with a towel, over which they fasten a kind of Helmet, made of the bark of a tree, covered with thread, &c. and fringed. The head-dress is a bare foot high.*

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As soon as the company sit down to table, the gate of the court is shut, and the several guests produce their own knives, forks, and spoons; those implements not being furnished by the family, on account of the servants and inferior people being much addicted to theft. For the same reason, a strict account is taken of the plate, after the entertainment is over.

Their diversions within doors are music and dancing; and without, hunting and riding. They generally travel on horseback, but sometimes in a chaise and pair; and will hardly walk the length of a street. There are not many inns to be met with on the road, but empty boarded houses, in which a traveller is accommodated with no other convenience than lodging, and clean straw. Those who travel in a chaise, in winter, place their feet in a box lined with furs, and horsemen have generally their boots supplied with the same means of warmth.

The Poles usually study their own language, and the Latin, with great application, but seldom any other. With the latter of those tongues even the women and the common people are acquainted. The better sort of the inhabitants of Poland are reputed an honest, generous people, and hospitable to strangers. Their ruling foible is the love of pomp and grandeur; to maintain which they too often exercise an oppressive authority over their vassals and inferiors.

The established religion of Poland is the Roman Catholic; but in the north, the subjects of the king of Prussia, with those of Dantzick and several other cities, are protestants; and in conjunction with such inhabitants of the country as follow the Greek church, are denominated Dissidents. The people of this class have been for many years cruelly persecuted by the catholic party, contrary to the faith of several treaties; but the same epoch which put a period to the ancient constitution of the Polish government, has terminated their religious disputes.

There are here two archbishopsricks, viz. Gnesna and Leopold. The incumbent of the former, who is always a cardinal, is primate of the kingdom; and during an inter-regnum, or in the king's absence, he is regent. The bishopsricks are those of Pofna, Wilna, Cracow, Culm, Karnoflaw, Window, Mednic, Plafko, Lesko, Calmenfee, Fauconburg, Premiflaw, and Camineck.

Poland abounds in Jews, said to be of the tribe of Benjamin. They are however in appearance extremely despicable, but by their acuteness and industry they have obtained an establishment, which it is for the advantage of the nation to support; as the trade which they carry on enables them to pay an interest of ten per cent. for large sums.

#### THE CURRENT MONEY.

3 Shillings, or 18 phenningen	1 Grosch
3 Grosch - - - -	1 Ditken
2 Ditkens - - - -	1 Sixer
3 Sixers - - - -	1 Tymph
7½ Grosch - - - -	1 Ach de halbers.
4 Ach de halbers - - - -	1 Gilder
3 Guilders - - - -	1 Current dollar

No. 20.

4 Guilders - - - -	1 Specie dollar
8 Guilders - - - -	1 Ducat

#### C O I N S.

	£.	s.	d.
The ducat of Poland - - - -	0	9	3
Old silver dollar of Dantzick - - - -	0	4	6
Old rix-dollar of Thorn - - - -	0	4	5
The rix-dollar of Sigismund III, and of Ulridiaus IV. kings of Poland } - - - -	0	4	6

Polish coin falls from one to two per cent. advance. The exchange is usually from 280 to 290 grosch per pound Flemish pennies. Koningburg draws in current money, one per mil. according to custom, being deducted. Accounts in Poland are kept in guilders, grosch, and phenningen.

Poland, before the late dismemberment of the kingdom, and the alteration in its government, was in reality an aggregate of confederated states. Every palatinate or county had the power of making provincial laws, which were however to be consistent with the general statutes of the republic. The government was divided into two branches, namely, the legislative and executive power; the former of which was lodged in the diet or assembly of the states, and the latter in the senate, of which the king was president. The senate consisted of the archbishops, bishops, palatines, castellans, and great officers of state; and the diet was composed of the senate and the deputies or representatives of every palatinate (county) and city. They usually met every two years, and oftener upon extraordinary occasions, if summoned by the king, or in his absence, by the primate, the archbishop of Gnesna. The longest term of a session was six weeks, and the assembly often broke up in a tumult in a much shorter time. For one dissenting voice prevented their passing any law, or coming to any resolution on what was proposed to them from the throne. The regal power was contracted within very narrow limits. By the *pacta conventa*, or the instrument which the king signed at his accession, he engaged not to introduce any forces within the bounds of the republic, and to prefer no person to any civil office, except a native of the province in which the department existed. Though he appointed the officers of state, they were only accountable to the republic. To displace any officer he had no legal authority, and the public treasure he was not permitted to touch. He could not make war or peace, nor marry, without the consent of the states; and neither king nor queen could profess any other religion than that of the catholic church.

The king was usually elected in the plain adjoining to Warsaw, by the clergy and men of landed property in the several provinces, who assembled in armour on horseback. The choice was not held to be valid unless they were unanimous; and when they happened to be divided, as was frequently the case, the majority drew their sabres, and compelled the other party to submit. But though this expedient suppressed any opposition for the present, the tranquillity of the nation remained always precarious, and seldom proved of long duration.

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among a turbulent aristocracy, whose natural haughtiness incited revolt against the constrained acknowledgement of an unpopular sovereign, and whose numbers were such that they could hardly be conciliated by the utmost influence of the crown.

No fixed revenue was established in Poland for the support of the government, but supplies were occasionally granted by the diets, according to the exigence of the state. The fund allotted for the maintenance of the royal household arose formerly from certain lands vested in the crown, from the produce of the salt-works, and from the different custom-houses in the kingdom, the whole of which never exceeded two hundred thousand pounds a year, and sometimes did not amount to the half of that sum. Since the kingdom has been divided, the salt-works and some of the crown lands have been seized by the empress-queen of Hungary, the produce of part of the custom-houses by the king of Prussia, and another part of the crown-lands, with part of the customs of Mohilow by the empress of Russia.

Before the partition of Poland, the army of the republic usually consisted of thirty-six thousand men, who were divided into two corps, independent of each other. The Polish corps was fixed at twenty-four thousand men, and that of Lithuania at twelve thousand, of which two thirds were cavalry. Those troops were respectively commanded by two generals, who were vested with absolute authority over the men, and though always nominated by the crown, were accountable for their operations to the republic only.

The furniture of the Polish cavalry is extremely magnificent, but the infantry is badly armed, as well as ill clothed, and often without uniforms. Neither the horse nor the foot is remarkable for discipline: they commonly make a furious onset, but if they be repulsed they retreat with great precipitation, and will never return to the charge.

The greater part of Poland is now divided between the empress-queen of Hungary, the king of Prussia, and the empress of Russia. The first of those powers has taken possession of almost all the south-eastern parts of the kingdom, and the rich salt-works of the crown; the second has occupied Polish Prussia, with some districts bordering upon Brandenburg; and the third has assumed a large district of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper. Since this division has taken place, there is not any regular form of government in Poland; those three great powers directing every thing according to their pleasure, while the king, the senate, and the diet, are at present only the instruments of their administra-

tion. Hardly, however, can the despotism of any of those sovereigns prove more intolerable to the people than the former oppression of the aristocracy, which exercised its dominion with a degree of rigour repugnant to every principle of civil liberty.

The Poles, like the other northern nations, were anciently a tribe of Scythians, who led an itinerant life, till Lechus, the first of their sovereigns mentioned in history, taught them to establish a permanent residence. Under the direction of this prince, who assumed the title of duke, they built the city of Gnesna about the year 550. Lechus is said to have been succeeded by his posterity for a hundred and fifty years, when the family becoming extinct, the government was divided between twelve palatines, or vaivods, who were sovereigns of their respective provinces, and independent of each other. About the year 700, one Cracus, either by force or intrigue, became sovereign of the whole, and built the city of Cracow, which he called after his own name. He left two sons, Cracus and Lechus, with a daughter named Venda, Lechus murdering his elder brother, was excluded from the succession by the people, who advanced Venda to the throne; but this family becoming likewise extinct, the country again adopted the government of the twelve vaivods, who in the year 760 elected Lescus their sovereign, with the title of duke, as formerly. In the year 999, Boleslaus Croby first assumed the title of king. About this time Christianity appears to have been first established in Poland. The monarchy was absolute until the reign of Lewis, in 1370, when the prerogative was greatly restricted; but the lineal succession to the crown suffered no alteration. A few years afterwards the representatives of the several palatinates or provinces were first summoned to sit in the assembly of the states; the great officers of the crown and the dignified clergy only having hitherto enjoyed this privilege. But so important an extension of the legislative authority, though it served to diffuse a more equal share of power among the aristocratical part of the nation, proved the means of frequently impeding the operations of government; and whilst it farther diminished the influence of the crown, which had already been abridged of all its most formidable prerogatives, it added nothing to the general happiness or freedom of the people. Henceforward turbulence and dissension took place of regularity and concord; and the succession being contested at the demise of almost every king, there ensued a scene of universal anarchy and civil war, which often never totally subsided during the whole succeeding reign.

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## R U S S I A.

## C H A P. I.

*Of the situation—air—seas—lakes—rivers—provinces  
—chief towns.*

**T**HE empire of Russia, sometimes called Muscovy, including its European and Asiatic dominions, extends from 24 to 130 degrees of east longitude, and between 45 and 72 degrees of north latitude. But its territories in Europe, with which alone we are now engaged, stretch from 24 to 65 degrees of eastern longitude, being about fifteen hundred miles long, and near as much in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean, on the east by Siberia, on the south by Turkey, and on the west by Poland, the Baltic Sea, and the territories of Sweden. As this country lies under so many degrees of north latitude, the temperature of the air is very different in different parts of the empire, and towards the north is exceedingly cold. At the winter solstice the sun is six weeks or two months below the horizon, and in summer above it an equal time. At Petersburg, the navigation of the Nieva seldom opens before the end of April, and it is sometimes the first of June before the fields have acquired a verdure; but after this season the weather is frequently very hot for upwards of two months. On this account, and the earth being fertilized by the great quantity of nitre contained in the snow, vegetation proceeds extremely fast.

The seas of Russia are, the Frozen Ocean, the sea of Weygats or Nova Zembla, the White Sea, the Baltic, and the Gulph of Finland. It is observable of the Baltic Sea, that a current always sets out of it, through the Sound into the ocean; for which reason, and the numerous rivers that fall into it, its waters are not so salt as other seas. There are no tides in it, and it is often frozen three or four months in the winter.

Here also are several lakes of considerable extent, viz. Ladoga, Onega, the White Lake, the Ilmen Lake, and those of Wursero and Pepus. By means of those lakes, joined to the flatness of the country, and the large rivers, as well as canals, with which it is plentifully supplied, a free navigation is maintained in the summer almost through the whole empire.

The chief rivers are, 1. The Tobol, which rising in Bulgar, runs northward, and uniting with the Irtis and Oby, falls into the Frozen Ocean; forming the eastern boundary of European Russia. 2. Mangasia. 3. Petzora. 4. Upper Dwina. Those three rivers run from south to north, and fall into the northern seas. 5. The Wolga, which rises in Belozero, and running south-east through European Russia, receives

the rivers Mologo, Mosco, Kisma, Ocka, and Kamar.

Continuing its course in the same direction, it runs through Asiatic Russia, and discharges itself by several channels into the Caspian Sea, seventy miles below Astracan. This river, which flows through a tract of three thousand miles, is of great use to the Russians, not only in point of trade, but as it has enabled them to reduce under their government several tribes of Tartars, who inhabit its banks towards the East. The vast number of waters which the Wolga receives in its course, and the torrents that descend from the hills at certain seasons, occasion it to rise considerably.

The commencement of the inundation is usually about the end of March, when the snow begins to melt. It continues to increase during April and May, and does not subside till the end of June. It is raised again in September by the autumnal rains; but this is neither so constant nor considerable as the flood in the spring. The height of the inundation varies at different places.

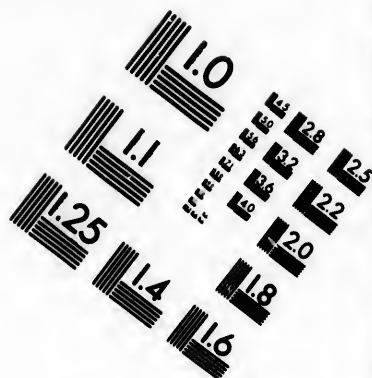
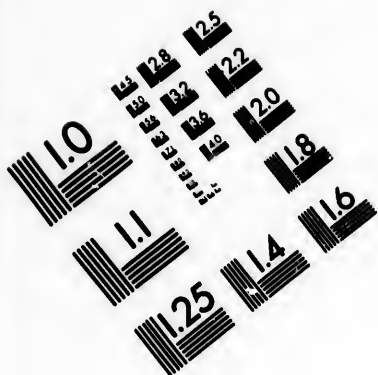
At Astracan it seldom rises above seven or eight foot, unless its discharge into the Caspian should be obstructed by south winds. At Zaritzen, which is four hundred wersts higher, it rises twenty foot, and at Casan twelve hundred and fifty wersts; but farther up the stream, the rise is yet more considerable. The banks and sands are altered almost every year by the force of the current, and the navigation is very difficult for vessels drawing more than five foot water, except in the time of the flood, when the largest flat-bottomed vessels have sufficient water. At those times vessels may be seen on the river carrying six hundred tons, and in some seasons there are barks of greater burden. Prodigious quantities of fish are taken in this river, which are sent either salted or frozen to the most distant parts of the empire. Here is also a great trade in caviar (the roes of sturgeons) so much esteemed in all the countries of Europe. 6. The river Don or Tanais, which rises in the middle of Russia, and having received the Woronetz, runs south-east to Kamisinka, where turning south-west, it falls into the Palus Mæotis, or sea of Asoph.

7. The Nieper, or Boristhenes, rises in the province of Moscow, and running south-west through part of Poland, afterwards changes its course to the south-east, in which direction again entering Poland, and passing by Kiof, it proceeds through the Ukrain, and falls into the Euxine Sea at Oczakow. 8. The Lower Dwina rises in the province of Moscow, and running west through Poland, falls into the Baltic below Ripa, by a canal which Peter the Great made between the river Woronte and the Wolga.

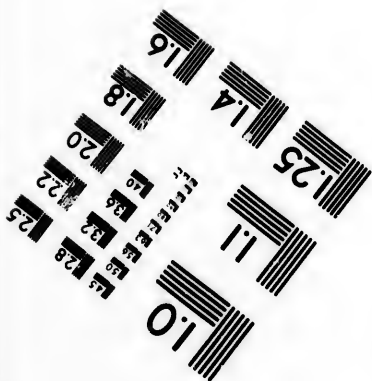
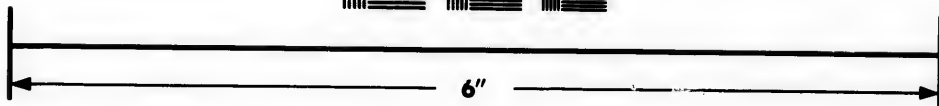
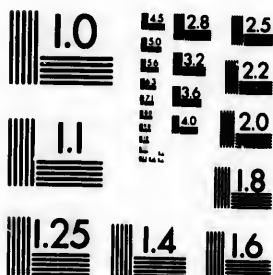
Russia contains thirty-one provinces, viz. in the north, Lapland, Samoieda, Bella Morenskoï, Mescen, Dwina, Syrianes, Perma, Robininkî: in the middle, Rezan, Belozera, Wologda, Jereftaf, Tweer, Mosco, Belgorod: on the east, Bulgar, Cassan, Czremiff,

Little





**IMAGE EVALUATION  
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Little Novogrod, the territory of the Cossacs on the river Don; on the west, Great Novogrod, Russian Finland, Kexholm, Carelia, Ingria, Livonia, Smolensko, Zerniugof, Seefsk, and the Ukrain, or country of the Old Cossacs on the Nieper.

Petersburg, or St. Petersburg, the capital of the Russian empire, is situate in 30 degrees 23 minutes of east longitude, and in 59 degrees 57 minutes of north latitude. It stands on an island in the middle of the river Nieva, in the provinces of Carelia and Ingria, between the gulph of Finland and the lake Ladoga, occupying at present a prodigious extent of ground; but as the houses in many parts are not contiguous, and great spaces are left unbuild, it is hard to ascertain its real magnitude. It extends about six miles every way, and, being situated on a flat, is greatly exposed to inundations. When this city was founded, in the year 1703, the houses were generally built of timber but since the Russians have become acquainted with the manufacture of bricks, it makes a far more noble appearance. Canals run through several of the streets, which are here and there adorned with the palaces of the sovereign, and some of the principal nobility. The river Nieva at Petersburg is about half a mile in breadth, and is very deep and rapid; but the sands at the mouth of it preventing ships from coming up, they are obliged to take in their lading four or five miles lower. The Thames, however, is not comparable to this noble river in beauty; and as the stream sets constantly out of the lake of Ladoga into the gulph of Finland, it is always full, clear, and perfectly clean. The walk along its banks is one of the finest in the world: it consists of a parade running a mile in length, the buildings of which are hardly to be exceeded in elegance. There are at Petersburg, besides other public buildings, twenty Russian churches, and four Lutheran, exclusive of the Calvinists, Dutch, English, and Catholics, all religions being tolerated. The inhabitants are computed at about a hundred thousand, a number not inferior to which is said to have perished by the various hardships sustained in the building of this metropolis. The palace of Peterhoff, at which the present empress mostly resides, is a magnificent structure. It stands on an eminence in the midst of extensive gardens, which lie along the shore of the gulph of Finland, and are washed by its waters. It was begun by Peter I. but has received many additions and improvements from his successors, and is now become very large. In the front is a canal some hundred yards in length, that joins the gulph, and whence three jets d'eau are supplied, which do not, like those of Versailles, play only on great festivals, but constantly throughout the year. The apartments of the palace are very splendid, and adorned with valuable paintings.

The country round Petersburg is a barren morass, where the inhabitants could hardly subsist if they were not supplied with provisions from Novogrod, Pleskow, and Casan; the last of which is distant about a thousand miles from the capital. Innumerable sledges, however, are employed in the winter in carrying hither from those fertile provinces all the necessaries of life; and in

summer the produce is transported by vessels, to which the multitude of rivers and canals almost every where afford convenient access.

About eleven or twelve miles below Petersburg, lies the island of Retusari, where the czar Peter observing a commodious harbour, built a town and fortress for its defence, to which he gave the name of Cronslot or Crown-Castle; as both the town and island are now called. This he proposed to make the station for the royal navy before he was master of Revel and Riga. Here are still his principal magazines of naval stores, and the greatest dock-yard in the empire. This island is about fifteen miles round, and opposite to it, on the shore of the gulph of Finland, are the seats of many of the nobility, which make a fine appearance; the land rising gradually to the height of sixty or seventy foot all the way from Cronslot to the capital.

Moscow, capital of the province of that name, and lately of the whole empire, is situate in 39 degrees of east longitude, and in 55 degrees 45 minutes of north latitude, on the river Moscovia, five hundred miles south-east of Petersburg. It stands in a fine plain, and is about six miles in length, and four in breadth. Some years ago this city suffered greatly by fire, to which the numerous timber buildings render it extremely liable. The very streets of the town are laid with square beams of fir, instead of pavement; and in place of walls, the houses of the great men had timber enclosures. Before the conflagration there are said to have been in this city upwards of a thousand churches. Here are still several palaces, but not comparable to those about Petersburg. One however is remarkable for its thirty chapels, and its hanging gardens. The river Moscovia running through the city in a winding course, and having several groves and gardens on its banks, affords a pleasant prospect; but the many vacant spaces where houses once stood, present at the same time a striking picture of the desolation which the fires have occasioned. That which happened in the year 1752 destroyed thirteen thousand houses, which is not half the number that have been burnt within the present age. Since those calamities, wooden houses are permitted to be built only in the remote streets; an order having been issued for rebuilding the rest with brick and stone. As this city stands in the middle of European Russia, in an healthful air, and was formerly the capital of the empire, many of the nobility who are not obliged to attend the court, reside here; as well as the principal manufacturers and merchants. For the ancient Russian families look with contempt upon Petersburg, as being a modern town, inhabited by a mixture of people of different nations, and of mean extraction.

Archangel, the capital of the province of Dwina, is situate in 40 degrees 22 minutes of east longitude, and in 64 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude. It stands about four hundred miles north-east of Petersburg, on the Upper Dwina, which discharges itself into the White Sea five or six miles below the town. The trade of this place has greatly suffered since the building of Petersburg, but it is still a considerable town.

town. Timber and naval stores being here in great plenty, and labour likewise being cheap, many of the Russian ships of war are fitted out at this port. Great quantities of fresh meat, fish, and wild fowl, are sent from this place to Petersburg, with which in winter the sledges will travel in two days. The inhabitants of Archangel have plenty of good liquor, as well as food of all sorts.

Riga, the capital of Livonia, is situate in 24 degrees 25 minutes of east longitude, and 57 degrees of north latitude, not far from the mouth of the Lower Dwina, near four hundred miles south-west of Petersburg. Two miles below the town, at the mouth of the Dwina, stands Dunamunder fort, which commands the entrance of the river. Mr. Hanway, who was here in the middle of May, observed that the weather was then as hot as in Portugal.

The Lower Dwina is generally frozen by the end of November, and not open again till the middle of March. When the ice breaks, it floats to the sea in masses of so vast a weight, as to bear down every thing before it; on which account there is no bridge over the river, but they pass it on a raft or float of timber. Three hundred vessels may lie conveniently, and take in their lading, in nine foot water; but larger ships take in their goods at a little distance, where they have seven fathom water. The merchandize at this port consists of hemp, flax, masts, and timber. Of hemp they export annually about six thousand tons, which is brought down the river: the flax comes from Lithuania, and the timber from the south of Poland; great part of which is fit for masts.

The streets at Riga are very narrow, and the houses seldom built above two stories high, with the roofs very steep, to carry off the water at the melting of the snow.

Dorpt is another city of Livonia, on the road from Riga to Narva, about fifteen miles south of the lake Piebus. It stands in a plain on the river Embeck, and on the side next Riga makes a very beautiful appearance. The trade consists chiefly in corn and flax, of which great quantities are sent to Riga.

Narva is a port-town, situate in 28 degrees 35 minutes east longitude, and in 59 degrees of north latitude. It stands on a river of the same name, about a hundred miles south-west of Petersburg. It trades chiefly in flax and timber. Of the former they export about four thousand tons to England and other countries. The Dutch purchase most part of their timber, and the British some of the largest. They import of tobacco about fifteen thousand pound weight, and of salt above a hundred tons. There not being here a depth of water for ships above a hundred and fifty tons, larger vessels are obliged to lie in an open road.

Revel is situate in 25 degrees 7 minutes of east longitude, and in 59 degrees 23 minutes of north latitude; at the entrance of the gulph of Finland, a hundred and forty miles north of Riga, and a hundred and ten west of Narva. One part of the town stands on the side of a hill, and the other in a fine plain. It has at present no great trade, but the cathedral and the houses of the nobility are elegant buildings.

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Novogorod, the capital of the province of Great Novogorod, lies in 34 degrees of east longitude, and in 59 degrees of north latitude, on the river Wolcass, a little north of the lake Ilmen. It is the see of an archbishop, and contains near two hundred churches and monasteries; and here is one of the best manufactories of Russia leather. The province of Novogorod being one of the most plentiful in Russia, abounding in corn, flax, hemp, wax, honey, and all kinds of provisions, supplies Petersburg with them by the river Wolcass, and the lakes to the northward.

Pleskow, capital of the duchy of the same name, lies in 28 degrees 45 minutes of east longitude, and in 57 degrees 34 minutes of north latitude, on the river Muldow; a hundred and thirty miles east of Riga. It is a large populous city, and well situated for trade.

Wologda, capital of the province of that name, is situate in 41 degrees 50 minutes east longitude, and in 59 degrees 10 minutes of north latitude, on a cognominal river, which a little below falls into the Upper Dwina. This city, which is also very populous, lies on both sides of the river, extending four miles along its banks, and contains about eighty churches; one half of which are built of stone, with cupolas over them, covered with tin; the rest are of wood.

Tweer, the capital of the province of the same name, is situated on a cognominal river a hundred miles north of Moscow. This river has not generally two foot depth of water, but on the melting of the snow in April and May, it rises to eleven foot; at which time large flat-bottomed vessels usually pass to and from Astracan, when great numbers of merchants resort hither, who trade with the towns on the banks of the Wolga. The merchandize consists mostly in corn, meal, grocery, rock-salt, caviar, and fish.

Smolensko, capital of the province of the same name, stands on the river Nieper, about two hundred miles west of Moscow. This province was anciently reckoned a part of Poland, but being taken by the Russians, was confirmed to that empire, by treaty, in 1686.

Casan is situate in 53 degrees 25 minutes of east longitude, and in 55 degrees 38 minutes of north latitude, at the confluence of the rivers Wolga and Casan, about three hundred and fifty miles east of Moscow. This was once the metropolis of a powerful kingdom, to which Russia was tributary, and is still the capital of the province of its name. The caravans of this city trade as far as China by land, whence they bring tea, gold-dust, and rich silks. They also trade with Persia by water, down the Wolga and the Caspian Sea, and have a considerable trade with Petersburg. The timber used for the Russian navy is cut in this province; the conveyance of which to Petersburg, by water, usually takes up two summers. Next to Moscow and Petersburg, this is the greatest magazine in Russia for all kinds of merchandize. The inhabitants had formerly a considerable trade to Bucharra, Khieva, and other parts of Ubec Tartary; but this commerce has been disused some time, on account of

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the depredations committed on the caravans by the tribes of Tartars, through whom they were obliged to pass.

On both sides of the river Don, towards its mouth, as far as the Palus Mæotis, is the country of the Don Cossacks, the chief town of which is Adar, situate on the river Donetz; about two hundred miles south of Woronez. There are few towns in this country, the Cossacks living in slight huts or tents, which they remove occasionally as the necessities of their cattle require.

The Old Cossacks live in the Ukraïn, towards the mouth of the river Nieper, or Boristhenes. Their chief town is Kiof or Kiow, seated on the Nieper, in 31 degrees of east longitude, and in 51 degrees of north latitude. It stands in the most agreeable climate and fruitful soil in Russia, which has induced the court of Petersburg to reside here sometimes, though it lies upwards of five hundred miles north of Moscow.

Besides the cities that have been mentioned, there are many other considerable towns in this extensive empire, viz. Rostof, Perislaw, Sufdal, Wolodimir, Troitzta, Columnia, Wyburg, Parna, Stiria, Belosero, &c. But in Samoiéda, and some other of the northern provinces, we hardly meet with any towns, or even inhabitants, except the Laplanders, who live great part of the year in caves under the snow.

So much of this extensive empire is covered with wood, that perhaps not a twentieth part of it has yet been cultivated. It is extremely well watered with large navigable rivers; and if there were a communication between them, which might easily be effected, this country would be admirably adapted for internal commerce. The Dnieper and the Don, or Tanais, are navigable between two and three hundred leagues; the Wolga about twice that extent; the Dwina two hundred leagues; and the Irtysh and Oby also near twice as much. Peter the Great formed the vast project of making a communication by water from Petersburg to the Caspian Sea; and it is said that the present empress is about to carry it into execution.

The territories which compose the Russian empire, from Finland to the borders of China, have been united at different times. The first inhabitants of this country were Scythians, Scelavonians, Celts, and Huns, to whom may be added Cossacks, Calmucks, and various hords of Tartars.

## C H A P. II.

*Of the products—natives—dress—character—food—bathing—diversion—method of travelling—revenue—forces—trade—coin—religion—nobility—constitution—history.*

THE snow which Russia is annually covered in the winter, fertilizes the ground in so great a degree, that it yields large crops without the trouble and expence of manure. The seed-time for rye, in the middle of Russia, is before the winter begins, but for wheat or other grain, in April or May, after the

snow is melted; and the harvest for both is in August. The snow has no sooner disappeared than warm weather succeeds in the southern provinces, when tulips, lilies, roses, and a great variety of fine flowers and herbs, spring up without culture; and the best asparagus grows so thick that it may be mowed. The grass in the meadows is as high as a horse's belly; and all kinds of fruit abound, without the assistance of the gardener. Notwithstanding the natural luxuriance of those provinces, they are so much infested by the depredations of the Coban Tartars, that they are very thinly inhabited.

In the southern parts of the empire there is plenty of oak, elm, and other good timber, but towards the north scarce any other trees than fir or birch. European Russia affords no vineyards, but produces the same kinds of fruit-trees as the climate of Britain. They have also the same kinds of cattle, and in some places, camels and buffaloes. Their horses are not so large as in Germany, but very hardy, and able to endure great fatigue. They have no hounds; nor, if they had any, is the country proper for hunting by the scent in the winter, on account of the snow. With respect to wild beasts, Russia abounds in wolves, bears, foxes, elks, and rein-deer. In some of the deserts there are wild hurses and wild sheep. Here are also martins, fables, ermins, and white hares. Some bears are likewise of this colour, and some of the foxes black; but more of them are white, though the latter assume the common brown colour as the summer advances. The wild beasts here are said not to be so mischievous as in other countries. It is not unusual for many Russians to make their fortunes by bees, which are here in remarkable plenty. The method is to cut down a great number of trees in the forests, which they afterwards bore hollow, and stop up the apertures, so that nothing larger than a bee can find admittance. Here the bees enter, and make their combs, which become the property of those who have bestowed their labour towards the obtaining of this produce.

Few serpents or scorpions are found in Russia, but in summer it abounds with insects, particularly flies and gnats, which are exceeding troublesome. The rivers and lakes abound with excellent fish; and both tame and wild fowls are in great plenty. Many of the birds which visit us annually are natives of the northern provinces of Russia; and in those during winter, the partridges become white. Here are great varieties of hawks and birds of prey; but few singing birds were ever seen about Petersburg before the reign of Peter the Great, who caused some thousands of them to be purchased in the southern provinces, and let fly in the latitude of the capital; since which time it is said they have greatly multiplied, notwithstanding the severity of the climate. The country likewise abounds in mines of copper, silver, and iron, especially in Siberia.

Amidst so great a variety of people as are contained in this extensive dominion, the persons of the natives differ much from each other in the opposite extremities of the empire. The Laplanders and Samoiéds, in the north, are of low stature, with flat faces, small eyes, and



and a tawny hue; while the natives in the southern provinces are of a moderate stature, endowed not only with agreeable features, but with clear and lively complexions.

The usual dress of the common people, both men and women, is a long coat made of sheep-skins, with the wool inwards, and tied about the loins with a sash. Their feet and legs they swaddle up in coarse cloth; and they wear caps lined with furs, which come so far down as to cover the neck. They also wear double gloves, one pair of woollen and another of leather, which have no divisions for the fingers, but only a place for the thumb. The dress of the people of condition, except a great coat lined with fur, is according to the mode of the western countries of Europe, since the time of Peter the Great, who introduced this alteration, and also prohibited his subjects from wearing long beards, which had formerly been the general practice. With respect to the Laplanders and Samoieds, they clothe themselves with skins and furs from head to foot, and usually sew two skins together, with the furs on each side.

Till the accession of the czar Peter, the Russians were chiefly distinguished for indolence and drunkenness. An ambassador was obliged to swallow a pint of their country spirits drawn from the rye, before he was allowed to address the emperor; and merchants expected the same from foreigners before they would enter upon business. Since that period, however, the national character has undergone a considerable alteration. Arts and manufactures have been introduced amongst them; and the habits which were the concomitants of sloth and ignorance, have gradually yielded to the progress of civilization and industry; though intemperance in drinking may yet be considered as a prevalent vice among the people. The excessive abuse of intoxicating liquors, which prevailed so much in Russia before the beginning of the present century, rendered the natives not only averse to every useful occupation, but almost totally unsusceptible of social amusement. They are, however, for the most part hardy, and patient of labour in a great degree.

Animal food of all kinds is here in great plenty; besides which the people make great use of melons, cucumbers, onions, and garlick, and they pickle vast quantities of mushrooms to serve in the time of their long fasts.

The practice of bathing is so common in Russia, that accommodations for this purpose are established in every town of any note. Among the people of inferior condition, both sexes use them promiscuously; and it is the general custom to plunge into the cold bath immediately after coming out of the warm.

Among the winter diversions in Russia, one which seems to be peculiar to the nation, is that of sliding down a hill. They make a track on the side of a steep hill, down which they descend with astonishing velocity, in a machine resembling a butcher's tray. The Russians are so fond of this diversion, that at Petersburg, having no hills, they raise artificial mounts on the ice on the river Nieva, whither the people of

all ages and ranks resort in great numbers for the sake of sliding. The late empress Elizabeth, who was much addicted to this diversion, had a theatre erected for the purpose. It consisted of five mounts of unequal height. The first and highest is thirty foot perpendicular altitude. The momentum acquired in descending this, carries a person over the second, which is about five or six foot lower, and so to the last, when the slider is conveyed by a gentle descent, with nearly the same velocity, over a piece of water into a little island. Those slides, which are about a furlong and a half in length, are made of wood, that they may be used in summer as well as in winter. In traversing them, two or four persons usually sit in a little carriage, and one stands behind; for, according to the weight, the velocity of the motion is proportionably greater. The carriage runs on castors, and in grooves, to keep it in a right direction, and it descends with prodigious rapidity. At the bottom is a machine worked by horses, for drawing the carriages back again, with the company in them.

The method of travelling here in sledges during frosty weather is very expeditious. When the empress makes an excursion in this way from Petersburg to Moscow, which is distant about four hundred and ninety miles, she usually performs the journey in the space of three days and three nights. Her voiture on those occasions is a machine which contains a bed, a table, and other conveniences; where four persons may lodge, and be furnished with all necessary accommodations. This machine is set on a sledge, drawn by twenty-four post horses, which are relieved at regular stages; and to illuminate the road, great piles of wood are placed at certain distances, to be set on fire, if she happens to pass in the night.

When Peter the Great ascended the throne, the whole revenue of the Russian empire did not amount to six millions of roubles; but before the death of that prince, the public revenues, including the tribute of the Tartars which was paid in money, independently of all those taxes that were levied in kind, were increased to near fifteen millions of roubles. In the year 1767, after the present empress had annexed the church-lands to the domains of the crown, the public revenues amounted to twenty-five millions of roubles; and in 1770, after some additional taxes had been imposed, they amounted to full twenty-eight millions, clear of all incumbrances.

This rapid increase of the revenue was owing not to any improvements made in the agriculture or manufactures of the empire, but to the gaining so many ports for foreign trade in the Baltic Sea. A great balance of trade in favour of Russia, has brought a considerable sum of money to circulate in the empire, which enables the inhabitants to pay a great tax upon all kinds of foreign merchandize that is imported. The custom-houses of Petersburg, Riga, Narva, and Revel, produce an immense revenue. Some years past it amounted to above eight millions of roubles; and the mines of gold and silver in Siberia have been worked by the crown to a very great advantage.

A considerable part of the revenue of the empire arises from a capitation-tax, with the monopoly of salt, shubarb, and pot-ash; so that, the whole included, the imperial treasury is more than sufficient to answer all the public charges of the state.

In the beginning of the reign of Peter the First, the maritime force of Russia consisted only of a few row-gallies, but at present the empress has at least sixty ships of the line, and between thirty and forty frigates. Besides those, there are about a hundred and fifty row-gallies, which are useful in many parts of the Baltic, where it would be dangerous for any large ships to enter. These gallies generally carry two pieces of cannon, and from fifty to a hundred men, who attack with small arms. The Russians have likewise a naval force in the Black and Caspian seas, which is composed of a number of small frigates, sloops of war, and row-gallies.

The regular troops at present in the service of Russia, exclusive of the Cossacks and Tartars, are full three hundred and fifty thousand men. So great, however, is the extent of their territories, and such the number of fortresses which they have to support from Peterburg to the borders of China, that it is with difficulty they can bring into the field a hundred and fifty thousand men.

The common Russian soldiers, from a principle of superstition, are taught to despise life, and are therefore extremely bold in an engagement; but their intrepidity is rendered in a great measure ineffectual through the ignorance of the commanding officers, who are for the most part men of very little experience in their profession. Those are generally chosen, not by their merit, but in consequence of their family connections, out of the officers of the Russian guards, a body of troops which at present amounts to about ten thousand men, over whom their influence is so great, as to render them formidable even to the sovereign.

There is a great number of fortified places in the Russian empire, many of which are very strong, particularly those in the provinces conquered from the Swedes by Peter the First. They have a chain of forts passing through Siberia and Great Tartary, as far as the frontiers of China. There are also many strong fortresses in the kingdoms of Casan and Astracan, as well as in the Ukraine, and upon the frontiers of the Turkish dominions.

The Russian dominions are at present nearly as extensive as all the other European states; yet, according to a just calculation, they do not contain much above eighteen millions of people, there being very extensive tracts of land, even in the most fertile and populous provinces, which remain uncultivated and full of woods. In the kingdoms of Casan and Astracan there are whole provinces that have only inhabitants sufficient to conduct the cattle and the sheep to their pasture; and the Ukraine alone might support two millions of inhabitants by the produce of agriculture, more than at present are able to subsist in the country. This unprosperous state of the empire is owing to the

despotism of the government, which is particularly oppressive to the peasants, who besides being loaded with a heavy capitation-tax, are obliged to furnish recruits for the army and navy; and are also, under the sanction of the legislature, most cruelly treated by the proprietors of the siefs.

Notwithstanding those disadvantages, the trade of Russia, both interior and foreign, is now become very considerable, though its aggrandizement be greatly counteracted by the slavery of the people, and some injudicious regulations. Exchange, which is the means of transporting money from one country to another, and without which the best established commerce cannot be supported, is prohibited by the laws of Russia, under very severe penalties; and no person can quit the empire without a passport. Russia, however, being able to furnish iron, hemp, flax, with most of the materials for ship-building, and almost all the natural productions of the North, will continue to have some balance of trade in her favour with the maritime powers, particularly England and Holland.

The staple manufactures of the country are linens and leather, to which may be added hard-ware, which has of late been greatly cultivated. They also cast great guns, mortars, bombs, and anchors, and make vast quantities of small arms.

The coins of Russia are, the silver rouble, valued at four shillings and six pence, and the half and quarter rouble, with the cossick or yenny. The charvonitz, usually called a ducat by foreigners, is a gold coin of the value of nine shillings and six pence.

The religion of the Russians is that of the Greek church. They had a patriarch at Moscow, until Peter I. laid him aside, and seizing on the lands and revenues of the patriarchate, declared himself apostolical head of the empire. They still however have five metropolitan districts, fourteen archbishopsricks, and six bishopsricks, all well endowed. The secular priests have neither glebe nor tithes, but depend upon the perquisites which arise from their office, and seldom preach but in Lent. They deny the pope's supremacy, and abhor the worship of images; but have in their churches many pictures of saints, to which as mediators they often address their prayers. They have four Lents, which take up near half the year, and they observe their fasts with great strictness. There are many monasteries and nunneries, but by a regulation of Peter I. no woman is permitted to take the vow until she be fifty years of age, nor admitted till then into a cloyster. The priests are allowed to marry, but not the bishops. The doctrine of transubstantiation prevails in the Greek church; and they believe that the Holy Ghost does not proceed from the Son.

The ancient nobility of Russia were styled knez or knazey, boyars and vaivods. The first were dukes or sovereign princes, on the subjection of whom the duke of Russia distinguished himself by the title of Great Duke. The boyars were the nobility of the several duchies, and the vaivods were governors of

provinces. The honours of knez or boyars are at present seldom conferred on any subject; having given place to the more modern titles of princes, counts, and margraves, as in Germany. The estates of those proprietors are divided equally among their sons, the younger enjoying the same title as their elder brother.

Every master may punish his servant with the batogs or knoute, in the inflicting which punishment the offender is stretched on the ground naked, and beaten with sticks by two fellows till he is almost ready to expire. Even officers of rank in the state are sometimes thus punished by their superiors.

The parental authority is greater in this empire than in any other part of Europe. A father has an absolute power over his children; and neither age nor sex can exempt a son or daughter from obedience to his jurisdiction. This right they found upon the principle that parents have nothing but the happiness of their children in view, and consequently that they ought not to be accountable to any person for their conduct towards them.

The right of husbands over their wives is here also unlimited. The husband is the proprietor of his wife, and considers her as part of his goods, which he may dispose of as he pleases. In the northern and eastern parts of the empire, the wives of the common people reckon it a singular honour to be beaten by their husbands.

The power which the proprietors of fiefs have usurped over their slaves is almost absolute. Formerly a master might have killed his slave without any reserve; but this practice is now prohibited, though the master may yet, with impunity, beat him in so terrible a manner that he shall die of the bruises or wounds.

The ordinary charge of law-suits is very moderate in Russia, but the judges are extremely corrupt, and the lawyers in general remarkably ignorant in their profession.

There are in Russia four universities, viz. those of Moscow, Kiow, Chernikow, and Harkow; with two academies, one at Moscow, and the other at Petersburg. Every day the progress of learning becomes here more perceptible; and the fine arts as well as the sciences begin to be successfully cultivated under the patronage of the empress.

The government of Russia pays particular attention to those salutary regulations which concern the health of the people. Every surgeon is obliged in difficult cases to call for the advice of some regular physician or senior surgeon, whether the case be internal, or purely surgical; nor dare a surgeon perform any operation without previously having had the advice or concurrence of such, if possible to be got. If the patient should die, or be treated unsuccessfully where this precaution has been neglected, the surgeon would not escape punishment. The same obligation of calling assistance, when it can be procured, extends to the body of physicians. At every eminent apothecary's shop, a good surgeon is

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appointed, with a sufficient salary, to attend daily two hours, forenoon and afternoon, to give advice to the poor; and if such are not able to pay for the medicines, they are furnished by the apothecary at the expence of the empress. If any person, not having a licence from the medicine chancery, should presume to dispense medicines to patients, the penalty is no less than to suffer the knute, to be sent to the gallees during pleasure, and to have all his effects confiscated, one half to the empress, and the other to the informer.

The constitution of Russia is that of an absolute government, and the crown hereditary; but instances have frequently occurred in which the senate and great lords have determined the right of succession even to the prejudice of proximity of blood.

The empire of Russia formerly consisted of a multitude of petty sovereigns, usually stiled dukes, till after the beginning of the seventeenth century, when the various provinces were reduced under the subjection of one sovereign, who assumed the name of the Great Duke, and was sometimes called Czar or Cæsar. Michael, the first sovereign of the whole empire, was succeeded by his son Alexis Michaelowitz, in the year 1645, after whose death his son Theodore Alexowitz ascended the throne, who dying without issue, in 1682, appointed John his brother by the same mother, and Peter his half brother, to reign jointly, as they did till the year 1696, when czar John died, leaving three daughters, viz. the princess Anne, married to the duke of Courland, Catherine, married to the duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin, and Proscovia, who died unmarried.

Czar Peter, who was the son of Alexis Michaelowitz, by his second wife, married the princess Ottokefa Federowna, a subject of Russia, by whom he had issue the czarowitz Alexis, born in 1690; but was divorced from her in 1692. The czarowitz married Charlotta Christina Sophia, daughter of Lewis Adolphus, duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle, and died in prison in 1721, while under sentence of death for a conspiracy against his father Peter the Great. The latter next married the lady Catherine Alexowna, in 1711, with whom he had cohabited some time before, and had issue by her the princess Anne, and the princess Elizabeth, the former of whom was married to the duke of Holstein. On the death of Peter the Great in 1724, the czarina Catherine ascended the throne, and dying in 1727, appointed for her successor prince Peter, son of the late czarowitz, and grandson of Peter the Great; but this prince dying soon after, the crown devolved on the princess Anne, duchess dowager of Courland. On the demise of this empress in 1740, she was succeeded by prince John, an infant six months old, son of the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle, and of Anne his wife, daughter of the duke of Mecklenburg, and of the princess Catherine, eldest daughter of late czar John. But by a sudden revolution next year, the princess Elizabeth, second daughter of Peter the Great, was advanced to the throne. This empress

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adopted for her heir the duke of Holstein, who was defended from her eldest sister; causing him afterwards to be stiled grand duke of Russia. He married the princess Catherine Alexowna, daughter of the prince of Anhalt Zerbst who on the death of her husband in 1764, succeeded to the throne, and is at present empress of Russia.

So late as the beginning of the present century the empire of Russia continued to be involved in a state of barbarism, till by the extraordinary genius, and in indefatigable exertion of the czar Peter, who has justly obtained the name of Great, it has already made such progress in civilization, as bids fair to rival the most polished nations in Europe.

## S W E D E N.

**T**HE kingdom of Sweden is bounded on the north by Norwegian Lapland, on the east by the territories of Russia, on the south by the Baltic Sea, and on the west by Norway; being situated between 10 and 30 degrees of east longitude, and between 56 and 69 degrees of north latitude, extending upwards of eight hundred miles in length from north to south, and in breadth five hundred. This country has a very rugged surface, incumbered with barren rocks and mountains; nor is it less diversified by dreary forests, extensive marshes, and great lakes. Of the latter the principal are the Meller, the Wener, and the Weter, on the south-west, with those of Cajania and Jende in Finland. The chief hills are the Dofrine, which separate the kingdom from Norway. Here are numerous torrents which fall precipitately from the mountains, but not many navigable rivers. The most considerable are those of Torne, Kimi, Lula, and Uma in Swedish Lapland, which discharge themselves into the north part of the Bothnic Gulf; that of Dalicaria, which rising in the Dofrine hills, runs from west to east, and falls likewise into the Gulf of Bothnia; and that of Kymen in Finland, which runs from the lake of Jende southward, and falls into the Gulf of Finland. The air is almost constantly clear and healthful, but in winter excessive cold. This season is usually followed by four months during which the heat of the climate is equally intense. In no place is the constitution of the atmosphere temperate, and in many the ground is covered with snow during the greater part of the year. The extreme length of the days about Midsummer renders the flies so numerous, that they will sometimes cover a dish of meat in the time of a meal. In winter, though the sun is not more than four or five hours above the horizon, the inhabitants have so long a twilight, and so much of the moon, that they travel almost as well in the night as the day, the whiteness of the snow contributing much to the light; and sometimes the Aurora Borealis, which is here very frequent, shines with far greater lustre than in the southern climates. Those phenomena are visible chiefly in the beginning of the year, and about the new and full moon.

Sweden is usually distinguished into six great divisions, viz. Lapland, Sweden Proper, Gothland, Finland, the German dominions, and the Swedish islands.

Lapland lies in the north part of the kingdom, and is subdivided into Tornea, Lapmark, Kimi-Lapmark,

Lula-Lapmark, Pithia-Lapmark, with East and West Bothnia. The chief town of this division is Torne, situate at the bottom of the Bothnic Gulf, on an island in the mouth of the river Tornea, in 24 degrees of east longitude, and in 65 degrees 31 minutes of north latitude, about four hundred miles north of Stockholm. In this part of the country are several copper and iron mines, the working of which affords employment to a great number of people; but the banks of the river Tornea, for a hundred miles northward of the town, are mostly inhabited by fishermen, who traffic with their southern neighbours, exchanging salted and dried fish, furs, and skins, for cloathing and provisions, as the soil of Lapland produces hardly any corn or vegetables. Instead of bread the natives generally grind the inner bark of a fir tree, which, being made into a paste and baked, they eat with the flesh of their rein-deer, or fish dried upon the rocks.

Sweden Proper lies in the middle of the kingdom, and is divided into ten provinces, viz. Uplandia, Sudermania, Westmania, Nericia, Gestricia, Helsingia, Dalicaria, Medelpedia, Jemptia, and Angermania. The chief town is Stockholm, the metropolis of the kingdom, situate in 19 degrees 30 minutes of east longitude, and in 60 degrees of north latitude. It stands on seven small islands or rocks, that part which is properly called the city not being more than a mile and a half in circumference, but the suburbs extending on the main land to a considerable distance north and south. Almost all the streets are steep and inconvenient for carriages, but the houses are lofty and handsome. In the midst of the capital stands the royal palace, a square building, on a steep hill, which commands an extensive prospect of the neighbouring country. Here are nine churches, the chief of which is that of St. Nicholas, supported by marble pillars. The roof is covered with copper, as are most other of the considerable edifices in this city. Stockholm is naturally so well defended by its insular situation, that it has never been fortified. The harbour, where it is entered, is spacious and secure; but the passage being extremely difficult, on account not only of the number of islands, but the variety of the winds necessary for the navigation, and the deficiency of tides, the station of the royal navy is at Carlesroon. The houses in the city of Stockholm are built of brick or stone, but many of those in the suburbs are of timber.

Upal

Upfal is situate in 12 degrees 15 minutes of east longitude, and in 59 degrees 53 minutes of north latitude, in the middle of a spacious plain upon the river Sala, about forty miles north of Stockholm.

This city was anciently the residence of the kings of Sweden, and is much older than the present metropolis.

The houses are mostly of wood, nor is there one public or private edifice of stone. Here is an university containing about fifteen hundred students, who in general are miserably accommodated in wretched hovels amidst dirt and penury. The adjacent country, and indeed almost the whole province, is chiefly a horrid desert, covered with huge stones, or impenetrable woods, incapable of cultivation, and destitute of inhabitants. The quantity of land employed in tillage will hardly bear the proportion of one to twenty. Those barren wastes, however, are enriched with inexhaustible mines of copper, iron, and silver.

Nykopping, the capital of Sudermania, is situate on a bay of the Baltic sea, about fifty miles south-west of Stockholm; and Hedmura, capital of Dalicaria, lies sixty miles north west of Upfal.

Gothland is the most southerly of the grand divisions of Sweden, and contains the following subdivisions, viz. East-Gothland, West-Gothland, and South-Gothland; each of which is again distinguished into different provinces. East-Gothland comprehends East-Gothland Proper and Smalland; West-Gothland is divided into West-Gothland Proper, Wermeland, and Dalia; and South-Gothland includes Schonen, Blekin, and Halland. The capital of all the Gothlands is Gottenburg, a port-town, situate in 12 degrees 15 minutes of east longitude, and in 57 degrees 45 minutes of north latitude. It lies on the coast of the Schaggerer Sea without the Sound, and is the most commodious for trade of any town in Sweden. Lindkopping, the capital of East-Gothland, stands on the river Motala, a hundred and twenty miles east of Gottenburg. Carelsroon, which is the station of the Swedish navy, is situate on the coast of the Baltic, in 15 degrees 5 minutes of east longitude, and 56 degrees 15 minutes of north latitude. Lund, or Lunden, the capital of Schonen, lies about thirty miles east of Copenhagen; besides which the province contains the two port-towns of Malmac and Helsingburg, the former opposite to the isle of Zealand, and the latter to Helsingora. Helmsstadt, capital of the province of Halland, is another port-town near the entrance of the Sound, ninety miles south of Gottenburg.

The vast forests which overspread this extensive country afford excellent timber for building ships. The oak furnishes them with planks, and their pine-trees and firs with masts and yards. Out of the latter also they extract pitch and tar; and their plantations of hemp supply them with cordage and sails. Their inexhaustible woods are likewise of great advantage in their iron and copper forges, and plentifully supply them with fuel for every domestic use. The most fertile part of Sweden is the middle of the country, where the valleys produce pasture and corn; but with the latter article the people must continue to supply

themselves annually from Poland, till they become more animated with the spirit of agriculture than they have hitherto been.

The cattle here are not large, but hardy, and the horses will endure great labour. The rein-deer are peculiar to Lapland, and will not live in a warmer climate. Such as are most wild run towards the north as the sun approaches them every year. These animals resemble the other species of deer in shape and colour, but have a flatter foot, and are stronger built, serving the inhabitants for draught and carriage, as well as food. The twigs and barks of trees are the subsistence in which they chiefly delight, but when those cannot be procured, they will dig a yard deep through the snow to come at the moss and weeds.

The Swedes are in general a well-made, strong and active people, and can sustain the greatest hardships. The common women, besides their domestic busiesses, perform all the ordinary works of labour without doors as well as the men. They till the ground, carry burdens, and even row upon the water. Such as practise those occupations are almost as tawny as the Laplanders, but the women that keep within doors have complexions as fair as the British, and like the other northern nations, for the most part distinguished by golden locks.

The usual dress differs little from that of the Germans. In winter, the better sort wrap themselves up in double furs, and the rest make use of sheep-skins with the wool on.

The Swedes, though well qualified by nature for action, are far from being industrious, and their indolence is accompanied with a degree of reserve, which assumes the appearance of pride. Even the lower orders of the gentry would think themselves degraded by following a liberal profession, or exercising any kind of traffick. There being few who apply to any particular trade, it is usual among the common people for every man to make his own cloaths, and instruments of husbandry, which is however performed for the most part in a very bungling manner. Intemperance in drinking is common to the Swedes with the other nations of the North. The first thing presented to a stranger that visits them is a bowl of wine or spirits; and they are apt to be offended if he rise from the table perfectly sober. There is a profusion of dishes at their entertainments, but no taste in the arrangement or disposition of them. The table groans beneath a number of covers, which are all brought in at once, and then left to cool during a ceremonious meal of at least two hours. But before they sit down to dinner the company eat bread and butter, which they wash down with a glass of brandy.

The diversions are chiefly hunting, and in the winter running races with sledges, which is also the most usual way of travelling in that season. With respect to the high-ways, they are much better than might be expected in so rugged a country; but the inns are in general extremely bad, and in some parts the inhabitants are so few that one may travel many miles without seeing so much as a hut.

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The dominions of Sweden are almost as extensive as those of France, yet, according to a computation made in 1770, they do not contain more than two millions three hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants; a number not sufficient to cultivate the earth, notwithstanding the people are employing all possible methods to introduce manufactures into their country. That Sweden, however, was much more populous in former times, is apparent not only from the number of ruined old houses to be seen in different parts of the kingdom, but also from the exportation of corn in those days; while on the contrary, at present they are obliged to import a great part of the necessaries of life. The plague and sweating sickness, which raged here in the end of the last and the beginning of the present century, carried off several hundred thousand persons; besides which, about the former of those periods, great numbers perished of famine in the different provinces.

So little encouragement has been given to agriculture in this kingdom, for two hundred years past, that in the most fertile provinces, very extensive tracts of land remain uncultivated, though at present the inhabitants do not grow a sufficient quantity of grain for their own consumption. On this account, much is imported every year from Russia, Courland, and Pomerania; and other kinds of provision, such as butter, cheese, salt meat, rice, beer, &c. are annually brought from Britain and Ireland, notwithstanding some of the Swedish provinces abound in pasture.

Iron alone constitutes near three fourths of the Swedish exports, and this, besides several other articles, is entirely monopolized by foreigners, to the great detriment of the commercial interest of the country. The other most considerable exports are, copper, wood, brass-wire, tar, pitch, pipe-staves, herrings, dried cod-fish, and train-oil. It is computed that their exports, at an average, amount annually to 12,845,762 dollars, silver mint; and their import trade, which consists of grain, materials for manufacture, sugar, coffee, hemp, flax, and sundry other articles, amount to 13,409,666 dollars silver mint; a coin nearly equal in value to an English shilling. According to this computation, Sweden must soon be exhausted of all the little wealth she has, were she not supported by the money spent by foreigners in her different provinces, and what she receives in subsidies from other courts.

It is no small part of the pernicious policy of the Swedish government to keep the farmers in a distressed state. Every person in this class is prohibited by law to retain more than one servant to assist him in the cultivation of his land, if he has ever so great a quantity. He is also forbidden to make a division of his farm, and thereby to multiply the number of labourers. Whoever attempts to cultivate small parcels of lands are declared, every year from the pulpit, to be vagabonds, and are forced into the military service, from which they never can be released except they are maimed or disabled. This order of men is also prohibited from purchasing any of the free estates in the kingdom; and whatever lands they can legally obtain

must be burdened with the maintenance of soldiers. The more to increase their oppression, this tax is never levied on the free lands of the nobility, who in this kingdom amount to ten thousand nine hundred.

Sweden is not a little impoverished, and the industry of the inhabitants checked, by the premature introduction of manufactures, before the country was sufficiently peopled, and the land as much cultivated as to supply the fruits of the earth at a moderate price, without the necessity of importation. When Sweden has a bad harvest, as she has no magazines, and cannot speedily get assistance from foreign countries, especially in the winter, at which time her ports are frozen up, many persons are constrained to quit the kingdom. This is also the case when a single province labours under the same disadvantage, there being no internal communication between the several parts of the country. Hence it frequently happens that the inhabitants of one province labour under a great want, while those of another abound with a superfluity, for which they can find no vent but under great difficulties.

The standing revenues of Sweden arise from the crown-lands, the customs and excises; the capitation-tax, the silver and copper mines, and other less considerable particulars. It is computed that the whole amounts annually to about 10,104,406 dollars silver mint, which in the year 1769, when the pound sterling was worth fifty-one copper dollars, was about 594,180 l. Of this sum the crown-lands produce near one third, and the customs another. The capitation-tax is levied only upon the farmers, each of whom between the ages of sixteen and sixty, pay yearly about an English shilling, or something more. Almost one third of all the revenues of the kingdom is appropriated to the support of the royal family, and the remainder to that of the civil and military establishments.

Sweden at present labours under a debt of five millions sterling, a sum which in so poor a country can never be paid, and must remain a great load not only on the springs of government, but the commercial interest of the nation.

The military establishment consists of the militia of Sweden and Finland, amounting to near thirty-eight thousand men, with about four thousand regular troops in Pomerania, and the regiment of foot-guards containing two thousand men. Above the ordinary pay, the government has annexed to each regiment several supernumerary farms, to answer any extraordinary accidents, and to furnish a subsistence for such officers as are past service. For the common soldiers who are rendered unfit for military duty, there is one general hospital, which has a good fund.

The maritime force of Sweden is at present in a very weak state, consisting of about twenty old ships of the line, the half of which is rotten and unfit for sea, with ten or eleven frigates or sloops of war, almost in the same situation.

The established religion in Sweden is Lutheranism. The church is governed by an archbishop and ten bishops, whose revenues are very moderate,

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that of the former not being more than four hundred pounds a year, . . . others considerably less. Under those are seven . . . hundred superintendants, who enjoy the same power . . . as the bishops; and to every ten churches is a provost or dean, invested with some authority over the inferior clergy. The number of the latter in Sweden and Finland is computed at two thousand, which, with the addition of chaplains and curates, may make the whole body of ecclesiastics amount to near four thousand.

For many years the government of Sweden had been that of a limited monarchy, in which however, till lately, the ancient power of the crown was almost totally annihilated by the usurpation of the states. This body is composed of four orders, the nobility, clergy, citizens, and farmers. The first of those have a hereditary right to vote in the diet; and this privilege is likewise granted to the colonel, lieutenant-colonel, major, and one captain of each regiment. They keep their seats according to the antiquity of their family, and not according to their rank or functions. They assemble at Stockholm, or send hither their deputies, and elect their speaker, who has the title of land-marshal, and is entitled to a gratuity of about five thousand pounds at the end of the diet.

The right of creating a nobleman was vested in the crown; but it depended upon the assembly of the nobles to receive the object of royal favour into their body, and permit him to have a seat in their house.

Persons of this order enjoy very great and important immunities; such as being alone entitled to the high offices under the crown, and all the principal posts in the army. They are also exempted from the land and capitation-tax. The citizen is legally capacitated to purchase a nobleman's estate; but since the nobles have been exposed to a diminution of their finances, on account of the subdivision of their estates among their families, they frequently dispense with this privilege. A nobleman's daughter also, by marrying below the rank of nobility, not only enjoys the privilege of nobility herself, but transfers the same right to her husband and children, so far as concerns the possession of their estates.

The order of the clergy is composed of the archbishop of Upsal, who is generally their speaker, the bishop of each diocese, a member from each chapter, with a person elected out of every ten parishes. The number of the whole is about a hundred and seventy. Their expences during the diet are defrayed by a subscription of the clergy; and both they and their children have the privilege of purchasing the estates of noblemen.

The representatives of the citizens are chosen by the magistrates and common-council of each corporation; of which Stockholm sends four, other cities two, and some one; there being some small corporations where two join together to send one representative. This order consists of about a hundred and fifty members. They are maintained during the diet at the expence of their fellow-citizens, and their speaker is generally one of the burgomasters of Stockholm.

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Every district sends a member from among the farmers who are in possession of the crown lands, no other having any right to sit in the diet. This order comprises about a hundred and eighty, and their expences are defrayed by their fellow-farmers.

The first meeting of the diet, when it assembles at Stockholm, is in a large room of the castle, called the hall of the kingdom, where the king being seated on a throne, and the senate at some distance, the president of the chancery makes the diet a compliment in the king's name, and then a secretary reads to them his majesty's proposals, acquainting them with the state of affairs since their recess, and the present occasion of their advice and assistance. To this the marshal of the nobility first returns an answer, and kisses the king's hand; after which the same ceremony is performed by each of the other orders.

The states then resolve themselves into different committees, the principal of which is the secret committee, where the journals of the senate and the accounts of the exchequer are revised, and where the foreign, as well as the most secret affairs of the kingdom, are examined. This committee consists of forty members, who are chosen out of the four orders of the states in pleno, as it is termed. The plenum is summoned by the land-marshal on any important emergency. Every resolution must have the sanction at least of three orders before it can be received as a law.

Such was the government of Sweden at the death of the late king, when the states entertained the design of abolishing so far all the essential prerogatives of the sovereign, as to render him little more than the president of the senate; but by a sudden revolution, well planned, and conducted with great dexterity, the present king, in the year 1772, emancipated the crown from the severe restrictions which the usurpation of former diets had imposed upon it; and since this period the Swedish sovereign enjoys almost absolute power.

No certain account is transmitted of the government of Sweden before the thirteenth century, at which time the crown was elective, and its prerogatives greatly limited. The king had not the power to make either peace or war, much less to raise any money or levy any troops without the consent of the states. He was not even permitted to build any new fortifications, nor to give the government of any of the castles but to a native Swede; and he would infallibly be exposed to a general revolt had he attempted to bring any foreign troops into the kingdom. The king was only considered as captain-general of the army during the time of war, and in peace as president of the senate. This body, which was usually composed of twelve of the principal persons in the state, had almost the whole authority. The archbishop of Upsal, primate of Sweden, was always a senator by his episcopal dignity; but the six bishops, though vested with great power, had no right to be senators but by the nomination of the king, or by the choice of the senate during an inter-regnum. The place of senator was not hereditary, but conferred by the crown.

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The senate which, by its institution, was only established as the king's privy-council, extended its authority so far as even to scrutinize the conduct of the prince; and the senator assumed the right of advising the sovereign when he exceeded the limits of his power.

The clergy possessed more property than the king and all the other orders of the state together. For besides the lands annexed to the bishopricks, which consisted in large manors and fiefs, they were become masters in their respective dioceses of the succession of all ecclesiasticks who died intestate; and this source, in process of time, had greatly increased their revenue. They also enjoyed the fines and confiscations within their respective dioceses, and had insensibly acquired by foundations and pious legacies many fiefs of the crown. While the revenues of the clergy were thus continually augmenting, they could diminish neither by sales or alienations, both which were expressly forbidden by the laws. Those haughty prelates, proud of their riches and the number of their vassals, became so many petty sovereigns. They fortified their castles, and constantly kept garrisons in them; nor did they ever take any journey without being accompanied by a strong party of armed men, whom they retained in the quality of guards.

The early ages of the Swedish history appear to have been little more than a continued scene of seditions, ravages, and revolts. About the year 1364, the sovereign of the country was Magnus Smeck. This prince had, by the daughter of the count of Namur two sons; the eldest of whom being dead, the inhabitants of Norway elected for their king the second son Haquin, who was married to Margaret, daughter of Valdomar king of Denmark. Magnus being assured of the Norwegians, and fortified by the alliance of the king of Denmark, attempted to abolish the senate of Sweden and render himself absolute master of the kingdom. The people however discovering his design, took up arms, and the country became the theatre of a bloody war. The king of Denmark sent a considerable force to the assistance of his ally, as did likewise the king of Norway; but the Swedes gaining the victory in several battles, drove Magnus out of the kingdom, and elected, in his room, his nephew, prince Albert of Mecklenburg. The new king pursuing the measures of his predecessor, became also in a short time so obnoxious to his subjects, that they made an offer of the crown to Margaret above mentioned, at this time queen both of Denmark and Norway. She readily embraced the proposal, and uniting her troops with those of the Swedes, they expelled Albert the kingdom.

During the reign of this queen, she obtained Henry of Pomerania, grandson of her eldest sister, to be elected successor to the three kingdoms after her demise; and his name was changed to that of Eric. This prince, however, proving no less ambitious than the former kings, soon met with the same fate, and the crown was conferred on Canute son, great marshal of the kingdom. Canute son, at his death, recom-

mended Steno Sture, his nephew, to succeed in quality of administrator of Sweden, fearing to excite the jealousy of the great lords and bishops by a more elevated title. Christian the First of Denmark used every expedient to abolish this dignity, and to obtain the re-establishment of the Union of Calmar, by which it had been ordained that the three crowns of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, should be enjoyed by the same person. He attempted to effectuate his purpose sometimes by negotiation, and sometimes by force of arms. During four and forty years this prince and his son reigned in Sweden, alternately with the administrators Steno and Suanto Sture; the two former, and the two latter being at the same time masters of different provinces in Sweden, according as their respective parties happened to prevail.

Such was the state of this country, continually rent by foreign and domestic factions, when a great revolution laid the foundation of the Swedish monarchy, through the means of Gustavus Vasa, the first king of the family which now possesses the throne.

This prince was descended from the ancient kings of Sweden, but had been reduced so low that he was obliged to work in the copper mines of Dalicaria for subsistence. In this situation he prevailed with the miners, and the neighbouring peasants, to assist him in an attempt to throw off the Danish yoke, under which the nation then groaned. For this purpose having assembled a considerable force, he surprised several posts that were occupied by the Danes, and drove them entirely out of the kingdom. This event was immediately followed by his election to the vacant crown, which he received at Upsal in the year 1528.

As the bishops and popish clergy had appeared his greatest enemies, he introduced the Lutheran doctrine, and seized the revenues of the church, by appropriating the greater part of which to the service of the state, he was enabled to ease the people of their taxes; an expedient which rendered him very popular. His reign, however, was frequently disturbed by the intrigues of the clergy, as well as the invasions of the Danes, who attempted to recover the kingdom; but proving successful over all his enemies, and marrying the princess Katherine, daughter of Magnus duke of Sax-Lawenburg, his eldest son by this marriage, Eric Augustus, was declared his successor, and the crown made hereditary by the states in 1546. At the same time the catholic religion was abolished by authority; and the sovereigns of Sweden have ever since taken an oath, at their accession, to maintain the doctrines of Luther.

Eric mounted the throne in 1559, and reigned nine years, five of which he kept his brother John in prison, on suspicion of forming a design to supplant him. Though at this time the king's apprehensions seem to have been entirely groundless, they were afterwards realized, but not until by several cruel and dishonourable actions he had lost the favour of his subjects, by whom he was deposed, and condemned to perpetual imprisonment, in which he ended his life.

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His brother John assuming the reins of government with the consent of the people, endeavoured to restore the Roman Catholic religion, but dying in 1592, he was succeeded by his son Sigmund, then upon the throne of Poland. This prince persisting to violate the laws of the kingdom in several instances, the States, in 1604, conferred the crown on his uncle Charles, in whose family they settled the succession, to the exclusion of the issue of Sigmund.

The new king dying in 1611, he was succeeded by his son, the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, then only nineteen years of age, but already distinguished by his courage and military talents. This prince finding the kingdom engaged in an unfortunate war with the Danes and Russians, purchased peace of the former, at the price of a million of crowns, and maintained the war against the latter, over whom he proved victorious in several battles, forcing them in the end to cede the territories of Hexholm and Ingermania to the Swedes. The truce which had been made with Poland being expired, he invaded Livonia, and made himself master of the whole province; whence marching into Prussia, he took Elbing, Marienburg, and several other towns, which were confirmed to Sweden by a subsequent treaty.

Gustavus being afterwards induced to carry the war into Germany, his arms were attended in this quarter also with extraordinary success, till he was treacherously killed at the battle of Lutzen, in an engagement with the imperial troops.

By this event the crown descended to his daughter Christina, then only five years of age, in whose favour Gustavus Adolphus had gained the states of the kingdom to alter the act which limited the succession to the male line. During her minority the war in Germany was prosecuted with great advantage to Sweden, which, at the treaty of Munster, obtained the dukedoms of Pomerania, Bremen and Verden, with the city of Wismar, besides the sum of five millions of crowns, and a right of session to vote in the diet of the empire, and circle of Lower Saxony.

When this queen, who was not less distinguished by her rank than her extraordinary talents, arrived at years of reflection, she resolved to quit the crown, and accordingly in 1654, resigned it in favour of her nephew Charles Gustavus, reserving only a portion for the support of her dignity. She afterwards professed herself a Roman Catholic, and retired to a convent in Rome, where she passed the remainder of her life, signalized as much by her virtues as she had formerly been by her excellent conduct in the administration of her kingdom.

The war still continuing between Sweden and Poland, the new king immediately marched into the latter, where his arms at first were accompanied with extraordinary success. In less than three months he not only obliged Casimir, the Polish king, to take refuge in Silesia, but also made himself master of a great part of the kingdom, the subjects of which, in many places, acknowledged him as their sovereign, and took an oath of allegiance. This rapid success however proved of short duration; for marching into

Silesia, not only the Poles revolted, but several of the northern powers united to oppose him. Leaving his brother therefore governor of Prussia, he marched immediately to chastise the Danes, whom he reduced to the necessity of surrendering the provinces of Schoëer, Halland, and Bleaking, with the island of Bornholm. This treaty was concluded at Roschild in the year 1658; but the Danes soon after repenting of the concession they had made, the war broke out again in a few months. In consequence of this rupture, the Swedish king landed an army the following summer in Zealand, where he took the castle of Cronenburg, which commands the entrance of the Sound, and besieged Copenhagen. From the gallant defence of the inhabitants, however, and the assistance which they received from Holland, the siege was turned into a blockade, and continued so for some time; till Charles Gustavus having by his enterprising spirit drawn upon himself the enmity of almost all Europe, was carried off by a fever, and left the crown to his son Charles the Eleventh, then a minor, whose ministers obtained peace from Poland, Muscovy, the emperor, Brandenburg, Holland, and Denmark, upon honourable terms.

On the commencement of the war in 1674, the Swedes broke the alliance into which they had entered a little before with England and Holland, and forming a league with France, invaded Brandenburg. Their forces however were defeated by that elector, who made himself master of most of their territories in Pomerania, while the duke of Zell entered Bremen and Verden, and the Danes recovered several towns in Schonen. But the latter being afterwards defeated in several battles, were compelled to make a separate peace with Sweden at St. Germain. This transaction was succeeded by the treaty of Nimwegen in 1678, by which the Swedes obtained restitution of all the territories that had been taken from them during the war, and Charles married the princess Ulrica Eleanora, sister to the king of Denmark.

The states of Sweden soon after resigned their share in the government entirely into the hands of the king, declaring that he received his crown from God, and was not accountable for his actions to any human power. This unlimited complaisance, so favourable to his ambition, Charles failed not to improve. He therefore resumed all the grants which his predecessors had made of the crown-lands; erecting at the same time a court to enquire into such misdemeanors as had been committed by the great lords, or others of his wealthy subjects, from whom he extorted large fines. He also lowered the coin, and obliged the creditors of government to be content with half the money that was due to them. The king however lived not long to enjoy the fruits of his despotism, but died in the year 1697, in the forty-second year of his age, leaving the crown to his son Charles XII. at that time not more than fifteen years of age.

Soon after the young king's accession, a hostile design was formed against him by three great powers, viz. the king of Denmark, the elector of Saxony, likewise king of Poland, and Peter the czar of Muscovy. Notwithstanding so formidable a confederacy,

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this martial young prince, who seemed to rival the most celebrated heroes of ancient times, pursued the war with an ardour which never before had been exceeded, till after many astonishing acts of valour, and a variety of fortune, he was, at last killed at the siege of Frederichshal, a Danish city on the frontiers of Norway, in the thirty-sixth year of his age.

By the last will of Charles, the young duke of Holstein was appointed his successor; but the Swedes apprehensive of the calamity in which he might involve the kingdom, by pursuing the measure of their late sovereign, conferred the crown on Ulrica Eleonora, sister to the late king, and who had married the prince of Hesse-Cassel. In the year 1720, this prince was,

with the consent of the queen and the senate, raised to the throne; but the prerogative, which had in the two late reigns been extended to absolute power, was now restrained within such narrow limits, as had never been prescribed even by the ancient constitution of the kingdom.

The queen of Sweden dying without issue in 1744, prince Adolphus Frederick, administrator of Holstein, and bishop of Lubeck, was elected to the throne. From this period the Swedish sovereigns enjoyed only a nominal power, till the present king, as has been already observed, produced a revolution in favour of the royal authority.

## D E N M A R K.

### C H A P. I.

#### *Of its situation and provinces.*

**DENMARK** is situate between 8 and 13 degrees of east longitude, and between 54 and 58 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by the sea called the Categate or Schaggerach, which separates it from Norway; on the east by the same sea, and the straits called the Sound, which divide it from Sweden; on the south by the Baltic sea and part of Germany; and on the west by the German ocean. What is now properly called Denmark consists of the peninsula of Jutland, with the islands of Zealand and Funen, and the smaller islands adjacent.

This kingdom consists of several islands, as well as part of the continent of Europe. The principal of those is Zealand, situated between Sweden on the east, and the island of Funen on the west, being about two hundred miles in circumference. The metropolis of this island, and of the Danish dominions, is Copenhagen, situate in 13 degrees 2 minutes of east longitude, and in 55 degrees 51 minutes of north latitude, on the eastern shore of the island, upon the borders of the Sound. Its harbour, which is capacious and safe, is regularly fortified, and the mouth of it so strait, that two ships cannot enter it at the same time. The city is about five miles in circumference, and stands in the middle of a bog, on which account it can be approached on the land side only in the time of a hard frost. It is ornamented with several grand edifices, particularly the royal palace, which is one of the most elegant in the northern parts of Europe. Another of the most remarkable objects is the round tower, built by Christian IV. under whom flourished the celebrated astronomer Tycho Brahe, who designed it for an observatory. The ascent is by a spiral road, without steps, near fourteen foot broad from the bottom to the summit.

Some leagues towards the north, the little arm of the sea which washes the walls of Copenhagen, and is here about three leagues over, is gradually contracted by Zealand, and the territories of Sweden, till it forms what is called the passage of the Sound.

Elsenor is a small town, situated upon the border of this canal, and defended by the castle of Cronenburg; before which all the trading ships that pass this way must lower their sails, and pay a tribute to the crown of Denmark, in proportion to the value of their cargoes. The passage here is not quite a league over.

Fredericburg is situated in the north part of the island, and is the seat of a royal palace.

Zealand, though in general a sandy soil, is rather fertile in grain and pasturage, and is agreeably diversified with woods and lakes.

The second of the Danish islands, considered with respect to extent, but the first for the goodness of the soil, is Fioni. It is higher ground than Zealand, from which it is separated by an arm of the sea, commonly called the Great Belt; another arm, named the Little Belt, dividing it from Jutland on the opposite side. All sorts of grain and common fruits grow in this island in great plenty, and it likewise affords excellent pasture. The capital is the town of Odensee, situated in the middle of the island, eighty miles west of Copenhagen.

The islands of Laland and Falster, though much inferior in extent, are not less fertile than Fioni. Both those islands are remarkable for the fine wheat which they produce; and the latter also abounds in fruit.

In the neighbourhood of those two islands, are several others of small extent, which however are fertile, and support a considerable number of inhabitants.

One of the largest and most fertile of the provinces of this kingdom is Jutland, forming the head of that long

long peninsula which is bounded on the west by the ocean; on the north and east by the gulph called the Categate; and on the south by Holstein, and part of the Baltic sea. This province is rich in grain and pasturage, not only supplying Norway, but affording numerous herds of small cattle, which are transported into Holstein, to be fed for the use of Hamburg, Lubeck, and Amsterdam.

Norway, which at present is united to the crown of Denmark, is situate between 4 and 30 degrees of east longitude, and between 58 and 72 degrees of north latitude; bounded on the west and north by the Atlantic Ocean; on the east by the territories of Sweden; and on the south by the Categate, or Schaggerac, which separates it from Denmark. The interior parts of this extensive country are full of rocky mountains, which afford nothing but wood; but on the sea-coasts there are considerable tracts of fertile ground that produce grain and herbage. Even the mountainous parts of this province are valuable, on account of the vast quantities of fine oak and fir timber which they produce, besides tar, pitch, turpentine, with mines of iron, copper, and silver. On the west coast there is a great cod and herring fishery, which not only supplies the inhabitants of the country, but furnishes a great store for exportation. The chief towns are, Wardhuys, where the Danes have a small fortress and garrison; Dronheim, situated on a bay of the North sea, in 64 degrees of latitude, where is a commodious harbour, and a brisk trade; Bergen, lying on the same sea, in 60 degrees of latitude, the most trading town in Norway. Besides these are the towns of Christians, Ansl. Fredericstadt, and Fredericshal, at the latter of which Charles XII. of Sweden was killed in 1718.

The duchy of Holstein, now united to Denmark, forms a considerable part of the dominions and riches of the crown. This province is bordered on the west by the ocean and the Elbe; on the north by Jutland; on the east by the Baltic sea; and on the south by part of the territories which belong to the electorate of Hanover. It is a populous and fertile country, and furnishes more excellent fat cattle, and other provisions, in proportion to its extent, than perhaps any other province in Europe. Here are many rich towns, and commodious ports, particularly on the Elbe and the Baltic.

The climate of Holstein is temperate and agreeable, but in all the northern provinces of Denmark the winters are extremely severe, and the air thick and foggy, occasioned by the numerous lakes, and the seas with which almost each of them is surrounded.

Under the dominions of Denmark, may be included Iceland, an island situated between 10 and 26 degrees of west longitude, and between 63 and 68 degrees of north latitude; being almost four hundred miles long, and two hundred broad. Notwithstanding this great extent, it is computed that the inhabitants at present do not exceed a hundred thousand, though they appear to have been more numerous before they were visited by the disease called the black plague, which greatly ravaged the northern countries in the fourteenth cen-

tu. y. There is not any town in the island; but the inhabitants are dispersed along the sea-coasts within forty miles from the shore. The soil in those parts is tolerably good for pasture, enabling the inhabitants to export a considerable quantity of salted provisions, particularly beef and mutton, which, with fish, oil, &c. they exchange for grain and other necessaries.

The inhabitants of Iceland are generally tall and well made, but the features, especially of the men, are said to be not agreeable. The common covering of both sexes is the skin of the sea-calf with the hair turned outward, and for linen they use coarse packing-cloth. Their food consists chiefly of a sort of stock-fish, with very bad butter and cheese; and their drink is water, milk, or whey. They lie under the same roofs with their cattle, in caverns hewn under the rocks, or in cottages built either with wood or fish-bones, and covered with turf. The whole family lie in their cloaths upon a common bed of hay, and cover themselves with an additional quantity of skins. Notwithstanding the coarseness of their diet, and the extreme cold of the climate, they usually live to a great age.

The cattle which happen to die by chance in the field, or to be smothered in the snow, are held in great esteem, and considered in some degree even as sacred. If any of the inhabitants procure wine or strong liquors, they invite all their friends to partake of them, and the company never stir till the whole is consumed. During the entertainment, they enliven each other with rude songs, setting forth the achievements of their ancestors; never rising from the table, even to make water, which they would reckon a breach of good manners; but a utensil for this purpose is handed round the company by some of the young women who are constantly in waiting at those cauals. They are great players at chess, inasmuch that every peasant is an adept at the game; and in the workmanship of the tables, as well as of the rooks, bishops, &c. they are said to be very dexterous.

When the young girls have attained a proper age, they are prostituted by their parents for the most trifling consideration, to such strangers as happen to come among them. If any offspring should be the consequence of such an amour, the young woman is henceforth held in great esteem, and the child is received by the person whom she marries, as a valuable part of her dowery.

This country is well watered, but many of the springs are unwholesome; some of them being also intensely cold, and others strongly impregnated with sulphur, in which the island remarkably abounds.

Near the east side of Iceland is the mountain of Hecla, a volcano, from which great eruptions often happen. The inhabitants believe this mountain to be the receptacle of the damned, who they suppose are alternately tortured with heat and cold, between the flames of Hecla, and the floas of ice near the adjacent shore. The latter being driven violently against the rocks, by the winds, produce a howling noise, which is considerably augmented by the many echoes of the neighbouring caverns; and this dismal

found the natives imagine to proceed from the lamentations of departed souls.

The ancient inhabitants of this country were pagans, and offered to their gods human sacrifices; but the established religion at present is Lutheranism, which appears to have been introduced towards the end of the tenth century, about which time Iceland fell under the dominion of the Danish crown.

#### C H A P. II.

##### *Of the Danes.*

THE natives of Denmark are generally personable and strong built, but clumsy; they have for the most part fair complexions, but their features are rather disagreeable. The enterprising spirit which actuated their ancestors, seems now to be entirely extinguished, the character of the modern Danes being a disposition to indolence and pusillanimity, accompanied, however, with an extreme attachment to parade, and frivolous distinctions. Their chief pleasures are drinking and smoking tobacco, the latter of which may prove useful in counteracting the noxious effects of their cold and moist atmosphere. They are remarkably dirty in their persons and houses. It is common for a merchant who would appear decent in public, to put clean sleeves and collars over those of a shirt which they have wore for two or three weeks.

The number of nobility that have privileged fiefs in the kingdom, is very small, and the ranks are only those of count and baron. Of the former there are in Denmark but fourteen, besides two in Norway; and of the latter, fifteen. The body of titular nobility, however, is extremely numerous. For the sons of counts are all barons; and there are other families which have the title of count as a personal dignity, independent of the land, and which is also transmitted indifferently to all their male offspring.

Neither the food of the Danes, nor their manner of dressing it, deserves much to be admired. Their butcher's meat is lean, and their tame fowls bad; but the bacon and fresh-water fish are of superior quality. They drink chiefly Rhenish wine or brandy. Before the meat is laid upon the table, the guests are always presented with a glass of the latter, which it would be considered as extremely rude to refuse. During the entertainment, whenever the master of the house drinks a glass of wine, every person at the table must do the same. After meals, their discourse consists chiefly of double entendres, or downright obscenity, in which the ladies never scruple to bear a share, nor decline calling every thing by its proper name. Their principal diversion is hunting, and in the winter riding on sledges. Besides this vehicle, which is likewise often used for performing a journey, they travel either in waggons or on horseback. If a gentleman obtains a warrant from court for horses or carriages, the farmers in every province are obliged to supply him with them. On most of the roads there are tolerable inns, but hardly, any except a person of distinction, is favoured

with a room to himself, the rest being accommodated with little cabins, ranged round a great apartment, as in Holland. Their beds however are generally good, and their linen clean.

The insular situation of the Danish provinces, with the materials which they afford for ship-building, the expertness of their seamen, and the number of excellent harbours, joined to the several kinds of produce which the country supplies for exportation, might render this kingdom extremely commercial and flourishing; but her trade is so discouraged by the despotism of the government, and the corruption of the ministers, that Denmark is at present one of the most indigent and distressed states in Europe. Nor will this appear surprising, when the constitution of the country is considered. The farmers here are so much oppressed by the landed interest, that they are almost in a state of servitude; and such is the corruption which prevails in the courts of justice, that they can expect no redress by appealing to the laws of the kingdom. For should the grievance sustained by the plaintiff be so evident, that the judges could have no pretence to decide against him, it is easy for the wealthier party to obtain either an order from the king to stop the judicial process, or a dispensation from observing particular laws.

The kingdom of Norway is at present in a better situation than that of Denmark. The number of nobility is but small, and even those have very little authority over their farmers, who are now become proprietors of their farms, by paying only a small rent to their landlords. The farm descends from the father to the eldest son, without being divided; but the heir is obliged to pay a yearly stipend to each of his brothers and sisters.

In all the great towns in Denmark and Norway, there is a number of men chosen by the magistrates from among the citizens, to watch over the education of children, and inspect the conduct of guardians.

Every wholesale merchant here is obliged by the laws to regulate his accounts with his creditors at least every two years; and every retail merchant is obliged to do the same every year; under the penalty of being debarred from bringing any action for their debts.

According to a late regulation, when bastards are acknowledged by their respective fathers in a court of law, they are entitled to half the portion of the legitimate children.

The trade which the Danes carry on in the East Indies is greatly against them, as they pay for all their imports in specie, not having any produce, or manufactured goods, fit for those markets. Their small islands in the West Indies, on the contrary, have been advantageous to the state, and are now in a very flourishing condition. Those supply them with sugar, coffee, and cocoa, for their own consumption, and a small surplus which they send to Sweden. Norway furnishes them with wood, tar, pitch, fish, and iron, with some silver; and Iceland with fish-oil, and dried fish, which they export to Germany, France, Great Britain, Ireland, and all the southern parts of Europe. Their commerce with France, Spain, Portugal, and

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the Mediterranean states, is also against them; the former taking no great quantity of their materials for ship-building, but supplying them with wines, spirituous liquors, fruits, silk, salt, and a great variety of manufactured goods. In return for their fish and oil, Germany furnishes them with different sorts of linens, grain, and some common woollen stuffs. But Britain and Holland, by taking the greater part of the productions of Norway for ship-building, and the latter the provisions of Holstein, supply them with specie, without which they must be reduced to great distress. The great number of foreign ships which pass through the Sound, make Elsinore a kind of market for all the manufactured goods in Europe.

Various regulations and companies have been established at Copenhagen for promoting the manufactures and commerce of the kingdom, such as the Insurance Company, the Iceland Company, the Bank, the African Company, and the General Company, which was instituted with the view of rendering that city the magazine for all the Baltic sea. But from the smallness of the capitals employed in those undertakings, with the despotism of the government, joined to the corruption and bad conduct of the ministers, those several commercial companies are at present at the lowest ebb.

The revenues of the king of Denmark arise partly from the crown-lands, and partly from taxes. All who cultivate the land, if they are not particularly privileged, are subject to a variety of imposts, which tends greatly to the discouragement of agriculture; and all others pay a capitation-tax. On this account, the king's officers, and those who live upon privileged manors, or such as are exempted from the taxes on husbandry, pay eight shillings English each person, besides so much for their wives and children, and four shillings a year for every stable where horses are kept. Clergymen pay for their wives and children at the rate of five shillings and six pence a year each person, and four shillings for their horses, but are themselves exempted from this tax, in consideration of their making out an exact list annually of all that are taxable in their respective parishes. The day-labourers pay four shillings every year, and their wives two shillings. Tradesmen who work in the country, and only make such utensils as are necessary for farming, are exempt from this tax; but those who follow other trades pay for themselves eight shillings each, with as much for their wives, and for every person in their family; so that a poor tradesman or manufacturer pays as much to the capitation-tax, as the first of the nobility.

Another principal branch of the Danish revenue is the duty laid upon all goods that are either exported or imported into the kingdom. In general the duties upon the importation of merchandize are about ten per cent, but some not quite so high, and others higher. All such articles as are used in the manufactures are exempted from this tax; but the merchants are obliged to leave them at the custom-house, or in the king's warehouses, till they are bought up by the manufacturers, by which the former are subject

to great inconveniences, and often to losses. Such foreign merchandize, however, as is brought into the kingdom in Danish vessels, pays a much less duty than that which is imported by foreign ships. This tax is farmed in every part of the Danish dominions, except at Copenhagen, and the contract is renewed every three years.

A third considerable branch of the revenue is the excise, which is laid, as in Holland, upon every necessary of life. This oppressive tax is likewise farmed. Though the grain has before paid a tax in the country, it is liable to another at the mill.

But the most oppressive tax, as well as the most impolitic, is that which is laid upon marriages, especially as the inhabitants of the kingdom are not very numerous. Every person who holds any employment, or who bears any title that gives him a rank in the state, pays for a marriage licence ten pounds sterling. Those of the nobility who have no employment pay four pounds; the clergy, the citizens, the stewards of the nobility, and the free farmers, sixteen shillings; journeymen who work at trades, eight shillings; and the servants and day-labourers in the towns, four shillings.

Another heavy charge laid upon the inhabitants of the towns, is that which they pay to be exempt from the quartering of soldiers. This tax is laid upon all the houses in proportion to their size and situation, and is regulated by the magistrates, in conjunction with some of the principal citizens.

Besides the taxes paid by the inhabitants of towns for the support of government, they are subject to others imposed for the benefit of the town. One of these is a ground-rent, which every house pays in proportion to its extent, and the other is a kind of capitation-tax; both which are regulated by a certain number of principal citizens.

There is also a heavy tax upon all the stamped paper which is used in this kingdom. Bonds, and other obligations, for the sum of twenty pounds sterling, may be written upon a stamped paper of two shillings English in value; from twenty to a hundred and sixty pounds, the paper is four shillings; from two hundred to eight hundred pounds, it is twelve shillings; from that to a thousand pounds, it is rated at the value of three pounds four shillings; when from one thousand eight hundred to two thousand pounds, the obligation is written upon paper which costs eight pounds sterling; and for more than the last mentioned sum, the paper pays a tax of ten pounds sterling.

All kinds of receipts must likewise be written upon stamped paper; the smallest stamp for this purpose being of the value of two pence English, and that of the highest, two pounds eight shillings.

Every foreign ship which passes the Sound, pays a duty in proportion to her size and the value of her cargo; and it is computed that this tax, at an average, amounts to about sixty-five thousand pounds a year.

In Norway, the revenue arises from the tithes of timber, tar, fish, and oil, with a duty upon mines, exclusive of the taxes usual in Denmark, to which the inhabitants of this country are also subject.

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The whole revenues of Denmark, at present, are valued at about six millions of rik-dollars, or one million two hundred thousand pounds sterling.

The Danish army is composed of regular troops and militia; the former consisting of eleven regiments of dragoons, and sixteen regiments of infantry. Every regiment, when completed, has two battalions, each containing six companies of a hundred men. There are also three regiments employed in the service of the artillery; one of which is stationed in Denmark, another in Norway, and the third in Hülstein. Since the last reduction of the regular troops in this kingdom, the horse and dragoons amount to about ten thousand men; and the infantry, including the artillery, to about thirty thousand.

Every person in the kingdom who possesses three hundred and sixty acres of land, is obliged to furnish one man for the militia, and pay the expence of a man for the corps de reserve. The national troops are formed out of this militia, and are clothed in uniforms; but the corps de reserve is not, nor is it ever called out but in a great emergency. Four regiments of militia are raised in Denmark, each regiment containing twelve companies of one hundred and fifty men, exclusive of officers.

In the duchies of Holstein and Sleswic, the county of Rantzau, and the lordship of Pinneberg, the militia consists of one thousand eight hundred and thirty-two men, formed into two regiments; no regulation being yet established in that part of the great duchy of Holstein which was lately ceded to Denmark, in exchange for the counties of Oldenburg and Delmonhorst.

The greater part of the Danish troops is furnished by Norway, the militia of this country consisting of thirteen regiments, each of which contains twelve companies of a hundred men, and four companies of Landvorn of a hundred and fifty men each, besides officers. Here are likewise eight companies of light troops, called in their language Skielobere, which by their activity in running over the mountains, and ice, have been extremely useful in the country.

The pay of the captains, both in the horse and foot, amounts to no more than five pounds a month each, and that of the other officers and private men in proportion. The captains, however, are generally permitted to dispense with the service of a certain number of soldiers, who are for the most part artisans, so that they may work at their respective trades, while their pay is partly enjoyed by the captains, and partly allotted for the expence of recruits; the king allowing for this article no more than fifty-two pounds a year in the cavalry, and thirty pounds in the infantry.

The Danish fleet is composed of thirty ships of the line, and fifteen or sixteen frigates; but many of the ships being old, and wanting great repairs, the most that they can furnish, fit for service upon any emergency, is twenty ships. This fleet is usually stationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, store-houses, and all the materials necessary for the marine. This harbour is defended by two or three batteries of cannon, and by the difficulty which there is to enter it

without the assistance of good pilots; but by a squadron well acquainted with the coasts and the soundings, Copenhagen might be bombarded by sea, and all the dock-yards destroyed.

The seamen destined for the service of the fleet consist of two classes. The first is composed of those who are bred up in the merchant service, or who apply themselves to fishing, amounting sometimes to thirty thousand. They cannot quit the kingdom without a permission from their superior, and are obliged to present themselves when required. They receive according to their abilities from six to twelve shillings sterling every year to pay their excise; and such of them as live in the country villages are exempted from the capitation-tax.

The second class is composed of four divisions, each consisting of a chief, and ten companies of a hundred and eighteen men. This body, which is recruited out of the former, is in constant pay, and is always ready not only to man the ships of war, but likewise to furnish workmen for the dock-yards, they all being taught the art of ship-building. When they are at land, they receive about nine shillings sterling every month, and as much provisions as will supply their families, if not very numerous. Many of them are likewise furnished with lodgings at the king's expence. When at sea, they are paid according to their capacity, some receiving twenty, some twelve, and others only ten shillings a month.

The captains of the men of war have a fixed salary of sixty pounds a year, and the privilege of dispensing with the service of ten men in every company, whose wages they receive for their own use. They are, however, obliged to defray the expence of bringing recruits from the different parts of the kingdom, his Danish majesty allowing only forty pounds a year for this purpose. The captain of every ship, when at sea, has also a certain sum for his table, to which he is obliged to admit all the officers under his command. The pay of the lieutenants is in proportion; and all the officers of both classes enjoy the same respective salaries in peace and war.

For the last hundred and eighteen years Denmark has been an absolute monarchy. The king is the only interpreter of his laws, supreme judge and president of the high court of justice, when he pleases to sit there; and whether present or absent, the advocates always address themselves to the throne.

The established religion in Denmark is that of the Lutheran church. The revenues of the ecclesiasticks are proportioned to their rank, each having a decent maintenance, but no superfluity. The widows of all the parochial clergy are authorized by the law to receive one eighth part of the stipend which their husbands enjoyed. Besides, in every diocese, the clergy have a fund for the benefit of the widows, who receive thence a year's revenue, proportionable to the sums that had been paid into the fund by their husbands. The lands of every person convicted of becoming a papist are forfeited to the next heir, and the apostate is banished the Danish territories. All Jews are forbid to enter the kingdom without the royal licence; and



whoever discovers such an offender is entitled to a reward of fifty crowns.

The only university of the kingdom is that of Copenhagen. Here are several hundred students, who are maintained upon an establishment made by the former kings, at a time when all the necessaries of life were very cheap; but these being much increased of late years, the fund is so inadequate to the design, that the students live in great misery; nor is any class of the people held in so much contempt.

## C O I N S .

	£.	s.	d.
A rose-noble	-	-	0 18 0
A ducat	-	-	0 9 0
A six-dollar	-	-	0 4 6
A stet-dollar	-	-	0 3 0
A six-mark	-	-	0 0 11
A stet-mark	-	-	0 9 0
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Besides these there is a great variety of copper coins of small value.

The Danes are one of those nations which, under the names of Teutones and Cimbri, invaded the Roman empire a hundred years before the Christian epoch; the ancient Cimbrria appearing to have comprehended Jutland, Sleswic, Hulslein, and some parts of Lower Germany. Schiold, the first king of Denmark, is said to have lived about sixty years before the above-mentioned period. According to the Danish chronicles, he was succeeded by eighteen kings, to the time of Regner, surnamed Logbrag, whose accession is placed in the year 750. In the ninth century the Danes became exceeding formidable, and not only committed great depredations on the coasts of England and Scot-

land for many years, but actually established their sovereigns on the throne of the former kingdom, of which they maintained possession upwards of twenty years.

On the death of Olaus, without issue, in 1387, queen Margaret, his mother, was elected queen of Denmark and Norway, who having associated in the government her nephew Erick, subdued the kingdom of Sweden; and it was enacted by the states, that those three kingdoms should be united for the future under one prince. On the death of Margaret, Erick became sovereign of the whole; but being deposed, on pretence of mal-administration, he retired into Pomerania, where he died.

For more than a hundred years from this epoch no king of Denmark ever left any male heirs, but the three crowns of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, were jointly conferred on the same person by the states of the respective kingdoms, till the year 1439, when Christian, earl of Oldenburg, being elected to the sovereignty of the Danish dominions, the Swedes refused to concur in the nomination, and renouncing the union of Calmar, which had been observed from the time of queen Margaret, elected a king to themselves. From this period the Danish and Swedish crowns have ever been detached from each other; and thenceforth, likewise, the senate of Denmark arrogated to themselves the right of disposing of the sovereignty of the nation, the states being only now and then consulted out of form. The power of this oppressive aristocracy continued till the year 1660, when it was abolished by Frederick the Third, who changed the constitution of the government from a limited and elective to an absolute monarchy, and established the succession in his own descendants, by whom it has ever since been maintained.

## N E T H E R L A N D S .

## C H A P. I.

*Of the situation—rivers—dykes—air—province of Holland—chief towns.*

THE Netherlands, or Low Countries, so denominated from their low situation at the mouths of several great rivers, viz. the Rhine, the Maese, the Scheld, &c. are situate between 2 and 7 degrees of east longitude, and between 50 and 53 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude. They are bounded on the north by the German sea, on the east by Germany, on the south by the territories of France, and on the west by part of France and the British seas; extending in length from north to south about three hundred miles, and in breadth two hundred. They

No. 21.

anciently formed part of Gallia Belgica, and were afterwards comprehend in the circle of Burgundy. At present they consist of seventeen provinces; of which the seven northern revolting from the Spaniards, and entering into a treaty of union for their mutual defence, obtained the name of the United Provinces. The greater part of the other ten being subject to the house of Austria, is called the Austrian Netherlands.

The seven United Provinces are situate between 3 and 7 degrees of east longitude, and between 51 and 54 degrees of north latitude; bounded on the west and north by the British and German seas, on the east by Westphalia, and on the south by the Austrian Netherlands. They contain the following provinces, viz. Holland Proper, Zealand, Friesland, Groningen, Overijssel, Guelderland, and Utrecht; which, from the

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chief province, are usually comprehended under the general denomination of Holland.

This country is perfectly flat, without the intervention of a single hill, but abounds in bogs and morasses. It is divided almost into two parts by the Zuider Sea, a large shallow bay; and the Dollart Bay separates Groningen from East Friesland. In Holland and West Friesland there are several lakes, of which Haerlem Meer is the chief. One half of the country may be called a lake in the winter, on account of the annual inundation, but in summer it affords rich pastures.

The principal rivers are, 1. the Rhine, which on its entrance into this country divides into three branches, called the Waal, the Lech, and the Yssel. The two former run westward, and, uniting their waters with the Maese, discharge themselves into the German or British seas; while the latter running northward, falls into the Zuider Sea. 2. The Scheld; entering the country below Antwerp, divides it into two branches, one running north, called the Oosterscheld, and the other due west, named the Westerscheld; both which fall into the same sea with the Rhine. 3. The Vecht runs from east to west through the province of Overijssel, and falls into the Zuider Sea. 4. The Eems rises in the province of Utrecht, and running north by Amersfort, discharges itself into the Zuider Sea. 5. The Hunse has its source in the province of Overijssel, and running north falls into a bay of the sea between Friesland and Groningen.

It is conjectured by some that great part of the United Provinces has been gained out of the sea, by casting up banks and draining them; while others are of opinion that much of them has been lost by inundations of the sea and tempestuous weather. Both of those opinions may be well founded, in respect to different places. For in many parts, the seas and rivers appear to be above the land at high water, and are kept out only by prodigious banks of earth, called dykes; nor are instances wanting, where large tracts of land have been laid irretrievably under water. The tops of steeples, and other high buildings, where towns and villages formerly stood, have been seen near the coast at low water. As the Zuider Sea has never been mentioned by any Roman writer, Sir William Temple conjectures, with probability, that it has been formed by some great inundation breaking in between the Texel, and other islands which lie near in a line, and seem to be the shattered remainders of a continued coast. This opinion, he thinks, is confirmed from the shallowness of the sea, and the flatness of the sands along its whole extent.

The Zuider Sea is enclosed almost on every side. On the north, it has the islands of Schelling, Ameland, &c. on the east the provinces of Friesland and Groningen; on the south, Utrecht and part of Holland; and on the west, another part of Holland, with the islands of the Texel and the Ulic; being about seventy miles in length, and half as much in breadth, exceeding shallow, and full of sands. The entrance of it at the Texel, and the passage over it, are reputed extremely dangerous to navigators. Here the violence

of the waves is such, that when the wind blows a storm at north-west, if it happens to be a spring-tide, the strongest dykes sometimes give way, and threaten destruction to all the maritime provinces.

The dykes are generally seventeen ells thick at bottom, and seven ells high, fortified to the landward in the strongest manner with wood and stone; and towards the water, covered with mats, rushes, and sea-weed, and sometimes with sail-cloth. Notwithstanding these bulwarks, in the year 1530, the sea broke in and overflowed great part of Zealand; and in 1568, it rose to that height, that it covered some of the islands of Zealand, and laid under water great part of the coast of Holland, and almost all Friesland, swallowing up seventy-two villages, and destroying twenty thousand people in Friesland only. Another inundation happened in 1655, and a much greater in 1665, when the sea broke in with such violence between the Texel and the Helder, that it carried away part of the village of Haydunem, laid all the country under water between Wiring and Zyp, broke the dyke of Hern at two places, and came up to the gates of Medenblick, overwhelming many villages, and turning a considerable tract of land into a continued sea, by which numbers of people and cattle were destroyed. The dyke of Maydenburgh was also broken down, and all the country round Naerden, Myden, and Wesop, as far as Loren in Goyland, and Balicorn in the province of Utrecht, was laid under water. The gates and fortifications of Naerden were destroyed; and the strong rampart of stone, called the ass's back, swept away from the foundation, leaving a hole where it stood, thirty-six foot deep. In Amsterdam the Newen dyke, with the street upon it, and the adjoining marketplace, was overflowed. The dyke betwixt Amsterdam and Haerlem broke in the middle thirty or forty rods, and a great part of Waterland was entirely swallowed up. Other inundations happened in the years 1682 and 1717, which are said to have done as much damage as those above mentioned.

The banks of the river are also broken down sometimes by shoals of ice and land-floods; as happened in 1638, when the Ise dyke near Utrecht giving way, most part of Holland was laid under water.

The method of removing the inundation on those occasions is by wind-mills, of which there are great numbers, for the purpose of carrying off the winters rains and melted snow, which in the spring overflow the country; at which time it appears like a sea, intersected by the towns and villages built upon the rising grounds, and which are like so many islands.

Though Holland be so much celebrated for its commerce and the number of its shipping, there is hardly a good harbour on the coast. The best are those of Flushing, Helvoetsluis, and Rotterdam. With respect to Amsterdam, there cannot be a more incommo- dious haven, being seated in so shallow a water that ordinary ships cannot come near it unless in high tides, nor vessels of burden without unloading.

The country is intersected with numerous canals, which lead to every town and village, and almost to every farm house.

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The air of Holland could not fail of being extremely unwholesome, were it not purified by the sharpness of the frosts, which visit them with every east wind for about four months in the year, and are much more severe than in Britain. In winter, their harbours are frequently shut up two or three months together by the ice, especially those in the Zuider Sea. The spring is much shorter and less agreeable in the United Provinces than in England, and some part of the summer far more hot; nor is it uncommon for great heat and cold to succeed each other without any intermediate temperature. There is so much moisture in the air that it causes metals to rust, and wood to mould faster than in other places. It has probably been to obviate this disposition of the atmosphere, that the inhabitants were first induced to maintain that cleanliness so remarkable in their houses and streets, without which they must have been greatly exposed to infectious disorders; and with all their precaution they hardly escape three summers successively being seized with diseases of this kind. In the neighbourhood of the sea, they not only have unwholesome weather in spring and autumn, but the cold winds blast most of the fruit; and in the latter of those seasons, great part of the unripe fruit is blown down by furious storms.

The endemic diseases of the country are chiefly the gout and scurvy; but in hot summers they are visited by malignant fevers, especially at Amsterdam and Leyden. The people seldom live to a great age, both men and women beginning to decay very early, particularly at the former of those places. It is remarked by sir William Temple as something extraordinary, that he had seen at the Hague, which is the best air in Holland, two men above seventy. Perhaps this may proceed from their diet and want of exercise, as much as from the badness of the air. For their usual food is dried and salted flesh and fish; and brandy and Geneva are very commonly drank. They have hardly any idea of rural sports, and seldom travel about business either on horseback or a-foot, but are drawn along in a covered boat upon a smooth canal, by a horse, a method of conveyance little calculated to afford the smallest motion to the body.

The province of Holland is bounded on the west and north by the German sea; on the east by the Zuider Sea, which separates it from West Friesland, Overysel, and Guelderland; and on the south by Zeeland and Utrecht; being about a hundred miles in length from north to south, and near thirty in breadth. In point of strength and riches it is equal to the six other United Provinces, though it has hardly any staple commodities or produce of its own, except some rich pastures which furnish them with plenty of butter and cheese; and their seas and rivers which supply them with fish.

The capital of this province, and of the whole United States, is Amsterdam, situate in 4 degrees 30 minutes of east longitude, and in 52 degrees 25 minutes of north latitude. It lies in the form of a crescent on the river Amstel, and an arm of the sea called the Wye, a little to the eastward of the Zuider Sea. This

is justly reckoned the greatest port in the world, notwithstanding the access be so difficult, that it is hardly possible for a loaded ship, or man of war, to enter the harbour. The foundations of the city are laid upon several thousand vast piles, driven down with infinite labour and prodigious expence. A strong wall with bastions and out-works, defend it on the land-side, and the Wye secures it towards the sea. The principal streets are of great breadth, having canals planted with trees running through them; but the rest are too narrow. They are so careful of the pavement, that all goods and merchandize are drawn upon sledges, and no other wheel-carriages are suffered but gentlemen's coaches, who pay a tax for this privilege. Hired coaches are set on sledges, and drawn by one horse.

There are various accounts of the dimensions of this city, and the number of inhabitants, but according to the most general computation, it is one third as large as London, and contains between three and four hundred thousand inhabitants. The private houses are well built of brick, but their beauty is diminished by their benching in according to the height of the stories, which was done with a view of lessening the weight, as they are founded on a morass. Their churches are handsome buildings, but not comparable to those in popish countries; neither are they built in the same form, with isles, chancels, and steeples, or situate east and west as with us, but constructed upon various plans, as convenience may require, or the taste of the architect direct; except some old churches which were formerly built by the papists. No churches, chapels, or oratories however are allowed bells, except those of the Calvinists.

The chief buildings in Amsterdam next to their churches are, the stad-house, the exchange, the India-house, and their great bridge.

The exchange is two hundred and fifty foot long, two hundred and thirty-two broad, and a hundred and sixteen foot in height. Over the middle of the building is a lofty cupola. In this building are held the courts of justice; and here are the apartments of most of the officers of state. The vast treasures of the republic are also lodged here in the bank, which is supposed to be the richest in the world, and is guarded every night by a body of the burghers, whom they consider as more interested in its safety than mercenary soldiers. The whole building excites the idea of great solidity and strength, but is destitute of that elegance and symmetry which we might expect to find in the principal edifice of so flourishing a city and nation.

The place which contains this great treasure is a vault under the stad-house, strongly fortified with iron bars, and all the apparatus of security. Here is certainly the appearance of immense riches, in bars of gold and silver, besides plate and innumerable bags, supposed to contain those precious metals. In fact there ought to be in this bank all the treasure which it has received since its institution, as it gives out nothing but its credit. This however is a point that has lately been much disputed; and many affirm, though it does not pay

pay in specie, but only by a transfer of credit upon its books, orders drawn upon it, that great sums of money are thence taken out for other purposes.

The security of this bank rests not only upon the treasure it contains, which upon a moderate computation amounts to sixteen or eighteen millions sterling, but upon the credit of the whole city of Amsterdam, the inhabitants of which are bound to make good all the monies that are paid into it. This system of treasure is properly a general deposit, where every man lodges his money, because he considers it as more safe than if it lay in his own coffers: and so far is the bank from paying any interest for the cash deposited, that the owner, if he does not choose to have his name entered upon the bank books so, so much credit, may receive again the identical bags which he delivered, on paying a certain consideration in proportion to the time during which they had lain in safety. But when a person chooses to have his name entered for so much credit, the bank money is worth more in payment than the current coin of the state, it generally bearing a premium of four or five per cent.

The large sums lent to the Dutch government are entirely independent of the bank, the revenues of the respective provinces being mortgaged as a security for the payment of such sums, for which the provinces give bond.

The East India house is another magnificent structure, divided into a great number of apartments and warehouses, where the fine spices are deposited in great quantities. The admiralty and arsenal, or magazine of arms and warlike stores, are also justly admired; as is likewise the bridge over the Amstel, which is six hundred and sixty foot long, and seventy broad.

The city of Haerlem is situate four miles east of the sea, and ten miles west of Amsterdam, with which it has a communication by a canal. This city is surrounded only by a slight wall. The principal building is the great church, formerly the cathedral, the largest and most elegant church in Holland. Here are considerable manufactures of silk and velvet; but the place is most remarkable for that of linen, called Holland, or rather for their bleaching and whitening of it, a great part of this linen being wove in Germany.

Leyden, the Lugdunum Batavorum of the ancients, is situate four miles east of the sea, and eighteen south of Amsterdam, with which it also has a communication by a navigable canal. It is esteemed one of the neatest and pleasantest towns in Holland, but one of the most unhealthful, on account of the marshes and stagnant waters in the neighbourhood. This place is much better fortified than Haerlem; but what renders it most secure, is the power of overflowing the country on any hostile attack. The canals of this city are so numerous, that no less than thirty islands are formed by them; and over the canals are laid thirty-five bridges. Here is the most considerable university in the United Provinces, founded by the states in 1575. The schools are in a large building, three stories high, in the uppermost of which were Elzivir's printing rooms. There are only two colleges for the students,

who wear no distinguishing habits, nor are obliged to reside in any particular part of the town. Of those who resort hither for their improvement, it is computed that there are sometimes near two thousand, including foreigners. The rector of the university is elected annually out of three presented to the states. The number of professors is twelve, amongst whom those in the medical departments have been chiefly celebrated for many years. The anatomical theatre is held to exceed any thing of the kind. The environs of the city are embellished with fine gardens, the various produce of which is much admired.

About three leagues south-west of Leyden stands the Hague, at the distance of two miles from the sea. It is encompassed with fine meadows and groves, but no walls, and therefore esteemed only a village; but from its extent, the grandeur of the buildings, and the number of beautiful walks, it may be deemed equal, if not superior, to any of their cities. It is governed by its own magistrates, and enjoys all the privileges of cities, except the sending a representative to the assembly of the states. Here however the states-general, as well as the states of the province of Holland, assemble; being the residence not only of the stadholder, but of all foreign ministers and other persons of distinction. Here are but two churches, one of which, called the new church, is of a singular form without pillars.

A fine shady walk stretches from the Hague to the village of Scheveling, which lies on the sea-shore at the distance of two miles. This was once a great town, but was destroyed by a tempestuous ocean continually beating upon it.

Houssaerdyke, a palace that belonged to king William, stands about ten miles south-west of the Hague, and is much admired for its fine gardens, statues, and furniture; some of which, it is said, were removed hither from the British palaces after the Revolution. Within two miles of the Hague stands another palace of the princes of Orange in the village of Ryfwick, where the peace was negotiated in 1697, between the allies and France.

Delft is pleasantly situated in the meadows, six miles south-east of the Hague. It is about two miles in circumference, and canals planted with trees run through the streets. This town is remarkable for its fine earthen ware, but otherwise has no great trade. There are here only two churches, in one of which is the tomb of William I. prince of Orange, with his statue in marble, and near it another of brass, on which is the motto, *Te vindice tuta libertas*. He was shot in this city by Balthazer Gerrard, a popish bigot, as he sat at supper. At the foot of the statue is the figure of a dog that, according to tradition, died of grief for the loss of his master.

Rotterdam, the second city of Holland in respect of wealth and treasure, is situate on the north side of the river Mae'e, upwards of thirty miles south of Amsterdam, than which it has a much more commodious harbour; that of the former being usually open in winter, when others are frozen up, and allowing ships of burthen to come to the merchants doors.

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*Habits of the Great Mogul.*



*From an Original Picture at Delhi.*

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It is a large, well built, populous city, and contains four churches, besides those of foreigners. Many British families are settled at this place, on account of its convenient situation for trade. The chief buildings, besides the churches, are the *Stadt-houfe*, the exchange, the admiralty office, and the East-India house. No country in the world is more populous than that in the neighbourhood of this city.

Dort is situated on the river *Merne*, forty miles south of Amsterdam, and fourteen south-east of Rotterdam. The territory on which this city stands was formed into an island, in the year 1421, by a tempest, which demolished the banks of the *Maefe* and *Merne*, and laid a great tract of land under water, between Dort and *Brabant*, in which fourscore villages and upwards of twenty thousand persons were destroyed. Dort being situated between the rivers *Maefe* and *Merne*, and the lake of *Bielbos*, where the country may be laid under water, it is almost impossible for an enemy to approach it. The streets are wide, the houses well built, and contain a great number of inhabitants. This is the chief mart for British cloth. Here was held that famous synod, in 1619, where the Calvinists condemned the Armenians, and established the Presbyterian sect, which has ever since had the sole power in the government of the United Provinces; all other denominations of Christians being excluded from the magistracy.

*Gertrudenburg* is situated within the territory of Dort, twelve miles south-east of that city.

*Goude*, or *Tergow*, the sixth city in dignity of those that constitute the states of Holland, is a strong town twelve miles north east of Rotterdam, at the confluence of the rivers *Gow* and *Iffel*.

*Naerden* is situated in a morass, near the south end of the *Zuider sea*, twelve miles east of Amsterdam, and is one of the strongest towns in Holland.

*Williamstadt*, built by William I. prince of Orange, stands on the *Roo Vaert*, a river which separates the island of *Voorn* from the continent. This town is subject to the prince of Orange; and here the British usually embark and disembark their troops.

All the towns above mentioned are in that part of the province of Holland called *South Holland*; and there are some others situated in the islands of *South Holland*. Those islands are, *Voorn*, *Iselmond*, *Goree*, and *Overflackee*. The chief town is *Briel*, which stands on north-west coast of the island of *Voorn*, and has the advantage of a pretty good harbour. It is a strong town, and was ceded to queen Elizabeth by the Dutch, as a security for the payment of the money which she lent them, to defend themselves against the Spanish tyranny.

On the island of *Voorn* stands likewise *Helvoetsluis*, a port-town, about five miles south of *Briel*. This is one of the best harbours in Holland: a first rate man of war may lie close to the keys in the middle of the town; and this is therefore the usual station for their largest ships. Here likewise the English packet has its regular passage.

*Somerdyke* is the chief town on the island of *Overflackee*. Of *Iselmond* the chief town bears the same name, and stands almost opposite to Rotterdam.

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The chief towns in North Holland are, 1. *Sardam*, or *Samerdam*, situate on that arm of the sea called the *Wys*, about seven miles north-west of Amsterdam. On the opposite shore is the greatest magazine of timber and naval stores in Europe. Here are many hundred saw-mills constantly employed in sawing plank and timber for shipping, the stock of which is prodigious.

2. *Hoorn*, a sea-port, pleasantly situate on the *Zuider Sea*, twenty miles north of Amsterdam.

3. *Enchuyfen*, situate on the same sea, ten miles north-east of *Hoorn*.

4. *Medemblich*, situate on the *Zuider Sea* ten miles north of *Hoorn*. Here are the strongest dykes or banks to defend the country against the waves, which bear with violence on those shores when the winds blow from the north. The pasture grounds in this part of the country are exceeding rich.

5. *Alemaer*, situate about eighteen miles north of *Haerlem*. It is one of the best built towns of North Holland, and surrounded by gardens, groves, and rich pasture grounds, producing great quantities of butter and cheese.

6. *Edam*, a port-town on the *Zuider Sea*, ten miles south of *Hoorn*, most considerable for its dock-yards.

7. *Purmer*, a small fortified town five miles west of *Edam*. The country about this town and *Edam* was formerly a lake, and being drained, now affords rich pasture, as is the case of several other parts of North Holland.

The islands of North Holland, which is a barrier, to break the violence of the sea, are, the *Texel*, *Ulic* island, *Schelling*, and *Wieringen*.

The *Texel* is a fruitful island a little to the northward of the continent, about six miles long, and five broad. The strait between the island and the continent is the principal passage from the ocean to the *Zuider Sea*, through which most ships sail that are bound to Amsterdam. There is a harbour in the *Texel*, and another in the *Ulic*, and when the homeward-bound vessels can reach either of these ports, they ride secure from enemies as well as storms.

## C H A P. II.

*Of the provinces of Zealand—Friesland—Groningen—Overysseel—Guelderland—Utrecht.*

THE province of *Zealand* consists of eight islands, which lie in the mouth of the river *Scheld*. They are bounded on the north by the province of *Holland*, from which they are separated by a narrow channel; on the east by *Brabant*; on the south by *Flanders*, from which they are divided by one of the branches of the *Scheld*; and on the west by the *German sea*. Those islands are, *Walcheren*, *South Beveland*, *North Beveland*, *Wolterdyke*, *Schowen*, *Duivilland*, *Tolon*, and *Oresand*.

*Walcheren*, the principal island, lies at the mouth of the *Scheld*, and is about nine miles long, and eight broad. The chief town of the island and of the whole province is *Middleburg*, situate in 3 degrees

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43 minutes of east longitude, and in 51 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude, fifty miles south-west of Rotterdam, and thirty north-east of Bruges. It is a large, rich and populous city, and has a communication with the sea by a deep canal, through which merchant ships are brought into the middle of the town. It contains twenty churches, of which that called the new church, of a octagonal form, is much admired for its beauty. The *stadt-houfe* is likewise a magnificent structure. The town is surrounded by a wall and bastions, with a moat and other modern fortifications.

Ramekins, or Zouburg, situate three miles south-east of Middleburg, was formerly a considerable port-town, and one of those that were ceded by the Dutch to queen Elizabeth, for the security of the money which she advanced to the states; but it is now a poor village.

Flushing is a port-town five miles south of Middleburg, and has a harbour well defended by forts and batteries. This was another of the cautionary towns ceded to queen Elizabeth.

Tervere is a fortified town and harbour, three miles north of Middleburg; of which and Flushing the princes of Orange are sovereigns.

Armuyden is a port-town two miles east of Middleburg, but the harbour is now choked up, and of little use.

South Beveland, the largest of the islands of Zealand, is about fifteen miles long, and seven broad, and was much larger, till part of it was carried away by an inundation in the year 1532. The only considerable town is Ter Goes, situate on the north part of the island, about twelve miles east of Middleburg, and fifteen west of Bergen-op-Zoom. There are several gentlemen's seats, and about thirty villages in the island.

North Beveland is situate a little northward of the preceding, and is at present five miles long, and two broad, but was much more extensive till part of it was swallowed up by the sea.

Wolferdyke is yet a smaller island, lying between the two last mentioned. Part of it likewise has been carried away by an inundation.

Schowen lies north of the Bevelands. It is about fifteen miles long, and six broad, and has suffered much by inundations. The chief town is Zuricksee, situate on the channel. Brewerhaven stands five miles north of Zuricksee; and Bommence two miles east of Brewerhaven, strongly fortified.

The island of Duvelland lies east of Schowen, from which it is separated by a very narrow channel. It contains several villages, but no considerable town.

The island of Tolen lies eastward of the province of Brabant, and is separated from it by a narrow strait. It is about six miles long, and five broad; the chief town Tolen is strongly fortified, lying about five miles north-west of Bergen-op-Zoom.

The province of Friesland Proper is bounded on the north by the ocean; on the east by Groningen and Overysseel; on the south by Overysseel and the Zuider Sea; and on the west by the ocean. It is conjectured

that it was once contiguous to North Holland, and divided from it by an inundation which formed the Zuider Sea. This province is about forty miles long, and twenty-five broad, and subdivided into the territories of Ostergo, Westergo, and Sevenwolden. The first is situate in the north-east part of the province; the second in the west; and the third in the south-east.

The chief town of Ostergo and of the whole province is Lewarden, about seventy miles north-west of Amsterdam. This city is admired for its elegant buildings, spacious streets, fine bridges, and the gardens which surround it.

Franeker is a small city, situate eight miles east of Lewarden, and four miles east of the Zuider Sea. Here is an university, founded by the states in 1585, and endowed with part of the abbey-lands, which were sequestered a little before that time.

Harlingen is situate on the coast of the Zuider Sea a little west of Franeker. It is strongly fortified, and the avenues to it may be laid under water on the approach of an enemy.

Doccum is a fortified town, situate ten miles north-east of Lewarden, in a fruitful country, and remarkable for a bridge so lofty, that vessels may pass under it with their sails standing.

Stavem is situate on the south-west point of Friesland, on the coast of the Zuider Sea. It was one of the hanse-towns, and anciently the capital of the kings of the Frikons. The harbour however is now choked up, and its trade removed to other ports.

Several islands lie northward of this province, which are subject to it, and have only a few villages upon them.

The province of Groningen is bounded on the north by the German ocean; on the east by the Dollart bay, which separates it from Embden or East Friesland; on the south by the province of Overysseel; and on the west by the province of West Friesland. It is about thirty miles long and twenty broad, and may be divided into the districts of Groningen Proper and the Omlands.

Groningen, the chief town and formerly one of the hanse-towns, stands at the confluence of the two rivers Aha and Hunefus, thirty miles east of Lewarden, and twenty south-west of Embden. It is about two miles in circumference, well fortified, and has a communication with the river Ems and the ocean by navigable canals, which enables it to maintain a great trade with Germany.

Dam, the capital of the Omlands is situate on the canal called Damster Diep, three miles west of the river Ems, and is a large well built town, but without walls.

Winfchoven is a fortress near the Dollart bay, situate in a morass, and commands a pass out of East Friesland into the United Provinces. The Dutch have several other forts on this frontier towards East Friesland, and were till lately esteemed masters of that province; but the king of Prussia has obliged them to abandon the country, and taken possession of it himself.

The province of Overysseel is bounded on the north by Groningen; on the east by Westphalia; on the south



south by Zutphen; and on the west by Guelderland, the Zuider Sea, and Friesland. It is about sixty mile long and forty broad.

The chief towns are, 1. Deventer, situate on the river Iffel, on the confines of Guelderland, thirty miles east of Amersfort. It was formerly one of the hanse-towns, and is still a place of good trade, and inhabited by people of distinction.

2. Zwoll, situate twenty miles north of Deventer, is a fortified town; the ramparts are planted with trees, and the buildings elegant.

3. Campen, situate on the river Yffel, near the Zuider Sea, twelve miles west of Zwoll, is a handsome well built city, and had formerly a great trade before the mouth of the Yffel was blocked up.

4. Coverden, situate on the confines of Germany, thirty miles east of Zwoll, is strongly fortified, and stands in an impassable morass.

The province of Guelderland, comprehending the Dutch and Prussian Guelderland, is bounded on the north by the Zuider Sea and the province of Overysfel; on the east by Westphalia; on the south by Brabant; and on the west by the province of Utrecht.

Dutch Guelderland is subdivided into three districts, namely, the Veluwe, the Betew, the ancient Batavia; and the county of Zutphen.

The Veluwe is the north west division, lies between the Zuider Sea, and the rivers Lech and Yffel. The chief towns are, Arnhem, Wageningen, Hattem, Harderwick, and Elberg.

The Betew is almost encompassed by the rivers Rhine, Lech, Maese, and Meruwe. The chief towns are Nimeguen, Tiel, Skenkenfeans, Bommel, Burel, and Culemburg.

The county of Zutphen is bounded on the north by Overysfel; on the east by Munster; on the south by the duchy of Cleve; and on the west by the Veluwe. The chief towns are Zutphen, Dueburg, Groll, and Brevoort.

The city of Arnhem is pleasantly situated on the river Lech, ten miles north of Nimeguen, on firm ground, and in a healthy air, which occasions it to be inhabited by people of distinction. At Dieren, ten miles north-west of this city, the princes of Orange have a palace; and twenty miles north of Arnhem, in the middle of the Veluwe, is the palace of Leo, where the late king William frequently resided in the hunting season. This is esteemed one of the most elegant palaces belonging to the house of Orange.

Hardwick is situate on the coast of the Zuider Sea, and has an university which was founded in 1638.

Nimeguen is pleasantly seated on the river Waal, ten miles south of Arnhem, and eight north of Grave, and is a large, populous, well built city. The castle was anciently reckoned a place of great strength, and commands a fine view of the adjacent country. Here was concluded the treaty between the allies and France in 1679.

Skenkenfeans is a fortress situate on the frontiers of Germany, where the Rhine divides into two branches, called the Waal and Lech, and commands both rivers.

Bommel stands on an island formed by the Maese and Waal, called the Bommel-Waart, twenty-five miles west of Nimeguen. On the same island is the castle of Lovistein, with the fort of St. Andrew and Voorn, or Nassau, which command the rivers Waal and Maese.

Zutphen, capital of the territory of the same name, is situate on the river Yffel, fifteen miles north-east of Arnhem. It is a good town, and inhabited by opulent people. Near this place Sir Philip Sidney was killed, in the war between the Spaniards and the Dutch.

Doeburg stands on the Yffel eight miles south of Zutphen. It is naturally strong, having the river on one side, and a morass on the other; but was taken by the French, as well as Zutphen, in 1672, and restored at the peace.

Groll is situate twenty-six miles east of Doeburg, and commands an important pass between the Netherlands and Germany. This was also taken by the bishop of Munster, an ally of France, in 1672, but restored with the rest of the Dutch towns two years after.

Prussian (formerly Spanish) Guelderland is separated from the Dutch Guelderland by the territories of Cleve. It is bounded on the north by this duchy; on the east by the electorate of Cologne; on the south by the duchy of Juliers; and on the west by the bishoprick of Liege; being about thirty miles long, and twenty broad. By the treaty of Rastadt, in 1714, his imperial majesty ceded to the king of Prussia all that part of the Upper Guelderland which he then possessed, viz. the city of Guelder and its bailiwick, with its dependencies, to be enjoyed in the same manner as they were formerly held by the kings of Spain.

Guelder, the capital of Prussian Guelderland, is a strong little town, situate in a morass, twenty-five miles south-east of Nimeguen.

Ruremond is a large populous town, well built and fortified, fifteen miles south of Venlo. This city, with the rest of Spanish Guelderland, was seized by Lewis XIV. for his grandson the duke of Anjou, on the death of Charles II. king of Spain, in the year 1700, but was recovered by the allies in 1702, and is now in possession of the empress-queen, as heirs of the Austrian dominions.

Venlo stands on the river Maese, about twelve miles south of Guelder, and is in possession of the Dutch.

Stevensmaert is a fortress on the river Maese, eight miles south of Ruremond. This is also in the possession of the Dutch.

Watchtendonk is a strong fortress south of Guelder, occupied by the king of Prussia.

The province of Utrecht is bounded on the north by the Zuider Sea and part of Holland; on the east by Guelderland; on the south by the Rhine; and on the west by another part of Holland; being about twenty-five miles long, and as many broad. This is one of the most pleasant and healthful provinces in the United Netherlands, containing very little bog and morass.

The chief town, Utrecht, formerly Antonina, is situate on the ancient channel of the Rhine, twenty-five miles south-east of Amsterdam. It is a large

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populous city, and well built. Over the two principal canals, which run the whole length of the city, are laid thirty-five bridges. Several spacious streets meet in the market-place, in the center of the town; and without the gates are beautiful walks of trees. From the church of St. Martin, which is ascended by four hundred and sixty steps, there is a fine prospect of the adjacent country, and no less than fifty walled towns. Here is a great university founded by the states in 1636; and here the peace was concluded between the allies and France in 1713.

Amersfort stands on the river Ems, fifteen miles north-east of Utrecht, in a country abounding in corn and good pasture. It is a well built, populous city, about three miles in circumference. Four miles to the northward lies the palaces of Sueddyke, one of king William's hunting seats, situate in the middle of a forest which abounds with game.

Wyck de Duesterde, called by the Romans Durostadium Batavorum, stands at the confluence of the Lech, and the middle channel of the Rhine, twenty miles south of Amersfort.

Montfort is a little elegant town, capital of a small territory, situate eight miles west of Utrecht.

The towns in the United Provinces are generally well built of brick, but the houses are not equal to those of the trading towns in England; neither are the houses of the ministers and great men comparable to those of the British nobility. But such of the towns as have canals running through the streets, the banks of which are planted with trees, are vastly pleasant, especially in summer, as they are kept very neat and clean. The pavement is so sloped, that every shower washes away the little dirt they have, into the canal; and as all goods are drawn upon sledges, or carried by water, the pavement is seldom broken.

### C H A P. III.

*Of the soil—produce—animals—manufactures—traffic—natives—dress—character—houses—diet—diversions—music—houses—way of travelling—forces—coins—religion—marriages.*

**T**HE soil of the United Provinces is for the most part in extremes, being either very good or very bad. Great part of it consists of barren sands, bogs, and marshes, but no where in Europe are the pasture grounds of richer quality. There is some good arable land, where wheat, rye, barley, oats, pease, and beans, thrive well, but do not afford what is sufficient for the subsistence of the natives. Other portions of ground produce excellent flax. The sides of the canals, and roads, with the avenues to country houses, are planted with forest-trees; but there is little or no timber of any value. There is great variety of fruit-trees, and flowers, of the latter of which the people are fond, almost to a degree of adoration.

The country produces no minerals, and almost their only fossil is a bituminous earth, out of which they dig peat for fuel, being destitute of wood for that

purpose, and having no other coals but what they import from Britain.

The neat cattle and horses of the Netherlands are the largest in Europe; the cows give incredible quantities of milk, and their horses for the draught and army are hardly to be matched for their bulk; but in speed and activity they are far inferior to the English. They have numerous flocks of sheep, but those are likewise not equal to the breed of this country, in respect either of flesh or wool. They have the same domestic animals as in Britain, with some to which we are strangers, particularly wolves and wild hogs. Deer are not in great plenty. The country abounds in fresh-water fish, and they have all kinds of sea-fish except oysters and herrings, both which they take on the British coast.

Among the birds of passage that visit the Netherlands are the storks, which build and hatch their young on the chimneys in the cities as well as villages. The inhabitants have so superstitious a veneration for those birds, that they will not suffer them to be killed on any account. They come every year about the end of February, and fly away with their brood in the beginning of August. Quails also come over to Holland from Africa in the summer, as in England, and return thither in the winter. All kinds of tame and wild fowl are here in great plenty.

In the spirit of manufacture and industry the Dutch confessedly excel all the nations in the world. They will not suffer an idle person among them. They set even the lame and blind to work, as well as old people and children; and find a proper employment for every species of cripples. The profession of the greatest advantage to this, as to every maritime country, is that of seamen, for the breeding of whom they give particular encouragement to fisheries. This branch of industry affords them an inexhaustible fund of riches, purchasing with its produce the merchandize of every other country. The preparing of vessels, nets, boats, and other utensils for those fisheries, employs a multitude of their poor on shore, who would otherwise be a burden to the country.

The ship and house-carpenters are another numerous profession, who furnish many other countries with plank, though they have hardly any timber of their own growth. The vessels constructed by those mechanicks, however, are not comparable to the English, either in strength, beauty, or expedition, but are heavy, bulky, and ill-shaped. They appear to be under a necessity of following this model: for the entrance of their harbour being generally so shallow, as to admit only of flat-bottomed vessels, they must make up in breadth for what they are deficient in depth.

The Dutch excel in dying, sugar-baking, and bleaching of linen. That which is denominated Holland, with their manufacture of paper and sail-cloth, exceed every thing of the kind. They have also manufactures of silk, velvet, wool, and every other with which we are acquainted.

This country, however, is far from being famous for her manufactures, producing not the third of what is sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants.

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The fine cloth of Leyden and Utrecht has always supported its character; but lately, from the high price of labour in those towns, this cloth is become dearer, in proportion to its breadth, than the English superfine cloth. The greater part of it is exported to foreign markets, while all the common people, and most of the troops, are clothed with the English manufactures from Yorkshire, or those of Aix la Chapelle and Vervier.

The high price of provisions, and of all the necessaries of life, will prevent this people from ever succeeding in any great or extensive manufactures, though the country be over stocked with inhabitants. It is computed that the United Provinces contain about two millions of people; but there not being provisions enough raised in the country to supply the fourth part of this number, the remainder must be imported from other states, and sometimes at great expence, exclusive of the duties and excises. The consumer must pay between fifty and sixty per cent. upon the prime cost, for all the grain which is imported into this country to make bread. Beef and mutton cannot be eaten in any part of the United Provinces before the consumer pays between one penny and three halfpence per pound to the excise; and every other necessary of life is taxed in proportion.

The trade and riches of this state have been considerably increased by the herring and Greenland fisheries, which not only employ a multitude of seamen, but furnish them with articles of commerce that are demanded in almost all the markets of Europe. They pickle and preserve their herrings in a manner infinitely superior to the Danes, Swedes, or Norwegians, and they are always sure of finding a market for them in the North, in preference to those of any other state. What is also not less beneficial, they have the cod and turbot fishery upon the coasts of England and Scotland. All the inhabitants upon the sea-coasts of Holland and Zealand are more or less concerned in this trade.

The exclusive commerce which the Dutch have of the East-India spices, must likewise be a perpetual source of riches to this republic. Having no great colonies or settlements in the West-Indies, they have very politically established a free port in those seas, not only as a magazine to smuggle all sorts of European goods into the English, French, and Spanish settlements, but also for receiving the superfluous produce of those colonies. The low-priced coffee, cocoa, cotton, and in fact all the productions of the West-India islands, as well as of Surinam, find their way into Amsterdam and Rotterdam, whence they are sent into Westphalia, and all the western parts of Germany, where they are sold to great advantage.

Their trade to Turkey and the Levant seems at first sight to be considerably against them; but when we consider that they export hither a great quantity of their fine Leyden cloth, thence importing chiefly the rough materials for European manufactures, and very little for their own consumption, this branch of trade will also be found much to their advantage.

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Another great source of riches to the inhabitants of Holland is the exchange and banking business. So convenient is the situation of Amsterdam, and so great its credit and correspondence, that three quarters of all the monies remitted from one state to another in Europe, as well in mercantile as in other affairs, pass through this city, and of course entitle her merchants to receive commissions on them; which, as those remittances are for immense sums, must amount to a considerable sum annually.

Besides the great quantities of different sorts of goods which the merchants of Amsterdam and Rotterdam send to all the western parts of Germany, by the Rhine and the Maese, on their own account, all the merchandize which the people in those parts import directly from, or export to foreign countries, must pass through one or other of the above mentioned cities, where they must pay the duties of import and export to the state, and likewise a commission to some of their merchants for expedition; so that in fact the Hollanders, from their situation, lay a tax upon all the foreign trade of those parts.

Though Holland produces hardly any thing except butter and cheese, the country is the most commercial, and its merchants the richest in the world. They import a thousand ship-loads of timber every year from the Baltic, which, by the advantage of their saw-mills, they cut out and prepare at an easy expence, for building ships and houses, and sell to their neighbours to great advantage. They also import many hundred ship-loads of corn, which they sell to such nations as happen to have had bad crops; often buying up the British grain when it is cheap, and selling it to us again when the price is advanced. But they gain much more by the monopoly of the fine spices, and their fisheries, than by all the other branches of their trade. As they obtained the former by means the most unjustifiable, so they forcibly also broke into the latter, and in a manner monopolized the herring and whale fisheries, those inexhaustible funds of wealth, in which they surpass every other nation.

The natives of the United Provinces are of a good stature, and inclined to be corpulent, but are remarkable in general for a heavy awkward mien. Their features however are regular, and the complexions of such as are not exposed to the weather, sufficiently fair. Their young women are exceeding handsome, and make a good appearance in a coach, or sitting posture; but their motion is extremely slow. Before they attain the age of twenty-five, their faces become red and bloated, and they cease to be amiable. This change is probably owing to too great an indulgence in the use of spirituous liquors. It is not unlikely that the fumes which they place under their petticoats in winter, have also a pernicious influence on their health; and some have imagined this practice to be the reason why they do not breed so long as other women.

The better sort of people imitate the French fashions in their dress, but those who are stamped with the genuine character of their native country, never fail to load themselves with an enormous incumbrance of

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cloaths. Both men and women wear at least two waistcoats, with as many coats; and the former likewise cover their limbs with double breeches and trowsers: the women's petticoats are so very short, that they discover half the leg; and the men's coats are usually as ill-shaped as their bodies, having no plaits, but long pockets, almost as high as their arms. The women tie up their hair in a roll, and adorn it with two or three black knots. They use little other covering for their heads in the house, but wear a hood when they go abroad. The girls which ply at their music-houses, or brothels, are dressed in a coat and jacket, not unlike the riding-habit, which suits but ill with the Dutch shape.

Sir William Temple, whose long residence among the Dutch afforded him an opportunity of observing their character, distinguishes the people of this country into five classes, namely, the peasants and farmers, sea-faring men, merchants and tradesmen; those that live upon their estates, or the interest of their money; and the military officers.

The peasants, he observed, were industrious people, but exceeding stupid, little affected by passionate words, but easily managed by fair language, and readily yielding to reason, if you give them time to understand it. Of sea-faring men he remarked, that they were a plain, but a much rougher people, seldom using more words than are necessary about their business, and in respect of valour rather passive than active.

As to the trading people in general, whether merchants or mechanics, their wits are something sharper than those of either the former classes, being improved by the conversation of foreigners; but even those are much better at imitation than invention, sometimes succeeding so far as to excel the original by dint of unwearied application. They exert all their skill to take advantage of the folly or ignorance of those with whom they have any dealing; and are great extortioners when there is no law to restrain them; but in other cases they are the plainest and best dealers in the world.

Those who live on their patrimonial estates in great cities, resemble the merchants and tradesmen in the modesty of their dress and their parsimonious way of living; but between the education and manners of those classes there is a very wide difference. The former, after they come from school, are sent to the universities of Leyden or Utrecht, where they go through the common studies of those places, but apply themselves chiefly to the civil law, by which the jurisprudence of their country is in a great measure governed. When young gentlemen have finished their education at home, if their relations be wealthy, they are sent abroad, to England or France, for the sake of improvement, the whole design of their education being to qualify them for the magistracy in the towns and provinces, which however is more honourable than lucrative in this country.

The gentry or nobility are not numerous, especially in Holland, many of those families having been extinguished in the war with Spain. Those that remain

are usually employed in the military service, and sometimes in the civil department in their respective provinces. They are apt to value themselves more upon their nobility than men do in other countries, where it is more common; looking upon it dishonourable to marry below their rank, and hardly ever condescending to make an alliance, even to extricate an involved fortune. They imitate the French in their dress, their mien, their talk, their diet, and their gallantry; but their imitation is generally awkward. They are however an honest, good-humoured, gentleman-like sort of men, and usually acquire themselves with honour in the service of their country. The officers of the army follow the fashions and customs of the gentry, as do many of the rich merchants' sons. Some customs and dispositions however seem general to all the classes in the nation. The most conspicuous characteristic is a great frugality and order in their expences. What they can spare from their domestic charges is laid out in the ornament and furniture of their houses, rather than keeping great tables, fine cloaths or equipages. Their charity is rather national, and regulated by the orders of the state, than moved by the common objects of compassion. Avarice excepted, all appetites and passions are less violent here than in any other country. Quarrels are very rare, revenge seldom heard of, and jealousy hardly known. Their tempers are too phlegmatic for merriment, and too cool for the ardour of love. The same insensibility, however, which renders them indifferent to pleasure, disposes them to uncommon assiduity and constant application in the pursuit of such objects as are to be attained more by the efforts of labour than genius; and upon the whole, the air of this country may be considered as the Bœotian climate of modern times.

The people are utter strangers to freedom of thought, and notwithstanding their government is in some degree popular, very few persons venture to speak their sentiments on public affairs.

The natives of those provinces, particularly Holland and Zealand, are generally not so long lived as in other parts of Europe. Both sexes begin to decay at least ten years sooner than in Britain or France. The prevailing diseases of the climate are stubborn intermitting and remitting fevers, the rheumatism, gout, and scurvy; and when the summers are very hot, they produce putrid fevers of the most dangerous kind.

No poor people are to be seen in the streets or public places of this state, the government having made provision for their support, and there being hospitals for the aged as well as diseased of all denominations; but the laws of the country are very severe against vagabonds and idle people.

The lower part of the houses in Holland is lined with white Dutch tiles, and their kitchen furniture of copper, pewter, and iron, are kept so exceeding bright, that it affords a strong proof of their cleanliness. Their beds and tables are covered with the best and finest linen; their rooms are adorned with pictures, and their yards and gardens with flowers. They heat their rooms with stoves, placed either

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underneath or round the apartments, which render the heat equal on all sides. Mechanics will work in them stripped to the shirt in the coldest season. The women have little stoves or pans of lighted peat, which they put into a small square box, and lay under their feet. People of condition have those carried with them upon visits, and even to church, where they have not the convenience of the other sort of stoves.

The diet of the Dutch boors or farmers is usually mean, consisting mostly of roots, herbs, sour milk, and pulse; but in the towns the common people live something better. All ranks in the nation are much addicted to the use of butter, and those of the inferior classes seldom take a journey without a butter-box in their pocket. Here is not only good beer, but wine and brandy in great plenty, which are almost as cheap as beer; and the Geneva is also cheap and good.

The diversions of the Hollanders are bowls, billiards, chess, and tennis, as with us; but they do not seem to be so much addicted to the games of chance, unless that of verheeven, or trick-track reversed. Shooting wild geese and ducks in winter, and angling in summer, make another part of their pastime. In the most rigorous season of the year, sledges and skates are a great diversion. Both women and men use them alike, to carry their goods to the market, as well as for pleasure. The sledge is drawn by a horse, or pushed along by a man in skates. When the snow is upon the ground, and the streets frozen, young gentlemen and ladies appear abroad in the most magnificent sledges. The person drives his horse himself, which is covered with a rich skin or caparison, and a fine tuft of feathers; and the gentleman or lady is wrapped up in furs, or a fine Indian quilt. The sledges are of various shapes, finely painted, gilt, and varnished, and the horses harness is rich and splendid.

Bandy is another play much used when the country is covered with ice and snow, and at this they are very dexterous. They seldom play for any thing but drink, which hardly ever fails to conclude the diversions of the day.

In summer, it is common to see multitudes of people walking out on the banks of the fine canals, well planted with trees, or by the sea shore, or perhaps in the public gardens. Almost all those excursions end in the tavern, where they meet with a variety of little amusements and agreeable entertainment, at a cheap rate. Even common labourers indulge themselves in such recreations. The same distinctions are not maintained in Holland between the wealthy traders and mechanics as in other countries. They converse pretty much upon a level; neither is it easy to know the man from the master, or the maid from her mistress. Among other entertainments, drinking of tea has here long been universal among all ranks of people.

The Hollanders have music-houses licensed by authority, for which a tax is paid; and the master of such a house may keep as many wenches as he pleases. The girls also pay a tax to the government on their being admitted into those receptacles of pleasure. Hither the people openly resort, and when a sufficient

company is assembled, they sup together in a common room, where good entertainment is provided for them. The supper is succeeded by a ball, whence any couple is at liberty to retire to a private room.

There are several sorts of those houses of pleasure, some for the gentry, and others for the seamen and common people, which are tolerated by the government with the view of preventing greater evils.

Their usual way of travelling is in treckschutes, or covered boats, drawn by a horse at the rate of three miles an hour, for which the fare does not amount to a penny a mile. A passenger in such a vehicle has the conveniency of carrying a portmanteau, or provisions, so that he need not be at any expence in a public house by the way. As to the inns and public houses on the road, they generally afford a soft bed and clean linen; but it is difficult to procure any other bed chamber than one of the little cabins which are ranged round a great room, where people of different ranks lie promiscuously, and disturb one another the whole night. The bedsteads in those cabins are likewise placed so high, as to be not only inconvenient, but even dangerous.

There is no disputing with a Dutch inn-keeper, either about the reckoning or any other particular; for he will enhance the bill if you find fault with it, and procure a magistrate to levy his demand by force.

The revenue of this republic consists in the ordinary funds which the seven provinces provide annually, according to their respective proportions, upon the petition of the council of state, and the computation of the public charges for the ensuing year, delivered by them to the states general; as well as what is levied in the conquered towns and country of Brabant, Flanders, and the Rhine. The whole of this revenue generally amounts to about twenty-five millions of guilders a year.

The principal funds out of which this revenue is raised, are the different excises, the customs, and the land-tax. The excises are so very high in general, that they are not to be paralleled in any part of Europe. Hardly one article of the necessaries of life is exempted from this heavy tax. The customs however are moderate, as is likewise the land-tax, on account of the great expence incurred by the land-holders in supporting their dykes and wind-mills, and in keeping the country dry.

All the excises and taxes laid upon landed property and immoveable possessions, are collected by the magistrates of the respective districts; but those which arise from uncertain consumptions, are generally farmed out to the persons who bid most for them; some for three months, some for six, and others for a year. The collection, receipt, and payment of all the public money, are made without any fee to officers, who receive fixed salaries from the state, which they dare not increase by any private practices or extortions.

The military establishment of the United Provinces, at present, supposing all their regiments to be complete, amounts to thirty-two thousand men. This body is composed of the troops of several German princes, of Scots.

Scots, Swifs, Walloons, and of deserters from almost every country in Europe; there being very few natives in the army, except the officers. Those troops are paid differently, according to the contracts made with the respective states from which they are hired.

The admiralties in the several provinces maintain about five or six and thirty ships of war of different burthens, for protecting their trade, and for any sudden accidents of the state.

The estimates for the yearly expences of the army, and for the repairs of fortresses, magazines, &c. amount to about seven hundred and twenty thousand pounds a year; and those of the admiralties, for the maintenance of this fleet and for the building of ships, to about five hundred and fifty thousand pounds.

The coins of Holland are, first, a *doit*, three of which make one *stiver* or penny, which is something more than an English penny. Fifty *stivers* make a *rix-dollar*; sixty-three *stivers* make a *ducatoon*. Fifteen *guldens* or *florins* make a gold *ducatoon*; and five *florins* five *stivers* a gold *ducat*. The coin called a *schilling*, which goes for six *stivers*, is base metal, scarce a third part of six pence in real value.

The established religion of this country is Calvinism, which is embraced by the bulk of the people. The clergy have neither lands nor tithes, but are paid by the state certain fixed salaries, from six or seven hundred to two thousand *guldens* a year. In some provinces, if they are married and have children, they are allowed a hundred *guldens* a year for each child. In all the great towns, the service of the church is performed in the English, French, and German languages, as well as in that of the country. All the other sects of the reformed religion are tolerated and protected; and the Jews likewise have their synagogues in Amsterdam and Rotterdam.

The Dutch seem to look upon a contract of marriage made before friends to amount to a marriage in law, and allow the parties to consummate before the nuptial ceremony. It is a common thing to see pregnant women come to church to be married, and the children thus gotten are deemed legitimate.

#### C H A P. IV.

##### *Of the government of the United Provinces.*

THE United Provinces are a confederacy of many independent states; for not only every province is sovereign and independent of the states-general, but contains several inferior republicks independent of the province and of each other. The latter are not bound by the decrees or acts of the states of the province, until such acts are ratified by each particular city or republic, which sends deputies or representatives to the provincial assembly.

As the states-general can neither make war or peace, enter into alliances, or raise money, without the consent of every province, so neither can the states-provincial determine those matters without the consent of every city or republic, which, by the constitution of the province has a voice in the assembly. In some

civil cases, indeed, there lies an appeal from the courts of justice in cities to the provincial courts of justice; but in criminal matters there lies no appeal. Nor can the states of the province exercise any jurisdiction, punish an offender, pardon an offence, or execute any general law, within any of the cities or republics of the province, but by the courts and officers of the place where it is to be put in execution.

The states of Holland are composed of the deputies or representatives of the nobility, and of eighteen cities or great towns, making in all nineteen voices, of which the nobility and gentry have only the first. The cities entitled to vote were at first but six, viz. Dort, Haerlem, Delft, Leyden, Amsterdam, and Ter-gow; to which prince William of Nassau, their first stadtholder, added twelve, namely, Rotterdam, Gorcum, Scheidam, Sconhoven, Briel, Alcmear, Hoorn, Enchuyfen, Edam, Moninckdam, Medenblick, and Permeren.

The nobility, who are not numerous in Holland, are represented by eight or nine of their own number; but those have altogether but one voice, equal to the smallest of the above mentioned towns. Persons of this class, however, are very considerable in the government, possessing many of the best posts both civil and military, and having the direction of the ecclesiastical revenues which were confiscated by the state, upon the alteration of religion. As the nobility vote first in those assemblies, they influence, in a great measure, the deputies of the cities. Their vote is delivered by the pensioner of Holland, who sits with them, and assists in all their deliberations previous to the general assembly. He is always a person of great credit, and seldom removed, though by the constitution he ought to continue in that post but five years. This officer is in reality but the servant of the province, yet enjoys the good fortune to lead, or at least to influence his masters. He proposes all matters to be debated by the states, collects their opinions, and digests their resolutions, and sometimes assumes a power of postponing the most important affairs. He is always constituted one of their deputies or representatives to the states-general.

The representatives of the cities are elected out of the magistracy and senate of each town, and there is more or less, according to the pleasure of their constituents. Whatever be their number, they have but one voice, and enjoy a salary from the places for which they are appointed. The states of Holland generally assemble at the Hague, four times a year, viz. in the months of February, June, September, and November.

Upon extraordinary occasions they are summoned by the council of state of the province, consisting of several deputies or representatives, viz. one from the nobility, one from each of the chief towns, and one from three of the smaller towns; each of those choosing a representative by turns. This council sits constantly at the Hague, proposes to the states of the province at their extraordinary assemblies the matters proper for their deliberation, and executes their resolutions. One negative voice in the assembly of the

states

states of the province hinders them from coming to a resolution. When they are all agreed, they send some of their number to the respective towns which they represent, to obtain their concurrence. If it be a matter of any intricacy, and may take up time in debating in the several cities, the states usually adjourn till the deputies may have transacted their business.

There is also a chamber of accounts which manages the revenues of the province, and has the absolute disposal of the lands belonging to the states. The revenue arising from these lands is seldom applied to the use of the public, except upon urgent occasions, but is usually distributed among magistrates, and officers grown old in the service.

The government of the province of Friesland is very different from that of Holland, being composed of four members, viz. the quarter of Oftergo, the quarter of Westergo, with that of Seven-Wolden, and those of the towns of the province. The quarter of Oftergo consists of eleven baillages; the quarter of Westergo of nine, and the quarter of Seven-Wolden of ten; each baillage comprehending about twelve or fifteen villages. The towns of the province which send deputies are eleven. The four members above mentioned choose their respective representatives, viz. two out of every baillage, and two out of every town, which compose the assembly of the states-provincial, who deliberate and conclude all matters relating to the government of the province, without having recourse to their constituents, either for instruction or consent.

In Friesland likewise every baillie or greetman summons all persons possessed of a certain quantity of land within his baillage, a majority of whom choose the two representatives to be sent to the provincial assembly. The baillie also and his assessors compose a court of justice for civil matters, from which there lies no appeal to the court of justice of the province.

In the province of Groningen the deputies or representatives elected to serve in the assembly of the states of the province, are chosen, as in Friesland, by freeholders, or persons possessed of a certain portion of land. And in Overysel, all the nobility and gentry who have manors, are qualified to be members of the states of that province.

The constitution of the government in the provinces of Guelderland, Zealand, and Utrecht, resembles nearly that of Holland; the states of each province being composed of the deputies or representatives of the nobility and cities. There are however some trifling differences between them. For instance, in Guelderland, all the nobility and gentry possessing sinecure lands, have a seat, and vote in the assembly of the states of the province. Such members compose one half of the states, as the representatives of the towns do the other half; and though certain persons of their number are deputed to the states-general, yet any of the nobility of Guelderland are entitled to a seat in that court, if they will attend at their own charges.

The nobility of Zealand having been almost extinguished in the wars with Spain, and the prince of

Orange being proprietor of the marquisates of Flushing and Terveer, this prince alone represents that part of the states of the province, under the title of the first, or sole noble of Zealand, by virtue of which his deputy has the first place and voice in the assembly of the states of Zealand; as he has likewise in their council of state, and chamber of accounts, as sovereign of Flushing and Terveer. He also appoints the magistrates, and consequently disposes of the votes of those two towns, as well as the votes of the nobility; and there are but six towns which send deputies to the assembly of the province of Zealand.

The council of state consists of representatives of the several provinces, of which the province of Holland sends three, the provinces of Guelderland, Zealand, and Utrecht, two each; and the other three provinces one a-piece. The council of state for all the United Provinces therefore consists of twelve members, who do not vote by provinces, as in the assembly of the states-general, but by general voices. Every deputy presides by turns, and in this council, the stadtholder or governor of the United Provinces has a voice, and the casting vote. The treasurer-general has a seat here, and may give his opinion, but has no vote, though his place be for life; as is that of the deputy sent by the nobility of Holland, and the deputies of the province of Zealand. The other deputies are appointed only for two, three, or four years. This council of state executes the resolutions of the states-general, proposes the number of troops requisite for the ensuing year, with the method of raising them, and of levying money for the exigencies of the government. They also superintend the militia, fortifications, and contributions levied on the enemy in time of war, with the revenues and government of the conquered places acquired since the Union, which being obtained by the common arms of the state, depend on the states-general, and not on any particular province.

The authority of the stadtholder enters deeply into the government of this country, and though the states have more than once endeavoured to suppress it, their attempts for this purpose have always proved ineffectual, and sometimes dangerous to the public liberty.

This great office commenced immediately after the union of Utrecht, in the person of William prince of Orange, in whose family it has mostly continued ever since, and is now made hereditary by a law of the states. The stadtholder is vested with the command of all the forces both by sea and land; and he has the disposal of all the military employments, governments of towns, &c. He likewise enjoys the power of pardoning crimes. As the states-general represent the sovereignty of the state, so does the stadtholder its dignity, by public guards and the attendance of all the military officers, as well as by the splendor of his court.

At the end of every year the council presents to the states-general an estimate of the expences which are judged necessary for the ensuing year, that they may demand of the states-provincial their respective proportions. In every hundred pound sterling each province raises the following sums, by such ways

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and means as they respectively judge to be the most proper.

	£.	s.	d.
Guelderland - - -	7	0	0
Holland - - -	42	0	0
Zealand - - -	13	0	0
Utrecht - - -	8	0	0
Friesland - - -	17	0	0
Overyffel - - -	5	0	0
Groningen and the Omlanda	8	0	0
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	100	0	0

The chamber of accounts takes nff part of the trouble from the council of state. The business of the former is to examine and state all accounts of the several receivers, and to controul and register the orders of the council of state, which disposes of the revenue. This chamber is composed of two deputies sent from each province, who are changed every three years.

The next great office is the court of admiralty, which, after the states-general, by the advice of the council of state, have concluded on the number and force of the fleet to be fitted out, has the absolute disposal of all marine affairs, as well in the choice and equipment of the several ships, as in issuing the money allotted for that service.

In Amsterdam the sovereign power is lodged in thirty-six senators, who hold their places for life. When any of them dies, the remaining senators elect another in his room, the people not being permitted to have any share in the nomination. The senate has the choice of the deputies to be sent to the states of Holland, and appoints the chief magistrates of the city, namely, the burgo-masters and eschevins. The number of burgo-masters is four, of whom three are chosen annually, one of them remaining in office; but the three last chosen are styled the reigning burgo-masters for the year, and after the first three months preside by turns. They are elected by a majority of such persons in the senate as have been burgo-masters or eschevins, and they have the disposal of all inferior offices that fall vacant during their administration. They likewise issue money out of the treasury for the public service, and are in a manner vested with the whole executive power of the state. Those offices however are attended with little profit, the salary not exceeding five hundred gilders or fifty pounds a year; but the persons who hold them are liable to no extraordinary charge, either for equipage or entertainments; and when they have acquitted themselves with reputation, they are generally preferred to more lucrative places.

In every town there is a court of justice, consisting of the eschevins, or aldermen, who are sole judges in all criminal cases; but in civil, there lies an appeal to the court of justice of the province, if the matter in dispute be of importance. They never pronounce sentence of death, without first communicating the case to the burgo-masters; but this is only a matter

of form, the latter having no power to controul or suspend the judgment.

The countries lying between the Scyue and Rhine, and united to the Roman empire by Julius Cæsar, were anciently named Gallia Belgica. On the decline of that empire, the Franks in Germany erected a kingdom in Gaul, under the denomination of Frankland or France, of which the territory of Gallia Belgica was esteemed a part. When Germany became separated from France, most of this country fell to the share of the former; but being so much wasted by frequent depredations, it was almost abandoned by the natives, and for want of cultivation, either overrun with forests, or covered with bogs and marshes. The Franks and northern nations divided it into seventeen provinces, over which they placed as many governors or sovereigns, with limited powers, who transacted nothing of consequence without the consent of the states, consisting of the nobility and clergy. The governors or sovereigns of Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg, and Guelderland, were styled dukes; those of Flanders, Artois, Hainault, Holland, Zealand, Namur, and Zutphen, had the title of counts or earls; while those of Friesland, Mechlin, Utrecht, Overyffel, and Groningen, enjoyed the dignity of barons; and the governor of Antwerp was distinguished with the rank of marquis.

About the year 1430, all those different governments were, by marriages, conquest, or contracts, united in the house of Burgundy, of which Charles, surnamed the Warlike, being killed in a battle with the Switzers, the princess Mary, his only daughter and heiress, married Maximilian of Austria, son of the emperor Frederick, whom he succeeded in the empire, in 1482. The archduke Philip, the issue of this alliance, married Joanna, the daughter and heiress of Ferdinand and Isabella, king and queen of Spain, whose son, Charles V. became entitled to the Netherlands, then under the dominion of Spain, and afterwards denominated the Austrian Netherlands, on their descending to the heir of that house. This prince constituted the provinces and territories of Burgundy one of the circles of the empire, by the name of the circle of Burgundy.

After the erection of the different governments in the Netherlands, those provinces enjoyed great privileges and an extensive commerce for many years. No laws were made, nor taxes imposed, without the consent of the respective states of each province; neither were any foreigners suffered to hold a post in the administration, or any foreign troops introduced, till Charles the Warlike, being at war with France, invaded those ancient regulations, which occasioned some discontent. The emperor Charles V. quartered upon the provinces still greater bodies of troops, consisting of Spaniards, Italians, and Germans; but this prince being beloved by the people, they submitted without murmuring to those exertions of the royal authority, till their liberties continuing to be infringed, under the government of his son Philip II. an unpopular sovereign, a revolt was excited in the Netherlands, which terminated in the

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the subversion of the Spanish power in those seven divisions of the country, afterwards called the United Provinces. Since that time the several provinces have maintained a strict confederacy, and possessed themselves of important settlements in various quarters of the globe. But though the professed enemies of regal government, they have at length vested the executive power in a stadtholder, whose authority differs little more than in name, from that of a limited monarch.

#### AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

**T**HE Austrian Netherlands are bounded on the north by the United Provinces; on the east by Germany; on the south by France; and on the west by part of France, and the English channel. They consist of ten provinces, namely, Brabant, Antwerp, Malines or Mechlin, Limburg, Luxembourg, Namur, Hainault, Cambresis, Artois, and Flanders; extending in length about two hundred miles, and in breadth a hundred and thirty. The province of Flanders is one continued flat; but in others there is a mixture of hills and valleys, interspersed with woods, enclosures, and champain. South of Brussels lies the forest of Soignies, and farther southward that of Ardenne, being each a remainder of the great Hyrcynian Forest. The air is much better here than in the United Provinces; except on the coast of Flanders and Brabant, which are as unhealthy as Holland.

The chief rivers are, 1. The Maese, which rising in Burgundy, runs northward through Lorraine and Champain into the Netherlands, passing by Verdun, Sedan, and Dinant, and receiving the Sambre at Namur, proceeds north-west by Liege, Maefricht, Venlo, and Grave; whence, having joined the Waal, it runs towards the west, and discharges itself in the British sea. 2. The Scheld, which rises on the confines of Picardy, and runs north-east by Cambray, Valenciennes, Conde, Tournay, and Oudenard, uniting its waters with the Lis at Ghent, and thence running through Antwerp, continues its course north into the United Provinces: one branch of it, called the Ofter-Scheld, runs north, and the other, called the Western-Scheld, runs almost due west into the sea. The other most considerable rivers are, the Demer, Dyle, Ruppel, Nethe, Gut, Senna, Scarpe, Deule, and Donder; besides which are several noble canals, particularly those of Brussels, Ghent, Bruges, Ostend, and Dunkirk. The chief ports in Flanders are, Gravelin, Dunkirk, Newport, Ostend, and Sluys. The principal of these is Ostend, the others hardly admitting ships of burthen. Antwerp in Brabant, near the mouth of the Scheld, is an excellent harbour, but the Dutch have in a manner cut off all communication with the sea, by the forts which they have built at the mouth of the river. Sluys, in Dutch Flanders, is also a pretty good port.

The duchy of Brabant, including the marquisate of Antwerp, and the lordship of Malines or Mechlin, lies contiguous to the United Provinces on the south.

It is divided into four parts, namely, the quarter of Louvain, Antwerp, Brussels, and Boisleeve.

The city of Louvain stands on the river Dyle, fifteen miles north-east of Brussels, and is about seven miles in circumference, but a place of no great strength. It was formerly very considerable for its manufactures, containing at one time no less than four thousand master weavers; but it is now much declined, though it still has a trade in fine linen. Its great ornament at present is the university, founded about the year 926, but first endowed by John IV. duke of Brabant, in 1525. The situation and buildings of this university are much admired, as well as its noble endowments. The other towns in this quarter are, Tienen or Tilmont, St. Truen, or St. Tron, Lewe, Dieft, Gembleurs, Halen, Sicken, Judoigne, Hannue, Landen, and Ramillies.

In the quarter of Antwerp the chief towns are, Antwerp, Breda, Lillo, Lier, Herentals, and Hoogstraten.

Antwerp, capital of the marquisate of Antwerp, is situate on the east bank of the Scheld, in 4 degrees 15 minutes of east longitude, and in 51 degrees 15 minutes of north latitude, twenty-five miles north of Brussels, and thirty west of Louvain. It lies in a low fenny ground, and is built in the form of a crescent. The Scheld here being twenty foot deep, and the tide rising twelve foot more, ships of burthen may unload at the keys. Eight canals also are cut from the river for the convenience of carrying vessels into the town, some of which will contain a hundred sail. This circumstance rendered it one of the most safe and commodious harbours in Europe, till the Dutch cut off the communication with the sea, by their forts towards the mouth of the Scheld, and thus diverted the trade to their own ports. The city is about seven miles in circumference, and surrounded by a beautiful wall and bastions faced with stone. The top of the wall is not less than a hundred foot broad, and well planted with trees. There are thirteen noble gates, of which eight front the river, and have near them their several keys, where vessels are laden and unladen. The streets of the city are broad and regular, and the buildings magnificent.

The citadel, which stands on the south side of the city, on the bank of the Scheld, is a pentagon of five royal bastions, about a mile in compass. Here are large repositories for ammunition, and provision, with convenient accommodation for three thousand soldiers. This fort, which was erected during the government of the duke of Alva, gave the first check to the trade and greatness of Antwerp.

The trade of the English was once so great at this place, that they had an exchange to themselves. There is another common to all nations, built after the model of that of London, but supported by forty-three pillars of white marble, and standing in the centre of four large streets. The commerce of Antwerp was at its greatest height about the middle of the sixteenth century, when it was supposed to contain two hundred thousand inhabitants. But the Dutch forming their state

state a little after, and making themselves masters of the islands of Zealand, which lie at the mouth of the Scheld, diverted the current of trade to Amsterdam, and other cities of Holland. This event was not a little promoted by the oppressive government of the king of Spain. To which we may add, queen Elizabeth's being at war with that crown, and consequently favouring the derivation of the trade from the Spanish dominions towards the United Provinces.

The city of Breda, the capital of Dutch Brabant, is situate in 4 degrees 45 minutes of east longitude, and in 51 degrees 35 minutes of north latitude, in a flat country on the bank of the river Merk, thirty miles north-east of Antwerp, and as many to the southward of Rotterdam. It is a large, populous, well built city, regularly fortified, and has usually a numerous garrison of the troops of the states. It was taken from the Spaniards in the year 1637, by the prince of Orange, in whose family the property and civil government of the place still remains.

Bergen-op-zoom stands on an eminence in the middle of a morass, half a league from the eastern branch of the Scheld, with which it has a communication by a navigable canal. It lies about twenty miles north of Antwerp, and as many to the westward of Breda. This place, which is strongly fortified by nature as well as art, is of great importance, not only by securing the communication between Holland and Zealand, but opening to the Dutch a way into Austrian Brabant.

The chief towns in the quarter of Brussels are, Brussels, Nivelles, Senef, and Vilvorden.

Brussels, the capital of the province of Brabant, and of all the Austrian Netherlands, is situate in 4 degrees 8 minutes of east longitude, and 50 degrees 51 minutes of north latitude. It stands on the side of a hill on the little river Senne, twenty-two miles south of Antwerp, and twenty-six south-east of Ghent. It is surrounded by a wall and other fortifications; but being six miles in circumference, they would require an army to defend them. In this city are many noble abbeys and monasteries. The river Senne running through it, and joining the Kuppel, which falls into the Scheld by a fine navigable canal, near twenty miles in length, this place has a free communication with Antwerp and other cities. The country round it is well planted with fruit and forest trees, and watered with fountains, canals, and rivulets.

Nivelles stands near fifteen miles south of Brussels, near the head of the river Senne, and is one of the most pleasant towns in the Netherlands, but has no other fortifications than a single wall. This town enjoys great privileges, and is considerable for a linen manufacture equal to that of Cambray. Here also is a nunnery of noble ladies, who enjoy all manner of innocent freedoms, and are not confined to their cloyster, as in other places. Their governess, styled Madame de Nivelles, is chosen by themselves, with the consent of the sovereign and the pope.

Senef is a town five miles to the southward of Nivelles, memorable for a battle fought near it in 1671, between

the French and Dutch; and Vilvorden is situated on the river Senne, between Mechlin and Brussels, two leagues distant from each.

In the quarter of Bois-le-Duc, the chief towns are, Bois-le-Duc, Helmont, Eindhoven, Mege, Ravenstein, Grave, Maestricht, Crevecœur, and Hoxtal.

Bois-le-Duc is situate in 6 degrees 16 minutes of east longitude, and in 31 degrees 45 minutes of north latitude, on the river Dommet, twenty-three miles north-east of Breda, and seventeen miles west of Grave. It stands on a rising ground, in the middle of a large morass, and during great part of the year can be approached only by causeys, on which are built forts and redoubts for its defence. The town is about four or five miles in circumference, regularly fortified, and is one of the strongest upon the Dutch frontiers. Through it run several navigable canals, over which lie fifty stone bridges. Ten of the principal streets center in a spacious market-place, surrounded with good buildings.

Maestricht stands on the west bank of the river Maese, fifteen miles north of Liege, and thirty-five east of Louvain. It is about four miles in circumference, and strongly fortified. The streets are large, the old buildings of wood, and the new of brick. The stadthouse is built after the model of that of Amsterdam. On the west side the city has a suburb, called the Wyck, of which the bishop of Liege has the civil government, though both this and the city be within the dominions of the Dutch.

The little province of Mechlin, or Malines, is about ten miles long, and five broad. Its capital, which bears the same name, stands on the river Dyle, about twelve miles north-east of Brussels, eleven miles north-west of Louvain, and thirteen south-east of Antwerp. It is a large well built city, and fortified, but of no great strength; consisting of several islands, made either by the branches of the Dyle or artificial canals, over which are a great many bridges. The tanners and weavers trade flourished much here formerly, and are still considerable. The town is also famous for casting bells and great guns; but the manufacture for which it is now most distinguished is that of lace, considered as the finest in the Low Countries.

On the border of this province stands the little town of Arschot, erected into a duchy by Charles V. It is seated on the river Demer, twelve miles to the eastward of Mechlin, and has a small territory belonging to it, the inheritance of the ancient family of Croys.

The province of Limburg is bounded on the north and east by the duchy of Juliers; on the south by Luxemburg, and on the west by the bishoprick of Liege; being about thirty miles long, and twenty broad. It consists of good arable and pasture lands, with plenty of wood, and some of the best iron mines in the Netherlands. The chief towns are, Limburg, Dalem, Baldock, and Valkenburg, or Fauquemont. The town of Limburg stands on a steep rock twenty miles south-east of Liege, and about twelve south-west of Aix-la-Chapelle, and is a little fortified town, but not of great strength.

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*Habit of a Lady of Quality in Syria.*



*This Lady's Head-dress is a high Bonnet covered with Velvet, and adorned with a Gold Thread put on in Squares; from the top of this Bonnet hangs a thin Veil curiously wrought with Needle-work, which falls over the Shoulders. The under Garment is close; the Sleeves long and narrow: Over this Garment is worn another of Amasine, and over that another with an embroidered Edge: They wear Chains of Gold and Jewels hang loose round their Necks, and paint themselves immoderately with white & red.*

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The province of Luxemburg is bounded on the north by the bishoprick of Liege and duchy of Limburg; on the east by the river Moselle, which divides it from Trier; on the south by the duchy of Lorraine; and on the west by the river Maese, which separates it from the counties of Champaign, Hainault, and Namur; being about seventy miles long and sixty broad. The north part of it is a fruitful soil, but the south is incumbered with the mountains, and the forest of Ardenne. The north division, which is much the largest, is subject to Austria, and the southern to France. The chief towns are, Luxemburg, Thionville, Montmedy, Damvillers, Yvoix, La Forêt, Aftensy, Morville, Rode Macheren, Konings Macheren, Sirick, Maseres, Durly, La Roche, St. Vita, Viande, Eich-Ternach, Baifoigne, Neufchattel, and Virton.

Luxemburg, the capital of the Austrian division of this province, stands on the river Else or Aistat, a hundred miles south-east of Brussels, seated on a rock, and strongly fortified, but not large. Its ancient name was Luciburgum, and it is supposed to have been built in honour of the sun.

Thionville, capital of the French division of this province, is situate fourteen miles south of Luxemburg, and is a well built, fortified town.

The province of Namur is bounded on the north by Brabant; on the east and south by the bishoprick of Liege; and on the west by the province of Hainault; extending about thirty miles in length, and twenty in breadth. It is a fruitful country, and has good mines of lead and iron. The chief towns are, Namur, Bouvines, Waicourt, Charleroy, and Charlemont.

The city of Namur stands at the confluence of the Sambre and the Maese, thirty miles south-east of Brussels. It is defended by a castle situated on a rock, and esteemed one of the strongest fortresses in the Netherlands. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Cambray.

Charleroy stands on a hill near the river Sambre, twenty miles west of Namur, and is also reckoned a very strong fortress.

The province of Hainault is bounded on the north by Brabant and Flanders; on the east by Namur and Liege; on the south by Cambresis, Picardy, and Champaign; and on the west by Artois, and another part of Flanders. The north part of it is subject to Austria, and the south to France. The chief towns in the French division are, Valenciennes, Bouchain, Conde, Bavay, Maubeuge, Le Quesnoy, Avesnes, Zandrecy, Philipville, and Marienburg; and of the Austrian division, Mons, Aeth, Brain le Compte, St. Gillian, Enghien, Bincha, Halle, Laînes, Roches, Soignes, and Beaumont.

Valenciennes, the capital of the French Hainault, is situate on the river Scheld, fifteen miles south of Tournay, and seventeen south-west of Mons. It is a large well built town, strongly fortified and defended by a citadel; and as it stands in a flat country, abounding with rivulets, its environs may be laid under water upon any emergency. The inhabitants had

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formerly a brisk trade in cloth and French wines, but the chief manufactures at present are those of silk and linen.

Mons, capital of the Austrian Hainault, stands on a hill, twenty-six miles south-west of Brussels, and twelve miles south-east of Tournay, near the confluence of the rivers Haine and Trouille. It was formerly a strong place, but the works were demolished by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. It is a bishop's see, and there the states of the province assemble.

The Cambresis, or province of Cambray, is situated in the south-west part of the Netherlands, and is a fruitful country, about twenty-five miles long and ten broad. The chief towns are Cambray, Chateau, Cambresis, and Crevecoeur.

Cambray is situate on the river Scheld, near its source, fourteen miles south-west of Valenciennes, and fifteen south-east of Douay. It is a large well built city, regularly fortified and defended by two citadels; and as the adjacent country may also be overflowed, it is considered as one of the strongest towns in the Netherlands. The principal manufacture is that of fine linen, thence called Cambric.

The province of Artois lies between Flanders and Picardy, and is about sixty miles long, and twenty-five broad. It was confirmed to France by the Pyrenean treaty in 1659; and having been so long in the possession of that crown, the natives are perfectly assimilated with the French in the other provinces of the kingdom. The chief towns are, Arras, St. Omer, Aire, Bethune, St. Venant, Bassaume, Hefden, Terrouen, Lens, Averno de Compte, St. Paul, and Munt St. Eloy.

Arras, the capital of the province, is situate in 2 degrees 50 minutes of east longitude, and in 50 degrees 20 minutes of north latitude; standing on the river Scarpe, twelve miles south-west of Douay, and twenty-two miles north-west of Cambray. It is a large fortified town, with considerable manufactures both of linen and woollen; but it is chiefly distinguished for that tapestry, whence its name is derived. It is also the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Cambray. The cathedral, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is a magnificent structure. In a chapel here the priests show a wax taper burning, which they pretend does not consume, and was sent to them from heaven. They have also a pot of manna, said to have been obtained in the same way; and this they expose in a dry season, when prayers are put up for rain. The town of Arras is generally well built, the streets broad, and the market-place spacious. Its ancient name was Atrabatum, and it was the capital of the Atrabates in the time of Cæsar.

St. Omer stands on the river Aa, twenty miles south of Dunkirk, and eighteen miles south-east of Calais. It is a large trading town, having a communication with the sea by a navigable canal, which extends thence to Graveline. It has been famous for an English seminary of Jesuits, and is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Cambray.

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The province of Flanders is bounded on the north by the German ocean, and the United Provinces; on the east by the Brabant; on the south by Hainault and Artois; and on the west by another part of Artois, and the German ocean; being about sixty miles long and fifty broad. It is divided between the Austrians, the French, and the Dutch. This province is one continued flat, watered with innumerable rivers and canals, and not only exceeding fruitful, but commodiously situated for trade, and has some of the finest cities in Europe, with above a thousand other towns and villages. The produce of the country is chiefly fine lace, linen, and tapestry.

In the Dutch division, which lies in the north-east part of the province, the principal towns are, Sluys, Ardenburg, Middleburg, Sas-van-Ghent, Hulst, Axel, Liefkens, Terneus, Philippin, Biervliet, Isendick, Obburg, with Cadfant-fort and island.

Sluys, the most commodious port of Flanders, is situated about ten miles north-east of Bruges, which city can have no communication with the sea, by the way of the Scheld, when the Dutch are disposed to obstruct the passage.

Sas-van-Ghent, or the port of Ghent, lies about twelve miles to the northward of that city, and is a small but strong fortress, situate in a morass; by the possession of which the Dutch may at their pleasure cut off all communication between Ghent and the sea.

Cadfant island is situate at the mouth of the Scheld, over against the island of Walkeren. It is about nine miles in length and four in breadth, containing a fort of the same name, by which the Dutch secure their communication between Flanders and the islands of Zealand.

The chief towns of the Austrian division, which is the largest, are, Ghent, Bruges, Damme, Ostend, Plafendal, Newport, Dayns, Dendermont, Rupelmond, Alost, Ninove, Oudenard, Harlebeck, Courtray, Menin, Comines, Warwick, Warneton, Tournay, Ypres, Fort Knoque, Dixmuyde, and Furnes.

Ghent, the capital of Flanders, is situate in 4 degrees of east longitude, and in 51 degrees 24 minutes of north latitude, on four navigable rivers, viz. the Scheld, the Lys, the Licue, and the Mourwater. It is about twelve miles in circumference, defended with walls and other fortifications, besides a castle; notwithstanding which it is a place of no great strength, on account of its extent being disproportioned to any moderate garrison. More than half the ground within the walls consists of fields and gardens. It is divided into twenty-six islands, by the rivers and canals which run through it; over which are laid three hundred bridges. On the Bridge called Dogabrack, are two brazen statues representing a son beheading his father. The tradition is, that both being condemned to die, a pardon was offered to him who should execute the other; and the father having prevailed with the son to take the office upon him, as he was ready to strike, the blade of the sword broke in his hand, which being looked upon as miraculous, the pardon was extended

to both. The stadthouze and cathedral here are handsome structures. Besides the latter there are seven parish churches, with fifty-five monasteries and nunneries, among which is an English nunnery. Here the silk and woollen manufactures, as well as that of linen, greatly flourish, and the city has likewise a brisk trade in corn. It is a bishop's see, under the archbishop of Mechlin; and likewise the seat of the provincial court, from which there lies an appeal to that of Mechlin.

Bruges lies twenty-four miles north-west of Ghent, and eight miles east of Ostend, on the grand canal which reaches between those cities. It is about four or five miles in circumference, surrounded by a wall and other fortifications, but not able to sustain a brisk siege. The town is populous, well built, and has a spacious market-place, in which six of the principal streets terminate. It contains seven parish churches besides the cathedral, with sixty monasteries and nunneries, among which is one for English nuns. Before the revolt of the United Provinces, or rather before Antwerp arrived to its grandeur, this was the most commercial town in Europe. Having a communication with the sea by means of the new canal to Ostend, it is still a place of good trade. The chief manufactures are those of woollen cloth and stuffs, linen and tapestry.

Ostend is situated ten miles west of Bruges, on a morass, almost surrounded by wide trenches filled with sea water, and has the best harbour in Flanders, next to that of Sluys. The town is not large, but the houses are generally well built, and the streets not only regular but well paved. It is environed with modern fortifications, which, with its boggy situation renders it one of the strongest towns in Flanders.

Newport, another of the five ports of Flanders, lies near the sea-shore, eight miles south-west of Ostend, and fifteen west of Bruges, at the mouth of a small river. The town is fortified, but not very considerable either for its buildings or trade.

Dendermond stands twelve miles to the eastward of Ghent, at the confluence of the Dender and Scheld. It is a strong fortress surrounded by meadows, and can only be approached by causeys, when the citizens think proper to lay the country round them under water.

Oudenard lies fourteen miles south of Ghent, and is situated on the river Scheld, which divides it into two parts. It is almost surrounded by meadows, except that there is a hill which commands it on the south side. The streets are wide and handsome, and there are several fine churches and monasteries. The town carries on a flourishing trade, consisting chiefly of linen and tapestry.

Courtray stands on the river Lys, twenty-six miles south-west of Ghent, and twelve miles north-east of Lisle, strong by nature as well as art, and also defended by a good citadel. It is a populous place, and has a brisk trade both in the linen and woollen manufactures.

Tournay is situate on the river Scheld, thirteen miles east of Lisle, and twenty-one west of Mons.

It is a large elegant town, containing seventeen parishes, and has a good linen manufacture.

Ypres, or Ipres, is situate in a flat country, on the river Ipre, about ten miles westward of Menin, and eighteen northward of Lille. It is a large town, regularly fortified, and by its sluices can lay the neighbouring country under water. The streets are broad, and the market-place the most capacious of any in Flanders; surrounded by a piazza; but the houses are built of timber.

The chief towns in French Flanders are, Lille, Duokirk, Mardyke, Gravelin, Berg St. Winock, Doway, Orchies, Armentiers, La Bassé, L'Eoluse, St. Amand, Lanoy, and Bourbourg.

Lille, or Ryffel, is situate on the river Deule, twenty-five miles north of Arras, and fourteen west of Tou nay. It had formerly stood in a lake, on which account it received its name; but the waters are now drained off. The silk manufacture, with that of fine linen and cambric, are here in great perfection; and their camblots are much admired. It is the capital of French Flanders; and from the elegance of its buildings, and its flourishing trade, usually styled Petit Paris.

Dunkirk is situate on the British channel, at the mouth of the river Coln, twenty miles east of Calais, twenty-two south-west of Ostend, and fifty east of Dover. The fortifications of this port cost France an incredible sum of money. The place was taken from the Spaniards by the united forces of Britain and France, and was put into the hands of the former nation in 1658, but afterwards sold to the latter in the reign of Charles II. The French much improved the fortifications, and in the succeeding wars it was the station of their privateers, which greatly molested the English trade. At the treaty of Utrecht, therefore, Britain insisted on the harbour and fortifications being demolished, which was accordingly done; but in the late war the French attempted to rebuild the works, but were again obliged to demolish them by the peace of 1763.

Douay stands on the river Scarpe, fifteen miles south of Lille. It is a large populous town, and strongly fortified. The principal manufacture is worsted camblots. Here is a considerable seminary of English Roman Catholics, founded by Philip II. king of Spain, about the year 1569.

The Austrian Netherlands are subject to the empress-queen, who assembles the states of each province by her viceroy, when money is wanted for the support of the government, or when any alteration in their laws is deemed to be expedient. The states consist of the bishops, abbots, and dignified clergy; with the nobility and gentry, and representatives of the several towns. They all meet at Brussels, except those of Luxemburg, who assemble in the capital of their own province. Besides the viceroy or governor-general, there is in each province an inferior governor. Every province also has its own court of justice, from which there lies an appeal to the supreme court at Malines. Their judges are usually governed in these determinations by the civil and canon laws, and the particular customs of each province.

As the Netherlands lie between France and Holland, the inhabitants frequently speak both French and Dutch, and have also a language, called Flemish, which is a barbarous mixture of the two. In their manners and customs, they for the most part resemble the people of the country to which they are most near. In Dutch Flanders and Brabant they are Calvinists, as in Holland; in the other parts, generally Roman Catholics, but far from being bigots; and the Inquisition prevails not here any more than in France.

In those provinces there are two archbishopricks, viz. Cambrai and Malines, and nine bishopricks, namely, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer's, Namur, and Ruremond. The universities are those of Louvain, Douay, and St. Omer's. The coins of Germany and France are current here.

## F R A N C E.

### C H A P. I.

*Of the situation — air — mountains — rivers — provinces — chief towns*

**T**HE kingdom of France is situated between 5 degrees of west, and 8 degrees of east longitude, and between 42 and 51 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by the British channel and the Austrian Netherlands; on the east by Germany, Switzerland, Savoy, and Piedmont; on the south by the Mediterranean Sea, and the Pyrenean mountains, which separate it from Spain; and on the west by the

Bay of Biscay. It is almost a square of six hundred miles on each side, except that the province of Brittany makes it irregular, by extending near a hundred miles farther to the westward than any other part.

The temperature of the air in this country is perhaps the most healthful of any in Europe, and towards the north, the soil produces corn, wine, oil, and flax, in great abundance.

The chief mountains are, the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which separate it from Spain; the Vauge, which divides Lorraine from Burgundy and Alsace; Mount Jura, which separates

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Dauphine from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and mount Dor; in the province of Auvergne.

The principal rivers are; the Rhone, which rises in Switzerland, and is joined at Lyons by the Soane; after which, dividing Dauphine and Provence from Languedoc, it falls into the Mediterranean below Arles, receiving also in its passage the rivers Isere and Durance. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenees, and running north-west, falls into the Bay of Biscay, below Bourdeaux; after receiving the rivers Lot and Dordonne. The Charente rises in Limosin, and running westward, falls into the Bay of Biscay below Rochort. The Loire rises in the Cevennes, whence running northward, and afterwards to the west by Orleans, it falls into the Bay of Biscay below Nantz, receiving in its passage the Aller, the Cher, Vienne, the Little Loire, the Sarre, and the Mayenne. The Seine rises in Burgundy, and running north-west by Paris and Rouen, falls into the British channel at Havre de Grace, after being joined by the Yonne, the Aube, the Marne, and Ouse. The Rhine rises in Switzerland, and running north-west, divides Alsace from Suabia, being the boundary between the territories of France and Germany towards the east. Continuing its course north through the Netherlands, it there divides itself into three streams, receiving in its passage the Moselle and the Sarre. The Maese or Meuse rises in Champaign, and running north through Lorraine and the Netherlands, falls into the German sea below the Briel, after receiving the Sambre at Namur. The Scheld rises in the confines of Picardy, and running north-east through the Netherlands, turns westward, and falls into the German sea at the island of Walcheren, receiving the Lis at Ghent, and the Scarpe at Conde. The Somme running north-west through Picardy, falls into the British channel below Abbeville. The Var rises in the Alps, and running south, divides France from Italy, falling afterwards into the Mediterranean west of Nice. The Adour runs from east to west through Gascony, and falls into the Bay of Biscay below Bayonne.

France is divided into fifteen large provinces, viz. Picardy, Isle of France, Champaign, Normandy, Brittany, Orleanois, Lionois, Provence, Languedoc, Guienne, Gascony, Dauphine, Burgundy, Lorraine, and Alsace.

The province of Picardy is bounded on the north and east by the French Netherlands and the Straits of Dover; on the south by the Isle of France; and on the west by the British Channel, and the province of Normandy; being about a hundred and fifty miles long, and from twenty to forty broad. It is for the most part a plain open country, without woods or mountains producing corn, pasture, and fruits, but no wine.

The chief towns are, 1. Amiens, capital of the province, situate in 2 degrees and 30 minutes of east longitude, and in 49 degrees 34 minutes of north latitude, on the river Somme, sixty-five miles south of Calais, and eighty north of Paris. It is a large beautiful town, and has some manufactures of woollen

and linen, being also the see of a bishop, under the archbishop of Rheims.

2. Calais is situate on the coast of the English channel, twenty-one miles south-east of Dover, and a hundred and fifty-two north of Paris. It is well fortified, and has a citadel, which commands both town and country; but its greatest strength consists in its situation among the marshes, and in the power of overflowing the environs upon the approach of an enemy. A navigable canal runs from it to St. Omer's, Graveline, Dunkirk, Bergues, and Ypres. The inhabitants are computed at four thousand. This place was taken by Edward III. king of England, in 1347, and lost in the reign of queen Mary, in 1557. It was anciently a good harbour, but is now so choked up, as not to admit any vessels of burden.

3. Creffy is situate forty-four miles south of Calais, and memorable for the victory obtained in its neighbourhood over the French, by Edward III. of England, in 1346.

4. Abbeville stands fifteen miles east of the British channel, and is considerable for its woollen manufacture.

5. Boulogne is situate on the British channel, at the mouth of the river Laine, sixteen miles south-west of Calais. This town was taken by Henry VIII. king of England, but restored to France, in consideration of receiving three hundred thousand crowns.

The Isle of France is bounded on the north by Picardy, on the east by Champaign, on the south by Orleanois, and on the west by Normandy. The capital of this province, and of the whole kingdom is Paris, situate in a degree 25 minutes of east longitude, and in 48 degrees 50 minutes of north latitude. This city is usually divided into three parts; the largest of which, called the town, stands on the north side of the river Seine; the city, which is the most ancient part, consists of three small islands in the middle of the river; and the other part, or the university, is seated on the south side of the Seine, having in it several little hills. The whole town is of a circular form, and about eighteen miles in circumference; but though, according to this computation, it occupies more ground than London, it is not near so populous, the inhabitants of Paris not amounting to more than seven hundred thousand, whereas those of the former are supposed to exceed this number, in the proportion of almost a third part. The houses of Paris are built of white hewn stone, five, six, or seven stories high; and there are a great many palaces, with beautiful gardens, belonging to the nobility; but being shut up from the streets by high dead walls, they rather increase the bulk, than add to the embellishment of the city. The streets are generally narrow, without pavement for foot passengers, and in the night are illuminated by lamps suspended on ropes placed across. By the computation of a late French writer, there are here fifty thousand houses, with a family in almost every story; fifty-two parishes, and a hundred and twenty churches, parochial, chapter, or collegiate, including chapels. There are about thirty bridges, but none of them very considerable, except the Pont Neuf,



Neuf, and the Pont Royal. The Louve, and the other royal palaces, where the kings used to reside, are now decayed buildings. The university of Paris is very ancient, having been founded by Charlemagne in the year 790. The college for divinity, named the Sorbonne, and from which the university is sometimes denominated, is one of the finest in Europe, but now upon the decline. Among the public institutions are, the academy of sciences, that for improving the French language, and others for the improvement of painting, sculpture, and architecture, as well as that of mechanic arts and manufactures, such as works of iron, steel, copper, brass, wrought plate, tapestry, &c. The chief manufactures are those of gold and silver stuffs, wrought silks, velvet, gold and silver lace, ribbons, tapestry, linen, and glass. Paris is the see of an archbishop, and Notre Dame the metropolitan church. The city is well supplied with provisions of all kinds, which are generally sold at a cheap rate. In the day, the public safety is protected by a corps-de-garde, and at night, by a horse and foot patrol.

About twelve miles south-west of Paris stands Versailles, situated on an eminence in the midst of a fine sporting country, encompassed with hills. It consisted originally of a castle built by Lewis XIII. as a hunting seat, which was afterwards converted into a magnificent palace, by Lewis XIV. who also annexed to it a handsome town. The avenue leading to the palace divides the town into two parts; one of which is called Old Versailles, and the other the New Town. On the side towards Paris this avenue forms three vistas, that in the middle being sixty foot wide, and the others thirty foot each, all planted with elms.

The great court of the palace is four hundred and eighty foot long, with a large pavilion at each corner. It is inclosed with an iron balustrade, and two large buildings, that form the wings on each side, which have balconies supported by columns, and adorned with fine statues. These wings, with pavilions, serve for offices, and have behind them others for the same purpose.

From this court is an ascent of three marble steps into a large landing place, and thence by five more, into a little court paved with black and white marble; in the middle of which is a marble fountain and basin, with statues of gilt copper. The front and wings are of brick and free stone, adorned with marble busts and brackets; and before this front is a balcony, supported by eight marble columns of the Doric order, with red and white spots like jasper, and their bases and capitals of white marble. In the two angles of the wings in the front are hanging pedestals, which support two closets, encompassed with gilt iron cases; and underneath are two basins of white marble in the form of shells, where young Tritons spout water. The middle building has three gilt iron doors in the porch, with apartments on the right and left.

On quitting the great court, through an open porch, we ascend by a stair-case eighty-one foot long, and thirty broad. From the porch an entrance leads to two painted halls. The ceiling of one of them is

supported by eight marble columns of the Doric order, with red and white veins. The capitals and bases are of a greenish colour; and the columns, of which there are four on each side, divide the hall into three parts. On the sides opposite to each column are pilasters of the same marble, that support a cornice under a platform; and fronting the windows are niches with statues.

The other hall is supported by twelve columns of the Ionic order, which have behind them marble pilasters, with red, black, purple, and yellow veins; their capitals and bases being of white marble. From this we enter a third hall of the same dimensions, the ceiling of which is an octagon, with twelve double pedestals of fine marble, on which are placed emblematical figures of the twelve months, in gilt copper. All the parts not hung with tapestry are lined with marble.

The royal apartments are extremely magnificent, and richly ornamented with sculptures and paintings. Their furniture, even to the bedsteads, balustrades, and rails, consist chiefly of massy plate.

The gardens are no less magnificent than the palace, and particularly abound with curious water-works. The labyrinth, which is a fine grove, is admirably executed; and the orangery, or green-house, is a master-piece of its kind.

In the park of Versailles is another palace, called Trianon, which is also very magnificent; and in a contiguous park, is a third royal seat, named Marly, particularly beautiful.

Fontainebleau is situated thirty-five miles south-east of Paris, in a country that is likewise well adapted to hunting. The town is mean, but the palace, though not uniform, and though built at different times in a confused manner, is however very commodious, and has an air of grandeur.

The province of Champagne is bounded on the north by Picardy, on the east by Lorraine, on the south by Burgundy, and on the west by the Isle of France. The chief town is Troyes, situate on the river Seine, ninety miles south-east of Paris. It is a large fortified place, computed to contain fifteen thousand inhabitants, and has a flourishing linen manufacture. The other most considerable towns are, Sens, Langres, Provins, St. Dizier, Chalons, Joinville, and Rheims. The last of these is situated eighty-five miles north-east of Paris, and is one of the most elegant cities in the kingdom. Here is kept the holy oil used at the consecration of the French kings, which, according to their tradition, was brought from heaven by a dove. The archbishop of this see has the right of consecrating the kings, and is a duke and peer of France.

The province of Normandy is bounded on the north by the British channel; on the east by Picardy and the Isle of France; on the south by Orleans; and on the west by Britany, and another part of the British channel; being near two hundred miles in length from east to west, and about a hundred in breadth. It is agreeably diversified with hills and valleys, and is one of the most fruitful provinces in France, except

in wine. It was anciently called Neustria, or West France, till the tenth century, when the Normans and Danes made a conquest of it under Rollo, their first duke. It became afterwards united to the crown of England in the person of William the Conqueror, in which condition it remained till the time of king John.

The chief town is Rouen, situate in 1 degree 10 minutes of east longitude, and in 49 degrees 26 minutes of north latitude, on the north side of the river Seine, seventy miles north-west of Paris, and forty-five south-east of the British channel. The city is about seven miles in circumference, and computed to contain sixty thousand inhabitants. One of the most remarkable objects here is the bridge over the Seine, two hundred and seventy paces in length, supported by boats; whence it becomes higher or lower according to the tide. Rouen is the see of an archbishop, and the seat of a parliament; having also a mint, a college, an academy, two abbeys, and a castle. It is advantageously situated for trade, and is the centre of commerce in the northern parts of France. The other chief towns of this province are, Caudebeck, Eyreux, Gouray, Lisieux, Bajoux, Coutance, Avranches, Seco, Alençon, and Caen. The latter is situated on the river Orne, seventy-five miles west of Rouen, and seven miles south of the British channel, with which it has a communication. It is a place of considerable trade, and contains about forty thousand inhabitants; being likewise the see of a bishop, and having an university. Here William I. king of England, was buried, in the abbey of St. Stephen, which he had founded.

Britany is encompassed on the north, west, and south, by the British channel and the Bay of Biscay; and bounded on the east by the province of Orleanois. The chief towns are, 1. Rennes, the capital, situate on the river Villaine, fifty-eight miles north of Nantz. 2. Nantz, seated on the river Loire, thirty miles east of the ocean. It is a large populous city, and has a very extensive trade, though ships of burden cannot reach it, but are obliged to unload at Pambouf, near the mouth of the river. Here was promulgated, by Henry IV. the famous edict, thence called the edict of Nantz, which was afterwards revoked in 1685. 3. St. Malo, seated on a rock in the English channel, surrounded by the sea, but joined to the continent by a causeway; lying thirty-eight miles north-west of Rennes, and ten miles north of Dinant. The harbour is one of the best on the coast, but of difficult access, and will not admit of large vessels. The town, which is indifferently built, is inhabited chiefly by sea-faring men, and in the time of a war with Britain, fits out a great number of privateers. 4. Brest, situate on Cameret Bay, in the Atlantic Ocean, a hundred and fifty miles north-west of Nantz, and three hundred miles west of Paris. This is one of the principal ports in France for the navy. 5. Port L'Orient, seated at the mouth of the river Blavet, on the north side, seventy-eight miles north-west of Nantz. It is guarded by a fortress, and obtained its name from being the station of the French East-India ships. 6. Port Louis,

seated on the south side of the river Blavet, opposite to Port L'Orient. It has a good harbour, and is a station for part of the royal navy, as well as for the ships of the French East-India Company.

The province of Orleanois is bounded on the north by Normandy and the Isle of France, on the east by Champaign and Burgundy, on the south by Lionois and Guienne, and on the west by Britany and the bay of Biscay. The chief towns of this province are, 1. Orleans, the capital, situated on the river Loire, seventy miles south of Paris. This is a place of great trade, considering that it is an inland town, having a communication with the south-west parts of France, by the river Loire; and with the northern by the canal of Orleans. It is about four miles in circumference, a bishop's see, and the seat of an university. The French language is spoken here with the greatest purity. The inhabitants yet commemorate the famous heroine, Joan of Arc, who by her address retrieved the French affairs after the conquest of the kingdom by Henry V. of England. A statue of her, in complete armour, is placed on the great bridge. 2. Blois, seated on the north side of the Loire, thirty-two miles south-west of Orleans. This is an elegant town, and here the kings have a palace. 3. Tours, situated also on the Loire, sixty miles south-west of Orleans. It is built with a fine white stone, and laid out in spacious streets, adorned with public fountains. Here also is a royal palace, where the states of the nation assembled in the reign of several of their princes. The town is the see of an archbishop. 4. Angers, situate at the confluence of the Little Loire and the Sarthe, a hundred and sixty miles south-west of Paris, and forty-two miles east of Nantz. Part of the town stands on the side of a hill, and the rest in the plain. It is surrounded by a wall with antique fortifications, and commanded by a castle which stands upon a steep rock. The town contains about nine thousand houses, and thirty thousand inhabitants. The cathedral is an elegant structure. It is the see of a bishop under the archbishop of Tours. Here is an university, chiefly for the study of law; with an academy erected by Louis XIV. on the same footing with the royal academy at Paris. 5. Poitiers, situated on an eminence near the little river Clain, seventy miles north-east of Rochelle. This is also the see of a bishop, and seat of an university. Near this city, Edward the Black Prince, son of Edward III. king of England, obtained a complete victory over the French in 1356, making prisoners John, king of France, and his son Philip, whom the conqueror brought over to England. 6. Rochelle, situate on the Bay of Biscay, seventy miles south-west of Poitiers. 7. Rochfort, seated near the mouth of the river Charante, twenty-three miles south of Rochelle. It is a large town, built by Louis XIV. and is one of the stations of the royal navy. Besides those, the other towns of greatest eminence are, Beaufort, Nivers, Nugent, Chartres, Lucen, Angouleme, Bourges, and Montargis.

The province of Lionois is bounded on the north by Orleanois and Burgundy, on the east by the river Rhone, on the south by Languedoc and Guienne, and

on the west by another part of Orleanois. The chief town is Lyons, situated at the confluence of the rivers Rhone and Soane, in 4 degrees 55 minutes of east longitude, and in 45 degrees 50 minutes of north latitude. This is a town of great antiquity, and was the seat of the Roman government in Gaul. The ruins of some of the Roman palaces are here yet visible. It is one of the places of greatest trade in the kingdom, and is computed to contain a hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants. The other towns of eminence are, Beaujeu, Feurs, Clermont, St. Flour, Bourbon Archibaut, and Gueret.

Provence is bounded on the north by Dauphine, on the east by Piedmont and the Mediterranean Sea, on the south by the same sea, and on the west by the river Rhone, which separates it from Languedoc. Towards the north and east it is mountainous, but in the other parts level, producing plenty of wine, oil, and fruit. In this province are great manufactures of silk, with those of gold and silver lace, and linen. The chief towns are, 1. Aix, the capital of the province, sixteen miles north of Marseilles. 2. Jenez, lying forty-six miles north-east of the preceding. 3. Arles, situated on the east bank of the Rhone, thirty-five miles north-west of Marseilles. This place was made the seat of the Roman empire in Gaul, under Constantine; and there are still large remains of a Roman amphitheatre and other antiquities. Several councils have here been held, particularly one, which condemned the opinion of the Donatists, in the year 314. It is at present a large town, and the see of an archbishop. 4. Marseilles, situate in 4 degrees 27 minutes of east longitude, and in 43 degrees 18 minutes of north latitude, on a fine bay in the Mediterranean, four hundred and twenty-two miles south-east of Paris. This is a fortified place, and has a spacious harbour, the station of the French galleys, but which will not admit of any large men of war. The town is said to contain a hundred thousand inhabitants. It has a good silk manufacture, and a great foreign trade, with warlike magazines, supposed to be equal to any in Europe. It is also the see of a bishop, and the seat of an university, or rather an academy. 5. Toulon, situated on a bay of the Mediterranean, thirty miles south-east of Marseilles. This has the most secure and spacious harbour of any port in France, Here the largest ships in the navy are built and stationed. Here are also schools for the marine guards, where they are taught navigation; with a foundery for cannon and mortars. 6. Avignon, situate on the east side of the river Rhone, thirty-seven miles north-west of Aix, and twelve miles south of Orange. This town is the see of an archbishop, and, with the adjacent territory, was subject to the pope; but in 1762, the French took possession of the city, and have obliged the inhabitants to swear allegiance to their king. Seven popes successively resided here, viz. from the year 1307 to 1377; but to prevent the future removal of the seat of the papal hierarchy from Rome, the Italians have ever since taken care to have a majority of the cardinals of that nation, and an Italian is now always chosen to succeed to the papal

chair. Here is the only court of inquisition within the dominions of France. Near this city lies Vaucluse, celebrated for the residence of the poet Petrarch. Its situation is extremely romantic, being a little valley, enclosed in the form of a horse-shoe, by a barrier of rocks, which are bold, high, and grotesque. The valley is divided by a river, along the banks of which are extended meadows and pastures of a perpetual verdure. A path, which is on the left side of the river, leads in gentle windings to the head of this vast amphitheatre, where, at the foot of an enormous rock, is a prodigious cavern, in which arises the spring, which has been immortalized by the Italian bard. The other principal towns of this division are, Reiz, Digne, Frejus, Gracé, Vence, Glan-deve, Sisteron, Apt, Forcalquir, Carpentras, and Orange.

The province of Languedoc is bounded on the north by Lionois; on the east by the Rhone, which separates it from Dauphine and Provence; on the south by the Mediterranean and Pyrenees; and on the west by Gascony and Guienne.

The capital city is Toulouse, situated in 1 degree 31 minutes of east longitude, and in 42 degrees 36 minutes of north latitude, on the river Garonne, three hundred and seventy-five miles S. by E. of Paris. This is a city of great antiquity, and in the time of the Romans, was one of the most flourishing in Gaul. Here are yet the ruins of a Roman amphitheatre. It afterwards became the capital of the kingdom of the Visigoths, and in later times, of that of Aquitain. It is at present one of the largest cities in France, but neither rich nor populous, and computed to contain no more than nineteen thousand families. It is the see of an archbishop; and here are, a parliament, a mint, an university, and an academy of Belles Lettres.

Montpellier is situate in 3 degree 58 minutes of east longitude, and in 43 degrees 57 minutes of north latitude, on the small river Lez, near the Bay of Maguelon and the Mediterranean Sea, a hundred and eighty miles S. by W. of Paris. The salubrity of the air at this place draws hither valetudinarians from every quarter. It is computed that the inhabitants are between two and three thousand, among whom is a great number of physicians and apothecaries. Here is also an university, intended chiefly for the study of physic; with a royal academy of sciences, a mint, and a citadel. The churches and convents were here very numerous before the civil wars in the sixteenth century; when they were all demolished, except three, the principal of which is that of Notre Dame, remarkable for its high steeple, altar, and chapel of the Virgin Mary. This is also the see of a bishop.

The other towns of eminence are, Alby, Foix, Perpignan, Lauregais, Narbonne, Beziers, Nîmes, Mende, Viviers, and Puy.

The province of Guienne is bounded on the north by Orleanois; on the east by Languedoc; on the south by Gascony, from which it is separated by the river Garonne; and on the west by the Bay of Biscay. The capital of this province is Bourdeaux, situate in 39 minutes

minutes east longitude, and in 44 degrees 50 minutes north latitude; on the river Garonne, three hundred and twenty-five miles south-west of Paris, and eighty-seven miles south of Rochelle. This is one of the largest and richest cities in France, containing about forty thousand inhabitants. It has a great foreign trade, especially in wine. The town is fortified after the modern way, and, with the see of a bishop, has also an university. Here are yet the remains of an amphitheatre, and other Roman antiquities; and here Edward the Black Prince having resided some years, his son, afterwards Richard II. king of England, was born. The other principal towns are, Bazis, Agen, Rhodes, Saïates, Periguex, Limoges, and Cahors.

The province of Gascony is bounded on the north by Guienne; on the east by Languedoc; on the south by the Pyrenees, which separate it from Spain; and on the west by the Bay of Biscay. The chief towns are, 1. Aux, or Augh, situate in 20 minutes of east longitude, and in 43 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, on the side of a mountain, near the river Gers; eighty miles south-east of Bourdeaux, thirty-five miles west of Toulouze, and three hundred and twenty south-west of Paris. It is only a small town, but is the see of an archbishop, one of the richest in France. 2. Bayonne, situate near the mouth of the river Adour, which forms a good harbour, eighty-five miles south of Bourdeaux. 3. Aire, situate on the river Adour, fifty-five miles south of Bourdeaux. The other most considerable towns are, Albert, Condom, Verdun, Mirande, Lombez, St. Palais, Maulcon, Pais, Tarbe, and St. Lizier.

The province of Dauphine is bounded on the north by Burgundy, on the east by Piedmont, on the south by Provence, and on the west by Languedoc and Lioinois. From this province the presumptive heir of France derives the title of Dauphin. The chief towns are, 1. Vienne, situate on the Rhone, fifteen miles south of Lyons, and the see of an archbishop. 2. Valence, seated at the confluence of the rivers Rhone and Isere, forty-eight miles south of Lyons: it is the see of a bishop, and has an university, with an abbey of Augustine canons. 3. Grenoble, situate on the river Isere, forty-five miles south-east of Lyons. The other considerable towns are, Gap, Embrun, Die, Buis, St. Paul, and Briançon.

The province of Burgundy is bounded on the north by Champagne; on the east by Switzerland; on the south by Dauphine, and part of Lioinois; and on the west by Orleanois. The capital of this province is Dijon, situate on the river Ouche, a hundred and forty miles south-east of Paris. It is defended by a citadel, and is the see of a bishop. Here also a parliament assemble, and there is a mint, an university, an academy of sciences, and an abbey. The other chief towns are, Autun, Chalons, Semur, Auxerre, Charollis, Macon, Chatillon, Dole, Besançon, Vesoul, Salino, Poligny, St. Claude, Bourg, Belley, Gax, Trevoux, and Montbelliard.

The province of Lorraine is bounded on the north by the duchy of Luxemburg; on the east by Alsace, the duchy of Deuxponts, and the palatinate of the

Rhine; on the south by Burgundy or French Comte; and on the west by Champagne. It is nearly of a circular form, and about a hundred miles in extent either way. This province anciently pertained to its own duke, who was a sovereign prince, but since the death of king Stanislaus, of Poland, in 1766, it has become entirely subject to France. The chief town is Nancy, situate in 6 degrees 17 minutes east longitude, and in 48 degrees 41 minutes of north latitude, a hundred and fifty miles east of Paris. The other places of note are, Minécourt, Vaulrevaux, Bar-le-duc, Michael, Pontamoufon, Clermont, Metz, Toul, and Verdun.

The province of Alsace is bounded on the north by the palatinate of the Rhine; on the east by the river Rhine; on the south by Switzerland, and on the west by Lorraine. This was a province of Germany till the year 1681, when it was treacherously taken by the French, who have ever since kept possession of it. The capital of this territory is Straßburg, situate in 7 degrees 35 minutes east longitude, and in 48 degrees 38 minutes of north latitude, near the west bank of the Rhine, sixty miles east of Nancy. It is a large city, elegantly built; and the cathedral, which is esteemed one of the greatest ornaments of Germany, has a tower near five hundred foot high. The other towns are, Hagenau, Fort Lewis, Weissemburg, Landau, Colmar, Schlestar, Munster, Murbach, Forette, Mulhausen, Betort, and Hunningen.

## C H A P. II.

*Of the soil—produce—manufactures—natives—character—way of life—nobility—returiers—parliaments—taxes—military forces—marine—religion—learning—history.*

ALMOST the whole of France, except the parts towards the north-west, are exceeding fruitful, and even those, if properly cultivated, might be rendered far more beneficial to the nation, than they have been for many years. Before the persecution and civil wars broke forth in this kingdom, the inhabitants were computed at nineteen millions, but it is supposed, that at present they do not exceed three fourths of that number. With the diminution of the people, the riches of the state have also declined; but of late, a more vigorous spirit of agriculture and commerce, seems to have diffused itself over the nation. The country produces corn, wine, oil, and flax, in great abundance; and their manufactures of linen, woollen, silk, and lace, are very considerable. The country is particularly well situated for trade, as it is washed by the ocean, the British channel, and the Mediterranean Sea, and not only well watered by many navigable rivers, but intersected by numerous canals.

The French are generally not of a large stature, but for the most part, of an acute understanding, and remarkable vivacity. In the arts of politeness it is admitted that they excel every nation in Europe; but their assiduities seem to be prompted more by motives

of vanity than benevolent affection, and amidst the warmest professions of attachment, they are frequently insincere. Their natural levity of temper disposes them to frequent innovations in point of dress; and though in this they be extremely fantastic, their most capricious modes never fail of being immediately adopted by the neighbouring nations. Their tongue is likewise become as universal as the influence of their taste; and in every civilized country, it is now considered as the fashionable language of the court.

One of the chief qualifications of the French is that of temperance, both in eating and drinking. Their diet consists mostly of soups and the lighter sort of meats, which are also dressed in a manner peculiar to themselves. At table, both sexes take their seats alternately, and their meals are long protracted. Neither wine nor spirituous liquors are drank after dinner, as with us, but the repast concludes with a dish of coffee.

A disposition to gallantry being a general characteristic of the nation, the inhabitants of the metropolis especially are much addicted to all kinds of fashionable entertainment. During the representation of theatrical performances, it is the custom for spectators to stand; and a tragic catastrophe is always transacted behind the scenes.

As the French include all their gentry under the title of nobility or noblesse, this rank consists of four classes, namely, the princes of the blood, the higher nobility, the ordinary nobility, and those who are lately made. Few of the nobility here have a right to sit in parliament, though in other respects they enjoy the privileges of their rank.

The ordinary nobility are divided into those who have been such for time immemorial, and have been created by patent. If their families have enjoyed that honour a hundred years, it is sufficient to give them the privileges of the noblesse, as they are called, and exempt them from the tailles, and some other taxes.

That degree of nobility which is obtained by being members of parliament, or of the superior courts, is but personal, and does not descend to their posterity, unless the grandfather and father have enjoyed such offices successively, and exercised them twenty years, or died possessed of them. The crown has also granted the privileges of nobility to the magistrates of some cities.

The rank of nobility is forfeited by exercising any mechanic art, or the farming of lands; and until the time of Lewis XIV. the forfeiture extended to all who engaged in foreign commerce. But such forfeitures are only temporary, and the rank of nobility may be resumed, on renouncing any of those occupations which are esteemed inconsistent with it.

With respect to the other class of the people, or the roturiers, which comprehends all the tradesmen and yeomanry, they are liable to the land-tax, and many others, from which the nobility and gentry are exempted, as well as to the quartering of soldiers. This order of the community lives in a state of miserable subjection to those of superior rank. If a peasant,

or a tradesman, sees a gentleman upon the road, he gets out of his way as fast as possible, making a thousand cringes as he passes by, without paying which mark of respect, he runs the hazard of being drubbed.

Till within these two hundred years the kingdom of France was a limited monarchy, but ever since that time, it has been under an absolute government; though an appearance of liberty be still preserved in the form of their ancient constitution. There are yet in the country fifteen parliaments, viz. those of Paris, Thoulouse, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Rennes of Vannes, Pau, Besançon, Metz, Douay, Perpignan or Roussillon, Arras, with that of Alsace, held at Colmar, and Strafsburg. These assemblies consist of a certain number of inferior judges and presidents, who purchase their places either of the crown, or of those who are in possession of them. They enjoy their posts for life, unless they be convicted of some notorious malversation in the exercise of their office. The parliament of Paris is much the most considerable in the kingdom. Hither the king frequently comes in person, and here his royal edicts are recorded and promulged, before they can have the force of laws. But to this act of ratification, the assembly is frequently compelled by the crown, even without being permitted the privilege of deliberating on the subject. The parliament of Paris is also held in the highest esteem of all the assemblies in the nation; being composed of the princes of the blood, dukes and peers of France, as well as the ordinary judges; and its authority extending over all offences committed by peers, where the court does not interpose, and issue a special commission for that end. This parliament had anciently under its jurisdiction the duchies of Burgundy, Normandy, Guienne, and Brittany, with those of Flanders and Thoulouse; but at present its authority is confined to the Isle of France, la Beauce, Sologne, Berry, Auvergne, Lionois, le Forets and Beaugolois, Nivernois, Bourbonnois, Anjou, Anjumois, Picardy, Champagne, la Brice, Marne, Perche, Tourain, Poictou, Aunis, and Rochelois. The princes of the blood have a seat and voice in this parliament at the age of fifteen, and the peers of France at twenty-five.

The other parliaments of the kingdom have their respective districts, and are divided into chambers or houses, among which the several branches of business are distributed; but they are excluded from taking cognizance of any causes which relate to the crown; this privilege pertaining only to the parliament of Paris. In those provincial parliaments, the king's edicts are also registered, before they have the force of laws in their respective districts; but with regard to this act of power, the members are at least as much under the influence of the crown, as those of the parliament of Paris.

France is at present divided into thirty general governments, over every one of which is placed an officer, called an intendant, appointed by the king, and who seems to be vested with the power of controuling the governor, and all other officers of justice.

By the Salique law the succession to the crown of France is limited to the heirs male; and though the royal power be now rendered absolute, the private property of the subjects is nevertheless guarded by inviolable barriers against the encroachments of the sovereign.

The taxes usually levied in France are the *taille*, or land-tax, the *tailion*, the subsistence money, the *aides*, and the *gabelle*. From the first of these taxes the clergy and all the orders of nobility are exempted, with the *bourgeois* of Paris, and some other cities. With respect to the proportion of this tax, when the king has determined what sum he will raise, an order is issued to every intendant, ascertaining what part of it shall be levied in each of the thirty generalities or governments. The number of parishes in those several districts are thirty-eight thousand five hundred and two, in which are comprehended near one million five hundred and ninety thousand families liable to pay the *taille*.

The *tailion*, which was introduced for the purpose of augmenting the soldiers pay, is payable by the same persons as the preceding, and usually amounts to about a third of that tax.

The subsistence is a tax which was first levied by Lewis XIV. for the support of his army in their winter quarters, and is paid in the same manner as the *taille*.

By *aides* are understood all duties and customs on goods and merchandize, except salt; the duty levied on this article being distinguished by the name of *gabelle*.

Other taxes are the capitation, or poll-tax, and the fiftieth penny, from the latter of which neither the clergy nor nobility are exempted, though many representations have been made to the crown on this subject. One of the most considerable imposts is the tenths, or free gifts of the clergy, who are for the most part allowed to tax themselves. Besides those, a great revenue arises from crown-lands and woods, *fee-farms*, forfeitures, fines, &c. and from the duties laid upon all provisions brought to Paris. The annual amount of the whole is computed at fifteen millions sterling. But those are not the only resources of which the crown is possessed. It is supposed, that some years, the king makes as much by raising the value of the coin, and other oppressive ways and means.

A militia is established in France, under the title of the *ban*, or *arrear ban*, which enjoys many privileges on account of being always in readiness to prevent a descent from a foreign enemy. During peace, the army of the French king consists frequently of two hundred thousand men, but in time of war they are sometimes double that number; among which are foreigners from almost every nation in Europe.

The marine force of France is far from being so considerable as in the time of Lewis XIV. It was computed, that in 1769, the whole navy amounted to no more than sixty-four ships of the line (including those of fifty guns) twenty-five frigates, and some smaller vessels.

In every port where the king has a magazine, there is an intendant of the marine, who takes cognizance of civil and criminal causes, and the revenues relating to the sea-service, and who has the charge of furnishing the magazines with all kinds of stores.

The galleys may be reckoned a considerable part of the French marine. Of these there are thirty in the port of *Marzeilles*, and ten more in other ports of the kingdom. The commander of those vessels, who is styled general of the galleys, and lieutenant-general of the *Levant Seas*, is independent of the admiral, and has under him a lieutenant-general, and five commanders of squadrons. The principal galley is called the *Real*, on account of the royal standard which it carries, and on this the general twists his flag; the second being called the *Patron*, and commanded by the lieutenant-general. Both these vessels are larger than the rest, and have three hundred slaves on board each, while the other galleys have but two hundred. Besides the crew, every galley has a company of foot, consisting of sixty men, commanded by the officers of the galleys. There is also belonging to the galleys a company of young gentlemen, called the guards of the standard, who are instructed in navigation at the king's charge; as are those of the guards marine, belonging to the royal navy. Besides those the galleys are furnished with an intendant, inspector, comptroller, commissary, secretary-general, and two treasurers-general.

The established religion of France is Roman Catholic, but they seem to be less devoted to the pope than any other nation of that communion, and have never yet admitted the inquisition among them. In the whole kingdom there are seventeen archbishops, a hundred and thirteen bishops, seven hundred and seventy abbeys for men, three hundred and seventeen abbeys and priories for women, besides a great number of inferior convents, and two hundred and fifty commandaries of the order of Malta. Many of the abbeys however have been lately suppressed, and their revenues seized by the king. The ecclesiastics of various denominations are computed at near two hundred thousand, and their revenues at about six millions sterling. The number of universities is also very considerable, and the nation has long been distinguished for producing geniuses of the first rank, in every department of polite learning.

The Gauls, the ancient inhabitants of this country, appear to have been under the dominion of the Romans, during the space of near five hundred years. In the reign of the emperor Honorius, the Goths, after ravaging Italy extended their conquests to Gaul; of which they remained masters, till they were subdued or expelled by the Franks, a nation of Germany, who gave to their new acquired territory the name of France, which it has ever since retained. According to the most probable accounts, this monarchy was founded by Clovis, about the year 486. This prince dying in 511, left his dominions to his four sons. Childbert became king of Paris, Clodomir of Orleans, Clotaire of Soissons, and Thierry the eldest of Austraria or East France, lying between the rivers Rhine and

Maese;

Maese; the latter also possessing the territories of the Franks in Germany, which lay east of the Rhine.

Those several kingdoms, with the addition of Burgundy, were again united in the person of Dagobert, who dying in 638, followed the example of Clovis, by dividing the kingdom between his two sons; bestowing on one the kingdom of Neustria, with Burgundy, and on the other that of Austraria. After being a third time united in the person of Childerick, in 663, the kingdom was once more divided between Charlemagne and Carloman, the two sons of Pepin, who died in 768. The former of those princes assuming the government of the whole kingdom on the decease of his brother, transmitted it, at his death, to his son Lewis in 814; who again parcelled out the regal dominions among his children, in which he was imitated by his son Lewis. In the year 884,

the royal territories were re-united, under Charles the Gros, who, like his ancestor Charlemagne, was also emperor of Germany, and sovereign of Italy and part of Spain; but it was not till the reign of Lothaire, in 954, that the kingdom was successively conveyed entire to the eldest son, without any partition of the provinces amongst the younger children.

On the death of Lewis, the son of Lothaire, the throne was usurped by Hugh Capet, the first of the Capetine line of kings, from whom, the present royal family is descended. For many ages after this period France remained a limited monarchy, till the foundation of despotism was laid by cardinal Richlieu, the minister of Lewis XIII. who died in 1643; since which time the freedom of the ancient constitution has never been restored.

## S W I T Z E R L A N D.

### C H A P. I.

*Of the situation—seasons—rivers—produce—cantons—chief towns.*

**SWITZERLAND**, or Swisserland, the ancient Helvetia, is surrounded by the territories of France, Germany, and Italy, being bounded on the north by the Suntgow, the Black Forest, and other parts of Suabia; on the east by the Lake of Constance, Tirol, and Trent; on the south by the duchies of Savoy, Milan, and the provinces of Italy; and on the west by the French provinces of Burgundy and Dauphine; extending in length about two hundred and sixty miles, and in breadth upwards of a hundred. The Alps and other high mountains that surround this country, and which are covered with snow great part of the year, render the air much sharper than might be expected between the latitudes of 45 and 48 degrees. It is observed, that the seasons here are very different according to the local situation. If a field lies on the south side of a mountain, the snow melts early in the spring, and their seed-time commences proportionably; while on the north side, the winter declines slowly, and the operations of agriculture are long retarded. So great is the difference arising from those circumstances, that sometimes when it is seed-time on the north of the mountain, they are preparing for the harvest on the other side.

The sources of some of the most considerable rivers in Europe are found in this country, viz. the Rhine, Rhone, the Inn, the Adda, the Aar, and the Rufs. The chief lakes are those of Constance and Geneva, the latter of which is sixty miles long, and twelve broad; and the former thirty miles long and eight or ten broad. There is also one at the top of almost every

mountain, in consequence of which few inland countries are so well supplied with water. Nor is it less copiously furnished in respect of wood; both hills and valleys affording excellent timber, particularly oak, elm, pine, and fir.

The country produces some wine, which however is neither of good quality, nor sufficient in quantity for the consumption of the inhabitants, who supply themselves with this article from France; as they do also from Germany both with wine and corn. The storms of hail and rain, which frequently happen here in autumn, sometimes destroy the vintage and harvest, as well as the other fruits of the earth; on which account they erect magazines of corn against a time of scarcity.

Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons or republics, viz. Bern, Friburg, Basil, Lucern, Soloturn or Solure, Zurick, Appenzel, Schaffhausen, Zug, Swisse, Glaris, Uri, and Underwald.

As Switzerland is separated from the circumjacent countries by mountains, so almost every canton is divided from the other by a ridge of hills, which are covered with snow in the winter, but in summer afford good pasture intermixt with corn-fields. In some parts, the corn may be seen growing on a precipice where it is difficult to walk; but in others, the country is plain and open. Two thirds of the canton of Bern in particular, abound with corn-fields which lie pretty much upon a level. The cantons of Zurick, Solure, Friburg, Basil, and Schaffhausen also produce corn; though they have for the most part a rocky soil, and it is with great pains that the inhabitants procure a plentiful crop.

The country abounds in horses and neat-cattle, both which the natives exchange with their neighbours for the produce of the respective territories. The

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herbes are frequently purchased by the French to remount their cavalry. Here is also plenty of tame and wild fowl, with venison, wild hogs, and goats of several kinds; particularly the chamois goat, of the skin of which is made the fine chamois leather, that is so much esteemed. The rivers and lakes afford such plenty of fish that they supply the neighbouring countries with this article.

Several mines have been discovered of silver, copper, and iron, but they are not much wrought. Their quarries of black marble with white veins, and the crystal on the tops of the mountains, and the sides of the rocks, are much admired. Of the latter there are two sorts, one clear and transparent, and the other pale and cloudy.

The canton of Basle is bounded on the north and east by Germany, on the south by the canton of Soleure, and on the west by part of Alsace; being about twenty miles long and eighteen broad. The chief towns are Basle, Valtenburg, and Homburg.

The city of Basle is situate in 7 degrees 36 minutes east longitude, and in 47 degrees 40 minutes of north latitude, the river Rhine dividing it into two parts, which are united by a bridge. The town is fortified, being a frontier against France and Germany, and is the capital of the canton in which it stands. The art of making paper is said to have been first practised in this city. Here is a flourishing university, where Erasmus founded a college, and spent the latter part of his life.

The canton of Soleure, or Solothurn, is bounded on the north by Basle and Alsace, on the east by the canton of Zurich, on the south by the canton of Bern, and on the west by the bishopric of Basle; being thirty-five miles long from north to south, and twenty-five broad. The chief town is Soleure, situated on the river Aar, fifteen miles north of Bern.

The canton of Schaffhausen is bounded on the north and west by part of Germany and Basle, on the east by the territory of Constance, and on the south by Zurich; being twenty miles long and twelve broad. The chief towns are, Schaffhausen, Herblingen, Newkilch, and Halaw.

The city of Schaffhausen is esteemed the finest town in Switzerland next to Basle, and is situated on the Rhine, twenty-five miles north of Zurich, and as many west of Constance. It is a town of good trade; all vessels being obliged to unload here, on account of the cataracls in the Rhine, which are in its neighbourhood.

The canton of Zurich is bounded on the north by the canton of Schaffhausen; on the east by Thurgaw, and the county of Tockenbourg; on the south by Zug and Switz; and on the west by Lucern. The chief town is Zurich, pleasantly situated at the north end of the lake of the same name, in 8 degrees 45 minutes of east longitude, and in 47 degrees 28 minutes north latitude, thirty-seven miles south-west of Constance. It is a small fortified town, supposed to have been the capital of the Tigurini, one of the four Helvetian tribes. The inhabitants apply themselves much to trade, the chief manufacture being that of crape,

which they export by the lake and the river Rhine. The other towns are, Kiburg, Gruningen, Laffen, Rusty, Wadisfchweil, Adelfinger, Griffurce, Ktingenew, Eg-liso, Regensburg, and Staffen.

The canton of Appenzel is bounded on the north by the territories of Thurgow, on the east by the Rhintal, on the south by the country of the Grisons, and on the west by the territory of Tockenbourg. It consists of one large barren valley, twenty miles long, and almost as broad. The inhabitants are esteemed the most unpolished of any in Switzerland. The chief village is named Appenzel, there being no town in the canton.

The canton of Glaris is bounded on the north by Zurich, on the east by the Grisons, on the south by Uri, and on the west by the canton of Swisse. It also consists only of one valley, nearly of the same extent with the preceding canton. The chief town is Glaris, situated thirty-five miles south-east of Zurich.

The canton of Switz, or Swisse, is bounded on the north by Zurich and Zug, on the east by Glaris, on the south by Uri, and on the west by Underwald, from which it is separated by the lake Lucern. It is about twenty miles long and eighteen broad. The chief town bears the same name as the canton, and is situated on the east side of the lake Lucern, sixteen miles east of the city of that name.

The canton of Uri is bounded on the north by Swisse, on the east by Glaris and the county of the Grisons, on the south by the canton of Bern, and on the west by Underwald; being about thirty miles long and twelve broad. The chief town is Altorf, situated on the lake Lucern, near the mouth of the river Ruis, twenty miles south-east of the city of Lucern.

The canton of Underwald is bounded on the north by Switz and Lucern, on the east by Uri, on the south by the mountains of Brunic, which separate it from the canton of Bern, and on the west by another part of Lucern. It is about twenty-five miles long, and seventeen broad, a mountainous and barren country, containing only eight poor villages.

The canton of Zug is bounded on the north by Zurich, on the east and south by Switz, and on the west by Lucern. It is about eighteen miles long and seven broad, producing corn and wine sufficient for the use of the inhabitants. The chief town is Zug, pleasantly situated on a lake of the same name.

The canton of Lucern is bounded on the north by Soleure and Zurich, on the east by Zug, and on the south and west by the canton of Bern. It is about fifty miles long, and thirty broad. The chief town is also Lucern, situated on the lake of the same name, thirty miles south-west of Zurich, and thirty-five miles east of Bern. It is an elegant fortified town, and stands in a plain almost encompassed with mountains.

The canton of Bern is bounded on the north by Basle and Soleure, on the east by Lucern and Underwald, on the south by the lake of Geneva, and on the west by Neufchatel and Burgundy. This is much the largest and most fruitful of the Swisse cantons, being a hundred and twenty miles long and sixty broad.

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*Habit of a Finland Girl in 1768.*



*The above Figure was drawn by J. B. Le Prince.*

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The chief town is Bern, situate in 7 degrees 15 minutes east longitude, and in 47 degrees north latitude, on the bank of the river Aar, sixty-five miles north-east of Geneva. It consists of three spacious streets, chiefly built of hewn stone, and many of the houses having a piazza in the front.

Another of the most considerable towns in this canton is Lausanne, situated on the north side of the lake of Geneva, forty miles south-west of Bern. Before the Reformation this place was the see of a bishop, and here is still an university. The other chief towns are, Thun, Arberg, Vangen, Lansburg, Erlach, La Serre, Bruck, Nyon, Sana, Aubon, Briento, Walen, and Yverden.

The canton of Friburg is almost surrounded by that of Bern, extending about twenty-five miles in length, and twenty in breadth. The chief towns are Friburg, Estavay, and Griens. The first of those, which is the capital, is situated eighteen miles south-west of Bern. It stands upon almost inaccessible rocks and precipices, to which, in several places, there is no other ascent than by means of stairs and ladders.

#### C H A P. II.

*Of the government of the Switzers, and their religion.*

**I**N some of the Swiss cantons the government is aristocratical, and in others of a democratical nature. Those under the former description are the cantons of Zurich, Bern, Lucern, Basil, Friburg, Soleure, and Schaffhausen; in the capital cities of three of which, however, namely, Zurich, Basil, and Schaffhausen, the magistracy is democratical. In each of them the ordinary tradesmen, who are divided into tribes, have their share in the government, and may be elected into the sovereign council; whereas in the cities of the other four aristocratical cantons, the less council, consisting of twenty-seven members, joined to a smaller number of the great council, have the sole right of filling up vacancies in the sovereign council; and those always preferring their friends and relations, the common citizens have no share in the administration. In the canton of Bern, which is far the most considerable, the legislative authority is lodged in the great council, consisting, when complete, of two hundred and ninety-nine persons; but as about ninety odd are usually absent on their respective governments, or other avocations, it is generally styled the council of two hundred. Out of the members of this council is elected another, called the senate, or less council, consisting of twenty-seven members, with their two avoyers, who preside in both councils annually by turns. The two youngest members of this assembly, who have the title of secret counsellors, resemble the Roman tribunes, and summon the great council, upon every emergency, or when they apprehend any design to be formed prejudicial to the liberties of the people. This senate possesses the executive power, and meets every day except Sunday. The great council assembles only twice a week, unless upon extraordinary occasions. This body is vested with full

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power in every thing that relates to peace or war, alliances, or the public treasure; and all civil employments of importance are in its disposal: but all those of an ecclesiastical nature, with some inferior civil offices, are in the gift of the senate. When the great council meets, the senate constitutes a part of it, or rather is lost in the great council, having no existence during the continuance of that assembly. The vacancies in the great council are filled up by the senate, and sixteen members of the former, called *seizeniers*, from their number, who are chosen out of the old bailiffs, that is, such as have enjoyed a government or bailiage for the term of six years.

The six democratical cantons are those of Switz, Underwald, Uri, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel. Each of those cantons is divided into districts according to their extent, some four, some six, and others twelve; which appear to be in some respects independent sovereignties, having both civil and criminal jurisdiction, in which the rest of the canton cannot interpose, and whence there lies no appeal. In the management of public affairs, however, every district having a deputy or representative, they assemble at some place appointed, and form a standing council of the canton. Where the object of deliberation is of great importance, they send each of them two or three representatives. The authority of this council nevertheless is limited, the supreme legislative power residing in the disjunctive body of the people, every male in the country, servant as well as master, having an equal share in the sovereignty. Those assemblies seldom meet more than once or twice a year to choose their magistrates, and the representatives to the general diets, though they may be convoked at other times, as occasion may occur, to give their consent to such acts as require their ratification. The first officer in those cantons is called *land-aman*, and is chosen in a full assembly of the people, who always express their consent by holding up their hands. His office resembles that of an avoyer or burgher-master, but is changed in some of those cantons every year, and in others every two years. He is president both of their standing council and general assemblies, and has the chief direction of all public affairs with the advice of the council. When the *land-aman* is elected, the people choose for him a deputy, who is called *stat-halter*, and acts in the absence of the former. They next choose treasurers, secretaries, and other officers of state, who continue in their posts a longer or shorter time, according to the custom of the respective canton.

But though every member of the canton is equally entitled to a share in the government, the greater part are usually influenced in their determinations by the gentry, to whom they pay a particular regard. On the other hand, if they imagine that they have been led by designing men into measures destructive to their country, they never fail to punish the authors of such advice with the utmost severity.

The general diet, or assembly of the states, consists of two representatives sent from each canton; to which likewise the abbot of St. Gall, with the cities of St. Gall and Bienne, send their representatives, as allies.

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The diet is for the most part held annually at Baden, on the Feast of St. John Baptist, the first representative of the canton of Zurich acting as president of the assembly; this canton having also the privilege of convoking the diet by circular letters.

The objects brought under the consideration of a general diet are, either the accounts of the governors of their common bailliages, or appeals from the sentences of such governors in civil and criminal cases, the redressing the grievances of their common subjects, or composing the differences which may have arisen between any cantons, with whatever else may contribute to their general interest. To this diet, the ministers of foreign princes usually apply themselves, either by way of audience or memorial. The French ambassador in particular never fails to give his attendance, though he had nothing more than compliment to offer.

Besides this diet, which meets regularly, any one canton may summon a diet upon an extraordinary occasion, as may the minister of a foreign prince, if he apprehends that the affairs of his master require such a measure, and he will defray the charges of the deputies. In this way seldom a year passes without one extraordinary diet, and sometimes more.

There are also particular diets for the consideration of religious matters, that of the Protestants being held at Arraw, and the Roman Catholics at Lucern, which are summoned occasionally.

The inhabitants of Switzerland are distinguished into Protestants and Papists, who are each of them exceeding zealous in their different persuasions, and of whom the former are rigid Calvinists, according to the doctrines contained in the Helvetic confession. Both religions are tolerated in their common bailliages or governments, but there is no toleration in the cantons themselves, every person who professes not the established religion being banished the country. Even Lutherans and every other denomination of Protestants are liable to the same pains and disabilities as Papists, in the protestant cantons. The Swiss clergy in some of the cities have great influence over the people, and frequently intermix politics with their religious discourses; but in the canton of Bern they are not indulged in this latitude, and the government keeps them in an entire dependence on the state. The protestant cantons are those of Zurich, Bern, Basli, Schaffhausen, with two thirds of the canton of Glaris, and more than half of Appenzel. The rest are Roman Catholics.

### C H A P. III.

*Of the subjects of the Switzers, and their allies.*

**T**HE territories subject to the Switzers, are such places as belong to them all, or to several of them in common, having been conquered by their united arms. The common bailliages are nine, viz. the county of Baden, the free villages, the counties of Turgovy, Sargantz, and Rhintal, with the four Italian bailliages of Lugano, Locarno, Mendrisio, and Valmadia; to which may be added the three cities without

territories, viz. Bremgarten, Meilingen, and Rappersweil.

The county of Baden is bounded on the north and west by the Rhine, and on the east and south by the canton of Zurich. It is as large as some of the little cantons, and of a much more fruitful soil. It formerly belonged to the house of Austria, but was conquered by the Swiss confederates in the year 1415. Baden, the capital city, so named from its baths, is situated on the river Limath, about fourteen miles north-west of Zurich, and six to the southward of the Rhine. It is one of the most ancient towns in Switzerland, and the place of their general diet; usually called Upper Baden, to distinguish it from Lower Baden in Germany.

The four bailliages of Lugano, Locarno, Mendrisio, and Valmadia, are situate on the Italian side of the Alps, and formerly composed part of the duchy of Milan; but were disunited from it by duke Maximilian Sforza, and given to the Switzers in the year 1513, for the service which they had rendered him in his wars. They belong to twelve of the cantons, Appenzel having no share in them, as not being received into the alliance of the cantons at the time of this acquisition.

These four bailliages extend several leagues into the climate of Italy, but the country is mountainous. The chief towns are Lugano, Locarno, Scona, and Brifago.

Lugano is situate in 9 degrees of east longitude, and 46 of north latitude, on the north side of a lake of the same name, about eight miles from the frontiers of Milan. The governor of this place has also the command of the other bailliages.

Locarno stands on the west side of the lake Major, ten miles north-west of Lugano, and was formerly a considerable place, but is now in a ruinous condition.

The natives of all those four bailliages are Roman Catholics, and so bigotted, that when a protestant canton sends in its turn a governor, he is not allowed the exercise of his religion in his own house.

Turgovy, Sargantz, and Rhintal, are governed by their respective bailiffs, elected out of the several cantons, which appoint them by turns. In some bailliages those officers are changed every five, and in others every six years. They are not accountable to the particular canton which elected them, but to the general diet.

The most considerable of the Swiss allies are the Grisons. The country occupied by this people is bounded on the north by Tirol and part of Switzerland, on the east by Tirol and Trent, on the south by Italy, and on the west by the Swiss cantons. This was part of the ancient Rhetia, and consists of three independent states, united for their common defence. With the contiguous territories which they have conquered, viz. the Valtelina, Chiavenna, and Borno, their dominions extend about a hundred miles in length and sixty in breadth.

The Valtelina consists of one great valley about ten leagues in length, abounding in corn, wine, oil,

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and the most delicious fruits. The two other countries of Chiavenna and Bormio are also fruitful, though in a less degree than the preceding, which is also of the greater importance on account of being a pass between Germany and Italy.

The territories of the Grisons are divided into three parts, namely, the Grison, or Grey League, the League of the House of God, and the League of the ten Jurisdictions. The capital of the whole is Coire, situate near the banks of the Rhine, fifty-five miles south of the lake of Constance.

With respect to the government of this country, every male in each division has a voice in electing their representatives, who meet in their particular diets. These diets elect some of their numbers to represent them in a general diet, the members of which are so limited by their instructions, that they cannot act definitively, without referring to the communities from which they were deputed, to have their resolutions confirmed.

Two thirds of the Grison Leagues are protestants of the sect of Calvin, and the rest Roman Catholics. But every thing being determined by a majority of voices, and the Grisons being only allied to the protestant cantons of Zurich and Bern, this is usually reckoned a protestant state. In the Valteline and the countries of Bormio and Chiavenna, which were anciently part of the duchy of Milan, the Roman Catholic religion was confirmed by the terms of the cession to the Grisons.

The bailliages in the Valteline, as well as those in Chiavenna and Bormio, are in the disposal of each community of the Grisons by turns, and sold to the best bidder, who, in order to reimburse himself, is generally guilty of great exactions on the people. The stated revenues of the Grison Leagues are very inconsiderable; and therefore, upon a war breaking out, or any other emergency, they tax themselves in proportion to their abilities, and the necessity of the service. The revenues consist chiefly of the duties on goods carried through the country. The Grisons may justly be reckoned the refuse of Switzerland. What renders them most considerable is the passes through their country, between Germany and Italy, by four of which only their territory is accessible, and even those may be defended by a very small force. The first is by the lake Como, which preserves their communication with Italy; the second by the valley of Camonica, which gives them an entrance into the territories of Venice; the third by the valley of the Inn, which affords them a passage into Tirol; and the fourth by a bridge over the Rhine near Coire, which opens a communication with Suabia and the cantons of Switzerland.

The adjacent counties of Neuchâtel and Vellengin are also allies of the Switzers. These territories are bounded on the north by the bishoprick of Basil, on the east by the lake of Neuchâtel, on the south by the canton of Bern, and on the west by the province of Burgundy in France, being about forty miles long and twenty broad. The air of this country near the lake is temperate, but in the mountainous

parts very sharp. The soil is strong, but produces the best wine in Switzerland; by the sale of which the natives make considerable profit.

The chief town of either of those counties bears the same name respectively with its adjoining territory. Neuchâtel is situate in 6 degrees 35 minutes of east longitude, and in 47 degrees 10 minutes of north latitude, at the north-east end of the lake of Neuchâtel, twenty miles north-west of Bern. The town is well built, and adorned with several handsome fountains. It is governed by a grand and little council; the former consisting of forty members, with two masters of the keys; and the other of twenty-four, including the mayor, who is president. These two councils assemble every month, as do also the ecclesiastics, to settle the affairs of the church.

The inhabitants of those territories are in a manner a free independent people, notwithstanding they have had always a prince for their head. Nothing is determined without the concurrence of the three estates. To which add, that they have the privilege of choosing their own magistrates and standard-bearer, and are subject to no taxes but what they impose upon themselves. Among other privileges it is not the least considerable, that they are free denizens of the canton of Bern, which is not only their protector, but the umpire of all the differences between them and their sovereign.

Upon the death of the duchess of Nemours, the last countess of Neuchâtel, as heiress of the house of Longueville, the states of the country were inclined to submit themselves to the late king of Prussia, as heir by his mother to the house of Orange, which derived its title to Neuchâtel from the marriage of one of its princes with the heiress of the house of Chalons, the direct sovereign of those two counties. Several competitors arose at the same time, who claimed as heirs in blood to the house of Longueville. The states however determining the right in favour of the heirs of the house of Chalons, the king of Prussia accordingly took possession of the territories. The whole country is of the reformed religion, except two Roman Catholic villages. The common language is French; and the natives, in their temperament as well as their manners and customs, resemble more that nation than the Germans.

Other allies of the Switzers are the abbot and city of St. Gall, lying between the canton of Zurich and the lake of Constance; as also of the county of Treheuburg, contiguous to it; extending about thirty-six miles in length, and twelve in breadth. He assumes the title of a prince of the empire, but has not the privilege either of vote or session in it. He was also formerly sovereign of the city of St. Gall, and of good part of the canton of Appenzel; but both of them purchased their liberty, and at present have no dependence on him.

The city of St. Gall is situated in the Turgow, about five miles south-west of the lake of Constance, and ten north-west of Appenzel, forming at present a little commonwealth, without any territory belonging to it. The government is of an aristocratical

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kind, and consists of a great and little council, as in the other cities of Switzerland. Both the abbot and town of St. Gall have the privilege of sending deputies to the general diets of the Swiss cantons, at which however they are entitled to no vote. The town is one of the most commercial in the country, and particularly remarkable for its linen manufacture, which affords employment to many of the inhabitants. It is computed that they make annually forty thousand pieces of linen, of two hundred ells to the piece; which they send into Italy, Germany, and the adjacent countries, in packs carried by mules. By this traffick the natives are so much enriched, that there is hardly any place of equal extent which affords a greater number of wealthy burghers, and so few poor people. St. Gall is reckoned to contain about ten thousand inhabitants. Neither the buildings of the town, the abbey, or the abbey-church, are very magnificent. The established religion of the city is Protestant, which occasions continual differences between the inhabitants and the adjoining abbey.

Another ally of the Switzers is the republic of Valais, which takes its name from a valley inhabited by the subjects of this commonwealth, and extends from the lake of Geneva to the mountain called la Fourche, where the Rhone has its source. It is divided into two parts by this river, which runs through the middle of it, and frequently overflows great part of the valley. This country is bounded by Switzerland on the north and east, by the Milanese and duchy of Aoust on the south, and on the west by Savoy; being near a hundred miles in length, and from ten to twenty in breadth, encompassed on every side with high mountains, of which those that separate it from the canton of Bern and Savoy, are of a prodigious height, and always covered with snow. The country is usually distinguished into the Upper and Lower Valais; the former being subdivided into seven independent communities, resembling those of the Grisons, and the latter into six. The mountains afford pasture for numerous herds of cattle in the summer, and the valley produces corn and wine, with a great variety of delicious fruits. This fertility however is in great measure owing to the industry of the inhabitants, who with incredible labour convey the water from the rocks and mountains by wooden troughs or channels, for two miles together in some places. In one day's journey here we experience a great variety of seasons. Winter and summer prevail respectively on different sides of the same mountain, while the spring appears in a third place with its intermediate temperature and beauty. The harvest, in different parts, continues from May to October, being sooner or later according to the situation of the spot. The inhabitants of this country were anciently allied to the canton of Bern, but they are now much more closely connected with the papish cantons, being themselves of that persuasion. The chief towns are, Syon, the capital, Martinach, and St. Maurice.

Syon, the Sedunum of the ancients, is situate in 7 degrees 10 minutes of east longitude, and in 46 degrees 10 minutes north latitude, upon the the river

Site, near its confluence with the Rhone, about fifty miles to the southward of Bern, and sixty eastward of Geneva. It is the seat of the bishop, who is a prince of the empire, and was formerly sovereign of great part of the country; but his power is of late much diminished, and the government changed into a republic; though the prelate still presides in their councils, and has a considerable influence on their affairs. The seven communities of the Upper Valais (to which the Lower is subject) send deputies to their diets, in the same manner as the Grisons, between whose government and the constitution of this commonwealth, there is hardly any difference.

The next ally of the Switzers is the city of Geneva, situate in 6 degrees 15 minutes east longitude, and in 46 degrees 13 minutes north latitude, on the river Rhone, at the west end of the lake Lemman, or Geneva, seventy miles south-west of Bern. The town is surrounded by a wall and other fortifications, about two miles in circumference; but it is not very strong; considering its proximity to so formidable neighbours as those of France and Sardinia, against which its chief defence rests upon its allies, the cantons of Bern and Zurich. The river Rhone divides it into two parts, the most southerly of which is the larger, and stands upon a hill; but the other, called Gervais, and which belongs to the country of Gex in France, is situated on a flat. A communication subsists between those parts by means of three wooden bridges. The houses lately built are generally of hewn stone; and among the public edifices the most remarkable are, the church of St. Peter, formerly the cathedral, the town-house, and the library. But that for which the place is chiefly distinguished is its beautiful situation, with the fine walks and prospects that surround it. The adjoining lake is sixty miles long, and twelve broad, and affords great plenty of the best fish. The number of inhabitants is computed to amount to thirty thousand, who maintain a brisk foreign trade; their manufactures being chiefly gold and silver lace, silks, and chamoy leather. Here is an university, but no salaries settled on the professors or fellows, whose subsistence depends upon the contributions of their pupils. The language of the common people is the Savoyard, or a very bad dialect of the French tongue; but persons of condition speak in greater purity.

This city is the great resort of Calvinists from France and other nations, for education; it having been the place of Calvin's residence, and ever since in the possession of people of that sect. It was anciently under the dominion of the Romans, and afterwards of the Burgundians. It was once also an imperial city, and the dukes of Savoy have had the sovereignty of it. The counts and bishops of Geneva seem for some time to have divided the jurisdiction of it between them; but at the Reformation, the bishop was their sovereign both in temporal and spiritual matters. In the year 1533, the hierarchy was abolished, and the people substituted a republican government in its room. The legislative authority was vested in a council of two hundred, and a senate of

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twenty-five members; none but the principal citizens being permitted to have any share, either in the administration of the government or the election of the magistrates; but of late the common people have compelled their superiors to relinquish this monopoly of power.

The church is presbyterian, governed by the city clergy, the burgher-master of reformation, and six others elected out of the great council. The clergy have neither glebe nor tythes, but are allowed fifty pounds a year each, by the states. The use of cards, drinking in public houses, and dancing, are strictly prohibited; but in the manner of keeping the sabbath they are not equally rigid, not only exercising their militia on that day, but playing at bowls, and other manly diversions, after divine service.

The inhabitants of the lower rank are extremely clownish, spending their time chiefly among their cattle. They drive them up the mountains about the middle of May, living in huts, and managing the business of the dairy till the winter, when they return to town.

The ground about Geneva is not unfruitful, consisting of gardens, vineyards, meadows, and rich pastures on the neighbouring hills; but their territories are very small. On three sides, respectively, they are hemmed in by the lake, and the dominions of France and Savoy; and on the fourth, their lands hardly extend four miles. This republic was anciently allied to the Catholic as well as Protestant cantons, but since the Reformation, their alliance is only with the latter.

About five miles from Nion are seen the ruins of Cæsar's wall, which extended eighteen miles in length from mount Jura to the banks of the lake of Geneva, as described by Cæsar in the first book of his Commentaries.

#### C H A P. IV.

##### *Of the revenues — forces — history.*

THE revenues of Switzerland are small, compared with those of other countries; yet, considered in regard to the expences of the state, they seem to be sufficient for the ordinary demands of the public service. The little popular cantons have hardly any fixed revenues, but tax themselves voluntarily, according to the exigence of their affairs. In general, the revenues of the protestant cantons exceed those of the catholic, the church-lands, which the former seized at the Reformation, being appropriated to the use of the government, except a small part reserved for the maintenance of the clergy. The two wealthiest cantons are those of Zurich and Bern. Zurich, by the advantage of its trade, is richer in proportion to the extent of its territories; but Bern is so much larger, that the revenues of this canton are far superior to those of the preceding.

Since the first institution of those republics, the people have been averse to standing forces, but in no

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country of Europe do we meet with a better regulated militia. Every male from sixteen to sixty is enrolled, and about one third of them regimented under the title of fuziliers and electionaries; and out of the other two thirds those are from time to time recruited. The fuziliers are all unmarried men, of a good size, and in the flower of their age, always ready to march at an hour's warning. The electionaries, on the other hand, are married, but of an age and size fit for service. Every regiment of fuziliers consists of ten companies, and the electionaries of twelve, exclusive of staff officers. In each company of the fuziliers there are a hundred and ten men, and in those of the electionaries two hundred and eighteen, including the officers of every rank. Every soldier provides his own arms, but all are of one make. Of late they have also introduced an uniformity of cloathing, the colour of which is grey, with different facings, to distinguish the regiments.

Finding that horse are of little service in this mountainous country, they have converted their cavalry into dragoons, except in the canton of Bern, where there is one regiment of cuirassiers, maintained at the expence of their vassals. Every regiment of dragoons consists of ten troops, of sixty men each, and the horses as well as arms are provided by the soldiers; none being admitted into this corps but substantial farmers, who are always furnished with horses for their husbandry. Neither horse nor foot receive any pay while they remain at home. The state provides tents, kettles, and hatchets for their soldiers, and those implements are laid up in the arsenal, when the service is over.

In the magazine of Bern, there is always an entire new set of arms for all the militia of the canton, besides those that are in common use. There is another set for the militia of every bailliage, kept in the castle, where the bailiff or governor resides; in which place is also laid up a sum, amounting to three months pay, for the whole militia of the bailliage. In the capital of this canton a fine train of artillery is likewise constantly kept, besides a great number of cannon in the castles where their bailiffs reside.

Every community is taxed to furnish the necessary horses and waggons for the use of the train and army. There belongs to the train a hundred and twenty men of several trades, as carpenters, smiths, wheel-wrights, &c. to whom is added a company of guides, actually enlisted, with their captain, lieutenant, and other officers, who have a perfect knowledge of the country. They have no general or commander in chief in time of peace; nor do they fill up the posts of secretary of war, commissioners of victualling, treasurer, quartermasters, provost, and others, till the army is ready to take the field. When a general is appointed for any expedition, several deputies, chosen out of the statesmen of greatest rank and experience, are nominated to accompany him, and be a check upon him; without whose consent he is not at liberty to undertake any affair of importance. The soldiers are exercised every Sunday and holiday, after divine service; and on

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certain days of the year they meet to shoot at a mark, the cannoners likewise doing the same with their great guns and mortars.

For the readier assembly of their militia, there are, in the most conspicuous places of every bailliage, signals, which consist of wood and straw, to which they set fire upon any alarm. At every one of those signals a corporal is stationed, with a guard of six men. What number of forces the Swifs can raise, it is difficult to determine; but in the late war between the protestant and popish cantons, the canton of Bern had forty thousand men in the field, and that of Zurich twenty thousand.

The Helverians remained subject to the Romans till the destruction of that empire, when new kingdoms and states being formed out of its ruins, Switzerland was comprehended in that of Burgundy, and upon the extinction of this kingdom, which happened about a hundred years after, was united to the crown of France, to which it continued to be annexed till the beginning of the ninth century. About the year 870, two new kingdoms of Burgundy were erected, called Burgundia Cisjurana and Burgundia Transjurana; but the former was united to the latter about the year 926, and of this kingdom of Burgundia Transjurana Switzerland continued a part, till 1032, when Rodolph, the third and last king of Burgundy, dying without issue, transferred the kingdom to the emperor Conrad II. called the Salick, whose successors enjoyed it almost two hundred years, the territory being neglected by the emperors, several petty sovereignties were formed out of it. In the thirteenth century the counts of Hapsburg, ancestors of the house of Austria, to whom several fiefs in this country had been granted by the emperor Barbarossa, began to take upon them the government of the people, particularly the cities, on their immediate request. The inhabitants were induced to this measure with the view of shaking off the yoke of the nobility, by whom they were intolerably oppressed. They agreed therefore that Rodolph, the count of Hapsburg, should send governors amongst them, with power of administering judgment in criminal causes, but with an express reservation of their rights and liberties. The count however being so much engaged in other places, could not afford the cities the protection they expected; upon which the latter, unable to endure any longer the oppression of the nobility, had recourse to arms, demolished the castles of the lords, and after a war which lasted twelve years, compelled many of them to abandon the country.

Rodolph being now advanced to the imperial dignity, was solicited by the exiled nobles to afford them protection against the commons of Switzerland, whom they charged with rebellion; but the latter having heard the contending parties, declared himself in favour of the people, to whom he not only confirmed their ancient privileges, but also added others which they had not hitherto enjoyed. Upon the death of this emperor, however, his son, the emperor Albert, adopted very opposite measures. Desirous of rendering himself master of Switzerland, he first attempted

to accomplish his purpose by the arts of persuasion, but finding these means ineffectual, he at length had recourse to violent measures. He appointed over the people new governors, to whom he gave positive orders to reduce them to obedience, either by corrupting their leading men, or, if that should fail, by force of arms. The former alternative proving unsuccessful, those delegates openly invaded the privileges of the states. To complain of such proceeding the people resolved on sending a deputation to the emperor, who instead of redressing their grievances, threatened them with more sanguinary measures, if they should refuse an absolute submission to his pleasure. Exasperated by repeated acts of the most intolerable oppression, from which the application to their sovereign had afforded no prospect of relief, the people entered into the design of bravely asserting their ancient rights in opposition to every illegal power. The three principal men who formed this resolution were, Arnold Molchdal of Underwald, Werner Stouffacher of Switz, and Walter Furst of Uri, who were rather substantial yeomen than gentlemen. These three were soon joined by nine of their friends, the whole party binding themselves by the most solemn oaths not to discover the design. The first of January 1308 being the day appointed for the insurrection, an accident happened, that had like to have precipitated the measures of the conspirators, by the fresh provocation to revolt, which it universally diffused among the people. Amidst other insolent acts of whimsical tyranny, Griesler, governor of the canton of Uri, had ordered his cap to be set upon a post in the market-place of Altorf, the capital of the canton; requiring every person who passed by to pull off his hat to it on pain of death. Many, terrified at the rigid character of the deputy, submitted to this ridiculous ceremonial, till William Tell, a man of determined courage, and one of the conspirators, took an opportunity of frequently passing by without testifying any mark of respect. Being observed by the guards that were placed to see the order put in execution, he was arrested and brought before the governor, who, by way of punishment, commanded him to set an apple on his son's head, and shoot at it with an arrow, declaring, that if he missed, he should be hanged. The father, rather than run the hazard of being accessory to his son's death, desired that they would take away his own life without farther ceremony; but the inflexible Griesler declaring, that if he refused to shoot at the apple immediately, he would hang up his son before his face, and himself afterwards, the unfortunate delinquent agreed to make the attempt. The scene which he fixed for the experiment was the market-place, in presence of the deputy; imagining, it is probable, that his fellow-conspirators would assemble and rescue him from the hands of so arbitrary and capricious an oppressor. No marks of any tumult appearing, at his arrival on the spot, he took out of his quiver two arrows, and applying one of them to the bow, which he drew with a steadiness hardly ever before discovered in so violent an agitation of mind, he providentially struck the apple off his son's head, without giving him the least wound.



wound. The joy of the spectators at this unexpected good fortune was testified by a general shout, to the great mortification of the governor, who proceeding to enquire of Tell what he meant by taking two arrows out of his quiver, the latter boldly answered, that the second arrow was designed for the tyrant, in case he had been so unfortunate as to have killed his son. The implacable Griesler ordered him to be put in irons, and carried on board a vessel to be transported to the castle of Cassenach, on the lake Lucern, where he was destined to perpetual imprisonment; the governor also going on board himself to see the sentence carried into execution. On reaching the middle of the lake, a violent storm arising suddenly, the vessel was ready to sink; when the governor's servant knowing the prisoner to be an excellent pilot, proposed the taking off his chains, and letting him manage the helm, as the only means of saving their lives. This expedient being approved, Tell with great difficulty steered the boat into smooth water under the shore; when jumping out upon a rock he made his escape, and Griesler despairing of ever taking him, sailed on to the next town, called Brunen, whence he proposed to go by land to the castle of Cassenach. Tell receiving intelligence of his route, concealed himself in a wood on the side of the way, and shot him through the heart with an arrow. In memory of those incidents, a chapel was built upon the spot where the governor lost his life, and another on the rock whence Tell made his escape, which are yet to be seen.

On new-year's-day 1308, the time fixed by the conspirators for a general insurrection, some of the most resolute of them resorted to the castle where the governor and commanders of the imperial troops resided, under pretence of carrying the usual presents. Having concealed arms beneath their cloaths, they fell upon the guards as they entered the gates; and in this manner reduced every fortress in the country which they attempted. The governor of Landenburg and his troops were in so great consternation, that they fled without making any resistance; but were afterwards made prisoners by the country people, who only requiring of them an oath that they never would return, granted them the liberty to retire wherever they pleased. The people commemorate these events

by an annual festival, at which the company is entertained with songs containing the history of their deliverance from Austrian tyranny.

The emperor Albert receiving advice of this defection, was about assembling an army to reduce the people to obedience; but being killed soon after, as he passed the river Rufs, the cantons had a favourable opportunity of establishing their new government, while the empire remained in confusion. About seven years after, archduke Leopold, the son of Albert, marched into the canton of Switz, with twenty thousand men, threatening utter destruction to the confederated provinces. The inhabitants made little resistance till the Austrians were advanced to a narrow valley, between two mountains, near Morgarten, where rolling large stones from the tops of the hills, they threw the enemy's cavalry into confusion. At the same time attacking them in front with fifteen hundred men, they obtained a complete victory, which they pursued with so much diligence, that they drove the invaders entirely out of the country. Upon this defeat of the Austrians, the three cantons of Underwald, Switz, and Uri, entered into a perpetual league, which had at first been made for ten years only, and took an oath for the due observance of it; whence they were called Eydgnossen, a German word signifying parties to the same oath. The battle being fought in the canton of Switz, the name of this little province was communicated to the rest, which entered into the confederacy, and even to their allies. The house of Austria made several attempts afterwards to reduce the cantons of Switz, Underwald, and Uri, to subjection; but were so far from succeeding in this design, that they lost several more of their provinces, which from time to time acceded to the association. In all the attempts of the house of Austria for the recovery of those provinces, its forces were usually assisted by the Swiss nobility, till the latter being at length either expelled the country, or reduced to acknowledge the sovereignty of the cantons, the Switzers were declared a free people, independent of the empire and the house of Austria, by the treaty of Munster, in the year 1648, at the same time that the United Provinces were declared independent of Spain.

## I T A L Y.

## C H A P. I.

*Of the situation—mountains—seas—rivers—air—produce.*

ITALY is situate between 7 and 19 degrees of east longitude, and between 38 and 47 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by Switzerland and the Alps, which separate it from Ger-

many; on the east by another part of Germany and the Gulph of Venice; on the south by the Mediterranean; and on the west by the same sea and the Alps, which divide it from France. But if we include Savoy, which lies on the west side of those mountains, the boundaries of Italy in this quarter must be extended to one degree more. The shape of this country is said to resemble a boot, and, according to the limits here specified, its length, from the north-west

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to the south-east, is upwards of six hundred miles. Its breadth is various in different parts: in the north it is four hundred miles; in the middle about a hundred and twenty; and towards the south eighty miles. In ancient times, the boundaries of Italy on the west extended no farther than a line drawn from the river Arnus, which runs into the Tuscan Sea, to the Rubicon, which discharges itself into the Adriatic; the whole of that part lying between this line and the Alps being denominated Gallia Cisalpina. The most southern part of the country was also considered as distinct from Italia Propria, and bore the name of Magna Græcia; but Augustus Cæsar, abolishing the names of Gallia and Magna Græcia, gave the common name of Italia to the whole country comprehended within the limits which we have ascribed to Modern Italy.

In the north part of Italy lie the Alps, the highest mountains in Europe. They begin at the Mediterranean, and stretching northward, separate Piedmont and Savoy from the adjacent countries; whence directing their course to the east, they form the boundary between Switzerland and Italy, and terminate near the extremity of the Adriatic Sea, north-east of Venice. Over the western part of those mountains, towards Piedmont, Hannibal forced his passage into Italy; which he is said to have effected by pouring vinegar on the rocks, that had been previously heated by fires made with great piles of wood. The prospect, from many parts of this enormous range of mountains is extremely romantic, especially towards the north-west. One of the most celebrated is the Grande Chartreuse, where is a monastery founded by St. Bruno, about the year 1084. From Echelles, a little village in the mountains of Savoy, to the top of the Chartreuse, the distance is six miles. Along this course, the road runs winding up, for the most part not six foot broad. On one hand is the rock, with woods of pine-trees hanging over head; on the other a prodigious precipice, almost perpendicular, at the bottom of which rolls a torrent, that sometimes tumbling among the fragments of stone which have fallen from on high, and sometimes precipitating itself down vast descents with a noise like thunder, rendered yet more tremendous by the echo from the mountains on each side, concurs to form one of the most solemn, the most romantic, and most astonishing scenes in nature. To this description may be added the strange views made by the craggs and cliffs, and the numerous cascades which throw themselves from the very summit down into the vale. On the top of the mountain is the convent of St. Bruno, which is the superior of the whole order. The inhabitants consist of a hundred fathers, with three hundred servants, who grind their corn, press their wine, and perform every domestic office, even to the making of their cloaths. In the Album of the fathers is admired an Alcaic ode, written by the late ingenious Mr. Gray, when he visited the Chartreuse, and which has since been published among his works.

The Glaciers of Savoy are also justly reckoned among the most stupendous works of nature. These are immense masses of ice, lodged upon the gentler

declivities amidst the Alps, and exhibiting representations beyond conception fantastic and picturesque. In the extraordinary narrative of Mr. Bourrit's journey hither we meet with the following account of the Prientré, in the valley of Chamouni. We had, says he, the magnificent prospect of a chain of mountains, equally inaccessible, and covered with ice; and above the rest that of Mount Blanc, whose top seemed to reach, and even pierce the highest region of the clouds. The chain upon which this mountain looks down like a giant, is composed of masses of rocks, which terminate in pikes, or spires, called the Needles, and which are ranged like tents in a camp. Their sides appear lighter, and more airy, from the ornament of several hollow breaks and furrows fretted in the rock itself, as well as from the different streaks and panes of ice and snow, which without changing the general character of their form, or the majesty of their appearance, give them a picturesque variety. Lower down, the eye surveys with ravishment the gills of ice, and the several glaciers, extending almost into the plain, whilst this appears like an artificial garden, embellished with the mixture of a variety of colours. We have a picturesque opposition to this chain, which is formed by innumerable mountains at the distance of near fifty leagues, between whose tops we have a glimpse of those several plains which they environ.

M. De Saussure, who had visited those mountains about two months before M. Bourrit, felt himself naturally electrified in this place. This extraordinary phenomenon seems not to have been experienced by the latter or his company; but they heard a long continued rumbling noise, like that of thunder, which was rendered more awful by the silence of the place where they stood. This noise proceeded from the subsequent causes, viz. the avalanches of snow, which separated from the tops of the mountains, and rolled down to the bottom; considerable fragments of the rocks which followed them, overturning others in their fall; and massy blocks of ice, which precipitated from the summits.

The valley of Montanvert appears to be peculiarly romantic. Here, says M. Bourrit, we beheld a spacious icy plain entirely level. Upon this there rose a mountain all of ice, with steps ascending to the top, which seemed the throne of some divinity. It likewise took the form of a grand cascade, whose figure was beyond conception beautiful, and the sun, which shone upon it, gave a sparkling brilliance to the whole. The valley on our right hand was ornamented with prodigious glaciers, that shooting up to an immeasurable height between the mountains, blend their colours with the skies, which they appear to reach.

Amidst those sequestered regions is found the chamois, which seems to hold a middle place between the goat and the deer, and to exceed in strength and agility almost any other animal of its size. It is astonishing to see with what swiftness they bound along the steepest slopes upon the edge of precipices, to elude pursuit. The hunters carry with them a pocket telescope, and having gained an eminence, run over the most elevated pastures with their glass to

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discover the game. This they endeavour to take by surprize; but the least noise is sufficient to give the animal an alarm. The skill of the hunter is shewn in driving it upon such narrow ledges, as lay the creature under the necessity either of leaping down a precipice, or of presenting itself trembling before him. In this situation, it sometimes turns short on a sudden, and endeavours to dart past him; in which case the hunter is in no little danger of being precipitated down the steep; if he has not time to slip aside, or cling close to the rock.

The gun used by the chamois-hunters is of a peculiar construction, consisting of a single-rifled barrel with two locks, one before the other. It receives two charges of powder and ball at the same time; the bullet of the first charge being either screwed down, or rammed so tight, as to serve for a breech-pin to the second charge, and prevent the communication of the fire to it, upon pulling down the cock nearest the muzzle. The difficulty of pursuing those animals over the heights of the mountains, renders it necessary to have the piece as light as possible, consistent with the advantage of a double charge.

The Apennine mountains are a ridge running through the middle of Italy, from north-west to south-east, in the form of a crescent. This mountain is greatly short of the height of the Alps, but occasions a considerable difference in the climate on its opposite sides.

The sea which washes the coast of Italy is the Mediterranean, that part of it lying on the east being usually styled the Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice. It is remarkable of the tides in this branch of the sea, that they now flow to places considerably above what they had reached in former times; as is evident by a comparison of the mean heights, from the year 1751 to 1755, and from the year 1760 to 1769. The mean height in the former period is found to have been  $23\frac{1}{2}$  inches, and in the latter  $25\frac{1}{2}$ . This increase of the modern tides has such an effect on the city of Venice, that the inhabitants are obliged to raise the streets to keep them dry, and also the large cisterns for the reception of rain water, to preserve them from any mixture of the encroaching sea waters. The heights of the tides at Venice are the greatest that are observed in all the Adriatic; the waters being pushed against, and accumulated in the bottom of the gulph about the Venetian coast; for towards the Mediterranean the tides gradually abate; so as to be hardly perceptible, except in the narrow creeks and gulfs.

It is also observed with respect to the Adriatic Sea, that the waters have constantly a circular course. Entering by the mouth of the gulf, they flow northward along the east coast, whence sweeping round the Gulf of Venice, they return southward by the Ecclesiastical and Neapolitan coasts. In consequence of this motion ships follow the same course in navigating to and from Venice.

The principal lakes are those of Maggior, Lugano, Como, Iseo, and Garda, in the north; with Perugia or Trasimene, Bracciano, Tarni, and Celano, in the middle of Italy.

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The chief rivers are as follows: viz. the Po, which rises in the Alps, and running northward, passes by Turin and Chivas, whence directing its course to the east, through Piedmont, Montserrat, the Milanese, and the territories of Venice, it discharges itself into the Adriatic by several channels; receiving in its course the two Dorias, the Sura, Sessia, Tessino, Olana, Adda, Oglio, and Mincio, on the north side; and on the south, the Tenaro, Trebia, Taro, Secchia, and Parma. This great river, formerly called Padus, but more anciently Eridanus, divided Cisalpine Gaul into Cispadana and Transpadana, and is famous in mythology from the story of Phaeton.

The Var divides Italy from Provence, and falls into the sea near Nice. The Adige rises in Tyrol, whence running south by Trent, it bends to the east at Verona, and discharges itself into the Adriatic a little north of the Po. The Toghamenta, Piava, and Brenta, rise in the Alps, and running south-east through the territories of Venice, fall likewise into the Adriatic.

The Arno rises in the Apennine Mountains, and running west by Florence, through one of the finest vales in Italy, discharges itself into the sea of Tuscany below Pisa. The Rubicon rising in the same mountains, proceeds eastward, and falls into the Adriatic near Rimini. Here likewise is the source of the celebrated river Tiber, which running south-west by Rome, falls into the sea at Ostia, about twelve miles below the city. The Volturno rises also in those mountains, and running west through Naples, falls into the sea below Capua.

The air of this country is generally temperate and healthful, though in the mountains and some of the valleys respectively, it tends to opposite extremes. A considerable difference in the climate may be perceived between the territories on the north, and those on the south side of the Apennine, the former being much the more temperate. This country, so much the boast of the ancient Romans, under the various names of Italia, Latium, Saturnia Tellus, and Hesperia, is with great justice denominated the Garden of Europe. It produces all sorts of fruit that are indigenous to a warm climate, with oil, and wine, in great plenty. Silk also is one of its capital commodities, with rock-cryстал, alabaster, fine marble, and Venetian steel. The manufactures are chiefly gold and silver stuffs and velvets.

## C H A P. II.

*Of Savoy—Piedmont—the Milanese—Genoa—Parma—Mantua—Venice.*

ITALY may be subdivided into three parts or districts, viz. the north, the middle, and the south. The first comprehends the duchies of Savoy, Piedmont, and Montserrat, with the territories of Genoa, the duchies of Milan, Mantua, Parma, Modena, and the territories of Venice; the second division comprehends the duchy of Tuscany, the pope's dominions, and the state of Lucca; and the third the kingdom of Naples.

The duchy of Savoy is bounded on the north by the lake and territories of Geneva, on the east by Switzerland and Piedmont, on the south by Dauphiné and another part of Piedmont, and on the west by Dauphiné and Franche Comté; being about eighty miles in length, and seventy in breadth. The country is generally barren and encumbered with the cold high mountains of the Alps; but there are some pleasant fruitful valleys, producing corn, wine, and fruit. It abounds in cattle, game, venison, and wild fowl; and the lakes and rivers afford fish in great plenty. The chief town is Chambery, situate in 5 degrees 50 minutes of east longitude, and in 45 degrees 35 minutes north latitude, eighty miles north-west of Turin, and forty south of Geneva. The other principal towns are, Montmelian, Annecy, Tonon, Aoste, Moutiers, Maurienne, and Bonneville.

The duchy of Savoy is subject to the king of Sardinia. The greatest disadvantage attending its situation is that of being exposed to the incursions of the French, by whom it is frequently ravaged in every war between the two nations.

The principality of Piedmont, so named from its lying at the foot of the Alps, is bounded on the north by those mountains, which separate it from Savoy; on the east by the duchies of Milan and Montferrat; on the south by the territories of Genoa, and the county of Nice; and on the west by France, from which it is divided by the river Var and the Alps; extending about a hundred and forty miles in length, and near a hundred in breadth. This country enjoys not only a most delightful climate, but also a fertile soil, abounding in corn, rice, wine, fruits, cattle, silk, hemp, and flax. Hardly any dominion of equal extent yields the sovereign so great a revenue. It is however exposed to the same inconvenience as the duchy of Savoy, and the crops are sometimes destroyed by storms of hail, called the plague of Piedmont. This country was formerly a part of Lombardy, but is now subject to the king of Sardinia, who is an absolute prince, sovereign of the island of Sardinia, Piedmont, Montferrat, and Savoy, with the counties of Nice, Tende, and Boglio or Buel, with the provinces of Oneglia, the Alexandrin, Vigavano, and Lomelin. The administration of the government in these provinces is committed to a council of state, a council of finances, and other boards, all of which are subject to the controul of his Sardinian majesty.

The city of Turin, the capital of Piedmont, and of the king of Sardinia's dominions, is situate in 7 degrees 16 minutes of east longitude, and in 44 degrees 50 minutes north latitude, at the confluence of the rivers Po and Doria, seventy miles south-west of Milan, and sixty-two south-east of Lyons, and a hundred north-west of Genoa. The town is of a quadrangular figure, about three miles in circumference, containing several spacious streets and squares, with lofty and magnificent buildings, and is fortified as well as the situation of the place will admit. The royal palace is much admired, no less on account of the grandeur of the edifice, than of the many valuable paintings with which it is furnished. Here is one of

the most celebrated Egyptian antiques in all Italy, known by the name of the table Isiaque. It is a slab of copper covered with hieroglyphics. The principal figure is an Isis sitting: she has a kind of hawk on her head, and the horns of a bull. Various are the conjectures formed by the learned in regard to the meaning of the emblematical figures upon this table. Some have imagined that the slab was intended for a compass; others, a perpetual calendar; while not a few pretend to discover in it principles of philosophy and politics; and others affirm that it contains a complete system of theology. But whatever may be the mystery conveyed in this celebrated antique, the figures are obviously the representation of men, women, birds, and other animals, confusedly grouped together, and rudely delineated, with silver incrustated into copper.

The other most conspicuous towns in the principality of Piedmont are, Susa, situated on the river Doria, on the confines of France, thirty miles north-west of Turin; Saluzz, an episcopal city, seventeen miles south of Turin; Nice, situated at the mouth of the river Var, eighty miles south-by-west of Turin; a well fortified town, the see of a bishop; Oneglia, lying in the territories of Genoa, but subject to the king of Sardinia. It is situated fifty miles north-east of Nice, and is a town of considerable trade.

The duchy of Montferrat contains about two hundred small towns and castles, and is a pleasant fruitful country, lying northward of the territories of Genoa. This duchy was formerly divided between the dukes of Savoy and Mantua; but upon the death of the latter without issue, in 1708, the house of Austria ceded the duke of Mantua's part to the then duke of Savoy, the ancestor of the present king of Sardinia, in whose family it has continued since that time.

It is difficult to ascertain the revenues of the king of Sardinia with any degree of precision. They seem however to be sufficient for all the public charges of the state, and for maintaining the dignity of the sovereign with regal splendor. Though in possession of some port-towns on the Mediterranean, as well as of an insular kingdom, his Sardinian majesty can hardly be ranked among the maritime powers; but he frequently has on foot a land army of upwards of twenty thousand men, who may rival, in point of discipline, the troops of any nation.

Savoy was anciently possessed by the Allobroges, who were reduced to the obedience of Rome in the time of Augustus. After the fall of that empire, and the decline of the Gothic nations by whom it was overturned, this country was annexed to the dominion of the Burgundian kings, on the extinction of which, it was conferred on Berold, the son of Hugh, duke of Saxony, in 999, by the emperor Otho III. his uncle, in whose family it still continues. Amadeus was created duke of Savoy and prince of Piedmont, by the emperor Sigismund, in 1391.

Victor Amadeus II. being made king of Sardinia, abdicated his throne, in 1730, in favour of his son Charles Emanuel; but afterwards repenting of this measure, and endeavouring to resume the reins of

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government, he was confined by his successor, and died in prison in the sixty-sixth year of his age.

The Milanese, or duchy of Milan, is bounded on the north by Switzerland; on the east by the territories of Venice, with the duchies of Mantua and Parma; on the south by the Apennine mountains, which separate it from Genoa; and on the west by Piedmont. It is about a hundred and fifty miles in length, and eighty in breadth, well watered with lakes and rivers, and abounding with corn, wine, and delicious fruits. It contains also many fine towns and villages, and is subject to the house of Austria. The capital of the country is the city of Milan, situated on the rivers Olona and Lambro, two hundred and fifty miles south-west of Rome, and a hundred north-east of Turin. It is of a round figure, ten miles in circumference, surrounded by a wall and other fortifications, of which the extent is too great to be defended by an ordinary garrison. The citadel however is one of the strongest fortresses in Italy. The town, which is elegantly built, consists of many spacious streets and squares, and is supposed to contain about thirty thousand inhabitants. The chief manufactures here are silk, brocade, and other rich stuffs. The works of steel and crystal are also much admired; and so great is the reputation of the Milanese artificers, in various branches, that they have monopolised almost the whole trade of this part of Italy. The city of Milan is the see of an archbishop, and is adorned with a prodigious number of churches and religious houses. The cathedral is a most magnificent structure, and contains, amongst innumerable ornaments, no less than six hundred statues. In the college of St. Ambrose are sixteen professors, who read lectures every day. The gallery of this building is celebrated for a noble collection of paintings, and the library contains upwards of forty-five thousand printed books, besides a great number of valuable manuscripts.

This duchy is subject to the house of Austria, whose vicar-general, or viceroy, resides in Milan. The city is governed by a senate under the controul of this officer, who exercises the same jurisdiction in the other towns and districts of the country. The revenues of the Milanese are computed to amount to three hundred thousand pounds a year.

The territories of the republic of Genoa lie in the form of a crescent on the Mediterranean Sea, from the town of Ventimiglia on the west, to the territories of the republic of Lucca eastward. It measures in length about a hundred and fifty miles, extending no where twenty miles from the sea, and in some parts not ten. It is properly called the Riviere, or coast of Genoa. On the land side it is covered by the Apennine mountains, which separate it from the county of Nice, Piedmont, the Milanese, and Parma. The tops of those mountains produce neither trees nor herbage; but towards the bottom they are well planted with olives, vines, and other fruit. The Genoese dominions however hardly yield any corn, and their seas not many fish.

The city of Genoa, the capital of the republic, is situate in 8 degrees 57 minutes east longitude, and in 44 degrees 25 minutes north latitude, part of it along

the shore of a circular bay, and part rising gradually backwards in the form of a great amphitheatre. The harbour is large and deep, but exposed to the south-west wind; against which however there is a mole for the security of their galleys and small vessels. The houses are well built, five or six stories high. The principal street is formed by a range of palaces, exceeding elegant, the fronts of several of which consist entirely of marble. The city is surrounded by a wall and other works, six miles in circumference; beyond which, at a little distance, is a second wall, enclosing the hills that command the place. The city contains fifty-seven churches, with seventeen convents, and is the see of an archbishop. The legislative authority is lodged in the great senate, consisting of the signiory, and four hundred principal citizens, elected annually out of the freemen. The signiory is composed of the doge and twelve other members, who hold their places two years. To this body, assisted by some other councils, is committed the administration of government; four parts in five of the senate being necessary to constitute a majority. While the doge continues in office, he resides in the palace erected by the public for his accommodation, and is attended by guards, in the manner of a sovereign prince. He is clothed in robes of crimson velvet, and addressed with the title of most serene; the senators being styled their excellencies, and the nobility illustrious. Those of the latter class derive their titles from the lands which they possess in Naples, Milan, and other countries, a privilege that has been justly considered as a fault in the constitution of the republic, the subjects of which, by being permitted to purchase honours and estates abroad, become thereby dependent on a foreign jurisdiction, repugnant to the interest of their country.

The forces of the republic are usually four or five thousand men, but sometimes they have been increased to the number of twenty thousand. The ordinary revenue is computed at two hundred thousand pounds a year. There is here a bank, which has part of the public duties for its fund. The crown of Spain is much indebted to this republic for money lent during the reign of Philip II. and other sums since that time; the interest of which, or part of it, being regularly paid, but none of the principal ever discharged.

The territories of Genoa not being fruitful, the magistrates usually keep two or three years provisions of corn, wine, oil, and other necessaries in their magazine, which they sell out at reasonable prices to the public in times of scarcity. The chief manufactures of this place are rich silks, velvets, and brocades, of which they export a great quantity, as well as of wine, oil, fruits, anchovies, sweet-meats, and several sorts of drugs.

The territory of Genoa formed part of the ancient Liguria, which, with the rest of Italy, fell under the dominion of the Romans. Upon the destruction of that empire, it was invaded by the Goths, and afterwards made part of the kingdom of the Lombards. It next became subject to the German empire, and during the wars between the pope and the emperor, asserted its independency. Various forms of govern-

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ment being adopted after this revolution, the people were sometimes subject to the nobility, and at others to one sovereign, who were successively the archbishop of Milan, the king of France, the marquis of Montserrat, the duke of Milan, and again the French king. The present constitution of the republic was settled by Andrew Doria, in 1518, who relieved his country from the foreign yoke under which it had formerly been held.

This republic once rivalled the Venetians in traffic, and the dominion of the Mediterranean Sea. They also possessed several towns on the coast of Greece, and the Euxine Seas, with some of the Grecian islands in the Archipelago, and took the island of Corsica from the Saracens. Their foreign possessions however have been lost, with the declension of their maritime power. They have now only some armed galleys, and are usually under the influence of Spain and Naples, the greater part of their estates being situated within the latter kingdom.

The duchy of Parma is bounded on the north by the river Po, which separates it from the Milanese; by the duchy of Modena on the south-east; on the south-west by the territories of Genoa; and on the west by another part of the Milanese, being about sixty miles long and fifty broad. It is a fertile country, abounding in corn, rice, wine, oil, and fruits, with rich pastures and cattle. Here are also mines of copper and silver. Parma, the capital, is pleasantly situated on a river of the same name, in 11 degrees of east longitude, and 44 degrees 50 minutes north latitude, sixty miles north-east of Genoa, and sixty-five south-east of Milan. The town is of a circular form, about three miles in circumference, defended by a citadel, and other modern works, which are esteemed very strong. Here is an university, and the see of a bishop. The dome of the church of St. John is adorned with excellent paintings, the work of the celebrated Coreggio, who was a native of this place.

The duchy of Parma is subdivided into Parma and Placentia; the latter of which has for its capital the town of the same name, situated thirty miles north-west of Parma. It stands about half a mile south of the river Po, in a fruitful plain, well watered with rivulets. The town is upwards of three miles in circumference, fortified, and defended by a citadel.

The duchy of Parma has been successively subject to the western emperors, the pope, the Venetians, the Milanese, and the French. In 1545, pope Julius reduced it again under the power of the Roman see; and pope Paul III. created his natural son, Peter Lewis Farnese, duke of Parma. In 1736, after the death of the preceding duke of Parma, the duchy was assigned to the house of Austria, by a treaty concluded between the late emperor Charles VI. and France, and possession was taken of it accordingly: but the pope, who claimed it as a fief of the holy see, protested against this settlement. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, it was conferred on the infant Don Philip of Spain, who has since been duke of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, a town in the duchy of Mantua, also ceded by the same treaty.

The duchy of Mantua is bounded on the north by the Brescian and Veronese; on the east by another part of the Venetian territories; on the south by the duchies of Modena and Mirandola; and on the west by the Milanese; being about fifty miles long, and from ten to fifty broad. The country abounds in corn, wine, silk, flax, pasture, and excellent fruits. The chief town is Mantua, situate in 10 degrees 47 minutes east longitude, and in 45 degrees 10 minutes north latitude, in the middle of a lake formed by the river Mincio, eighty miles south-west of Venice, and seventy west of Milan. It has a communication with the Continent by three causeways defended by forts, and is about five miles in circumference. The streets and squares are spacious and elegantly built. The number of inhabitants is computed at upwards of four hundred thousand. Here is an excellent manufacture of silk, hence called Mantuan silk. The town is the see of an archbishop, who is immediately subject to the pope, and has no other superior. At this place was born the poet Tasso; and the village of Andes, about two miles from it, is celebrated for the nativity of Virgil.

Mantua mufarum domus, atque ad sidera cantu  
Evecta Andino, & Smyrnæis æmula pletris.

SIL. ITAL.

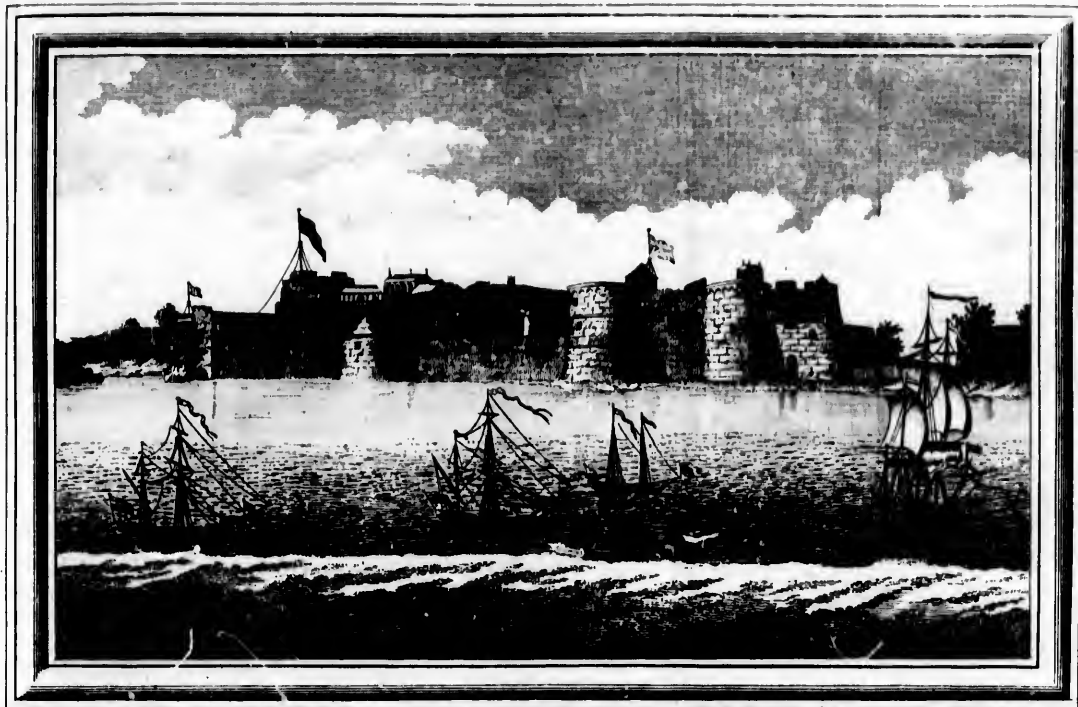
Mantua formerly constituted part of the kingdom of Lombardy, but was conquered by Charlemagne about the year 800, from which time it continued a province of the German empire until the wars between the pope and the emperor, when the inhabitants erected a republic. This form of government however was overturned by some of the principal citizens, who assumed the sovereignty of the state, and reigned successively under the denomination of tyrants. In 1328, the last of those usurpers was deposed by Lewis de Gonzaga, who obtained the sovereignty as the emperor's vicar; his successors enjoying the title of lords of Mantua till 1435, when the emperor conferred on the family the title of marquis, and afterwards that of duke. In 1703, however, the duke adhering to the French interest against the house of Austria, the latter seized upon the duchy as a forfeited fief, and has ever since kept possession of it. The revenues of the duchy are computed to amount to three hundred thousand pounds a year.

The republic of Venice is bounded on the north by the country of the Grisons, Trent, and Tirol; on the east by Carniola and the Gulf of Venice; on the south by Romania and the duchy of Mantua; and on the west by the duchy of Milan; being a hundred and eighty miles long, and a hundred broad. The country is level and the soil fruitful, producing corn, wine, silk, rich pasture, and plenty of cattle of all kinds. The capital of the Venetian dominions is Venice, situate in 12 degrees 2 minutes of east longitude, and in 45 degrees 25 minutes north latitude; two hundred and twenty miles north of Rome, and a hundred and forty east of Milan. This city is said to derive its origin from the fishermen of Padua, who here built their huts on the lagunes, or marshy grounds, whither

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*A View of Surat in the East Indies.*

and the inhabitants computed to amount to two hundred thousand.

The sovereign power of Venice is lodged in the descendants of the ancient families, of whom there are at present about fifteen hundred, styled noble Venetians, and who constitute the grand council or assembly of the state; having a right to enter on their senatorian office at the age of twenty-five. The doge or duke of Venice, though vested with all the external marks of executive power, has in reality but very little share in the administration of government; but he enjoys his dignity for life. As the Venetians claim the sole navigation of the Adriatic Sea, this magistrate, attended by the senators, and a great number of gondolas or vessels richly adorned, sails into the gulf annually on Ascension-Day, and throwing a ring into the Adriatic, espouses her, as proxy of the state.

Besides the great council, or legislative body of the republic, there are several others to which is committed the charge of public affairs. One of those in particular has the power of imprisoning and putting to death the greatest nobleman, even the doge himself, upon the bare suspicion of any treasonable design, and

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the architect. Verona is yet distinguished by a university, and is the see of a bishop.

Aquileia, capital of Friuli, is situated twenty-two miles west of Trieste, and fifty-seven north-east of Venice. This was anciently a city of great eminence, but now much decayed. It is at present subject to the house of Austria, though its patriarch be one of those of the Venetian republic.

The inhabitants of the Venetian territories are allowed no share in the government of the state, nor is any respect paid in the capital to the ancient nobility on the continent.

The annual revenues of the republic are estimated at one million two hundred thousand pounds. The number of their land forces is about twenty-four thousand. Their marine, it is computed, may sometimes consist of thirty men of war, a hundred galleys, and ten galleasses; but they seldom engage the Turks at sea without foreign assistance. Their fleet is always commanded by a noble Venetian; but for the land-service they make choice of some foreign general, who is accompanied by several senators, without whose concurrence he cannot act. For the most part, they also employ foreign troops in their wars, that the

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Gonzaga, who obtained the sovereignty as the emperor's vicar; his successors enjoying the title of lords of Mantua till 1435, when the emperor conferred on the family the title of marquis, and afterwards that of duke. In 1703, however, the duke adhering to the French interest against the house of Austria, the latter seized upon the duchy as a forfeited fief, and has ever since kept possession of it. The revenues of the duchy are computed to amount to three hundred thousand pounds a year.

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several considerable families of Padua and Aquileia likewise retired, in the fifth century, to save themselves from falling into the hands of the Goths, who then invaded Italy. At that time the foundation of Venise was laid on seventy-two small islands, but it now stands on a much greater number. Such is the natural advantage of its situation, and so difficult the access either by land or sea, that no power has ever attempted to besiege this city, though it has now stood upwards of twelve hundred years. The prospect of Venice, on approaching it either from the continent or the sea, is extremely beautiful, nor is the idea of its uncommon grandeur diminished on arriving in the city. The piazza of St. Mark is hardly to be equalled for the magnificence of its buildings; and on the grand canal the houses are for the most part elegant structures with marble fronts, and adorned with pillars of the various orders of architecture. The canals are so numerous that they are dispersed in every quarter of the town; and over them are four hundred and fifty bridges, the principal of which, called the Rialto, lies over the great canal, and is composed of one arch ninety foot wide, making one third part of a circle. Along the sides of some of the canals, there are keys on which the people walk, but others are destitute of this convenience, and in some parts extend from one side of the street to the opposite.

The rooms are usually hung with gilt leather or tapestry, and the bedsteads are of iron, for the purpose of securing them against vermin, to which the warmth and moisture of the climate might expose them. The low and maritime situation of Venice, however, is attended with several disadvantages. The canals in the heat of summer afford a very offensive smell; all the water is bad, except what is brought from the continent; and they have no good cellars for their wine. The circumference of the city is about six miles, and the inhabitants computed to amount to two hundred thousand.

The sovereign power of Venice is lodged in the descendants of the ancient families, of whom there are at present about fifteen hundred, styled noble Venetians, and who constitute the grand council or assembly of the state; having a right to enter on their senatorian office at the age of twenty-five. The doge or duke of Venice, though vested with all the external marks of executive power, has in reality but very little share in the administration of government; but he enjoys his dignity for life. As the Venetians claim the sole navigation of the Adriatic Sea, this magistrature, attended by the senators, and a great number of gondolas or vessels richly adorned, sails into the gulf annually on Ascension-Day, and throwing a ring into the Adriatic, espouses her, as proxy of the state.

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that without bringing him to an open trial, or allowing him the privilege of making his own defence.

The territories of Venice are subdivided into a number of districts, distinguished by their chief towns, which are, Padua, Verona, Aquileia, &c.

Padua is situated twenty-two miles west of Venice, in a fine plain, watered by the rivers Brentae and Bachiaglione. The form of the city is circular, and about seven miles in compass; but the ground within the walls is at present not half built, and many of the houses are in a ruinous condition. This city was anciently one of the most flourishing in Italy. In the time of the Romans, the inhabitants amounted to a hundred thousand, but at present hardly to a third part of that number; and its celebrated university is now reduced to one college. Here is still however a manufacture of woollen cloth; but the people are generally miserable through the oppression of the Venetian republic. According to tradition, this city was founded by Antenor, and a colony of Trojans; and here is shown an image of the Blessed Virgin, which, upon the same oral authority, flew thither from Constantinople, when the city was taken by the Turks.

Verona, capital of the Veronese subdivision, is situated on the river Adige, twenty-four miles north of Mantua. It is six miles in circumference, well fortified, and containing several noble buildings. Among other antiquities is a Roman amphitheatre, with the seats yet entire, and capable of accommodating twenty-five thousand spectators. The longest diameter of the area is two hundred and thirty-three foot, and the shortest a hundred and thirty-six. Here is also the remains of a triumphal arch, and a magnificent temple dedicated to Jupiter. At this place were born the two Pliny's, the elder and younger, and Vitruvius the architect. Verona is yet distinguished by an university, and is the see of a bishop.

Aquileia, capital of Friuli, is situated twenty-two miles west of Trieste, and fifty-seven north-east of Venice. This was anciently a city of great eminence, but now much decayed. It is at present subject to the house of Austria, though its patriarch be one of those of the Venetian republic.

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The annual revenues of the republic are estimated at one million two hundred thousand pounds. The number of their land forces is about twenty-four thousand. Their marine, it is computed, may sometimes consist of thirty men of war, a hundred galleys, and ten galleasses; but they seldom engage the Turks at sea without foreign assistance. Their fleet is always commanded by a noble Venetian; but for the land-service they make choice of some foreign general, who is accompanied by several senators, without whose concurrence he cannot act. For the most part, they also employ foreign troops in their wars, that the

subjects of the state may not be interrupted in their application to manufactures and commerce, which are the support of the republic.

Their exports consist chiefly of wine, oil, fruit, Venetian steel, copper, glass, &c. with wrought silks of various kinds, brocades, gold and silver stuffs, damasks, and velvets.

Though the Venetians, like the other states of Italy, profess the catholic religion, the authority of the pope is here extremely inconsiderable. Their church has two patriarchs, the one of Aquileia and the other of Venice, who are entirely subject to the temporal power, and regarded as little more than cyphers; considering likewise as such the Roman pontiff in his ecclesiastical capacity. A kind of inquisition indeed is here tolerated, but the court can put none of their decrees in execution without the leave of the state. In proportion to the small authority of the ecclesiastics, religious prejudices are rarely found among the Venetians, nor is even public decency required in those of the clerical function. Monks and priests may not only enjoy the diversion of masquerading during the carnival, but may keep concubines, sing upon the stage, and take what liberties they please, provided that they do not interfere in the affairs of government. The dissoluteness of the nuns is equal to that of the clergy, and they openly violate the coercive regulations of the patriarch towards restraining their immoralities.

The Venetians, considered as a trading people, are perhaps more addicted to pleasure than the inhabitants of any other nation, and seem not even to possess the virtues of frugality and temperance, which are usually found to prevail the most in republican governments. The custom for the ladies to have their cavaliers servants, or cicisbeo, is here universal. A person under this denomination enjoys so intimate a familiarity with the lady to whom he is attached, that he may be regarded in every respect as her husband, more properly than the nominal partner whose wife she is reputed, in consequence of a marriage by which her parents had sacrificed her affection to considerations of interest.

Here are many small houses, named casinos, consisting of one or two rooms on a floor, neatly fitted up; intended for the reception of coteries, where the company play at cards, and generally sup together.

The Venetians were formerly much richer and more powerful than at present, possessing the whole trade of the Levant, and not only masters of a great part of Italy north of the Po, but also of the Morea, and the numerous islands in the Archipelago. Upon the Portuguese discovering the way to India by the Cape of Good Hope, however, the Venetians lost a valuable branch of their commerce, with the ruin of which their wealth and power began to decline. They have since been obliged to abandon their territorial acquisitions in Greece, as well as almost all the islands in the adjacent seas; and their continental possessions are now restricted to their territories in Italy, with Istria, Morlachia, and some towns on the coast of Dalmatia, north of the Gulf of Venice.

## C H A P. III.

*Of Modena—Lucca—Tuscany—deminions of the pope—  
Naples—Italians—character—history.*

THE duchy of Modena is bounded on the north by Mantua; on the east by Romania; on the south by Tuscany and Lucca; on the west by Parma and the territories of Genoa. It is about fifty miles long, and forty broad, a pleasant fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, silk, rich pastures, and excellent fruits. The capital is Modena, situate in 11 degrees 20 minutes of east longitude, and in 44 degrees 34 minutes north latitude, forty miles south of Mantua. The houses in the city are not well built, but it contains some handsome structures, among which are, the cathedral, several churches, and some of the monasteries. This is the ancient Mutina, where Brutus being besieged by Anthony, was relieved by the consuls Hirtius and Panfa.

The duchy is subject to its own duke, who resides in a magnificent palace in the capital, and enjoys a revenue of about a hundred thousand pounds a year. On the fall of the Roman empire this country became subject to the Goths, the Lombards, and the German emperors successively. It was afterwards annexed to the marquisate of Ferrara, and possessed alternately by the pope and the family of D'Este, till the duke and the pope agreed to divide it between them; since which time the former has held the duchies of Modena, Rhegio, and Mirandola; and the latter the marquisate of Ferrara.

The territories of the republic of Lucca are bounded on the north by Modena; on the east and south by Tuscany; and on the west by the Tuscan Sea and the territories of Genoa; extending twenty-five miles in length, and in breadth about twenty. Lucca, the capital, is situate in 11 degrees 36 minutes of east longitude, and in 43 degrees 50 minutes north latitude, near the river Serchio, twelve miles east of the Tuscan Sea. The town is elegantly built, about three miles in circumference, surrounded by a wall and other modern fortifications.

The legislative authority of this republic is lodged in a senate of two hundred and the principal inhabitants; and the executive power administered by the gonfalonier, or standard-bearer, the chief officer of the state, assisted by a council of nine members, who are changed every two months. All elections of officers are made by balloting in the senate. By the diligence of the natives this town has obtained the name of Lucca the Industrious. The principal manufactures are those of silk, and gold and silver stuffs. The inhabitants oblige all travellers to leave their arms at the gate, and will not suffer any person to wear a sword in the city. This place is the see of a bishop, immediately subject to the pope, and he officiates in the robes of an archbishop. The olive oil produced in the territory of Lucca is in great esteem. Of corn they have only a small quantity, but abundance of wine.

wine. The ordinary revenues of the state are estimated at thirty thousand pounds a year, which enables them to raise on any emergency a body of ten thousand men. This republic usually shared the fortunes of the rest of Italy, till they purchased their independency of the emperor Rodolph, for ten thousand crowns, in 1279; since which time they have remained a free state, but greatly declined in respect of traffic, and naval power in the Mediterranean, for which they once were conspicuous.

The duchy of Tuscany is bounded by the territories of Lucca and Modena on the north-west; by those of the pope on the north-east and south; and by the Tuscan Sea on the south-west; being a hundred and fifty miles long, and about a hundred broad. This country being almost encompassed on the land side by the Apennine mountains, the air in those parts is generally cold, and the soil barren; but in others the climate is agreeably temperate, and there are several fine valleys, of great extent, as well as uncommon fertility. One in particular, which runs across this country, from Arezzo to the Tuscan Sea, abounds in corn, wine, oil, oranges, figs, citrons, and other excellent fruits. No country affords greater plenty of mulberry-trees, on which account the natives are enabled to make the richest silks.

Tuscany is subdivided into three districts, viz. the Florentine, Sianese, and Pisan. The capital of the first, and of all Tuscany, is Florence, situate in 11 degrees 24 minutes of east longitude, and in 43 degrees 46 minutes north latitude, on the river Arno, a hundred and twenty-five miles north of Rome, and forty-five east of Leghorn. This town, which on account of its beauty is distinguished by the name of Florence the Fair, is defended by a wall and other modern works, with three citadels, the extent of the whole in circumference being about six miles. The private buildings are lofty, the squares spacious, the noblemen's palaces equal to any in Italy, and the churches little inferior to those of Rome. Almost all the streets are adorned with statues and fountains; but the valuable antique statues, curiosities, and paintings, in the great duke's palace, are unrivalled by any in the world. This elegant city is supposed to contain seventy thousand inhabitants. It has nineteen gates, seventeen large squares, twenty-two hospitals, eighty-nine convents, and a hundred and fifty-two churches. Here is also an university, and the seat of an archbishop.

The chief town of the Sianese subdivision is Sienna, situated thirty-six miles south of Florence, on an eminence, in a pleasant and fruitful valley. This town is likewise elegantly built, about four miles in circumference, encompassed with a ruinous antique wall, and defended by a citadel. The cathedral is esteemed one of the finest pieces of Gothic architecture in Italy. An archbishoprick and university are also distinctions of this place. Sienna was formerly a powerful republic, and often contended with the Florentines for superiority in war. The magistracy consists of a governor and senate, which has however been subject to the grand duke of Tuscany since the year 1555;

a period whence may be dated the decline of its ancient prosperity.

The capital of the other district is Pisa, situated on the river Arno, forty-two miles west of Florence, and four miles east of the sea. In the same subdivision of the country stands the port-town of Leghorn. This city has a secure harbour, but so liable to be choaked up with sands, that the great duke's slaves are continually employed in clearing it. With the sand thus collected, they fill up the marshes about the place, by which means the town is rendered more healthy than it formerly had been. Leghorn being a free port, the merchants of all nations resort hither, and the place is rich and populous. The inland duties however are very high, nothing going in or out of the city but what is greatly taxed to the inhabitants. Britain imports from Leghorn a great quantity of silk, wine, and oil.

Tuscany was anciently known by the names of Umbria, Tyrrhenia, and Etruria, and was divided into twelve states or principalities, till about four hundred and fifty-five years before Christ, when it fell under the dominion of the Romans. From many remaining antiquities, it appears that the inhabitants of Etruria cultivated the arts at a very remote period, though even the characters of their language are now entirely unknown. After experiencing the dominion of the Goths, and the kings of Lombardy, it was annexed by Charlemagne to the western empire. The viceroy or governor was sometimes styled marquis, and at others duke of Tuscany. This officer rendering himself independent of the emperor, at the instigation of the pope, who made offer of his protection, the influence of the latter became at length so considerable, that he took upon him to transfer the dominions of Tuscany to the sovereigns of Naples, the dukes of Anjou, and other princes who possessed the greatest share of his favour. During the wars between the pope and emperor, in which the partizans of the former were distinguished by the name of Guelphs, and the latter by that of Gibellines, Florence, Pisa, Sienna, and several other considerable cities in Italy, with their territories, withdrew themselves from the subjection to either power, and erected such governments as suited their own inclination. They seldom however continued long under any one form, but altered their constitutions as the nobility or people prevailed, till John de Medicis was invested by the Florentines with the executive power of the state. But neither he nor his descendants were absolute for many years after, the advances which they made towards despotism being slow and cautious. In 1570, pope Pius V. conferred the title of grand duke on Cosmo de Medicis, and crowned him at Rome with his own hands. From this time the holy see has considered the dukes of Tuscany as its vassals, while the emperor on the other hand has claimed it as a chief of the empire, and asserted the right of disposing of it on the failure of issue of the Medicæan family; as was done some years ago in favour of Don Carlos, son of the queen of Spain, against which the pope protested.

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This prince however relinquishing his right to his new dominions, in consideration of the Sicilies being conferred upon him, the late emperor obtained this duchy, in lieu of Lorraine which he ceded to France; and his second son, archduke Leopold, is at present sovereign of Tuscany.

Some places in Tuscany however are under the dominion of other sovereigns, as the city of Lucca with its territories; the State del Presidii, or the garrisons on the sea coast, which is occupied by the Spaniards; the principality of Piombino, the domain of the house of Cibo, and the marquise de Fos de Nuovo.

The great duke of Tuscany is an absolute prince, and his revenues are computed to amount to five hundred thousand pounds. They arise from the tenths of the yearly value of every house; the tenth of all estates that are sold; the ground-rents of the houses in Leghorn, and other cities; with eight per cent. out of the portions of all women when they marry; five shillings a head on cattle when they are sold, and almost a general excise on provisions. The forces of this prince, exclusive of the ordinary militia, consist only of his guards, and some armed galleys at sea. In case of a war, he usually hires foreign troops, who are for the most part from Switzerland.

The dominions of the pope are bounded on the north by the Venetian territories; on the north-east by the Gulf of Venice; on the south-east by Naples; on the south-west by the Tuscan Sea; and on the north-west by the duchy of Tuscany, which they almost encompass on the land side. They extend in length two hundred and forty miles, and in breadth from twenty to two hundred and twenty. The soil of the pope's territories is generally fertile, producing corn, wine, oil, silk, and excellent fruits, but might yield them in much greater quantity, were it as well cultivated as in the time of the Romans. The country is subdivided into the following districts, viz. Romania, the Bolognese, the Ferrarese, Urbino, Ancona, Spoleto, Campania, St. Peter's Patrimony.

Romania, including the Bolognese and Ferrarese, is bounded on the north by the territories of Venice; on the east by the Gulf of Venice; on the south by the duchy of Tuscany, and the province of Urbino; and on the west by Modena and Mantua, extending about eighty miles in length, and almost as much in breadth. The country is in general fruitful and pleasant, but the Ferrarese is unhealthy.

The chief town of Romania is Ravenna, situate in 12 degrees 15 minutes of east longitude, and in 44 degrees 22 minutes north latitude, three miles west of the Gulf of Venice. It anciently stood on several islands, like the city of Venice, and was then esteemed one of the best harbours the Romans had; but the sea is now retired about three miles from it, and what formerly lay under water, is at present a fruitful field. In the lower age this city was the seat of the Ostrogoths for seventy-two years; but being recovered by Narfes, Justinian's general, it became the residence of the exarchs, or viceroys, sent by the emperor from Constantinople, for a hundred and seventy-five years, when it was taken by the Longobards. On being

seized by Pepin, the king of France, it was given by the conqueror, with the adjacent territory, to the pope, in whose possession it has since remained. The city is still the see of an archbishop, but is at present not very considerable. The soil of the country round it, however, is so well suited to vines, that they grow here to an incredible size. Another town of this province is Rimini, situated on the Gulf of Venice, twenty miles south-east of the preceding. This is the see of a bishop, and here is a celebrated bridge, built in the time of Augustus.

Ferrara is situated on the river Po de Valona, twenty-five miles north-east of Bologna; being the seat of an university and the see of an archbishop.

Bologna stands fifty miles north of Florence, a few miles north-west of the Appenine mountains, and in one of the most fruitful plains of Italy. It is washed by several little rivulets, and a navigable canal. The city is about five miles in circumference, remarkable for its magnificent churches and monasteries, with the riches and fine paintings which they contain. The number of inhabitants is computed at eighty thousand. It is the see of an archbishop, and one of the most considerable universities in Europe.

The province of Urbino is bounded on the north by Romania and the Gulf of Venice; on the east by the marquise of Ancona; on the south by Umbria and Perugia; and on the west by Tuscany; being fifty-five miles long, and from twenty to fifty broad. The chief town is Urbino, situate in 13 degrees of east longitude, and in 42 degrees 26 minutes north latitude, sixty miles north-west of Ancona. It is a small city, but well built and populous, and the place of nativity of the celebrated painter Raphael.

On a mountain twenty miles north of Urbino, stands the city of St. Marino, capital of the territory of the same name. This had formerly been a little commonwealth, independent of the pope, till a faction of the citizens resigned the sovereignty into his hands; but it appears that his holiness has since restored the ancient liberties of the state.

The marquise of Ancona extends along the Gulf of Venice, east of Spoleto. The capital of the province is Ancona, a port-town, situated in 15 degrees 5 minutes of east longitude, and in 43 degrees 5 minutes north latitude, a hundred and sixteen miles north-east of Rome. This was a Greek city, built by the Syracusians, who fled from the tyranny of Dionysius, and had once a noble harbour, erected by the emperor Trajan.

In the same territory stands the celebrated city of Loreto, three miles west of the Gulf of Venice, and fifteen miles south of Ancona. It is a small fortified town, consisting only of one street within the gate, and another without. According to the catholic tradition, here is the chamber of the blessed Virgin, in which she was born, was saluted by the angel, and where she brought up her son Jesus till he was twelve years of age. This sacred habitation is said to have been transported by angels into Dalmatia, on the east side of the Gulf of Venice, in the year 1291; but the people of that country not expressing a due veneration

for the favour, it was about three years after carried over into Italy by the same means, where having suffered various removals, it was at length fixed at Loreto, its present station, under the cupola of the magnificent cathedral, which was built for the purpose. The chamber is thirty-one foot nine inches long, thirteen foot three inches broad, and eighteen foot nine inches high; is surrounded by a case of the whitest Carrara marble, half a foot distant from it on every side. In the interior chamber is an image of the blessed Virgin, with a little Jesus in her arms, and a triple crown on her head; her person almost covered with diamonds and pearls. Round the figure is a kind of rainbow, of precious stones of various colours; all the ornaments, altars, and utensils of the place being inexpressibly rich. The gallery in which the treasures are lodged is full of gold and jewels; the votive donations, of emperors, kings, popes, and princes, for many hundred years past. This holy house was formerly visited every year by near two hundred thousand pilgrims; but the number of annual visitants is now greatly diminished. The time of the greatest concourse is from the beginning of May, till the middle of July, and afterwards in September; the eighth of that month being kept as the birth-day of the Virgin Mary. On those occasions, every pilgrim contributes something to increase the treasure. Loreto was constituted a city and bishoprick by pope Sixtus V. and by all true catholics it is esteemed the most sacred place under heaven.

The province of Spoleto, or Umbria, is situated westward of Ancona, and has for its capital a town of its own name. This place is the see of a bishop, and was formerly very considerable; but suffered greatly by an earthquake in 1703.

The Campania of Rome extends upwards of sixty miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, in a direction south-east from the city, as far as the frontiers of Naples. This country has for many years been unhealthy, especially in the latter end of the summer, on account of the many lakes and stagnant waters, which in the time of the ancient Romans had been drained off. The metropolis of it, and the whole papal dominions, is Rome, once the mistress of the world. This celebrated city stands in 13 degrees of east longitude, and in 41 degrees 54 minutes north latitude, on the river Tyber, about sixteen miles north-east of the Tuscan Sea. The walls, as in the time of the Romans, are about twelve miles in circumference, but not a third part of the ground within them is at present occupied with buildings, the rest being almost entirely taken up with vineyards and gardens. Modern Rome stands fourteen or fifteen foot higher than the old city, on the ruins of which it is built; and a great part of the hills being washed down into the valleys, it is also become more level. The Tarpeian rock, whence malefactors were anciently thrown, and which was then so terrible a precipice, is at present not more than twenty foot high. In general the streets are spacious, and the houses magnificently built. There are three hundred fine churches, besides a vast number of palaces and convents. The church of St. Peter, which is said to be the largest in Christen-

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dom, is incrufted, within and without, with marble. But the greatest curiosities in Rome are the ancient theatres and amphitheatres, pagan temples, obelisks, triumphal arches, statues, &c. minute descriptions of which might fill many volumes.

One of the most perfect remains of Roman magnificence is the amphitheatre built by Vespasian. It is five hundred and fifty foot long, four hundred and seventy broad, and one hundred and sixty high; sufficient to contain eighty thousand persons seated, and twenty thousand standing. The stone with which it is built is the same that was used in many of the ancient edifices of Rome, an incrustation of the aqua albucina; between Rome and Tivoli; and the orders of architecture that adorn the building, are the Doric, Ionic, Corinthian, and Composite. The entrance to the amphitheatre is by eighty arcades, seventy-six of which were for the people, two for the gladiators and the wild beasts, and two for the emperor and his suite, who came all the way under cover from the royal apartments. The vivaria of Domitian are still to be seen.

The prison which was built by Tullus Hostilius, and afterwards enlarged by Ancus Martius, yet remains, under the name of Il Carcera Mamentino. The most ancient part of it is a dungeon, to which the descent is by a few steps. The walls are exceedingly solid, and are made to slope inwards pyramidically, whilst the roof is left nearly flat, in order to counterbalance the lateral pressure. In this prison they shew the mark of St. Peter's head against the wall, and the miraculous fountain which sprung up for the baptism of the prisoners. This is also the place of which Juvenal speaks in his third Satire, and Sallust in his Conspiracy of Cataline.

There are five bridges over the river, twenty-eight gates, and three hundred antique towers still remaining. The castle of St. Angelo, whither the pope retires on any apprehension of danger, is a modern fortification, but of no great strength, and serves rather to keep the city in awe, than to defend it against a foreign enemy.

The pope's palace, named the Vatican, is extremely magnificent, situated on an eminence, one of the seven hills on which the ancient city was built. It is said to consist of five hundred and sixty rooms. The parts most admired are the grand stair-case, and the pope's apartment; but chiefly the Vatican library, the richest in the world, both in printed books and manuscripts.

The city is well supplied not only with water, by their noble aqueducts and fountains, but with all sorts of provisions, and those of the best kinds. The inhabitants are extremely obliging to strangers, and are computed to amount to a hundred and fifty thousand.

Twenty miles east of Rome stands the city of Tivoli, the ancient Tibur, situated on the river Anio, now called the Teverone. From the high situation, and its being the resort of all the great, it had anciently the epithet of Superbum. The hill, on the side of which it stands, is covered with olive-trees for five or six miles, and adorned with beautiful houses of the nobility, whence there is a delightful prospect of the

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Campania, as far as Rome. The palace of the family of Esté, dukes of Modena, is much admired for its architecture, sculpture, and paintings, as well as its gardens and water-works. Tivoli was the retreat of many of the most eminent of the ancient Romans, in the hot season. Here Horace had his favourite villa, and hither Augustus also frequently resorted, on account of the pleasant situation, and the salubrity of the air.

At the mouth of the Tyber, on the south side, twelve miles south of Rome, stands Ostia, formerly the port-town to the city, but the harbour is now choked up, and the place lies in ruins.

The town of Albano, famous for its excellent wine, and beautiful prospects, is situated fifteen miles south-east of Rome, supposed to be near the place where formerly stood Alba Longa.

The division of the pope's dominions, distinguished by the name of St. Peter's Patrimony, is bounded on the north and east by Tuscany and Umbria; on the north-east by Sabina; on the south-east by the Campania of Rome; and on the west by the Tuscan Sea. The chief town of this province is Viterbo, situate twenty-five miles north of Rome. Here likewise stands Civita Vecchia, thirty-five miles north-west of Rome, on a bay of the Tuscan Sea. This place, which is the station of the pope's galleys, is defended by a fortress, and a few years since declared by his holiness a free port. The other eminent towns are, Bracciano, Castro Orvito, and Aquapendente.

The pope possesses over his dominions the power of an absolute sovereign, the consistory of cardinals, who are his council in ecclesiastical affairs, having no authority to intermeddle in the civil government of the state. The Campania of Rome, on account of its vicinity, is usually subject to his own immediate superintendance; but the other provinces are governed by officers whom he appoints, under the title of legates, or vice-legates. He also nominates to the command of the forces in all the provinces and cities; but in the latter, the podestats, or judges, and other inferior officers, are elected by their respective inhabitants. His prime-minister is the cardinal patron, for the most part his nephew, who seldom fails to amass an enormous estate, if his uncle's pontificate proves of considerable duration.

The pope ingrosses all the corn in his dominions, the farmers being obliged to sell the produce to his agents at the price he sets upon it, and the latter again retail it to the people at an advanced price, which is such however as is generally allowed to be moderate. Some have computed the papal revenue to amount to a million sterling, or upwards; but this must far exceed the sum that arises from his territorial possessions. In former times, the pope's contingent profits alone were much superior even to this valuation; but those casualties are now greatly diminished by the suppression of the order of Jesuits, from whom he drew vast supplies; as well as in consequence of the measures taken by the several popish powers, for preventing the great ecclesiastical issues of money to Rome. According to the best accounts, the taxes upon the provisions and

lodgings, furnished to foreigners, who spend immense sums in visiting his dominions, form at present the most considerable part of his accidental revenues.

The pope, like other temporal princes, has his guards, or *birri*, to whom is entrusted not only the care of his person, but the peace of the city, under proper magistrates, both ecclesiastical and civil. He usually maintains an army of twenty thousand men, stationed in different parts of his territories, and has also a fleet of galleys.

With respect to the pope's ecclesiastical dominion, it is extended over all the countries where the catholic religion prevails, the people of every nation esteeming allegiance to their respective sovereigns no longer a duty, when it comes in competition with that which they owe to the papal chair. Of late years, indeed, many temporal princes, as well as their lay subjects, have disputed the pope's supremacy; but the monks and regular clergy of the Romish church remain universally attached to the holy see. The number of those partizans, it is computed, may amount to two million; a formidable body, by their intrigues, when we consider that they are in every great family in the catholic countries, and have an almost unbounded influence over the minds of the people.

The successor to the papal chair is elected by the cardinals, who are seventy in number, when complete, and are appointed by the pope upon a vacancy. There is always a majority of Italians in the conclave, who take care that no foreigner is advanced to the holy see, since the fourteenth century, when seven popes resided successively at Avignon, in France, to the prejudice of the Romish capital. The pope is held by the catholics in the highest veneration: they regard him as infallible, and his authority superior to all human controul. The greatest princes have thought themselves honoured by the permission to kiss his toe, and he is addressed by the title of his holiness.

The papal territories were held many years under the sovereign jurisdiction of the emperor, who was styled the patron and defender of the church, until the reign of the emperor Henry IV. when the popes, weary of subjection to a race of princes, who sometimes refused to confirm their election, and at others displaced them, endeavoured to excite insurrections both in Germany and Italy against the imperial power. When the above named emperor asserted his right of investing bishops in their sees, pope Gregory VII. excommunicated him, and compelled him by the dint of the papal anathema to relinquish that part of his prerogative. He even assumed a temporal authority over the proscribed monarch, not only summoning him to answer the complaints of his subjects, but declaring that he had forfeited his right to the empire. The same ambitious motives continuing to influence the papal councils, the successors of Gregory arrogated a jurisdiction over all the Christian princes, which they were long enabled to maintain, by means of the unlimited spiritual authority ascribed to the Roman pontiff, in the times of superstition and ignorance. In consequence of the Reformation, however, the ancient bounds of the papal sovereignty were greatly

restricted; and by the gradual progress of philosophical enquiry and knowledge, the mitre has been almost entirely divested of those rays which had been accustomed to dazzle the Christian world in the ages of darkness.

The kingdom of Naples, which occupies the south-east part of Italy, is situate between 14 and 19 degrees of east longitude, and between 38 and 43 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north-east by the Gulf of Venice, on the south-east by the Mediterranean Sea, on the south-west by Sicily and the Tuscany Sea, and on the north-west by the territories of the pope; being about two hundred and seventy-five miles long, and a hundred broad. This country is divided into four provinces, viz. Terra di Lavoro, Abruzzo, Apulia, and Calabria, which are also subdivided into districts.

The first of those provinces is situated in the north-west part of the kingdom, and is remarkable for the wholesomeness and delightful temperature of the air, as well as for the fertility of the soil, which abounds with all the fruits that grow in the climates of Italy.

The capital of the kingdom is Naples, situate in 15 degrees 12 minutes of east longitude, and in 41 degrees 6 minutes of north latitude, a hundred and forty miles south-east of Rome. This city is fifteen miles in circumference within the walls, but including the suburbs, it may be nearly double this extent. It stands on an eminence rising gradually from the sea, on a fine bay about thirty miles in diameter; the islands which are before it forming a secure and commodious harbour. The buildings are mostly magnificent, which occasions it to occupy so large a space of ground, and the number of inhabitants is computed at three hundred thousand.

This city is ornamented with a great number of elegant fountains, but in many of them the water is very indifferent. The harbour is very spacious, and has a grand light-house, with a mole near five hundred paces in length, which separates the main harbour from the basin. For the defence of the city, and at the same time to keep it in subjection, are five castles, which consist of very strong walls. The Castello Nuovo has a communication by a covert way with the king's palace; and one side of it is contiguous to the sea. At its entrance stands a triumphal arch of very curious sculpture, near which is a brass gate, decorated with fine basso-reliefs, representing some of the achievements of the kings of Arragon. The church of the castle is beautifully decorated with gilding and stucco-work, and a picture, in a room adjoining to it, is greatly admired.

The Castello del Uovo, so called from its oval form, stands on a rock in the sea, and is joined to the continent by a bridge, two hundred and twenty paces in length. It is supplied with fresh water by means of a stone conduit, which is embellished with various figures of animals, and conveys the water under the bridge to the castle, where are two reservoirs.

The castle of St. Elmo, or St. Eramo, is situated on an eminence towards the west, and is in the form of a star with six rays. The subterraneous works,

which are very spacious, are hewn out of the rock to such a depth as to be bomb-proof, on which account a great quantity of military stores is kept here. This castle may be supplied with provisions from Castello Nuovo, by means of a subterraneous communication: In the upper part of it are seven cisterns for water, which is drawn up by buckets; and under the vaults and mines is a reservoir large enough for two galleys to sail on. The other two castles are of little note.

The cathedral in this city is dedicated to the Assumption of the Virgin Mary, and, though a Gothic structure, is very noble. On the high altar is the Assumption of the Virgin Mary, by Pietro Perugino, who was Raphael's master. Fronting the altar are two pillars of red jasper, twelve foot high, without the pedestals, which are of verde antico. The pavement is inlaid with verde antico, jasper, giallo antico, and porphyry. The remains of St. Januarius have been removed from the church dedicated to that saint, without the walls, to this subterraneous chapel. The late emperor offered at his shrine twelve silver eagles, in the heads of which are twelve lamps kept continually burning; a hundred feudi a-year being appropriated for supplying them with oil.

The chapel called Il Tesoro, in this cathedral, is of beautiful architecture. Behind the high altar, which consists entirely of red porphyry, is the shrine with silver doors, where they pretend to keep St. Januarius's head, with some of his blood, contained in two crystal phials. The chapel is of a round figure, and ornamented with the statues of St. Peter and St. Paul, finely executed by Finelli, with two pillars of black marble most beautifully spotted. It likewise contains seven altars of the finest marble, and forty-two pillars of broccatello. Round the upper part of the wall stand twenty-one large bronze images of saints, each valued at four thousand feudi; under which are sixty silver busts of so many other saints.

About five Italian miles from the city of Naples stand the celebrated Mount Vesuvius. This mountain, like Parnassus, has two summits; but at present only that on the right hand as you come from Naples is a volcano. The valley between these hills is about a mile long, and extremely fertile. The height of the burning summit is computed to be eleven hundred fathoms above the level of the sea. The declivity towards the sea is every where planted with vines and fruit-trees; but the south and west sides of the mountain are covered with black cinders and stones. The great crater of Vesuvius is of a circular form, and between three and four hundred yards in diameter. This vast hollow is generally filled with smoke; and round the sides, which are stained with various colours, there project several rocks, that have the appearance of brimstone.

Near Vesuvius lies the village of Portici, the royal palace lately built at which place contains one of the noblest collections of antiques that are any where to be found. At a small distance hence anciently stood the city of Heraclia or Herculaneum; the greater part of which was destroyed by an earthquake in the reign of Nero, and the remainder overwhelmed soon after the accession of Titus, by an eruption of mount Vesuvius. Upon digging

digging into these parts in the years 1689 and 1711, several vestiges of this unfortunate city were discovered; but farther searches having been made, at a considerable expence, within these forty years, many valuable antiquities of various kinds have been found.

At the distance of eight miles from Naples is Puzzuolo, the ancient Puteoli, which in the time of the Romans was a considerable city, but is at present only a small town.

The Lucrine Lake, so famous among the Romans for its fine oysters, and other fish, lies near the shore, and is now greatly reduced in extent, having been for the most part dried up by a new mountain, which rose instantaneously in the night between the nineteenth and twentieth of September 1538, during an earthquake which caused a terrible devastation in the neighbourhood. The subterraneous fire ejected, by a wide chafm, such a quantity of stones, ashes, sulphur, and sand, as within twenty-four hours formed this mountain, the perpendicular height of which is not less than four hundred rods, and the circumference three Italian miles.

The lake of Averno lies in a narrow valley, and is about an Italian mile in circumference; but its water has not the quality ascribed to it by Virgil, and other writers, who represent its poisonous exhalations as almost instantaneously killing the birds that attempted to fly over it. At present, fowls are observed not only to harbour about, but even to swim upon it. It is stocked with fish, and is in some places a hundred and eighty foot deep. The adjacent land produces excellent fruit and wine; and near the edge of the lake are some old walls, supposed to be the remains of a temple of Apollo.

In the same valley is the entrance to the grotto of the sibyl Cumana, which is hewn in the rock. The mouth for a little way is low and narrow; but afterwards becomes ten foot broad, twelve high, and is several hundred paces in length.

The grotto of Pausilippo is a subterraneous passage under a vast rock, about half a mile long, and near twenty foot wide; near which is shewn the tomb of Virgil. The grotto del Cani is about twelve foot long, five broad, and six high, and is famous for the poisonous vapours that exhale from it.

It is the opinion of Sir William Hamilton, who has examined the soil about Naples with great care and attention, that the spot on which the city stands, as well as the greater part of Italy, if not the whole, has been produced by subterraneous fire. A *tufa*, exactly resembling a specimen taken from the inside of the theatre of Herculaneum, layers of pumice intermixed with those of good soil, resembling what is found at Pompeii, and lavas like those of Vesuvius, compose the whole soil of the adjacent country.

Fifteen miles north-east of the city of Naples, and six miles east of the sea, lies the city of Capua. It is situated in a fine plain, on the river Volturno, but is now in a declining state, though yet the see of an archbishop. It was built in the year 856; and in 869 was made the first archbishoprick in the kingdom of Naples. The ancient celebrated city of Capua, which

vied in magnificence with Rome and Carthage, stood two Italian miles from the present town; and out of its ruins was built the market-town of St. Maria, in the neighbourhood of which are still seen the remains of palaces, temples, and other buildings, particularly a beautiful amphitheatre of free-stone.

Gaieta is situated on the sea-coast, thirty-five miles north-west of Naples. It is at present a strong town, and was anciently named Cajeta, from Æneas's nurse.

Aquila lies ninety miles east of Rome, and thirty-five miles west of the Gulf of Venice. This was formerly a large city, but great part of it was destroyed by an earthquake in 1703.

Benevento is situated at the confluence of the rivers Salato and Colore, which here form the river Volturo, thirty miles north-east of Naples. The greater part of this city was destroyed by an earthquake in 1688, and the archbishop, afterwards pope Benedict XIII. dug out of the ruins alive, who rebuilt it at his own expence, on his advancement to the papal chair. Benevento was formerly under the jurisdiction of the pope, but in the year 1768, the troops of the king of Naples took possession of it in the name of their master, expelled the ecclesiastical governor, and obliged the inhabitants to swear allegiance to that monarch.

Taranto is situated near a bay of the Mediterranean, in the south-east part of Naples. This was formerly a strong city, and of great antiquity, adorned with a temple of Neptune, who was worshipped here with peculiar veneration. Of this place were, Archytas, the famous geometrician; Aristoxenas, the musician; Iccus, the physician, mentioned by Plato; and Rinthon, the inventor of tragic-comedy.

Brindisi stands at the entrance of the Gulf of Venice, in 18 degrees 5 minutes of east longitude, and in 40 degrees 52 minutes north latitude. This is the ancient Brundisium, whence, having an excellent harbour, the Romans usually took their passage to Greece; and here ended the Via Appia.

Otranto stands in the south-east extremity of Italy, forty-three miles east of Taranto. In the territory adjoining to this town is found the spider called tarantula, which has been fabulously said to infect with a poison, that could be cured only by music.

The part of Naples in which the towns last mentioned lie, was anciently denominated Magna Græcia, a name ascribed to the vanity of the Greeks, who sent hither colonies at an early period.

The other towns of note in this kingdom are, Salerno, Cerenza, Cofenza, Rhegio, St. Severino, Aquila, Chieta, Manfredonia, and Barri; among which we must not omit to mention Baia or Baiæ, situated on the sea-coast twelve miles west of the city of Naples. This place was anciently famous for its hot baths and elegant palaces; and here are still shewn the ruins of buildings, said to be the houses of Cæsar, Pompey, Cicero, and other Romans of distinction. The little spot called the Elysian Fields, lies about a mile from Baia, but at present contains no remarkable traces of its former beauty.

Naples was anciently divided into a great number of states, of which the Greeks were the most numerous.

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It was afterwards subdued by the Romans, on the decline of whose empire, it fell successively under the dominion of the Goths and Lombards, till being conquered by Charlemagne, it was divided between the Western and Grecian emperors.

In the ninth and tenth centuries, the Saracens possessed part of Naples, and the Greeks the rest; the former of whom were expelled in the eleventh and twelfth centuries by the pope, with the assistance of Christian volunteers, especially the Normans. Tancred, the Norman, and his twelve sons, for their services on this occasion, had considerable territories there assigned them. His son Robert was created duke of Apulia and Calabria by the emperor; and Roger, the son of Robert, was afterwards proclaimed king of the *Two Sicilies*. Under this title were included Naples and the island of Sicily, the former having been anciently distinguished by the same name with the latter. The family of Tancred enjoyed the crown till the year 1166, at which time the pope introduced the earl of Anjou, and the French, who held the dominion of the *Two Sicilies* until the year 1282, when the Sicilians massacred all the French in the island of Sicily; a transaction to which they gave the name of the Sicilian Vespers; because the tolling of the bells on Easter Eve was the signal for the natives to make the attack. From this period the Spaniards began to contend with the French for the kingdom of Naples, and they possessed it alternately during several hundred years; till at length the latter were entirely expelled about the year 1504, and the Spaniards retained possession of Naples, Sicily, and Sardinia, till 1700; when the duke of Anjou, afterwards king of Spain, mounted the throne, but was driven from the *Two Sicilies* by the Austrians, in 1707. By the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, Naples and Sardinia were confirmed to the house of Austria, and the island of Sicily allotted to Amadeus, duke of Savoy. In 1717, the Spaniards reduced Sardinia, and a great part of Sicily next year; but relinquishing both by treaty soon afterwards, Sicily was transferred to the house of Austria, and Sardinia to the duke of Savoy, with the title of king of that island.

The French, Spaniards, and Sardinians, invading the Austrian dominions in Italy, in 1733, the Austrians were driven out of almost all their Italian dominions; and by a subsequent peace, Naples and Sicily were settled on Don Carlos, eldest son of the king of Spain, by his last wife, the princess of Parma. The present king of the *Two Sicilies* is Ferdinand IV. third son of the king of Spain, who succeeded to the throne by the appointment of his father, soon after his accession to the Spanish crown, in 1759; on the express condition, that the dominions of Spain, and those of Sicily and Naples, should never be united in one person. The pope insisting that Naples is a fee of the ecclesiastical state, on account of the share which his predecessors had in recovering it from the Saracens, the king pays annually to the holy see, the usual acknowledgement of a Spanish jennet, and seven thousand ducats, on St. Peter's Eve, for his investiture.

The dignified clergy and nobility of this kingdom are very numerous. In the catalogue of the fairs,

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we meet with no less than twenty-five archbishops, and a hundred and twenty-five bishops; and in that of the latter, about three hundred princes, dukes, marquises, and earls. A great part of this class is composed of Genoese, and other foreigners, who have purchased titles in the kingdom. It is computed that one third of the dominions of Naples, belongs to the clergy; and the remainder to the crown, the nobility, and gentry respectively. Every lord or gentleman who is proprietor of an estate, is sovereign of the people who live upon it, and may be said to have the absolute disposal of all their effects. While they plough his lands, and plant his vineyards and olive-yards, they are hardly allowed provisions sufficient for enabling them to undergo the toil; and the more to increase their dependence, they are amenable to the courts of their respective lords in every case that is not capital. The consequence of this great oppression is, that though the country abounds in silks, the manufacture is very inconsiderable. They send most of it abroad unwrought, and that in such a manner as is highly disadvantageous to the traffic of the nation. For having few ships of their own, as well as being destitute of the spirit of commerce, the proprietors of the lands sell the produce of their estates to foreigners, who usually export them in vessels belonging to their own country.

As the nobility and gentry hold their lands by military tenures, the militia of the kingdom is numerous. This body however seems not to enjoy the confidence of the crown, and is seldom called out; the king usually maintaining fifteen thousand regular troops in time of peace, and being able, upon any emergency, to raise double that number. The government retains constantly a fleet of armed galleys, and has lately begun to build some ships of war.

The king's ordinary revenues are computed at a million a year, arising from a composition with the nobility and gentry for certain sums, in lieu of their personal services, from a duty on houses, and an almost general excise. The crown also claims a power of laying additional taxes on the landed interest, according to the necessities of the state. The clergy are subject to no imposts, but grant a free gift, which however is for the most part proportionable to the taxes on the laity.

Before the alarming insurrection of the populace, which was headed by Masinello, the necessities of life had been taxed by the government at Naples to an exorbitant degree; but since that event, the ministers of the crown have been far more reserved in whatever relates to taxation. The king however is an absolute sovereign, independent of all constitutional restraint, and subject to no other restrictions than those of discretion and prudence, which the competition of the house of Austria may long continue to render necessary.

The Italians are generally of a middle stature, and few of them are corpulent. Most of them have black hair, as well as eyes, and many use cosmetics to correct the darkness of their complexion. In their dress, they follow the Spanish fashion, especially in the territories

stories which were once subject to that crown, as in the Milanese and Naples, where they usually wear black, to the no small detriment of their silk manufacture. They are a people of lively imagination, and excel in the fine arts of music, painting, sculpture, and architecture. Uniting in their temper a happy mixture of vivacity and sedateness, their character is equally distant from the frivolous levity of the French, and the haughty reserve of the Spaniards. Though possessing great variety of delicious wines, they are temperate in drinking; and may be said to be rather luxurious than immoderate in the pleasures of the table. Their virtues, however, are sullied by vices of the most detestable kind, and they are jealous of their women in a degree beyond what may be thought compatible with their indifference towards the sex.

In almost every town there are societies of virtuosi, who frequently meet for their mutual improvement in arts and sciences, and can maintain an agreeable conversation without the aid of any extraneous liquor. The nobility and gentry affect great pomp in the furniture of their houses and equipages, though at the same time it is not uncommon for a nobleman, in some places, to retail wine, with his own hands, to those who are inclined to purchase it.

At the most distant period, to which the historical accounts of Italy ascend, the country appears to have been divided into a great number of kingdoms or states, which emerged from obscurity only as they became connected with the Roman power; though there be reason to conclude, from the monuments of the Etruscans particularly, that the arts had flourished among this people for ages previous to the foundation of Rome. The first kings of Italy are said to have been Janus, Saturn, Picus, Faunus, and Latinus, the latter of whom entertained Æneas at his arrival from Troy, and bestowed upon him his daughter Lavinia in marriage. In virtue of this alliance, Æneas succeeded to the crown, on the death of his father-in-law, and was himself succeeded by Ascanius, his son by a former wife, who removed the seat of government to Alba Longa. This prince dying, the people advanced to the throne Silvius, the son of Æneas and Lavinia, setting aside Julius, the son of the former king, and, according to tradition, the ancestor of the Julian family; on whom however they conferred the honourable office of high-priest. Silvius was succeeded by eleven kings in lineal descent, the last of whom, named Anulius, deposing his elder brother Numitor, usurped his throne; but was afterwards killed by Romulus and Remus, the grandsons of the latter, who restored the reins of government to the rightful king.

Those two brothers, leaving their grandfather in possession of Alba Longa, laid the foundation of another city on the Tyber, which from Romulus obtained the name of Rome. This event is supposed to have happened towards the end of the third year of the sixth olympiad, about four hundred and thirty years after the taking of Troy, and seven hundred and fifty-three years before the Christian æra.

Remus being killed in a quarrel with his elder brother, the latter succeeded to the sole government of the new

erected city, which he soon augmented by affording a reception to the banditti, and committing depredations on the neighbouring states. After a reign of thirty-eight years, he was succeeded by Numa Pompilius, whose wise institutions greatly reformed the inhabitants. On the death of this prince, the throne was successively occupied by Tullus Hostilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priscus, Servius Tullius, and Tarquin, surnamed the Proud. Sextus, the son of the latter, committing a rape on Lucretia, the wife of Collatinus a senator, the king was banished by an insurrection of the people, and consular government established. Under this republican constitution, the Romans increased in power and grandeur for upwards of four hundred and fifty years, till the civil war breaking forth between Cæsar and Pompey, an end was put to the liberty of the state, which was henceforth governed by a series of absolute princes, who had the title of emperors of Rome. Italy having continued subject to the imperial government, during a space almost equal to the duration of the consular form, was at length over-run by the northern nations, at the period from which we commenced the history of its several kingdoms and states.

#### ISLANDS on the Coast of ITALY.

**B**EGINNING our maritime survey from the north-east extremity of the Adriatic, we meet, in our progress southward, with several islands subject to the Venetians.

The principal of these are Cherso and Osero, which lie almost close to each other, and have therefore been considered as one island. It is situated between the coast of Istria and Dalmatia, extending in length from north to south about sixty miles, with a very unequal breadth. This island has often changed its name, but was known almost three thousand years ago by that of Apfirtides, Apfirtus, and Apfirtius. It is mentioned in the poem of Orpheus upon the expedition of the Argonauts. In the heat of summer, the air of Osero is extremely unwholesome, on account of the noxious vapour arising from some pieces of stagnant water; but this was not the case formerly, and might be easily remedied.

The most considerable town is Cherso, situated at the bottom of a large harbour. It contains at present above three thousand inhabitants; but from the many ruins of houses yet visible, it appears to have been formerly more populous. Both parts of the island are mountainous and stony, but peculiarly adapted for producing trees, if the inhabitants were sufficiently industrious. Oil is the most valuable produce in Cherso, and is reckoned the best of any made in the Venetian state. The islanders compute that they make of it annually from three thousand to three thousand five hundred barrels.

In Cherso and Osero, as well as in other parts, are found many of those fossil bones, which have so much exercised the ingenuity of naturalists, and for which it is so difficult to account.

The principal of the other islands in the Dalmatic Sea is *Lissa*, which is mentioned with particular marks of distinction both by the Greek and Latin geographers. It is, however, only thirty miles in circumference, and is mountainous, though not without plains that are capable of cultivation. The temperature of the air is delightful, and the island has no other inconvenience than a scarcity of fresh water. This island was anciently celebrated for its wine, which is not at present of the best quality. The honey, however, is still reputed excellent, but the bees do not make much, on account, as is supposed, of the scarcity of fresh water. The principal substance in the bowels of *Lissa* is marble, and a whitish calcareous stone, in which fossil bones are frequently found.

The island of *Pelagosa*, with several rocks that appear above water near it, seem to be the remains of an ancient volcano. The face of the island is extremely rugged, and it is chiefly formed of a lava resembling that of *Vesuvius*.

*Lefina* is about forty-four miles long, and eight in the broadest part. Here has been collected a variety of marbles, with yellow, green, and red slints, all penetrated by a pyritical denormorphous fluor. In the small brook of *Borovaz* there are also heaps of fossil bones. This island, though stoney and barren in the highest parts, contains good land, fit to bear not only fruit-trees, but likewise corn.

*Brazza* is in length about thirty-two miles, and of unequal breadth, but no where exceeding nine. Being remarkably mountainous and rocky, it is ill adapted to cultivation; and the scarcity of fresh water often subjects it to fatal droughts. This island was anciently noted for the excellence of its kids, which, as well as the lambs, continue to be highly valued for the delicate taste of their flesh; and on account of the fine pasture, the cheese of *Brazza* is by far the best in *Dalmatia*.

The island of *Arbe* is about thirty miles in circumference; and though wholly uncultivated in the higher parts, has an exceeding pleasant appearance. The climate, however, is none of the happiest, the winter being for the most part very tempestuous, especially during the prevalence of the north winds. The most remarkable circumstance relative to the natural history of this island is, that on the heights are found large tracts of sand, mixed with an iron ochreous earth, deposited in regular strata, like those that are formed in some other countries by the inundation of great rivers. On examining this sand with a microscope, it is found to consist of quartz, and has been evidently produced by the trituration of matter separated from mineral mountains.

The island of *Corfu* is situated about four miles west of the coast of *Epirus*, and is about thirty-five miles long, and ten broad. With near a hundred villages, it contains the two cities of *Corfu* and *Calliope*, of which the former is the see of an archbishop. This is the island known to the ancients by the different names of *Corcyra*, *Pheacia*, and *Drepane*, famous for the shipwreck of *Ulysses*, and the gardens of *Alcinous*.

*Ithaca* is a small island, about eight miles in circumference, now called *Iathaco*; a rugged barren territory, though so much celebrated as being the kingdom of *Ulysses*.

*Cephalonia*, anciently *Cephalenia*, lies about eight miles west of the gulf of *Lepanto*. It is near fifty miles in circumference, having for its principal towns, *Cephalonia*, *St. Nicholas*, *Catania*, and *Alfo*.

*Zante* lies twelve miles south of *Cephalonia*, and is about twenty-four miles long, and near half as much in breadth. The chief town is *Zante*, situated in the east part of the island, well fortified and defended by a caille, which is the residence of the governor. This island is the ancient *Zacynthus*, and constituted the most valuable part of the *Laertia* regna.

The produce of these several islands is oil, wax, oranges, grapes, and a variety of other fruits natural to a warm climate; but *Zante* is particularly celebrated for the fruit called currants, which affords the Venetians a considerable article of trade.

The inhabitants of these islands are chiefly Greek Christians; but the Venetians have also introduced the Roman Catholic religion among them.

Proceeding westward over the Mediterranean, we arrive at the island of *Sicily*, which is separated from the southernmost point of the Italian continent only by the strait of *Meſina*. This island, anciently called *Trinacria*, from its triangular figure, is situated between 12 and 16 degrees of east longitude, and between 37 and 39 degrees of north latitude; being about a hundred and eighty miles long, and a hundred and twelve broad. The refreshing breezes from the sea and the mountains render the temperature of the island both pleasant and healthful, and the fertility of the soil, which is watered by numerous rivulets, might yet correspond to the genial nature of the climate; but it is not now so much cultivated as in those times when it was called the granary of *Rome*.

The chief mountains are those of *Ætna*, or mount *Gibello*, *Madoni* and *Aldonis*. The best harbours are those of *Messina* and *Syracuse*, on the east; *Melazza* and *Palermo* on the north; and *Trapano* on the west. Though the country abounds in springs and rivulets, few of the rivers are navigable beyond their mouths, as their course from the mountains is precipitate.

Mount *Ætna* is divided into three distinct regions, called *la Regione Culta*, or *Piedmontese*, the fertile region; *il Regione Sylvoſa*, or *Nemorosa*, the wood region; and *il Regione Deferta*, or *Scoperta*, the barren region. Those three regions, though contiguous, are yet, in respect both of climate and productions, totally different from each other. The *Regione Culta*, or *Piedmontese*, forms a zone round the mountain, a hundred and eighty-three miles in circumference. This region is well watered, and abounds with vines and other fruit-trees. Towns, villages, and inhabitants, are also very numerous, notwithstanding the danger of the situation, *Catania*, so often destroyed by eruptions, and totally overthrown by an earthquake, contains, as is supposed, thirty-five thousand inhabitants. This region is likewise covered with a number of little conical or spherical mountains,

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beautifully diversified both in colour and form. On the south and south-east, it is bounded by the sea, and on the other sides by the rivers Semetus and Alcantara, which almost surround it.

In about four hours of gradual ascent from the verge of the mountain, we arrive at a little convent of Benedictine monks, called St. Nicolo dell Arena, near the volcano whence issued the great eruption in the year 1669. On this occasion, the lava burst out of a vineyard within a mile of St. Nicolo, and by frequent explosions of stones and ashes, raised there a mountain, which is supposed to be not less than half a mile perpendicular in height, and in circumference at the base three miles. At the foot of this mountain is a hole, through which, by means of a rope, we descend into several subterraneous caverns, branching out to a great extent. The cold in those regions is said to be excessive, and frequently a violent wind extinguishes the torches. Many cavities of this kind are found also in other parts of *Ætna*, some of which are used as magazines of snow; the whole island of Sicily and Malta being thence supplied with this article, so indispensably requisite in a hot climate.

The Regione Sylvosa, or the second division of the mountain, which likewise surrounds it on all sides, is incomparably beautiful, abounding in little mountains that have been thrown up by the different explosions of *Ætna*. They are all more or less covered, even within their craters, as well as the rich valleys between them, with the largest oak, chestnut, and fir-trees that perhaps are any where to be seen. It is chiefly thence that his Sicilian majesty's dock-yards are supplied with timber; for which this part of *Ætna* was famous even in the time of the tyrants of Syracuse. Though the trees in this quarter, especially the chestnuts, be of an extraordinary size, they are far inferior to some which grow on another part of the Regione Sylvosa, called Carpinetto. In the place last mentioned, one tree of this species, called *la castagna di cento cavalli*, is said to measure in circumference upwards of twenty-eight Neapolitan canes, or fifty-nine yards and a half. This amazing tree is hollow from age; but another stands near it, almost as large, and which is found.

In this part of the mountain are the finest horned cattle in Sicily. They are of the common size, but it may be remarked, that the horns of the Sicilian cattle in general are almost twice as large as those in other countries.

Proceeding upwards through the Regione Sylvosa, we arrive at the third division, or the Regione Deserta, likewise called *La Netta*, or *Scoparta*. In approaching this district, we perceive a gradual decrease of vegetation, passing from large timber-trees to the smaller shrubs and plants of northern climates. The air here is exceeding cold, and the region is marked by a circle of snow and ice, which extends on all sides to the distance of about eight miles. In many places the snow is covered with a bed of ashes, thrown out of the great crater, which rears its burning head in the center of this division. The great crater is about two miles and a half in circumference; the inside,

which is incrustated with salts and sulphurs, is in the form of an inverted hollow cone, and is supposed to be about a quarter of a mile in depth.

Sir William Hamilton informs us, that the smোক of *Ætna*, though very sulphureous, did not appear to him so fœtid as that of Vesuvius; but this circumstance varies in both those mountains, according to the quality of the matter which happens to be in motion. The air is so very keen in the whole upper region of *Ætna*, particularly in the most elevated parts of it, that respiration is rendered very difficult, independently of the sulphureous vapour.

The inquisitive naturalist above mentioned farther informs us, that when he and his company made their first observation at the foot of Mount *Ætna*, on the 24th of June, 1769, the quicksilver in the barometer stood at twenty-seven degrees four lines; and on the 26th, at the most elevated part of the volcano, it was at eighteen degrees ten lines.

The thermometer, on the first observation at the foot of the mountain, was at eighty-four degrees, and on the second at the crater at fifty-six. The weather had not changed in any respect those two days, and was equally fine and clear. It was found difficult to manage the barometer in the extreme cold and high wind on the top of *Ætna*; but from the most exact observation that could be made in such circumstances, the result was as has been specified.

According to observation made by Mr. Brydone, about three hundred yards below the summit of the mountain, on a spot where there was no snow, and a comfortable vapour issued, the mercury stood at nineteen degrees and a half. The thermometer was fallen three degrees below the point of coagulation; and before they left the summit of *Ætna*, it fell two degrees more, viz. to twenty-seven.

The beautiful and extensive prospect from the summit of *Ætna* is such as exceeds all description. The whiteness of the milky way appears like a pure flame shot across the heavens; and the number of the stars seems not only to be infinitely increased, but their light much greater than usual. No imagination, says Mr. Brydone, has dared to form an idea of so glorious and so magnificent a scene. Neither is there on the surface of this globe, any one point that unites so many awful and sublime objects. The circumference of the visible horizon on the top of *Ætna* is supposed to be not less than two thousand miles; but the most beautiful part of the scene is certainly the mountain itself, the island of Sicily, and the numerous islands lying round it. All these seem as if they were brought close round the skirts of *Ætna*, the distances appearing reduced to nothing; occasioned, perhaps, by the rays of light passing from a rarer medium into one more dense. The perpendicular height of the mountain is said to be more than three Italian miles.

About a mile distant from the summit of *Ætna* are some remains of the foundation of an ancient building. It is of brick, and seems to have been ornamented with white marble, many fragments of which are scattered about. It is called the Philosopher's Tower, and said to have been inhabited by Empedocles. As the

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*Habit of a Gentleman in Moscow.*



*Drawn on the Spot by L. Abbé Chappé in 1768.*

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the ancients used to sacrifice to the celestial gods on the top of *Ætna*, it is probably the ruin of a temple which has served for that purpose.

Sir William Hamilton, on his way back to Catania, was shewn a little hill covered with vines, which, as is well attested, was undermined by the lava in the year 1669, and transported half a mile from the place where it stood, without having damaged the vines.

Till the year 252 of the Christian era, the chronological accounts of the eruptions of mount *Ætna* are very imperfect; but as the veil of St. Agatha was in that year first opposed to check the torrents of lava, and has ever since been produced at the time of great eruptions, the miracles attributed to its influence having been carefully recorded by the priests, have at least preserved the dates of the eruptions. It appears from those, that *Ætna* is as irregular and uncertain in its operations as *Vesuvius*.

Sicily is commonly divided into three provinces, viz. Val Demona on the east; Val de Noto on the south-east; and Val de Mazara on the west.

The chief town in the province of Val Demona is Messina, anciently *Messana*, situate on the strait or faros of Messina, opposite to Reggio in Calabria. Here is a commodious harbour defended by a castle; but the city itself is not strong. It is large and populous, however, and the place of greatest trade in the island; on which account most of the nations of Europe have here their consuls and factors. The other towns in this province are Melazzo, Tindaro, Patti, St. Marco, Cefalidi, Nicosia, Catania, and Taormina.

The chief town of the Val de Noto is Syracuse, anciently the capital of the island. It is situate on a fine bay on the east coast of the island, in 15 degrees 25 minutes east longitude, and in 37 degrees 5 minutes of north latitude; sixty-five miles south of Messina.

This city was anciently twenty-two miles in compass; but is now greatly reduced, though it is still one of the most considerable places in the island, and is reputed to contain about fourteen thousand inhabitants. It forms only one of the five parts into which it was anciently divided; extending no farther than the division formerly called the *Insula*. Its walls, which are strong and high, are washed on every side by the sea; and the port is extremely commodious. At the entrance is a strong castle, which has a communication with the city by a wooden bridge. Within this fortress is the famous fountain anciently named *Arethusa*, which supplies it plentifully with water.

Castro Giovanni, the ancient Enna, is situated near the middle of Sicily, upon a hill near the lake of Pergusa, forty-five miles south-west of Catania. In its neighbourhood is a spacious plain, adorned with flowers and rivulets, where likewise is a cavern, whence Pluto is said to have come with his car, and carried off the goddess *Proserpine*.

The other towns in this province are, Augusta, situate on the coast, a little north of Syracuse; and Noto, lying twenty miles south of the same city, on a mountain surrounded by rocks.

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The capital of Val de Mazara, and at present of the whole island, is Palermo, situate in 33 degrees 40 minutes east longitude, and 38 degrees 10 minutes north latitude, on the north coast, and a hundred and ten miles west of Messina. This is a well built city, surrounded by a wall and other fortifications, but not of great strength. It was formerly the seat of the kings, and is now the usual residence of the viceroy and the archbishop. Having a good harbour, the trade here is considerable, but not equal to that of Messina. The inhabitants are computed at a hundred and twenty thousand.

Mazara lies on the south-west coast of the island, fifty miles distant from Palermo. It has also a tolerable good harbour, and is the see of a bishop.

Gergente is situate on the same coast, near fifty miles south-east of Mazara. This is the ancient *Agrigentum*, which, in its flourishing state, was ten miles in circumference. It was famous for the tyrant Phalaris, in whose reign Perillus invented the brazen bull, and was himself the first who was tortured to death in it. The inhabitants were luxurious in their tables, and magnificent in their dwellings; Empedocles observing of them, that they lived to day . . . they were to die to-morrow, and built as if they were to live for ever. The country round the city was laid out in vine and olive yards, in the produce of which they maintained a great trade with Carthage.

Marsala, the ancient *Lilybæum*, is situated twenty miles north-west of Mazara. Here the Carthaginians used to embark their troops when they were in possession of this island.

Trepano, or Drepanum, is another port-town situated at the west end of the island, fortified by Hamilcar, the father of Hanibal, who made it a place of arms, in his wars with the Romans.

The produce of Sicily is chiefly corn, wine, oil, silk, and fruits, of which their exports are very great.

The Lipari Islands, of which there are seven, are situated in the Mediterranean about forty miles north of Sicily, and subject to the king of Naples. They were anciently called *Æolie* and *Vulcaniæ* from *Æolus* and *Vulcan*; whom the poets feigned to have here their residence. Lipari, the largest, is about twenty miles in circumference. The two named *Strumbolo* and *Hiera* are volcanos.

At the west end of Sicily lie the small islands of Levanzo, Maritime, and Favignana, also subject to the same sovereign.

The first inhabitants of Sicily and the adjacent islands, according to tradition, were the Cyclops or *Levrigones*, a savage race of gigantic stature and appearance. Afterwards the Siculi from Italy, and the Phœnicians from Tyre, successively, sent hither colonies, which were possessed by the Greeks. The Carthaginians next made themselves masters of a considerable part of Sicily; but both they and the Greeks being vanquished by the Romans, it remained a province of that empire till the invasion of the Goths; from which time it usually followed the fate of Naples, until the massacre of the French by the natives, in

1282. The country was afterwards occupied by the Spaniards, who retained it till the year 1707, when it was rendered subject to the Imperialists. At the peace of Utrecht it was allotted to the duke of Savoy. The Spaniards, however, invading it in 1718, it was by a subsequent treaty resigned to the emperor, who remained in possession of it eighteen years, when the French, Spaniards, and Sardinians, forming an alliance, the crown of Sicily and Naples was confirmed to Don Carlos, the king of Spain's eldest son by his second queen.

The island of Capri, or Caprea, is situate at the entrance of the gulf of Naples, three miles westward of the continent, and twenty south of the city of Naples. It is about four miles long and one broad, composed of a rock, which is in many places covered with a fruitful soil, and produces corn and a variety of delicious fruits, as figs, almonds, olives, oranges, and vines. It is almost unequalled in a delightful temperature of the air, being warm in winter, and refreshed in summer by sea-breezes. The town of Caprea is situated on the westward of the island, where the rock is extremely high. The natural beauty, and happy climate of this island rendered it the favourite retreat of several Roman emperors, particularly Tiberius, who made it the scene of his infamous pleasures. The imperial palace stood chiefly on a rising-ground in the middle of the island; but the most considerable ruin which remains stands at the eastern extremity, where may be seen some lofty apartments, arched over, supposed to have been baths. There were formerly also many subterraneous retirements, which were demolished by the Romans after the death of Tiberius, in detestation of his memory. The city of Caprea is at present the see of a bishop.

The island of Sardinia is situate in the Mediterranean sea, between 8 and 10 degrees of east longitude, and between 39 and 41 degrees of north latitude. Its length from north to south is about a hundred and sixty miles, and its breadth eighty. Towards the north the island is mountainous, but in the other parts it is agreeably diversified with hills and valleys, as well as with woods and champain fields. The chief rivers are, the Sacer, which falls into the bay of Oristagni, on the west side of the island; the Coquines, which runs towards its northern extremity; and the Lepro, which running in the opposite direction, discharges itself into the bay of Cagliari, in the south-east part of the island.

The air of this country is hot and unhealthful in summer; but the soil, when cultivated, is fruitful, producing corn, wine, and oil. A spirit of indolence, however, occasioned by a long course of oppression, is so predominant among the natives, that they never apply themselves either to agriculture or commerce, any farther than is necessary to procure immediate subsistence.

The capital of Sardinia is Cagliari, situate on a bay in the south part of the island, in 9 degrees 14 minutes east longitude, and 39 degrees 12 minutes north latitude. The harbour is tolerably good, and the trade the greatest of any of the port-towns. A uni-

versity is here established, and the place is also the see of a bishop, and the residence of the viceroy. The other towns are, Oristagni, Villa d'Iglesia, Sassari, Castella Arragonese, Algari, and Bosa.

Sardinia is thinly inhabited, and the natives are an unpolished people. It appears to have received its first colonies from the Phœnicians. The Greeks afterwards possessed part of the country, and erected in it several little states; but the Carthaginians were the first that occupied the whole island, which next fell under the dominion of the Romans upon the commencement of the Punic war. In the eighth century it was conquered by the Saracens, who kept possession of it several hundred years. The Genoese and Pisans afterwards reduced it to subjection; but the popes, who assumed an authority of disposing of such countries as were recovered from the infidels, made a grant of the island to James II. king of Arragon, who expelling the former invaders, united it to the crown of Spain; of which monarchy it continued an appendage, till the British fleet put the Austrians in possession of it, in the year 1708. The conquest was confirmed to the Austrians by the peace of Utrecht; but Sicily being allotted to the emperor by a subsequent treaty, Sardinia was, in 1720, resigned to the duke of Savoy, to whom it gives the title of king. It is computed that the revenues of this island do not amount to more than five thousand pounds a year.

Corfica is situated north of Sardinia, from which it is separated by the strait of Bonifacio, between 8 and 10 degrees of east longitude, and between 41 and 43 degrees of north latitude; being about a hundred miles long and forty broad. This island, which is almost surrounded by rocks, is of difficult access. It is generally mountainous, but there are valleys which produce plenty of corn; nor are they deficient in wine or oil. Sheep and neat cattle are in great numbers; and the breed of horses, though not large, are esteemed for their handsome shape. The country is well watered with springs and rivulets, but hardly affords any navigable river. Mines of iron, alum, and salt, are met with in different parts of the island. The inhabitants along the coast are chiefly fishermen, whose ancestors were so much addicted to piracy, that thence the rovers in the Mediterranean have obtained the name of Corsairs.

The chief town is Bastia, situate in 9 degrees 42 minutes east longitude, and 42 degrees 35 minutes north latitude, in the north-east part of the island. The place is defended by a castle, and is the see of a bishop. The other towns are, Porto Vecchia, Bonifacio, Ajazza, Mariana, Accia, Alaria, Corte, Jagone, Calvi, Nebis, and Fiorenza.

Corfica, like the other islands in the Mediterranean, was planted by colonies from Phœnicia and Greece; after which the Carthaginians, Romans, and Saracens, successively held possession of it. The Saracens being expelled by the Pisans and Genoese, the latter of these invaders retained their conquest for many years, till the natives commenced an insurrection for the recovery of their freedom. To suppress this revolt, the Genoese had recourse to the assistance of the Austrians, and after-



afterwards of the French; but the allies last mentioned proving victorious over the Corsicans, who were commanded by the brave Paoli, the island was reduced, in 1769, under obedience to the French crown to which it has since continued subject. During the struggle of the Corsicans for their liberty, they elected for their king a private person named Theodore; but being deserted by those who had set him up, he left the island, and retired to Eugland, where he remained several years a prisoner for debt; till being dismissed upon an act of insolvency, he died in great distress in the year 1755.

Malta is situate in 15 degrees of east longitude, and 36 of north latitude, about sixty miles south of Cape Passaro in Sicily. This island is twenty miles long and ten broad. It consists of a white soft rock, covered with vegetable earth, which produces corn and wine, but not enough for the consumption of the natives, who are supplied with those articles from Sicily. This deficiency of corn, however, is not owing to any barrenness of the soil, which well deserves the epithet of *Fruitful Malta* formerly bestowed upon it; but by the cultivation of other produce, that is found more profitable. The kitchen gardens are well stocked with herbs and roots of various kinds; and here are plantations of olives, figs, oranges, lemons, cotton, and indigo. The mutton and lamb are reputed particularly good; fowls, both wild and tame, are in great plenty, as is also game of all kinds. Here are no forest-trees nor rivers, but many good springs and fountains.

The capital of the island is the city of Malta, or Valetta, consisting of three towns, separated by channels, which form so many peninsular rocks, and defended by the castles of St. Elmo, St. Angelo, Civita Vecchia, and Il Bochero. The streets of the town are spacious, and the houses well built of hewn stone, flat roofed, and surrounded with balustrades. Those of the grand master, and the other chiefs, are elegant palaces. The great church of St. John is a magnificent building, inferior to few in Italy. Here are the tombs of the grand masters; and among other relics is shewn the right hand of St. John the Baptist. The other public buildings are the treasury, the hospital, and the magazine, in which are arms for thirty thousand men. The island contains between thirty and forty villages, and about fifty thousand inhabitants, the half of which number are military men, and unmarried.

Malta was first planted by the Phœnicians, and has almost uniformly been subject to the same masters as Sicily, till the year 1530, when Charles V. conferred it on the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, after their expulsion from the island of Rhodes by the Turks,

The knights of Malta derive their origin from the period immediately succeeding the commencement of the crusades, or holy war, when some pious people built an hospital for the entertainment of pilgrims. On the taking of Jerusalem by Godfrey of Bouillon, the order became military, and, instead of hospitallers, assumed the title of knights hospitallers. Having assisted in the defence of Palestine till the year 1290, when they were expelled that country, they received the protection of John king of Cyprus, with whom they remained till 1310, when, under the conduct of their grand master, Foulkes de Villaret, a native of France, they took the island of Rhodes from the Saracens; after which they were styled knights of Rhodes. They maintained the possession of their new conquest against all the power of the Saracens and Turks upwards of two hundred years, when abandoning it, they retired to the isle of Candia, or Crete, and afterwards to Sicily, till being presented by the emperor with Malta, they fixed their residence in this island.

At first this order of knights consisted of eight different nations, but the English withdrawing themselves at the Reformation, they have since been reduced to seven. Each of those has a distinct convent, the head of which is distinguished by the title of grand-prior of his respective nation. Every knight, on his admission, must prove his legitimacy, and his nobility by father and mother for four descents, except the natural sons of kings and sovereign princes. The grand-priors, or, as they are also called, grand-crosses, have commandaries, or estates, in the respective nations to which they belong, and they alone are permitted to be candidates for the office of grand-master.

Beside the grand-priors or crosses, there are demi-crosses, who are indulged with the privilege of marrying. The grand-master is elected by the grand-priors, and is subject in spirituals to the pope alone; but the knights have a dependence on the several princes in whose territories their lands are situated. The grand-master wears a long cloak on festivals, and on the left side, a white cross with eight points. The knights give him the title of eminence, and his subjects that of highness. The knights of Malta are obliged by their vows to suppress pirates, and to wage perpetual war with all Mahometan princes. They also come under the same solemn obligation to observe celibacy, chastity, and other virtues; but though they do not violate the first of those restraints, they entertain great numbers of Grecian women, who serve them in quality of concubines.

## S P A I N.

## C H A P. I.

*Of the situation—face of the country—produce—air—  
mountains—rivers—bays—capes.*

THE kingdom of Spain is a peninsula, bounded on the north by the Bay of Biscay, and the Pyrenean mountains; on the east and south by the Mediterranean; and on the west by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean. It lies between 10 degrees of west and 3 degrees of east longitude, and between 36 and 44 degrees of north latitude; extending about seven hundred miles in length from east and west, and near five hundred in breadth.

This country is much incumbered with mountains, the chief of which are the Pyrenees, that divide it from France, and form a range of two hundred miles from the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean Sea. Towards the north, the Cantabrian mountains stretch from the Pyrenees to the Atlantic; besides which, in the more interior parts, are the mountains of Sierra Molina and Tablada, Sierra Morene, and Sierra Nevada; and in the southern extremity, mount Calpe, opposite to mount Abila in Africa, which were denominated by the ancients the pillars of Hercules. The Spanish mountains however generally produce timber and herbage to the very top, and the valleys between them, if sufficiently cultivated, might prove exceeding fruitful. The wheat of this country is inferior to none of the kind; and though hardly any oats, here is plenty of barley, with which they feed their horses and mules. The pasturage being almost continually in verdure, there is not the same necessity for hay as in colder countries.

With variety of excellent wines, and the common European fruits, Spain abounds in oranges, lemons, citrons, raisins, pines, figs, almonds, pomegranates, olives, chestnuts, and capers. The oil, wax, and honey, are reputed to be of the finest quality, and the soil produces spontaneously many medicinal and odoriferous herbs and flowers, which seldom arrive at perfection, even with the utmost care, in more northerly climates. Sugar, saffron, cotton, flax, hemp, pitch, rosin, &c. are also produced in great plenty; and silk abounds so much that it may be reckoned the staple commodity of the nation.

With respect to animals, the Spanish horses have always been held in reputation for swiftness, as are the mules for being strong and sure-footed; on which account the latter, being well adapted to a mountainous country, are preferred by the inhabitants for travelling. But they want not good horses for draught. The wool of their sheep, no less than the flesh, is universally esteemed for its excellence, and the hogs and bacon reckoned equal to those of Westphalia. Goats,

deer, rabbits, hares, fowls, and all kinds of game, are plentiful, especially in the mountains and forests, while the seas, which almost surround the country, are well supplied with fish; but of this the rivers are not plentiful.

The state of the air is various in different parts of country. Towards the north it is temperate; but in the southern provinces, about the summer solstice, the heat in the valleys is excessive. The mountains, however, which are always cool, afford an agreeable retreat in the hottest season; and those parts that lie near the coast are generally refreshed with qualifying breezes from the sea. It seldom rains in this country, except about the vernal and autumnal equinox, which are almost the only times that the sun is obscured by cloudy weather. In the hot season most of the small rivers are dried up, and the roads so dusty as to render travelling disagreeable. But though the valleys be parched in the day, the nights are generally cool, to such a degree, however, as not to prove dangerous to the health, which the climate, upon the whole, is calculated rather to preserve than impair.

Notwithstanding all its natural advantages, Spain is now but poor and thinly peopled. Various reasons may be assigned for this situation, namely, the celibacy of the clergy, and the great number of both sexes secluded in the monasteries; the expulsion of such a multitude of Moors and Jews, as happened upwards of two hundred years ago; the wars which the inhabitants maintained during so many years with most of the powers of Europe, as well as with Africa and America; and the perpetual drain which is made to supply their American plantations with men, in the numerous offices to which only natives of Spain are admitted. To those various causes may be added, the pride and indolence of the people, which, by restraining them from laborious employments, diminishes the means of subsistence, and consequently the incitement to marriage.

Spain is divided into fourteen provinces, viz. Galicia, Asturia, Biscay, Navarre, Arragon, Catalonia, Valencia, Murcia, Granada, Andalusia, Estremadura, Old Castile, New Castile, and Leon.

The chief rivers are, 1. The Douro, anciently Durius, which rising in the eastern part of Old Castile, runs westward through that province, and Leon, and, crossing Portugal, falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Oporto. 2. Ebro, the ancient Iberus, rises likewise in Old Castile, and running south-east through Arragon, falls into the Mediterranean below Tortosa. 3. Guadalaviar, or Turis, runs from Arragon south-west, and discharges itself into the Mediterranean at the city of Valencia. 4. Guadalquivir, anciently Bætis, runs south-west through Andalusia, and falls into the Atlantic at St. Lucar. 5. Guadiana, formerly the

Anas,

Anas, runs in the same direction through New Castile and Estremadura, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean at Ayamont. 6. Limea runs also in the same direction from Galicia, and discharges itself into a bay of the Atlantic. 7. Minho runs in a parallel course with the preceding, through Galicia, and falls likewise into the Atlantic Ocean. 8. Segura runs east through Murcia and part of Valencia, and falls into the Mediterranean, between Carthage and Alicant. 9. Zucar runs eastward cross Valencia, and falls into the Mediterranean near Gandia. 10. Tajo, formerly the Tagus, runs westward through New Castile and Estremadura, and falls into the Atlantic below Lisbon.

The chief bays are, the Bay of Biscay, in the north; the Groyne, in the north-west; the Vigo, in the west; those of Cadiz and Gibraltar, in the south-west; the bay of Carthage, in the south; and in the east, the bays of Alicant, Altea, Valencia, and Roses.

The chief capes are, the cape of Ortegale, the most northern promontory of Spain; Finisterre, the most westerly; Trafalgar, at the entrance of the strait of Gibraltar; de Gat, on the south-east coast of Granada; Palos, on the coast of Murcia; St. Martin, on the coast of Valencia; with those of Palafogah and Creus, on the east coast of Catalonia.

#### C H A P. II.

##### *Of the provinces and chief towns.*

**T**HE province of Galicia is bounded on the west and north by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east by the province of Leon, and on the south by Portugal. The capital of this province is Compostella, or St. Iago de Compostella, situate in 7 degrees 17 minutes of west longitude, and in 42 degrees 54 minutes of north latitude, two hundred and seventy-five miles north-west of Madrid, and forty seven miles east of cape Finisterre. It stands in a fine plain, encompassed with hills at some distance, and contains upwards of two thousand houses. This place is celebrated for the tomb of St. James the apostle, who is said to have planted Christianity here, and to have been the first martyr in the kingdom. Hither pilgrims resort in great numbers, from all parts of Europe, especially in the year of Jubilee, this instance of devotion being considered as very meritorious. From this city the knights of St. Iago or St. James derive their origin. They are reckoned the richest order in the kingdom, possessing no less than eighty-seven commandaries or estates, the revenues of which amount to a hundred and seventy-two thousand ducats or nobles a year. No person can be admitted into this order, without proving his nobility for two generations, descended from the race of old Gothic Christians, and that their blood has never been polluted with any mixture of that of the new Christians, or converted Jews and Moors. Compostella is the see of an archbishop, whose revenues amount to seventy thousand crowns a year, and those of the chapter to as much. The town is

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one of the most elegant in Spain, and enjoys a flourishing trade.

Corunna, or the Groyne, is a port-town in the same province, situated on a fine bay of the Atlantic, thirty-seven miles north-east of Compostella. Hither the British packet-boat always sails in time of peace.

Ferrol is another port-town of this province, situated also on a bay of the Atlantic, twenty miles north-east of the Groyne. Here is a good harbour, where the Spanish Squadron is frequently stationed in time of war, and whither their privateers carry many of their prizes.

Vigo stands on a bay of the Atlantic, fifty miles south of Compostella. Here is a capacious harbour, which is likewise often a station of the Spanish navy.

The other towns of note in this province are, Mondonedo, Lugo, Ortense, Tuy, Betanoso, and Rivadavia. At Padron is shewn a hollow stone, in the form of a boat, in which they pretend that St. James sailed hither from Palestine, when he came to preach the gospel in Spain.

Asturia is bounded on the north by the bay of Biscay, on the east by the province of Biscay, on the south by that of Leon, and on the west by Galicia. The capital of this province is Oviedo, situate on the river Asta, fifty miles north of Leon. The town is the see of a bishop, and also the seat of an university. The other most considerable towns are, Santillane, Aviles, and St. Vincent.

The province of Biscay is bounded on the north by the bay of Biscay, on the east by Navarre, on the south by Old Castile, and on the west by Asturia. The chief town is Bilbao, situated at the mouth of the river Ibaibabal, which forms a good harbour a little below the town. This is one of the best and most frequented ports on the north coast of Spain. The exportations hence consist chiefly of wool, sword-blades, which are much admired, and other manufactures of iron and steel. The remaining towns of note are, Tolosa, Vittoria, Fontarabia, St. Andero, Laredo, Ordonna, Placentia, St. Sebastian, and Port Passage; the two latter of which, being good ports, are frequently the station of the Spanish men of war and cruisers.

The province of Navarre is bounded on the north-east by the French Navarre, on the south-east by Arragon, on the south-west by Old Castile, and by a part of the province of Biscay on the north-west. This province is the coldest of any in Spain, consisting chiefly in pasturage and timber, with some iron mines. The chief towns are, Olita, Tudela, Estella, and Sanguesa.

Arragon is bounded on the north by Navarre and the Pyrenean mountains, on the east by Catalonia, on the south by Valencia, and on the west by Old Castile. The capital of this province is Saragossa, situated at the confluence of the rivers Ebro, Gallego, and Guerva. This city is said to have been founded by the Phœnicians. The town is large and well built, and the streets are spacious. Here are many fine churches and convents; but that which is most

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celebrated is the church of *our Lady of the Pillar*, not so much on account of its magnificence, as of the chapel beneath it. This chapel is a subterraneous building, thirty-six foot long, and twenty-six broad, enlightened with lamps and flambeaux. Within is the image of the Virgin Mary standing on a pillar, with little Jesus in her arms. The sculpture is enriched with a profusion of precious stones, round which is represented, in solid silver, a number of angels, holding flambeau: in their hands. Besides those, there are about fifty lamps of the same metal, intermixed with a multitude of figures of legs, arms, heads, and hearts, erected in acknowledgement of the miraculous cures wrought by the Blessed Virgin, all which are also decorated with gold and precious stones. Hither pilgrims resort in great numbers to perform their devotion. The tradition is, that on a fine jasper pillar on this spot the Virgin appeared to St. James, while he was endeavouring the conversion of the Spaniards, and encouraged him in his labours. Saragossa is the see of an archbishop, and has an university. Here also, in the palace of the ancient kings, is held the tribunal of the inquisition. The town is surrounded by an old wall, and other antique fortifications.

The other towns in this province are, Jaca, Huesca, Balbastro, Tarazona, Albarazin, Tervel, Ainsa, Catalagud, and Boria.

Catalonia is bounded on the north by the Pyrenean mountains, on the east and south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by the provinces of Arragon and Valencia. The capital of this province is Barcelona, situate in 2 degrees 3 minutes of east longitude, and in 41 degrees 26 minutes of north latitude, in a large plain on the shore of the Mediterranean, two hundred and fifty miles east of Madrid. It is of an oblong form, surrounded by a wall and other modern fortifications, and defended by the castle of Montjoy, standing on a rock about a mile north-east of the city. A harbour is formed for galleys and small vessels by a mole which projects into the sea; but the situation is not commodious for large ships. Barcelona is divided into the New and Old Town, the former surrounding the latter, and separated from it by a wall and ditch. The streets are spacious, well built, and neatly paved; and there are several beautiful squares, in the chief of which, or that of St. Michael, all the principal streets have a termination. The most remarkable public buildings are the cathedral, the church of our Lady Delpino, the palaces of the viceroy and bishop, and that where the states of the province assemble. It is computed that there are in the city about fifteen thousand houses. The inhabitants are generally polite, and maintain a great trade in the silk and woollen manufactures, but particularly in those of iron and steel. A great quantity of wine, the produce of the neighbouring country, is also exported from this place; and it is the seat of an university.

About seven or eight miles north-west of Barcelona is the situation of Montserrat, which commands a prospect of the whole adjacent country, as far as the sea. On this mountain is a chapel dedicated

to the Blessed Virgin, of whom here is an image, which, according to tradition, was found in a cave by some shepherds about the year 880. Over this image, Guthred, earl of Barcelona, caused a monastery and chapel to be erected; but after remaining in this receptacle upwards of seven hundred years, Philip II. and Philip III. invested it with a magnificent church, instead of the former covering. The image, holding in its hand a little Jesus, is now placed upon an altar in this church, which is illuminated with ninety silver lamps; and in the treasury is shewn a crown of the Blessed Virgin's, valued at a million of florins. The convent is inhabited by monks of every nation, who amount to three hundred persons, including their servants. All strangers who come hither, out of devotion or curiosity, are entertained gratis for three days; nor is there any place, except Rome or Loretto, to which pilgrims resort in greater numbers. Over the church, towards the top of the mountain, are the cells of thirteen hermits, hewn out of the rock. These men are generally persons of quality, who being weary of the world, have retired hither to spend their time in solitude and devotion. Adjoining to the cells each hermit has a chapel, a garden, and a fountain springing out of the rock. Over those caves is a leaning rock, to which they have fixed three crosses, where they say mass every day, to implore the Blessed Virgin, that she will not suffer it to fall upon the church or cloyster; part of it having tumbled down in the sixteenth century, and done considerable damage. The place undoubtedly affords a delightful solitude, presenting the eye with one of the finest prospects in the world, and charming the ear with the soft notes of birds, or the murmuring of springs and rivulets, which fall down the rocks on every side.

The other towns of note in the province of Catalonia are, Urgel, Balaguer, Lerida, Tortosa, Gironne, Roses, Vic, Cardonna, Solsona, Puiceda, and Mameca.

The province of Valencia is bounded on the north by Arragon and Catalonia, on the east and south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by New Castile and Murcia. The capital is Valencia, situate in 35 minutes west longitude, and in 39 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude, in a fine plain on the river Guadalquivir, about two miles from the sea coast. This city, within the walls, contains about twelve thousand houses, elegantly built; and the suburbs are nearly of the same extent. Besides a fine river, over which there are five stone bridges, it is watered by a great number of fountains, and abounds with all kinds of provisions. The inhabitants are remarked to be more gay and sociable than in other parts of Spain, and the women much addicted to gallantry. The most considerable public buildings are the cathedral, the viceroy's palace, and that of Cinto, with the monastery of St. Jerome, the exchange, and the arsenal. This city was once a Roman colony, under the name of Colonia Julia Valencia; and there may yet be seen several remains of antiquity, both in the town and neighbourhood. It was afterwards the residence of the

the Moorish kings. At present, it is the see of an archbishop, and has an university. So mild and genial is the temperature of the air in this province, that the country, for twenty miles round, looks like a continued garden, Intermixed with numerous towns and villages, in which may be seen crowds of women and children before the houses, employed in spinning silk.

Near Valencia, about a mile from the coast, stands Morvedro, a town which arose from the ruins of the ancient Saguntum. This city was famous for its clay, of which fine cups were made; and yet more celebrated for its memorable defence against Hannibal, who, contrary to the faith of treaty, had invested it with his troops; the inhabitants choosing rather to throw themselves and their most valuable effects into the flames, than either to forfeit their fidelity to the Romans, or fall a prey into the hands of the enemy. This transaction occasioned the second Punic war, and gave rise to the expression of *Saguntina famis*, and *Saguntina rabies*, to denote famine and rage in the extreme.

Alicant is a small port-town seventy-five miles south of Valencia. It is defended by a castle which is built upon a high, and almost inaccessible rock. The place enjoys a great foreign trade in fruit and wine. The other towns of note are, Villahermosa, Origuella, Segorbe, Xativa, Donia, Gandia, Villareal, Aleira, and Altea.

The province of Murcia is bounded on the north by New Castile, on the east by Valencia and the Mediterranean Sea, on the south by the same sea, and on the west by Granada and Andalusia. This province affords a great quantity of sulphur, and so much salt, that it is able to supply all Spain with that commodity. Murcia, the capital, is situate in 1 degree of west longitude, and in 38 degrees of north latitude, on the river Segura. The town is of considerable extent, and is the see of a bishop.

Carthagen is situated twenty-five miles south of Murcia, and enjoys one of the most spacious and commodious harbours in the Mediterranean. This city is said to have been founded or improved by Hannibal, who gave it the name of Carthago Nova, and made it the capital of the Carthaginian dominions in Spain. Having been almost destroyed by the Goths and Vandals, Philip II. rebuilt it, since which time it has been strongly fortified, as a place of great importance to the nation.

The other considerable towns in the province are, Lorca, Caravaca, and Mula.

The province of Granada is bounded on the north by Andalusia, on the east by Murcia and the Mediterranean sea, on the south by the same sea, and on the west by Andalusia. The chief town Grenada is situate in 2 degrees 49 minutes west longitude, and in 37 degrees of north latitude; two hundred and twenty-five miles south of Madrid. It stands at the confluence of the rivers Daro and Xenil, and at the foot of Sierra Novada, or the Snowy Mountain. Here are several spacious streets and squares, magnificently built, and inhabited by persons of distinction; many of whom have fine gardens and fountains belonging to their

houses. The ancient palace of the Moorish kings is a large building, said to contain accommodation for four thousand persons. On the out-side it has the appearance of an old castle, but within is extremely magnificent. The walls are lined with jasper, porphyry, and other beautiful marbles, which forms a kind of Mosaic work, containing many inscriptions in Arabic characters; and the ceilings are painted and gilded. In the middle is a spacious court paved with marble, surrounded with a noble piazza, over which is a magnificent gallery. At the four corners of the court are several marble fountains, and in the middle one of an uncommon size, adorned with groups of figures, whence the water was conveyed to the baths in the palace, which are grand apartments lined with alabaster, and elegantly vaulted in the roof. Adjoining to the palace is a fine park and gardens, well supplied with fountains, rivulets, and shady groves, which contribute to render the place a most delightful retreat in the summer.

The city of Granada is now the see of an archbishop, and endowed with an university, which however is one of the most inconsiderable in Spain. The temperature of the air is so remarkably salubrious, that many valetudinarians resort hither for the purpose of recovering their health. The Moors were so charmed with the situation of the place, that they imagined paradise to be in the part of the heavens which is over it.

Malaga is situated on the coast of the Mediterranean, sixty-six miles north-east of Gibraltar, at the foot of a steep mountain. It is strongly fortified by a double wall and two castles; and though neither large nor well built, yet is very considerable on account of its trade, to which a most commodious harbour renders it peculiarly adapted. Great numbers of foreign ships resort hither in autumn every year, particularly from England and Holland, to load with fruits of various kinds, as raisins, almonds, figs, oranges, capers, &c. Hence also is exported a great quantity of wine, the produce of the neighbouring country, but which has obtained the name of Malaga, from being put on board at this place. The town of Malaga is the see of a bishop, suffragan of Granada; and the cathedral an elegant building, richly furnished and adorned.

Near Velez Malaga lie the mountains of Alpuxarras, of considerable extent, and inhabited by the descendants of the Moors, who, though they now profess the Christian religion, retain their ancient customs and habits, and owe by their application to agriculture rendered this mountainous tract one of the most fruitful parts of the country.

The other most considerable towns in this province are, Almeria, Guadix, Ronda, Antiquera, Baza, and Loya.

The province of Andalusia is bounded on the north by Estremadura and New Castile, on the east by Murcia, on the south by Granada, the Straits of Gibraltar, and the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by Portugal. The capital is Seville, situate in 6 degrees west longitude, and in 37 degrees of north latitude, on the river Guadalquivir, upwards of two hundred miles south-west

west of Madrid. This city is said to have been founded by the Phœnicians, who gave it the name of Hyspali. It is of a circular form, about eight miles in circumference. The cathedral, once a Mahometan mosque, and built by the Moors in the tenth century, is a very magnificent structure. It measures four hundred foot in length, two hundred foot in breadth, and a hundred and twenty-eight in height; containing no less than fourscore chapels and altars, where mass is said every day. Besides this there are in the city many other fine churches and monasteries. The town is surrounded with an old wall and antique towers, and the streets narrow, but well built. It is the largest city in Spain, except Madrid, and computed to contain three hundred thousand inhabitants. On the south side of the town stands the royal palace; called Alcazar, the finest part of which was built by the Moors. It is adorned on every front with the imperial eagle, under which is Charles the Fifth's motto, *Plus Ultra*. The gardens belonging to this palace are exceeding beautiful. The other public buildings in the city are, the palace of the inquisition, the exchange, the India-house, the mint, and the colleges belonging to the university, which at present however enjoys not the reputation it formerly had. Here is a noble aqueduct, which brings water to the city from Carmona, at the distance of eighteen miles. The number of hospitals of all kinds is said to amount to a hundred and twenty, some of which are very large and beautiful.

In the last century, while Seville monopolized the trade with Potosi and America, its commerce was extremely flourishing; but Cadiz and other sea-ports have since made a great derivation from it. The traffic however is still considerable, and the situation of the place is by the Spaniards esteemed the most delightful in the world. The climate is doubtless the most agreeable that can be imagined, and the air is perfumed with a variety of sweet flowers and blossoms, which nature produces spontaneously in almost every season. The olives here are the best in Europe, and grow in the greatest quantity; there being not far from the city a wood of them near twenty miles in circumference.

Seventy-five miles north-east of Seville, on the bank of the river Guadalquivir, stands Cordoua, the ancient Corduba. It is computed to contain fourteen thousand families, and has a flourishing trade in wine, silk, and leather. Here is an university, and the see of a bishop. This was the seat of the first Roman colony sent into those parts, and was surnamed Patricia; supposed to have been founded by the first Marcellus. It was famous of old for its rich produce in oil; nor is it less celebrated for the birth of the two Senecas, of Lucan, of Martial.

The port of Cadiz, anciently Gader, is situated at the north-west end of the island of Leon, opposite to port St. Mary's on the continent, in 6 degrees 46 minutes of west longitude, and in 36 degrees 25 minutes of north latitude. The island on which it stands is about eighteen miles long, and from nine to two broad; having a communication with the continent by a bridge called Ponte Sanora. The island with the

opposite continent form a bay four leagues long, and in most places two in breadth; but about the middle are two points of land, one on the continent, and the other on the island, so closely situated, that the forts upon them, called the Puntal and Matagorda, command the passage. Within those points is the harbour, which it is impossible for an enemy to enter without previously being master of the forts. Cadiz is supposed to contain about five thousand houses. It has an extensive foreign trade; the galleons annually taking in their lading here, and returning hither with the treasures of America, and other rich merchandize.

The Phœnicians first possessed themselves of this island, and erected on it a temple to Hercules. The Carthaginians and Romans were afterwards successively masters of it; and so great was the trade which it enjoyed in those times, that no less than five hundred Roman knights resided in it at once.

The port-town of Gibraltar is situated on the strait between the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean, in 4 degrees 53 minutes west longitude, and 36 degrees 13 minutes of north latitude. It stands on a rock in a peninsula, at the foot of the celebrated Mount Calpe, which covers it towards the land. On this side it can only be approached by a very narrow passage between the mountain and the sea, across which the Spaniards have drawn a line, to prevent the garrison from having any communication with the country. This place was taken by the confederate fleet under the command of Sir George Rook, in 1704; since which time the Spaniards have repeatedly attempted to recover it, but without success. The garrison of Gibraltar is cooped up within very narrow limits, the ground which they occupy affording hardly any of the necessaries of life; on which account, in time of war, they are obliged to be supplied with provisions either from England or the coast of Barbary. As this fort commands the entrance to the Mediterranean, the possession of it is of the greatest importance to our trade in those parts. It is usually garrisoned by six regiments, and the governorship is reckoned a place of considerable profit.

The strait to which the town gives name, is about twenty-four miles long, and fifteen broad. A strong current, which requires a brisk gale to stem, constantly sets through it from the ocean.

The other towns of note in this province are, Jaen, Medina Sidonia, Port St. Mary, Ezia, Baeza, Osuna, St. Lucar, Anduxar, Carmona, Alcala-real, Lucena, Arcos, Marchena, Ayamont, Ubeda, and Moguer.

The province of New Castile is bounded on the north by Old Castile, on the east by Valencia, on the south by Andalusia and Murcia, and on the west by Portugal. The capital of the province, and of the whole kingdom, is Madrid, situate in 4 degrees 15 minutes west longitude, and in 40 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude. It stands almost in the midst of a large sandy plain, surrounded with high mountains at the distance of about eight or ten miles. The city is about seven miles in circumference, without either walls or fortifications. The streets are long and spacious, but ill paved with small flints. There are in it some noble squares, the most magnificent of which

which is the *Placa Mayer*, in the middle of the town. This square contains a hundred and thirty-six grand houses, five stories high, uniformly built, with balconies at every story, and the whole sustained by arches and pilasters. This quarter is inhabited by substantial tradesmen, mercers, drapers, goldsmiths, &c. The great market is held in the middle of the square; and here are the bull-fights upon days of rejoicing. The houses are built of brick, and the apartments commodious and magnificent; but the lattice windows considerably diminish their elegance. The materials of their houses being brought from distant provinces, and no navigable rivers to import them, occasions building here to be very expensive. There are neither courts nor great gates before the nobleman's houses as at Paris, the front of every house forming a line with the street. The first floor of every house in Madrid belongs to the king, unless the builder purchase it of his majesty, which he generally does. People of distinction have a variety of apartments suited to the different seasons of the year, and richly furnished. Their hangings are of velvet, silk, or tapestry, trimmed with gold and silver lace, or fringe, and adorned with busts, pictures, glasses, and japan cabinets, with a vast profusion of plate and jewels, rich carpets and cushions to sit upon; but no chairs or tables are seen in the ladies apartments.

Here are three grand edifices belonging to the crown, viz. the Palace Royal, the Casa del Campo, and the Buen Retiro. The first of these, which is the usual residence of the court is situate on an eminence at the end of the town, commanding an extensive prospect over the adjacent country. Some of the rooms in this building have no light but what they receive from the doors; and the rest, having only small windows, are very dark.

The Casa del Campo stands opposite to the preceding. Between them runs the river Mancaneres, which forms a large stream when the snows on the neighbouring mountains are melted, but is hardly visible in the hot season. A grand bridge however is erected over its channel.

The palace of Buen Retiro is situated at the other extremity of the town, on the side of a hill, near the Pardo, a park about three miles in circumference, in which are several detached pavilions, where the officers of the court reside when the king comes to divert himself in the hot season. The groves, parterres, grottos, and cascades, render this a delightful abode in summer; and it is also supplied with a great number of fountains, one of which is so large that the king sails upon it in a yacht.

The nobility have a great many palaces in Madrid, inferior only in respect of dimensions to those of the king. Several fine churches and convents contribute also to the ornament of this capital. Amongst the former, that which is dedicated to the Blessed Virgin, called our *Lady of Atocha*, or the Grove, is the most magnificent. Here is an image of the Virgin, with the infant Jesus in her arms, to which many miracles are ascribed. She is clothed in a widow's habit, except

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on grand festivals, when she is almost covered with jewels. To this church the king comes to sing *Tedeum* on any signal victory. Here are also several hospitals, two of which in particular afford each accommodation to fifteen hundred persons.

The numerous towers and large buildings in this capital give it a magnificent appearance, and provisions of all kinds are cheap; but being destitute of common sewers, it is extremely offensive, especially in summer; and having neither taverns nor coffee-houses, it is little calculated to afford an agreeable reception to strangers.

Besides the royal palaces in Madrid, there are several others in the province. One of those called the Prado, is about two leagues distant from the capital; that of Sarfuala a little farther, and the Escorial about six leagues and a half. This palace being dedicated to St. Laurence, who is said to have been broiled alive on a gridiron, is built in the form of that culinary instrument, the bars of which form several courts, and the handle is the royal apartments. The whole consists of a palace, a church, a convent, and a burial-place for the sovereigns of Spain. The representations of a gridiron are met with in every part of the building, either sculptured, painted, formed of iron, marble, wood, or stucco. This is doubtless the largest palace in Europe, though not the most elegant. The Doric order is that which prevails: it is four stories high, wholly built of a grey stone, resembling granite, but not so hard. The extent of the principal fronts is six hundred and fifty-seven foot, and of the others, four hundred and ninety-four. At each of the corners stands a square tower two hundred foot high. It is said, that in the whole building, there are four thousand windows, and eight thousand doors. There are three doors in the principal front. Over the grand entrance are the arms of Spain, carved in stone; and a little higher, in a nich, a statue of St. Laurence in a deacon's habit, a gilt gridiron in his right hand, and a book in his left. Directly over the door is a basso relievo of two enormous gridirons in stone. Notwithstanding the great extent of this palace, the royal apartments contain nothing worthy of notice. We are told, however, that in the whole, there are upwards of one thousand six hundred pictures in oil colours, exclusive of the paintings in fresco, which are also very numerous. This palace was begun by Philip II. in 1557, and completed in twenty-two years.

The great church resembles that of St. Peter's at Rome, and is the repository of an infinite number of relics, which are held in great veneration. Under this edifice is the Pantheon, so called from its being built after the model of the Pantheon at Rome, of a round form, and vaulted like a cupola. This is the mausoleum of the Spanish kings of the Austrian family.

In this province are two other royal palaces, viz. Ildophonso and Aranguez; the latter of which has a great resemblance of Potsdam, and is as much admired for the beauty of its gardens, as the Escorial for the magnificence of its buildings. The water-works at this place are called the wonders of Spain, and thought

by the natives to be unequalled. Here are brazen and marble statues, as at Versailles, spouting up water in different forms, which falls into basins adorned with groups of figures of excellent workmanship. Most of the fictions of the ancient poets are here represented; and there are artificial trees, from every branch and twig of which the water spouts, in the form of a shower of rain.

About forty miles to the southward of Madrid stands Toledo, formerly the capital of Spain, and the seat of the ancient Gothic and Moorish kings. It is situated on a steep rock, at the foot of which runs the Tagus, encompassing it on three sides. The rest is defended by an old wall and towers, which are however commanded by several hills. Here are many grand houses occupied by people of distinction. This place was once very considerable for its manufactures of silk and wool, and still maintains a great trade in the article of twyl-blades. The cathedral here is one of the largest Gothic buildings in Europe, and is honoured with the distinction of always having the pope and the king of Spain as its canons. On Christmas, before the first vespers, the names of those personages are called aloud at the door of the choir; when for not appearing, as they never do, they are mulcted in two thousand maravedis each, a sum nearly equivalent to sixteen shillings and nine pence. This building stands in the middle of the city, and has before it a grand court, from which it is entered by eight beautiful brazen doors, through a grand portico. The church is three hundred and eighty foot long, a hundred and ninety-one broad, and a hundred and seven high. It is supplied with a number of chapels, which are richly furnished. In that of our lady of Sagrana, is an image of the Virgin, of solid silver, as large as the life, with a golden crown, enriched with diamonds and pearls of an extraordinary size. The treasury contains a group of figures, all of solid gold, where the Virgin, sitting on a rock of precious stones, is presenting her son to St. John Baptist. One of the diamonds that form the rock is as large as a pigeon's egg. The lands allotted for the repair of this cathedral afford the yearly rent of a hundred thousand crowns. The archbishop of Toledo is primate of Spain, and great-chancellor of Castile, and is proprietor of seventeen towns, besides a great number of villages. His revenue is computed at three hundred and fifty thousand crowns a year.

In the southern part of this province lies the country of La Mancha, which Cervantes has rendered celebrated, by making it the scene of Don Quixote's Adventures.

The remaining towns of note in New Castile are, Cuenca, Ciudad Real, Alcalá de Henares, Almanza, Guadalajara, Brihuega, Calatrava, Valena, and Requena.

The province of Old Castile is bounded on the north by Asturia and Biscay, on the east by Arragon, on the south by New Castile, and on the west by Leon. The chief town is Burgos, situated a hundred and seventeen miles north of Madrid. The other

places of note are, Logronno, Calahorra, Sarra, Ofma, Valladolid, Avila, Signenza, Roa, Aranda, Calzada, Nagora, St. Domingo, and Segovia.

At the last of these towns is the famous aqueduct, the building of which has been attributed to the Goths, to Hercules, the emperor Trajan, &c. It consists of a range of one hundred and eighteen arches, over forty-three of which stands an equal number of others. The greatest height of the building is one hundred and two foot. The whole is composed of stones about three foot long and two foot thick, without any mortar or cement; but those on the top are joined by cramp-irons. It is doubtless one of the noblest and most perfect monuments of antiquity now existing.

Near the city stands the Alcanor, or royal palace, situated on a rock, detached by a deep dry ditch from the town, with which it communicates by a strong stone bridge. It was erected by the Moors in the eighth century; was afterwards inhabited by the kings of Castile, and is now used for a state prison. From the center of the building, which consists of white stone, a lofty tower rises, environed with many turrets; and the roof of the whole is covered with lead. In the royal saloon, round the wall, are fifty-two statues of painted wood, representing a series of the kings and queens of Spain, sitting on thrones, and of other eminent persons, all as large as the life, with an inscription underneath. The ceiling of this apartment, and of several others, is so well gilt, that though it probably was done seven centuries ago, it appears quite fresh and new. Here is shewn the cabinet where Alphonso X. furnished the Impious and the Wise, composed his astronomical tables, in 1260. He was here struck by lightning, the marks of which yet appear in the wall.

The province of Leon is bounded on the north by Asturia, on the east by Old Castile, on the south by New Castile, and on the west by Galicia. The chief town is Leon, situated on the river Esla, a hundred and sixty-five miles north-west of Madrid. This was the capital of the first Christian kings of Spain, seven of whom are here interred. It is at present a large city, and the see of a bishop. The cathedral is esteemed one of the most elegant buildings of the kind in Spain.

Salamanca is situated on the river Tormes, eighty-eight miles north-west of Madrid. This place, also the see of a bishop, is famous for its university, in which are twenty-four colleges, four thousand students, and eighty professors, who have each a salary of a thousand crowns a year.

The other most considerable towns are, Palencia or Placencia, Toro, Zamora, Astorgo, Alva, and Ciudad Rodrigo.

The province of Estremadura is bounded on the north by Leon, on the east by New Castile, on the south by Andalusia, and on the west by Portugal. This province is now generally reckoned a part of New Castile. The chief towns are, Merida, Badajoz, Placencia, Corra, Truxillo, Lerene, or Ellerene, Alcantara, and Medelin.



## C H A P. III.

*Of the persons of the Spaniards—habit—character—diet—visits—diversions—founding hospitals—way of travelling.*

**I**N respect of their persons, the Spaniards are moderately tall and thin, their complexion on the olive cast, their hair black, their features regular, their eyes lively, and for the most part likewise black. They shave their beards, but leave mustachios on the upper lip. The women are generally slender, and habituate themselves early to acquire and preserve a genteel shape. In particular, they reckon it a beauty to have little feet, and take much pains to prevent the growth of their breasts, by keeping them compressed with plates of lead.

Of late years, the habit of the Spaniards has undergone a great alteration. They have laid aside the short cloak, as also their spectacles, ruffs, and long swords; and the only mark of their former gravity consists in the deep brown colour of the habits of the common people.

The Spanish ladies make no secret of using paint, which they lay very thick not only on their faces and hands, but a great way down their backs; and indeed without this artifice, their tawny shoulders, which, by wearing their stays so low behind, are much exposed to view, would make a very indifferent appearance. They wear several garments under their gown, and their coats are of so great length, that they always trail on the ground. On the top of the stays, ladies of rank have a breast-plate of diamonds, to which they hang a chain of pearl, or other precious jewels. They use many bracelets round their arms, as well as rings upon their fingers, and such weighty pendants in their ears, as stretch them to an unreasonable length.

The Spaniards are still remarkable for that gravity of deportment, which has so long been the characteristic of the nation. Their most peculiar endowments appear to be taciturnity and composure, the latter of which is evident in almost every action of their life. A pensive kind of dignity uniformly marks their mien and air; and their pace is so extremely slow, that at a little distance, it is not easy to discern whether they move at all. They are however reputed liberal, sincere, delicate in point of honour, and temperate in the pleasures of the table. But their understanding, which in other things appears not to be defective, is greatly tarnished by the grossest superstition and bigotry. They hold their priests in so much veneration, that they kiss the very hem of their garment, and pay them a degree of respect little short of idolatry. Their regard for the female sex is almost equally enthusiastic. It is common for a well-bred man to approach a lady with his knees bended, kissing her hands instead of her lips; and if she does him the favour to commend any thing he has, as a watch, a ring, a jewel, or other toy, it would be reckoned extremely unpolite not to present her with it. This attachment to the sex, however, is accompanied with such jealousy on the side of the husbands, as frequently excites them to a behaviour

the most unjustifiable and extravagant. Among the follies and vices of the Spaniards, may be ranked their unreasonableness of contempt of other nations, their pride and vanity, their indolence, avarice, libidinous passions, and insatiable thirst of revenge. Upon the whole, they are more a grotesque than a pleasing people, and ridiculous rather than respectable. It is their great misfortune that they converse so little with the rest of the world, and that their ignorance is industriously encouraged by their priests, whose influence over them is unbounded.

Immediately after getting out of bed, it is usual for persons of condition to drink a glass of water cooled with ice or snow, and afterwards chocolate, which is now become the morning beverage of almost all ranks. At dinner the master of the family sits down to table in a chair; but the women and children sit cross-legged on a carpet, after the manner of the Moors. Their meals consist commonly of light food, such as a pigeon or a partridge, an olio or ragou, high seasoned with garlic and pepper, which is succeeded by a desert of delicious fruits. They seldom eat butter or cheese, of which they have neither in perfection; but instead of butter in their sauces, they make use of oil. The ladies drink only water, and the gentlemen but very little wine. After dinner they usually sleep two or three hours, during which time the shops in Madrid are shut up, and few persons, except foreigners, are to be met with in the streets. Their supper is also light, and seldom consists of any thing more than a little hash, a ragou, or a tart. This meal as well as their breakfast, they frequently take in bed.

The usual time for their visits, as in other hot countries, is the evening. At this time the men meet abroad in public places of resort, and the ladies visit each other at their houses, where the floors of the apartments are covered with rich carpets and cushions of silk or velvet; they yet retaining the custom of the Moors of sitting on the floor. They never address one another by any distinguishing title; as, your highness, your grace, &c. but the title of donna is given to ladies of every rank. Those of distinction, however, pay their visits in great state. They are carried in a chair by four men, of whom the two foremost are uncovered. Two others attend as a guard, and a seventh carries a lantern. A coach drawn by mules immediately follows, containing her women, and another the gentlemen of her household, several menial servants walking after. The whole procession is very slow, conformably to the gravity of the people. Few coaches, except the king's, are drawn by horses, though hardly any country affords a finer breed for the purpose.

The usual phrase in the Spanish language on parting with a person is, *Yaya V. S. con Dios*, 'May your worship go along with God.' For, 'I thank you,' they say, *Viva V. S. mil anos*. 'May your worship live a thousand years;' to which the answer sometimes is, *Poca mas o menos*, 'a little more or less.'

There are two play-houses at Madrid, but the entertainments so execrable, that they hardly deserve the name. When the ave-bell rings, as it constantly does

at six in the evening, all the actors, as well as the audience, fall down upon their knees, in which attitude they remain a few minutes. The Spaniards also use masquerading, both on horseback and foot. They have a peculiar attachment to the game of chess, at which they play with great slowness, it being not unusual for a game begun by parents to be determined by their children; and it is sometimes carried on by letters between persons at a distance. In most of the capital towns there is likewise a great number of billiard-tables, at a kind of which, called *truces*, and furnished with twenty pockets, they play with very large balls, which are to pass through an iron arch fixed in a certain part of the table.

Of all the Spanish diversions, however, the most remarkable is their bull feasts. On the spot where any of those are exhibited, scaffolds are previously erected for the spectators, and the beasts are shut up in stalls made as dark as possible, to render them the fiercer on the day of battle. The following description of a late bull-feast may serve to give an idea of this entertainment.

Every thing being ready, the bulls remained to be driven across the area from the stables in which they were confined, to a smaller behind the amphitheatre, where they were to be kept apart from each other. The first stable was not far from the amphitheatre, and a wall of boards six foot high was put up on each side of the way by which the bulls were to pass. At a quarter past four ten bulls were let into the area, in order to be put into the stables at the opposite door; a man on foot leading before them a tame ox, which had been bred with bulls, to decoy them into those receptacles. Three combatants on horseback placed themselves at some distance, one on each side of, and the other opposite to the door at which the bull was to enter. A trumpet was then sounded, as a signal to let in a bull, and the man who opened the door got behind it immediately.

During a quarter of an hour preceding this period, the bulls had been teased by pricking them in the backs. This is done by persons placed on the ceiling of the stables, which was low, and constructed in such a manner as to afford convenience for the operation. The bulls were distinguished by a small knot of ribbon fixed to their shoulders.

The bull made directly at the first horseman, who received it on the point of his spear, held in the middle tight to his side, and passing under his armpit. This weapon making a wide gash in the bull's shoulder, occasioned it to draw back, the blood in the mean time rushing out in a torrent. The force with which the bull attacked the man was so great, that the shock had nearly overset both him and his horse.

A fresh bull now entered the amphitheatre where it stared about, frightened by the clapping and hallooing of the multitude. It then ran successively against the other two combatants on horseback, and from each received a deep wound. A signal was now given with the trumpet for the horsemen to retire; and the men on foot began their attack, who struck barbed darts into every part of the animal's body. The trumpet

again sounding, the matador appeared, carrying in his left hand a cloak extended on a short stick, and in his right a two-edged sword, the blade of which was flat, four inches broad, and a yard long. At the moment when the bull made furiously at him, he plunged his sword into its neck behind the horns, by which it instantly fell down dead. If the matador misses his aim, and cannot defend himself with the cloak, he is almost sure to lose his life, as the exasperated animal exerts its remaining strength with almost inconceivable fury. The dead bull was immediately dragged out of the area by three horses on a full gallop, whose traces were fastened to its horns.

Another bull was then let in, more furious than the former. The horseman missed his aim, and the bull thrust its horns into the horse's belly. The latter becoming ungovernable, the rider was obliged to dismount and abandon it to the bull, which pursued it round the area, till at last the horse fell, and expired. Four other horses were successively killed by this bull, which only received slight wounds, till the last of the horses had kicked its jaw to pieces. One of the horsemen broke his spear in the bull's neck, and the horse and rider fell to the ground, when the latter breaking his leg, was carried off. The footmen then set to work again, and afterwards the matador put an end to the life of the animal. The third bull killed two horses by goring them in the belly. The seventh likewise the same number. In this manner were ten bulls massacred, and the spectacle concluded in two hours and a half. The bulls sell at immediately sold to the populace at ten quartos per pound, which amounts to about three pence.

The Romans were not more delighted with the combats of gladiators and wild beasts, than the Spaniards are with those entertainments, which are however, of late years, become far less frequent than formerly.

Another diversion almost peculiar to the people of this nation, is that of serenading their mistresses. It is performed either with vocal or instrumental music, the latter of which is extremely rude. In this amusement, however, there is hardly a young fellow who spends not the best part of the night, though perhaps almost utterly unacquainted with the lady to whom the compliment is paid.

Gallantry among the Spaniards is universally accompanied with a taste for dancing, which is one of the ruling passions of this people. Of these the most favourite entertainments are the *sesquedillas* and the *sandango*. The former resembles our *hay*; and the latter is remarkable for the lascivious motions and gestures with which it is usually performed.

In every large city in Spain there is a foundling-hospital, into which all children are readily admitted; not only such as are illegitimate, but likewise those belonging to the lower class of tradesmen who have larger families than they can support. When the parents choose to claim the child, they may have it again on describing it.

In performing a long journey the Spaniards commonly make use of mules or litters, those animals being



*A View of the City of Paris.*

however, who is here never crowned, takes an oath at his inauguration to maintain the rights and privileges of the kingdom; while, on the other hand, the cortes, who are convened on the occasion, acknowledge his royal authority.

The affairs of government are conducted by several councils or tribunals, some of which are sovereign courts, and others subaltern. Of the former kind are the cabinet-council, or junta; the council of state; the council of war; the council of Castile; the chamber of Castile; the council of the Indies; the council of finances; the council of Navarre; the councils of buildings and forests; and the chanceries of Valladolid and Grenada.

The subaltern tribunals are the junta, or council for lodging or quartering all persons belonging to the court; the council of the alcaldes of the palace; the audience of Galicia, Seville, Arragon, Valencia, Catalonia, Majorca, and the Canaries; with the jurisdiction of the corregidores, rigidors, vigueros, and alcaldes.

The viceroalties are those of Navarre, Arragon, Valencia, Catalonia, Majorca, Peru, and Mexico.

The captains-general are those of Andalusia, Guipuscoa, Estramadura, and the Canaries, with those of the Indies.

The court, or council of Castile, is the highest court of judicature in the kingdom, and determines

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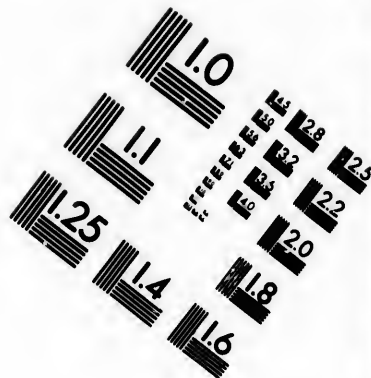
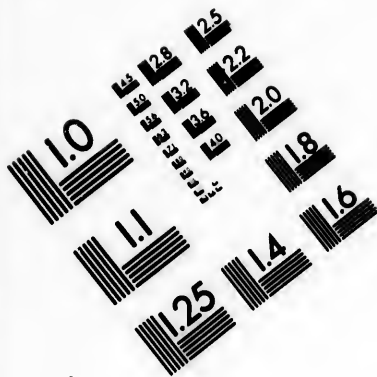
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The viceroy and captain-general have the command of all the forces in the province of which they are respectively governors, and preside in all tribunals within their several jurisdictions. They have the nomination of many officers, civil and military; and all officers of either class are responsible for their conduct; as are also the governors of towns and places within their respective provinces.

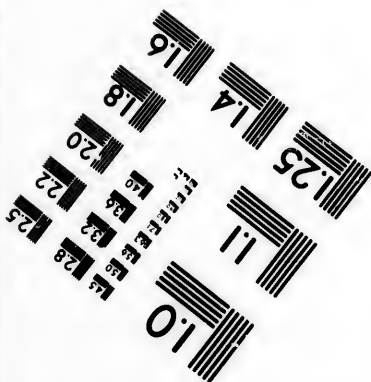
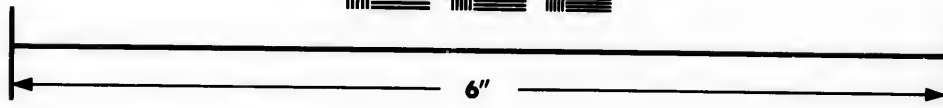
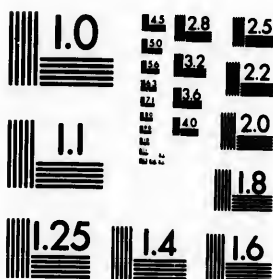
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let in a butt, and the man who opened the door got behind it immediately.

During a quarter of an hour preceding this period, the bulls had been teased by pricking them in the backs. This is done by persons placed on the ceiling of the stables, which was low, and constructed in in such a manner as to afford convenience for the operation. The bulls were distinguished by a small knot of ribbon fixed to their shoulders.

The bull made directly at the first horseman, who received it on the point of his spear, held in the middle tight to his side, and passing under his armpit. This weapon making a wide gash in the bull's shoulder, occasioned it to draw back, the blood in the mean time rushing out in a torrent. The force with which the bull attacked the man was so great, that the shock had nearly overfet both him and his horse.

A fresh bull now entered the amphitheatre where it stared about, frightened by the clapping and hallooing of the multitude. It then ran successively against the other two combatants on horseback, and from each received a deep wound. A signal was now given with the trumpet for the horsemen to retire; and the men on foot began their attack, who struck barbed darts into every part of the animal's body. The trumpet

formerly.

Another diversion almost peculiar to the people of this nation, is that of serenading their mistresses. It is performed either with vocal or instrumental music, the latter of which is extremely rude. In this amusement, however, there is hardly a young fellow who spends not the best part of the night, though perhaps almost utterly unacquainted with the lady to whom the compliment is paid.

Gallantry among the Spaniards is universally accompanied with a taste for dancing, which is one of the ruling passions of this people. Of these the most favourite entertainments are the *fisquedillas* and the *fundango*. The former resembles our *boys*; and the latter is remarkable for the lascivious motions and gestures with which it is usually performed.

In every large city in Spain there is a foundling-hospital, into which all children are readily admitted; not only such as are illegitimate, but likewise those belonging to the lower class of tradesmen who have larger families than they can support. When the parents choose to claim the child, they may have it again on describing it.

In performing a long journey the Spaniards commonly make use of mules or litters, those animals being

being found the most useful in travelling over the mountainous parts. In plain roads, however, they frequently travel in coaches drawn by four or six mules. It is usual to carry with them a good store of provisions, such as hams and tongues, the entertainment at the inns being very bad. In those places lodging is generally worse.

The whole kingdom is over-run with French knife-grinders, tinkers, and pedlars, who collect much money by exercising their trades. Beggars likewise swarm in every part of the kingdom, and are so insolent as to intrude themselves even into coffee-houses.

#### C H A P. IV.

*Of the government—nobility—revenues—population—forces—religion—inquisition—processions and festivals—ecclesiastical government—learning—coins.*

ACCORDING to the ancient constitution of Spain, almost every province enjoyed the right of being governed by laws of their own framing, and the princes could not raise any taxes without their consent. The states, or legislative assembly of the provinces, otherwise called cortes, consisted of the clergy, nobility, and commons, of which the latter, in general, seems to have been much the least numerous. At present, however, the cortes are assembled only upon particular occasions; as when they take the oaths to the prince of the Asturias, or when the succession of the crown is limited according to treaties with foreign princes.

During the more early periods of the Spanish monarchy, the crown appears to have been elective, as well as its prerogatives limited, though it has since become not only absolute but hereditary, and descends to females, in default of heirs male. The sovereign, however, who is here never crowned, takes an oath at his inauguration to maintain the rights and privileges of the kingdom; while, on the other hand, the cortes, who are convened on the occasion, acknowledge his royal authority.

The affairs of government are conducted by several councils or tribunals, some of which are sovereign courts, and others subaltern. Of the former kind are the cabinet-council, or junta; the council of state; the council of war; the council of Castile; the chamber of Castile; the council of the Indies; the council of finances; the council of Navarre; the councils of buildings and forests; and the chanceries of Valladolid and Grenada.

The subaltern tribunals are the junta, or council for lodging or quartering all persons belonging to the court; the council of the alcaides of the palace; the audiences of Galicia, Seville, Arragon, Valencia, Catalonia, Majorca, and the Canaries; with the jurisdiction of the corregidores, rigidors, viguers, and alcaides.

The vicerojalities are those of Navarre, Arragon, Valencia, Catalonia, Majorca, Peru, and Mexico.

The captains-general are those of Andalusia, Guipuzcoa, Estramadura, and the Canaries, with those of the Indies.

The court, or council of Castile, is the highest court of judicature in the kingdom, and determines

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appeals from inferior courts within its jurisdiction. They are also a kind of council of state for that particular province.

The council of the chamber of Castile are consulted by his majesty, in all his grants of honours, offices, and preferments, ecclesiastical and temporal; and all pardons and other graces pass this court.

The council of Navarre instituted to determine all matters relating to that kingdom, having laws and customs peculiar to themselves. When the inhabitants submitted to Ferdinand the Catholic; it was stipulated, that they should not be subject to the laws of Castile; but this regulation has of late been violated in many instances, and the court of Spain is now as absolute here as in other parts.

The chanceries of Valladolid and Grenada were established to ease the council of Castile, and that the subjects in those parts of Spain might not be obliged to travel so far as Madrid for justice, when they found themselves under a necessity of appealing from the inferior courts.

The court of alcaids of the palace has the jurisdiction of all causes, civil and criminal, within the verge of the court, which extends fifteen miles round the palace where the king resides, and is exercised over such persons as follow the court, when his majesty visits any part of the kingdom.

Those courts, of which the viceroy or captain-general is president, and the alcaids-majors, fiscals; &c. are members, take cognizance of all causes, civil and criminal, within fifteen miles round the city where the respective courts are held in the first instance; and by way of appeal of all causes which are removed from the courts of the ordinary judges within their several jurisdictions, as alcaids, bailiffs, &c.

No appeal lies from those audiences in civil causes, where the matter in dispute does not exceed ten thousand maravedis; but where it does, the parties may appeal to the sovereign tribunal: and in criminal cases, there lies an appeal in sentences of death, mutilation, or ten years banishment.

The governor, or his lieutenant, with certain members of the court of audience, have power to visit the several alcaids and inferior judges in their province; to examine their conduct, and displace and punish them for mal-administration. But this practice is now almost disused, to the great prejudice of the people, who are exposed to the extortions of the ordinary alcaids.

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The king of Spain, to his other titles, adds that of *don*, as the most noble and emphatic term in their language, being derived from the word *dominus*, signifying lord. His eldest son is called prince of the Asturias, the people of this province having given the first blow to the empire of the Moors, and on that account esteemed the most honourable in Spain. When he is proclaimed, the clergy, nobility, and the other estate of each province are assembled, and take an oath of fidelity, promising to obey him as king, after the death of the reigning prince. The younger sons of Spain are called infants, and the princesses *infantas*; but when there is only one daughter, and no son, she is called infant as a male.

The nobility are generally called *hidalgos*, a word expressing, that they are descended from the ancient Goths. They are either dukes, marquises, or counts; but those who are styled *grandees*, of whatever order of nobility, are reckoned the most honourable.

There are three orders of *grandees* in the kingdom, viz. those who have the honour only for life, those in whose families it is hereditary, and those who have received it from their ancestors from time immemorial. Persons of the first class are allowed to be covered before they speak to the king; those of the second do not put on their hats till they have spoken, and those of the third not till they have received their answer. Notwithstanding the privilege of being covered before the king, it is understood, that they are not to take such a liberty without his majesty's immediate desire. The king, in writing to any of them, styles him prince or cousin-german, and gives him the title of illustrious; the queen likewise addressing their wives in the same manner. Persons of this rank have the privilege of being drawn by four horses or mules in Madrid; while others have only a pair of horses in their coaches, except on a journey to the country, when every one is allowed to travel with as many as he pleases. The king and ambassadors have six horses in their coaches in town. The title given a *grande*, in speaking to him, or of him, is that of eminence.

The nobility are very numerous, and have large revenues, but so great is their expence in jewels, and magnificent furniture, that most of them are exceeding poor.

The knights of the several military orders are also reckoned among the nobility. They were instituted during the long wars between the Spaniards and the Moors, as an encouragement to valour, and had estates annexed, consisting chiefly of towns and territories taken from the infidels. In those times, the knights took vows of celibacy, &c. as do at present the knights of Malta; but through the indulgence of the pope, they are now exempted from this restriction. The three orders are, that of St. James, called the Rich; that of Alcantara, called the Noble; and that of Calatrava, the Gallant.

Spain is at present the most extensive monarchy in the world. Besides its territories in Europe, the crown possesses in America a tract of contiguous provinces, upwards of six thousand miles in length from south to north. In Asia it has the sovereignty of the rich and numerous islands, called the Philippines; and on the

coast of Africa, has the settlements of Ceuta, Oran, and several other places of importance. Notwithstanding these immense acquisitions, however, it has greatly declined in strength since the discovery of America, on account of the vast number of inhabitants that have emigrated thither, and the effect of the treasure thence imported in diminishing the industry of the people. At the beginning of the present century, it was computed that the royal revenues did not exceed six millions sterling, but they are much improved since that time, though it be difficult to ascertain their amount with any degree of precision.

History assures us, that in the time of Julius Cæsar, there were in Spain no less than fifty millions of souls. Before the discovery of America, in 1492, the number was computed at twenty millions. This discovery, however, drained the kingdom of almost half its inhabitants; to which national loss was added the expulsion of a million of Moors, in the same year, with another million in 1610 and 1612. At present, it is computed, that the number of persons who are of age to receive the sacraments, is six millions three hundred and fifty thousand one hundred and ninety-six; but in this computation there are included sixty-seven thousand seven hundred and seventy-seven monks, and thirty-four thousand six hundred and fifty-one nuns; which form together a body of one million two thousand four hundred and twenty-eight persons, who are a useless burden upon the state. Including children, it is probable, that the whole inhabitants of the kingdom do not amount, by several millions, to the number at which they were rated in the beginning of the last century; an evident proof of the declining state of this once powerful monarchy.

The military establishment of Spain in time of peace, has been for several years about forty thousand men, and it is probable that in war the forces are increased to three times this number. Their navy is also now become so respectable, that if not the third in point of strength, they may be reckoned at least the fourth maritime power in Europe.

The Spaniards are of the Roman Catholic religion; and, though it appears that they were slow in acknowledging the supremacy of the pope, as well as in receiving the peculiar doctrines of that church, they have for many ages been its most violent abettors, and even sacrificed humanity in support of the papal power. In the year 1557, the court of inquisition was first established in this kingdom, with the view of preventing the new converted Jews and Moors from relapsing into their former infidelity. This horrible seat of ecclesiastical tyranny is dignified with the title of the holy office, and the holy house. It consist of an inquisitor-general, the supreme council, inquisitors, assessors, qualificators, a secretary, an advocate fiscal, a treasurer, familiars, and jailors. The Inquisitor-general is nominated by the king, and confirmed by the pope, in the quality of whose delegate he is considered. His jurisdiction is so absolute and extensive, that no subject is exempted from it. The members of the supreme court or council, who are all named by him, approved by the king before they can act, and are usually secular priests; their assessors, with whom they advise, being divine,

divines, civilians, and canonists. The qualificators are employed in revising and altering books that are published, and are usually Dominican friars. The secretary executes the office of a register; and the advocate fiscal that of the attorney or prosecutor. The treasurer receives into his custody all the prisoner's goods, and personal estate, when he is apprehended; and the familiars are properly the bailiffs belonging to the office. In the number of the latter, however, it is common for the nobility and persons of distinction to enter themselves, this nominal office serving as a protection against the civil magistrate, and entitling them to the same plenary indulgences as persons engaged in a crusade against infidels and enemies of the Christian church. It is computed that in Spain alone, the number of those titular familiars amounts to upwards of twenty thousand.

This court exercises its jurisdiction in a summary way, on an information presented by any person of whatever rank or character. If the informer names any witnesses besides himself, they are sent for privately, and before examination take an oath not to disclose to any person their having been with the inquisitors, nor to speak of any thing they said, saw, or heard within that court. All persons, though ever so infamous, and though they stand convicted of perjury, are admitted by the inquisition to be witnesses.

The depositions of the informer and witnesses, when such there are, being thus privately taken, a familiar is sent for, to arrest the person accused. The unfortunate prisoner is conducted with great secrecy, as soon as possible, to his destined mansion, which is a dark cell, without any other furniture but a hard quilt, and a pot for the necessities of nature. He is not permitted to see any person except the keeper, who brings him his diet, and with it a lighted lamp, which burns about half an hour. Nor must the keeper, without leave of the inquisitors, maintain any discourse with him.

Having spent two or three days in this melancholy situation, the prisoner is carried before the inquisitors, when, after taking an oath that he shall return true answers to all their interrogatories, and confess if he has been guilty of any heresy, they proceed to examination. The first question asked is, whether he knows the reason of his commitment? If he answers in the negative, they next ask, Whether he knows for what crimes the inquisition used to imprison people? If he replies, for heresy, he is admonished upon the oath he has taken, to confess all his heresies, and to discover all his teachers and accomplices. Should he deny that he ever held either any heretical opinion, or any communication with heretics, he is told, that the holy office never used to imprison people rashly, and therefore he would do well to confess his guilt. If the prisoner persist in declaring his innocence, he is remanded back to the dungeon, with an admonition to examine his conscience, that the next time they send for him, he may be prepared to make a full confession of all his heresies, teachers, and accomplices. After an interval of two or three days, he is again brought to the bar, and asked, Whether he comes

prepared to confess? If he answers, that he cannot, without accusing himself and others falsely, make any such confession as they desire of him, he is again remanded to confinement, with the injunction of praying to God for grace to dispose him to make a true and full confession, to the saving of his soul, which they pretend is the only object they have in view. After an interval of the same duration as the former, he is brought before them the third time, when, if he still maintains his innocence, they tell him that they will order their advocate-fiscal to prosecute him for his heresies. This prosecution, however, is usually preceded by the torture. A day being fixed for this purpose, he is led to the rack, attended by an inquisitor and a public notary, who is to write down the answers extorted from him. During the time the executioner is making preparations for the approaching scene of horror, and is taking off the prisoner's cloaths to his shirt and drawers, the inquisitor constantly exhorts the unhappy victim to have compassion on his body and soul, by making a true and full confession of all his heresies. All these exhortations proving ineffectual to extort a confession of heresies, that never were imagined by the accused person, the executioner is commanded to use the torture. This tremendous scene begins with twisting a small cord hard about the prisoner's naked arms, and hoisting him up from the ground by means of an engine. While hanging in this situation, he is violently shaken for about an hour, and afterwards let fall with a jerk, which commonly disjoins his arms. He is then carried back to the prison, where a surgeon is ready to reduce his dislocated bones. This dreadful process is usually repeated two or three times, if nature can support so long under the violence of the torture.

If the prisoner should make the desired confession on the rack; it is written down by the notary, and carried to him in a day or two to be signed, which if he refuses to ratify, upon the principle of its having been extorted from him by the extremity of pain, he is again brought to the rack to oblige him to compliance; and it is difficult for any person who is accused of heresy by the inquisition to escape this terrible engine.

When a person is convicted of heresy, either by his own extorted confession, or the evidence of any witness, a scene of yet greater horror ensues, but which delivers the miserable victim from the power of his inhuman tormentors. This terrible catastrophe is being consumed in the flames. On the day appointed for the execution, the convict is loaded with chains in the presence of the inquisitors, and after being carried to the secular jail, is brought before the lord chief justice of the kingdom, who, without knowing any thing particular of his accusation, or the evidence produced against him, asks him in what religion he intends to die. If he answers, in the communion of the Romish church, he is condemned to be first strangled and afterwards burnt to ashes. But if he resolves to die in any other faith, he is sentenced to be burnt alive. He is then immediately carried to the place of execution, where he is seated on a small board near the top of a stake which is fixed in the ground, and about four yards high. After being chained to the stake,

he is, by the ecclesiastics attending the execution, consigned to the devil, who they tell him is standing at his elbow, to conduct his soul to hell. This dreadful declaration is accompanied with a shout of the spectators, who repeat with a loud voice, *Let the dog's beard be made*. This ceremony consists in applying flaming furze to his face, till it be burned as black as a coal; the savage multitude all the while testifying their applause by the loudest acclamations. The furze at the bottom of the stake is then set on fire, by which the body is usually consumed in less than thirty minutes; but in some cases, the anguish of the sufferers has been protracted for almost two hours.

Such are the transactions of the court of inquisition, a tribunal the most odious, oppressive, and infernal that ever was instituted, and which, under the pretence of maintaining religion, has deliberately exercised such shocking barbarities, as remain unequalled in the darkest ages of the pagan world. This disgraceful tribunal has for some years past been disused, but it is not abrogated; only its sentence cannot be carried into execution without the royal authority.

The superstition of the Spaniards is correspondent to their extreme veneration for the priesthood, and that patient submission, which they have so long maintained under the rigor of ecclesiastical tyranny. Penances they consider as so meritorious, as even to supersede the performance of religious and moral duties. In the holy week before Easter, they practise great austerities. Some will procure themselves to be fastened to a cross in their shirts, with their arms extended in imitation of our Saviour, uttering all the while the most dismal groans and lamentations; and others will walk bare-foot over rocks and mountains to some distant shrine, to perform their devotions. Solemn processions are also frequent amongst them, the most considerable of which is on Good-Friday, when all the religious orders attend, with the members of the several tribunals, councils, and companies of tradesmen of their cities, and sometimes the king in person, with wax-torches in their hands. The nobility and persons of distinction are followed by their servants with lighted flambeaux. The royal guards have their arms and drums covered with black, and beat a dead march, as at the funeral of some military commander. Trumpets and other musical instruments sound dismally, and all the colours and crosses are covered with black crape. Machines and pageants are erected, on which all the parts of our Saviour's passion are represented. It is not uncommon in those processions for persons to lash and cut themselves unmercifully, in the hope of attaining the favour of Heaven; and others, it is affirmed, exercise the same violence, to shew their passion for their mistresses; all the ladies in the place standing in the balconies to see the procession.

On great festivals and rejoicing days the scene is very different. Then they expose the rich shrines, and all the treasures of their churches to public view. All are dressed in their best habits, and people play upon musical instruments, dancing at the same time in processions, and before their images. But here likewise, in the hottest

weather, and when the sky is unclouded, they carry in their hands lighted torches, which, added to the influence of the sun, renders the situation of the superstitious croud extremely distressful. The balconies and windows are hung with tapestry, &c. and the ladies dressed in their richest cloaths and jewels, are permitted to view the procession without a lattice before them.

On those occasions, the inamoratos of both sexes have an opportunity of shewing themselves, and discovering their passion to the greatest advantage; nor is it a groundless allegation, that many in those countries frequent their churches and processions chiefly to have an opportunity of carrying on their amours.

Their festivals usually conclude with a play wretchedly performed, containing a representation of the life and actions of some real or pretended saints, recorded in their legends; and in those theatrical exhibitions, which seem calculated rather to ridicule than promote Christianity, they refrain not from using indecent familiarity even with our blessed Saviour.

The ecclesiastical government in Spain is nearly the same as that in other Roman Catholic countries. The king, by a grant of the popes, nominates to all archbishoprics and bishoprics. The number of the former is eight, and of the latter thirty-eight.

With all its extent of dominion, Spain cannot boast of any prosperity either in the sciences or arts. Literature is here almost totally cramped by the great restraints upon the press; and such is the indolence of the natives, that they seem as much averse to the exercise of the mind, as to bodily labour. Under the government of the Romans, this country produced several men of distinguished genius, but among the writers of latter times, Cervantes is almost the only author who has obtained universal reputation. The kingdom, however, contains twenty-two universities, the chief of which are, Salamanca, Compostella, Alcalá de Henares, Valladolid, Saragossa, Palencia, Seville, and Toledo.

#### SPANISH GOLD COINS. l. s. d.

The old Spanish pistole	-	-	0	17	4
New Seville pistole	-	-	0	17	4
Old double doubloon	-	-	3	9	4
Old double pistole	-	-	1	14	8
New Seville double pistole	-	-	1	14	8
The half and quarter of those in proportion.					

#### SPANISH SILVER COINS. l. s. d.

The piaster of Spain, or Seville pieces of eight	-	-	0	4	6
New Seville piece of eight	-	-	0	3	7
Mexico piece of eight	-	-	0	4	5
Pillar piece of eight	-	-	0	4	5
The rial, or bit	-	-	0	0	7

Gold or silver coin, even Spanish, is not allowed to be brought into, or carried out of any of the cities of Spain, especially Cadiz, if exceeding ten pounds, without paying four per cent. duty to the king; and there are no bank-notes in the country.

## C H A P. V.

*History of Spain.*

THE first inhabitants of Spain, it is probable, emigrated from Gaul and the northern parts of Africa; but the country was also visited at an early period by the Phœnicians, who possessed themselves of the island of Leon, near the coast of Andalusia; and of Malaga, on the coast of Granada. Colonies were likewise planted by the Greeks on the west of Catalonia, where they built Rhodes, or Roses, and several other towns. About the same time arrived hither from Gaul another emigration, namely, that of the Celts, who settling in the country between the Pyrenees and the river Herilo or Ebro, and intermarrying with the original inhabitants, this part of Spain obtained the name of Celtiberia.

The Phœnicians beginning to build forts, with the view of protecting their colonies, their apparent design of establishing an independency so much alarmed the natives in the south of Spain, that they assembled their forces, with an intent to expel them the country. The Phœnicians, on this occasion, requested the aid of the Carthaginians, who were descended from the same ancestors, and who had for some time entertained a desire of invading so fruitful a country; towards facilitating the execution of which project, they had already possessed themselves of the islands of Balears. They therefore embraced with eagerness an opportunity so favourable to their designs, and immediately sent hither powerful succours under their general Maherbal, about the year 236 after the building of Rome. The war continued between the natives and those allies, during several years, with various success; but, at length, the Carthaginians, partly by treaty and partly by force, procured themselves such an establishment, that they assumed the sovereign dominion over the country, as far to the north as the Cantabrian mountains, and to the west as the river Ebro. By the treaty which concluded the first Punic war, however, they engaged not to molest either the city of Saguntum, or the allies of the Romans in Celtiberia. But the observance of this compact proved only of short duration. The Carthaginians having been obliged to abandon Sicily in the late contest with the Roman power, they determined to have recourse again to arms, for the recovery of so important an island. With this view Hamilcar, the general of their forces in Spain, made great preparations for invading Italy by land; but being assassinated by the slave of a noble Spaniard, whom he had caused to be put to death, he was succeeded in the government of the country by the celebrated Hannibal, who immediately began to carry into execution the designs which had been formed by his predecessor. The first act of hostility was laying siege to Saguntum, under pretence that the inhabitants had encroached on the Carthaginian frontiers. The Romans interfering only by negotiation in the cause of their allies, the city was taken by storm, after a siege of eight months. It is reported that the Saguntines,

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seeing no prospect of relief, carried all their richest moveables to the market-place, and set them on fire, killing also their wives and children, and afterwards themselves with their own hands, rather than submit to the enemy.

On the destruction of this city, the Romans declared war against Carthage; and while they assembled an army to oppose the invasion of Hannibal, who was marching towards Rome, they dispatched Cælius Scipio into Spain with another body of forces, to make a diversion on that side. This enterprize proved so successful, that not only the Carthaginian army in the Hither Spain was defeated, but Hanno, their general, made prisoner. Publius Cornelius Scipio being now sent with a reinforcement to the assistance of his brother, they attacked Asdrubal on his march to Italy, where he intended to join his brother Hannibal. The Roman arms were again victorious in this encounter, and Asdrubal threw himself into Carthage with the remainder of his forces.

The same success attended the two Scipios in several subsequent battles; but the Carthaginians at length receiving powerful succours from Africa, the Roman army was not only defeated, but their two generals also killed in an obstinate action with the enemy.

The Carthaginians imagining they were now secure from any attack, became careless of discipline, and dispersed themselves all over the country, either to plunder or wreak their vengeance on those Spaniards, who had appeared in the interest of their enemies. Marcius, a Tribune, taking advantage of this opportunity, assembled a body of Roman troops; with which he defeated several detached parties of the Carthaginians, and maintained his ground till Publius Cornelius Scipio arrived with a strong reinforcement to his assistance; soon after which the Carthaginians were defeated in a general battle, and entirely driven out of Spain.

The expulsion of the Carthaginians, however, restored not to the Spaniards their ancient liberty, which they every day perceived to be more violated by their recent than their former masters. Provoked by the cruelty and oppression of the Roman officers, they had recourse to arms in many parts of the kingdom, and several smart engagements happened, in which great numbers were killed on both sides. The Roman senate, apprehensive of a general revolt, sent hither M. Porcius Cato with a reinforcement of two legions. We are informed by the Latin historians, that having killed forty thousand Spaniards in one battle, besides a multitude of others in sieges and skirmishes, Cato sold many of the natives for slaves, demolished most of their fortifications, and reduced them to such despair, that many of them chose rather to die by their own swords than submit to the Roman government. After leaving strong garrisons in the country he returned to Rome, whither he carried with him a hundred and forty-eight thousand pounds weight of silver, and five hundred and forty pounds weight of gold, besides a prodigious treasure which he distributed among his soldiers.

After the departure of Cato, Spain was for some years governed by pretors, whose continual oppressions

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again excited the natives to an insurrection, in which many thousands of the Romans were killed. This war, which was long and bloody, obtained the name of the Numantian war, from the city of Numantia being at the head of the confederacy.

A third insurrection was excited against the Roman government by Viriatus, a person of obscure origin, whom, unable to reduce by force of arms, after the war had continued ten years, they are said to have hired some of his officers to assassinate him while he lay asleep.

The Spaniards still discovering an irreconcilable aversion to the Roman yoke, the senate sent amongst them two numerous armies, the one into Farther Spain, commanded by Decius Brutus, and the other into Hither Spain, under the command of the celebrated Scipio Africanus. In the space of two years, these experienced generals reduced almost the whole country to obedience. Even the city of Numantia, which had made the most obstinate defence, offered to capitulate; but Scipio insisting that the inhabitants should surrender at discretion, they chose rather to follow the example of the Saguntines, than fall into the hands of an enemy whom they had so often provoked. Being reduced to despair, the men killed their wives and children, and having set their houses on fire, threw themselves into the flames.

From this time the Romans exercised, for some years, an uncontrolled dominion over Spain, except among the Cantabri, who possessed some inaccessible mountains, and were not conquered until the reign of Augustus. The rapacity of the governors, however, continuing to exasperate the minds of the people, insurrections again broke forth in different parts of the country; one of which was headed by Sertorius, a Roman tribune, who maintained his ground against the generals of the republic, till he was assassinated by his own party for some acts of tyranny which he had committed.

The Romans continued sovereigns of Spain till the beginning of the fifth century, when the empire was invaded by the northern nations, who passing over the Pyrenean mountains, laid waste the greater part

of this province, for the recovery of which the Romans entered into a league with a part of this people. But the former being soon after defeated, the Goths remained masters of Spain for almost three hundred years, when their government was overturned by an insurrection, similar in its origin to some of those which had formerly caused revolutions in that of Rome. Roderic, one of the Gothic kings, having ravished the beautiful Cava, daughter of count Julian, her father, to revenge the disgrace offered to his family, entered into a confederacy with some other male-content lords, and at the same time invited the Saracens to their assistance. The latter readily embracing an opportunity so favourable to their thirst of conquest, sent hither a great force, which not only defeated Roderic, who is supposed to have been killed in a general battle, but in the space of three years made themselves masters of all Spain, except some of the mountains of Asturias, Biscay, and Navarre, whither those of the Gothic Christians retired, who did not think fit to live under the dominion of the infidels.

The Goths, however, endeavouring to recover their freedom, divested the Saracens of several provinces, which they converted into distinct kingdoms, till the year 1478, when all Spain became united under Ferdinand and Isabella, except Navarre, Portugal, and Granada, the last of which remained in the possession of the Moors for a little time after.

The most memorable transactions of the Spanish government from this period, have been either impolitic or unsuccessful, such as depopulating the kingdom, not only by great emigrations to America, but by the banishment of many thousands of Moors and Jews, who might have been rendered useful to the state. Those events were followed by the ruin of the Invincible Armada, which had cost the nation a prodigious expence; by the irrecoverable loss of the United Provinces, one of the most valuable provinces of their empire; and by that of the kingdom of Portugal, which had been annexed to the Spanish crown.

## P O R T U G A L.

### C H A P. I.

*Of the situation — air — produce — provinces — chief towns — islands.*

THE kingdom of Portugal is situate between 7 and 10 degrees of west longitude, and between 37 and 42 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north and east by Spain, and on the south and west by the Atlantic Ocean; extending about three hundred miles in length, and in breadth near a hundred. This country, like Spain, is encumbered

with mountains, much more barren than those of the latter; but towards the bottom, they are in many places planted with vines. The chief bays and harbours are those of Lisbon, St. Ubes, Oporto, and Lagos Bay; and the chief capes those of St. Vincent, Espichel, Roca or Roxent, and Mandego. The principal rivers are the Tayo, Guadiana, Mintio, and Dauro, all rising in Spain. Besides these is the Mondego, which rises in the east of Portugal, and running westward falls into the Atlantic Ocean; as do also the Lima, the Vouga, and the Cado.

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The air in this country is generally more temperate than in Spain, especially towards the coast, where it is cooled by the sea-breezes. Besides vines, the soil produces great plenty of olives, bitter oranges, and lemons; but the two former are not reckoned so good as those of Spain. Their sweet oranges, however, which they introduced from China, and are therefore called China oranges, are the best in Europe. Other articles of produce are, figs, raisins, almonds, and chestnuts; but the country not producing a sufficient quantity of corn for the subsistence of the inhabitants, they are frequently supplied with this commodity from England and Holland.

Portugal is divided into six provinces, viz. in the north, Entre Minho Dauro, and Tralos Montes; in the middle, Beira and Estremadura; and in the south, Alentago or Entre Tayo, and Guadiana or Algarva.

The chief town of Entre Minho Douro is Braga, situate in 7 degrees 20 minutes west longitude, and 41 degrees 20 minutes of north latitude. This is a very ancient city, and was known to the Romans by the name of Bracara Augusta. It is said to have been built by the Bracares, a people who once inhabited the country. When the Suevi came from Germany, and made a conquest of Galicia and Portugal, this was the seat of their government, and continued to be the capital of a kingdom under their successors the Goths. The city stands on the south side of the river Cavedo, about fifteen miles east of the ocean, and sixty north of Lisbon. The houses are generally old stone buildings, without much elegance. Even the cathedral and archbishop's palace are more admired for their antiquity and magnitude, than the beauty of their architecture. This prelate is spiritual and temporal lord of the place; on which account he has a sword as well as a cross carried before him. His revenue is forty thousand ducats a year, and he disputes the primacy with the archbishop of Toledo in Spain. The town contains about three thousand families. The other towns in the province are, Caminha, Moncaon, Ponte de Lima, Guimaraez, and Amerante.

The capital of Tralos Montes is Braganza, situate on a little rivulet near the river Zabor, about six miles from the confines of Leon. It is divided into the New and Old Town, the latter standing on an eminence, and defended with antique double walls. The New City stands in the plain, at the foot of a mountain, and has a fort with four bastions adjoining it: the whole consists of about six hundred families. The other towns in the province are, Miranda de Douro, Chaves, Ville Real, Almeida, and Castel-Rodrigo.

The capital of the province of Beira is Coimbra, situate on an eminence on the north side of the river Mondego, ninety miles north-east of Lisbon. The bridge at this place is a fine stone fabric, consisting of two rows of arches, one above another, and forms a covered way, through which the people pass without being exposed to the weather. The aqueduct which brings water to the town is also much admired. The cathedral, and other churches and monasteries, are handsome buildings; but the private houses not elegant. The number of families in the town is com-

puted at five thousand. The city is distinguished by one of the tribunals of inquisition, and the most celebrated university in Portugal; in the latter of which there are fifty professors, and near three thousand students. The revenues of the seminary are computed to be about four thousand pounds a year.

The capital of Estremadura, and of the kingdom, is Lisbon, situate in 9 degrees 25 minutes west longitude, and in 38 degrees 45 minutes north latitude. It stands on the north bank of the river Tagus, about ten miles from the sea. This city continues nearly in the same ruinous state to which it was reduced by the earthquake in 1755. Like Rome, it is built on seven hills. The streets are narrow and steep, very badly paved with sharp stones; nor are they lighted at night. The houses are generally two stories high, sometimes three, without any other chimney than that of the kitchen. The number of houses at the time of the earthquake above mentioned was computed at thirty thousand, and the inhabitants at two hundred thousand. The houses of the citizens are ill-contrived buildings, with lattice windows; but those of the nobility are grand structures, built of hewn stone. Few have courts before them, but they are generally furnished with yards and gardens, and occupy a great extent of ground. The town being destitute of common sewers, all nastiness is thrown into the streets in the night-time, as at Madrid; of which city it has however an advantage, by the streets lying upon a descent, and being therefore more easily cleaned. It is surrounded by an old wall and towers, and has a castle on a hill, which commands the place, but could make no great defence in case of a siege. Besides the cathedral, there are here forty parish churches, with as many monasteries of both sexes, which make a tolerable appearance.

Among the buildings, the royal palace is the most remarkable. As the plan has never been completed, the structure is not very regular; but lying upon the river, it commands a fine prospect of the country on the opposite side, as well as of the port and the ocean.

The most magnificent church is that of the Dominicans, in which are three chapels, almost entirely covered with gold from the pavement to the roof. In one of those the holy sacrament is continually exposed. This chapel is illuminated with wax tapers, and a vast number of lamps; and over the portal are inscribed the names of those who have been burnt by the inquisition. The magnificence of the convent is suitable to that of the church; and near it is the palace of the inquisition, to which the Portuguese give the name of Santa Casa, or the Holy House. In the front there is a fine fountain, adorned with marble statues, throwing out water on every side.

In the church of the Augustines, called our Lady of Grace, is a cross of gold, adorned with precious stones, valued at a hundred thousand crowns, which is carried in procession at their grand festivals.

In the church dedicated to the Mother of God, every Holy Thursday they shew the handkerchief said to be used by our Saviour at his crucifixion; a relic not unfrequent in many other popish churches.

Another

Another church here is much admired, founded by the queen of John V. the sides of which are wainscotted with ebony, and the roof supported by pillars of the same.

A magnificent church also belongs to the Merciful Society, an institution which reflects great honour on the benevolence of its members. Persons of the highest rank in the kingdom are frequently members of this association. They apply themselves to the relief of all in distress, especially those whom a regard to their character restrains from soliciting the public charity. They maintain a great number of female orphans, to whom they give portions, and endeavour to settle comfortably in life. It is likewise an object of this society to afford relief to prisoners; and when any such are condemned to death, some of the members never fail to attend and comfort them in their last moments.

The entrance of the harbour of Lisbon is dangerous without a pilot; but when ships have got into it they ride with great security, being covered on the one side by the hills on which the city stands, and on the other by the opposite banks, which are of a considerable height. When vessels arrive, they are obliged to salute the fort of Bellem or Behlehem, six miles below Lisbon; but they are prohibited from firing a gun, on any pretence, when they come up as high as the city. Except London and Amsterdam, this port has the most extensive foreign traffic of any in Europe.

The palace of Alcantara stands a mile west of Lisbon. It is a magnificent structure, but chiefly admired for its beautiful gardens, which abound in grottos, fountains, and cascades, and are planted with orange and citron trees, and the choicest flowers of the climate. In the adjoining valley is the celebrated aqueduct which joins two hills. The number of arches in this part is thirty-five, fourteen of which are large, and the others smaller. The largest is three hundred and thirty foot in height, and forty-nine in width. Towards the city there are ten arches of inferior dimensions, and many yet less near the source of the water which supplies the aqueduct. The water thus conveyed is emptied in a great reservoir at one of the extremities of Lisbon. This aqueduct is built of a kind of white marble. The pillars which support the arches are square, the largest measuring thirty-three foot at each side of the base.

The palace of Bellem is a mean wooden edifice, but the church and cloyster are noble buildings. The former of these is lined from top to bottom with jasper and the finest marbles; and here are the tombs of several of the kings of Portugal, admirably executed.

Near the mouth of the Tagus, is a promontory or cape, anciently named *Promontorium Lunæ*, and which the British mariners distinguish by the name of the Rock of Lisbon. This is a branch of a high mountain, formerly called the Mountain of the Moon, and at present Mount Cintra; on the top of which is a fine monastery, dedicated to our Lady of the Rock, and a church, whither people resort in great numbers, to perform their devotion for nine days. Both the church and cloyster, with an inn that stands near them for the

accommodation of the devotees, are hewn out of the solid rock. This lofty situation commands one of the most beautiful prospects in the world. At the foot of the mountain, on the promontory, are the ruins of an ancient temple, dedicated to the sun and moon, on one of the pillars of which the following inscription is still visible:

*Soli æternæ lunæ pro æternitate imperii, & salute imp. Cal.—Septimii Severi & Imp. Aug. Pii. Caf. & Julii Aug. Martii, Caf. Drusus Valerius Calianus viati est augustorum, &c.*

Setubal, commonly called St. Ubes, is a modern town, built out of the ruins of the ancient Cetobrigæ, which stood a little to the westward, and had in it a temple dedicated to Jupiter Ammon, of which there are yet some remains. This town is situated twenty-two miles to the southward of Lisbon, near the mouth of the river Cadoan, at the bottom of a fine bay, which forms one of the best harbours in the kingdom. Here is a great manufacture of white salt, which is exported to the north countries of Europe and to America. The other most remarkable towns in the province of Estremadura are, Almada, Benéveto, Salvaterra, Muge, Tomar, Pendragon, Leiria, Acoaba, Paniche, Santaren, and Alanguer.

The capital of the province of Alentejo, or Entre Tago, is Eboræ, situate about sixty miles south-east of Lisbon, on a hill encompassed with mountains. It is three miles in circumference, surrounded by an antique wall and towers, and contains about four thousand inhabitants. This city is said to have been built by the Phœnicians, who gave it the name of Eboræ, in allusion to the fruitfulness of the soil. Julius Cæsar changed its name to *Liberalitas Julis*, as appears by an ancient inscription discovered here, which is as follows:

*Divus Julius Lib. Julia Eboræ ob. Julius in Mun. & Munic. liberalitatem, in D. D. D. cujus dedicatione Veneri Genitrici, castum matrona donum tulatum.*

This was a considerable town in the time of the Gothic kings. It remained under the dominion of the Moors till the year 1166, when king Alphonso retook it, with the other towns of the province. The valleys in this part of the country are exceeding fruitful, and there are mines of silver in the mountains.

Estremos stands near twenty miles north-east of Eboræ, on a hill, and is divided into the Higher and Lower town, the former serving as a castle to the latter. The houses of the people of condition are built of white marble, and make an elegant appearance. The number of inhabitants in both towns is about two thousand. Here is a manufacture of fine red earthenware, and without the town is a fountain, endowed with the quality of petrifying almost whatever is thrown into it.

On a hill about twenty-four miles to the eastward of Estremos lies Elvas, near the frontiers of the Spanish Estremadura. It is defended by a castle, and strongly fortified. The town is well built, and contains about two thousand five hundred inhabitants.

Here

Here is a cistern so large, that it could hold water enough to supply the whole town for six months. This place is of great antiquity, and was formerly called Helvis, from a people of Gaul who built it. It is at present esteemed one of the strongest fortresses in the kingdom, and the neighbouring country affords some of the best wine in Portugal.

The other towns in this province are, Campo-Mayor, Arronches, Portalegre, Olivença, Villa Viciosa, Maura, Serpa, Martola, Bega, Portel, Viana, Alcazar de Sal, St. Jago de Cacem, and Sines.

One of the chief towns in Guadiana or Algarva, is Faro, situated on a bay of the ocean, and strongly fortified. It contains about two thousand inhabitants, and was built out of the ancient Ossonabs, which lay a little to the eastward, and is now a small village, called Estri.

Lagos stands also on a fine bay of the ocean, about five leagues to the eastward of cape St. Vincent. It contains about the same number of inhabitants as Faro, and in both those towns the chief employment is the fishery. The other towns in the province are, Castro, Marin, Favila, Silves, Villa-Nova de Portimao, Abor, and Sagres.

The principal islands belonging to the Portuguese, in Europe, are the Azores, or Terceiras, sometimes called the Western Isles. They consist of nine, and are situate between 25 and 33 degrees of west longitude, and between 36 and 40 degrees of north latitude, about three hundred leagues to the west of Portugal. They stretch from east to west. The most easterly are those of St. Michael and St. Mary, the former of which is the largest of all the Azores, and about thirty leagues in circumference. This island, like the rest, is pretty mountainous, but produces plenty of corn, fruits, cattle, fish and fowl, with a thin sort of wine.

Terceira, which is the next in order, is esteemed the chief of those islands, on account of its having a tolerable good harbour, and being the residence of the governor, though it is not more than eighteen or twenty leagues in circumference. This island is as much encumbered with mountains as the others, but produces plenty of good corn, pasture, and an excellent breed of cattle; having also a great number of vineyards. The capital of this, and of all the islands, is Angra, situated on a bay, which forms the harbour on the south side of the island, and defended by a castle, which stands on a rock at the entrance. Here the Portuguese fleets always call, in their passage to and from their plantations in Brasil, Africa, and India; the chief use of these islands being to supply them with provisions. Angra is the see of a bishop, as well as the seat of the viceroy. The islands of Gratiôsa, St. George, Pico, and Fayall, lie south-west of Terceira; but have nothing in them that deserves any particular description. Pico received its name from such another peak or pyramidal mountain as Teneriffe, and is supposed to have been raised by the like means, namely, by earthquakes, to which those islands, as well as the Canaries, are subject. The most westerly of the Azores, and the smallest, are the two islands of Flores

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and Corvo, which remained long uninhabited after the others were planted, and seem to have been occupied by the Portuguese at last, with the view only of preventing them from falling into the hands of some foreign nation, which might disturb their possession of the rest.

## C H A P. II.

*Of the Portuguese — customs — way of travelling — government — revenues — forces — nobility — religion — learning — history.*

THE Portuguese resemble the Spaniards so much in their persons, that they require no particular description; and the dress of the people of fashion is also nearly the same, as well as many of the national customs. But among the common people in Portugal, the dress of the men is a large cloak and slouched hat. Under the cloak they generally wear a dagger, notwithstanding this weapon be prohibited. The women wear no caps, but tie a kind of silk net-work over their hair, with a long tassel behind, and a ribbon tied in a bow-knot over their forehead. This head-dress they call *redicilla*, and it is worn indiscriminately by both sexes. The men frequently wear their hair made up into a club of an enormous size.

The character of the Portuguese is also not much different from that of the Spaniards, the women having the same vivacity with those among the latter, but the men not near so much gravity. Cortejos here are synonymous with the Italian Cicisbei.

The houses of persons of quality are crowded with domestics, who are often too numerous to be accommodated in them. One reason for keeping so great a retinue, is the low rate of wages, and the cheapness with which they may be maintained, their diet consisting chiefly of common vegetables. Another is a custom of retaining in their pay all those who have served their ancestors; inasmuch that some of the grandees have four or five hundred servants of both sexes. The greater part of this number, however, is kept only for parade, and being lodged in adjacent houses, never appear but on days of ceremony. Notwithstanding this crowd of domestics, when persons of the highest rank appear abroad, they are limited to a small number of attendants.

Besides ordinary servants, the quality retain many dwarfs, and they have also a train of slaves, both Turks and Moors, each of whom is valued at four or five hundred crowns. The masters formerly had the power of life and death over this class of their dependents, but the government now restrains them from the exercise of capital jurisdiction, though they continue to inflict corporal punishment with great severity. Those slaves however are incomparably the best servants in Portugal; for the other domestics having the common pride of the nation, often prove refractory, and are apt to be extremely impertinent. Even beggars ask alms with a tone that favours more of requisition than intreaty; alledging that they are descended from



old Christians, or the ancient Gothic nobility; and if you give them no money, they must at least be dismissed with a compliment.

The ladies here often ride on *burras* or jack-asses, with a pack-saddle. A servant attends with a sharp stick, which he uses instead of a whip; and for retarding the beast, when it goes too quick, the expedient is to pull it by the tail. Coaches are not so frequent among the Portuguese as in Spain, but in place of them the litter or mule is commonly used on a journey; and in many parts the most usual way of travelling is by water.

The king of Portugal is an absolute sovereign; the cortes, or three estates of the nation, having long since relinquished their share in the legislature, and at present serving only to register such acts of state as they are required by the royal mandate to pass.

The laws of this country are contained in three volumes duodecimo. They are founded chiefly on the civil law and immemorial custom, both which however are frequently disregarded by the judges of the inquisition.

The duties on goods imported and exported are very high, and usually farmed out by the crown for the term of three years. Foreign merchandize pays 23 *per cent.* on importation; fish from Newfoundland 25 *per cent.* Those taken in their own seas and rivers, 47 *per cent.* and the duties on all lands and cattle that are sold, are 10 *per cent.* That on snuff alone is said to amount to fifty thousand crowns a year. The king likewise draws a considerable duty from every order of knights, of which he is grand-master; and the pope, in consideration of the vast sums which he annually derives from the kingdom, confers to the crown of Portugal the money arising from some of his bulls; those especially by which he grants a licence to eat flesh at prohibited times. The nobility are taxed only upon extraordinary occasions, and then very moderately.

Since the discovery of the rich mines in Brazil, the revenues of Portugal, including the domestic taxes above mentioned, can be but little inferior, if not equal, to those of any prince in Europe; notwithstanding which the forces of the kingdom are very inconsiderable. The military establishment, though now beginning to improve, has for many years consisted only of a raw and undisciplined militia; and with respect to naval force, the Portuguese are the least formidable of all the maritime powers. Their security against the encroachments of Spain seems to depend chiefly on the matrimonial connections of the two crowns, and on the commercial alliance which it is always the interest of Portugal to maintain with the British nation. Almost since the conclusion of the last peace, however, the trade and manufactures of Portugal seem to have turned into a new channel, occasioned, as has been alledged, by the caprice of the *marquis de Pombal*, who lately guided with uncontested authority the counsels of that nation. But we continue to import a great quantity of their wine, salt, and fruits, and much of their materials for manufacture.

In Portugal, nobility is not hereditary. The chief order of knighthood is called the *order of Christ*, and was instituted in 1383. Though worn by the king himself, it is often prostituted to the meanest candidates for royal favour, and is become so common, as almost to preclude the distinction which it was meant to confer. A late traveller of good credit informs us, that he saw a valet de chambre, the keeper of a billiard-table, and a musician, decorated with its insignia.

The religion of Portugal is the Roman Catholic; and a court of inquisition is established upon the same foundation as that of Spain. There are in the kingdom three archbishoprics, ten bishoprics, and three universities. Learning here seems to be in a condition even worse than in Spain. The *Lusiad* of Camoens may be said to be the only work of genius ever produced by a native of this country. In general, the fine arts are uncultivated; and with respect to that of painting, in particular, there is not in the whole kingdom a single picture from any of the Italian schools.

Portugal remained a province of Spain till towards the end of the eleventh century, when it was recovered from the Moors by Alphonso or Alonzo VI. king of Leon and Castile. This prince having requested the Christian powers to assist him in reducing the infidels, prince Henry, a younger son of Robert duke of Burgundy, among other volunteers of distinction, resorted to his aid. The youthful adventurer, in a short time, signalized himself so much by his zeal and activity as well as courage in the prosecution of the war, that the king married him to the princess Theresa, his natural daughter, and created him earl of Portugal, or rather of the northern provinces of that kingdom, which he had subdued, with a grant of the rest, as soon as they should be recovered from the Moors, upon condition that he should hold those territories of the kings of Castile and Leon, and attend them in their wars with three hundred horse, on any emergency that might require such service. Henry dying in 1112, left an infant, surnamed Alphonso, during whose minority the government was administered by Ferdinand Pacis, who had married Henry's mother after the death of her former husband. The young prince, however, no sooner attained the age of manhood, than he compelled his father-in-law to quit Portugal, and confined his mother. Continuing to prosecute the war against the Moors, he made himself master of all the southern provinces as far as the mountains of Algarva, and assumed the title of king of Portugal.

Towards the middle of the thirteenth century, Alphonso III. marrying Beatrice, the natural daughter of the king of Castile, he received with her the province of Algarva, then lately recovered from the Moors, by which acquisition Portugal obtained the same boundaries that have ever since divided it from Spain. It was not, however, till the reign of Emanuel, near the end of the fifteenth century, that the Portuguese extended their conquests beyond the limits of their own kingdom. Then their fleets first passed the Cape of Good Hope, and arrived in India. In consequence of the discoveries they made in this voyage, they immediately

monopolized the trade of the fine spices, silks, diamonds, and other rich merchandises of the East, which the Venetians, and other maritime powers in the Mediterranean, had been accustomed to bring to Europe by the way of Egypt and the Levant. Extending their researches likewise in the other quarters of the world, they about the same time planted Brazil in South-America, and established settlements on the east coast of Africa, whence such treasures were imported, as occasioned this reign to receive the denomination of the golden age.

Emanuel dying in 1521, was succeeded by his son John II. who likewise planted colonies in Asia, Africa, and America. Nor was he less celebrated both for propagating the Christian religion in those countries, and encouraging the cultivation of arts and sciences at home. On the death of this prince, the crown descended to his grandson, Don Sebastian, who with the flower of the Portuguese nobility, was slain in battle, in endeavouring to restore Muley Hamet, king of Morocco, who had been deposed by his nephew. The royal family of Portugal becoming extinct by this accident, Philip II. king of Spain, took advantage of the general confusion which prevailed about the choice of another sovereign, and sent the duke of Alva with a powerful army to invade the kingdom. The Spanish general obtained two victories over prince Anthony, natural son of king John, whom the people had set up; and notwithstanding the English had espoused his interest, Portugal remained a province of the Spanish monarchy during a period of sixty years.

The impolitic conduct of Philip proved no less prejudicial to the interests of Portugal than to those of his own hereditary dominions. Being at this time employed in endeavouring to suppress the revolt of the Netherlands, he imagined his purpose might be greatly forwarded, by prohibiting the inhabitants of those provinces from carrying on any traffic with Spain and

Portugal, as formerly; not doubting but by such a restriction, they might be induced to submit to whatever terms he should prescribe. This project, however, was followed with an effect very different from what he expected. For the Dutch being denied the privilege of purchasing the commodities of India and America from the subjects of Spain, fitted out strong fleets, with which they not only imported the produce of the Indies into Europe, but drove the Portuguese from all their best settlements in those countries.

The Spaniards being weakened by a long and expensive war with France, and the attention of the government being likewise occupied by a revolt of the Catalans, the Portuguese began to form the project of rescuing their country from the dominion of a foreign power, under the odious yoke of which the wealth and commerce of their nation had been declining for upwards of half a century. With this view an offer of the crown was privately made to the duke of Braganza, who was a popular nobleman, and the next in blood to their former princes. At first he hesitated to accept the proposal, till urged, as is said, by his lady, a woman of great spirit, and descended from the family of Melina Sidonia, he voluntarily acquiesced in the scheme.

This revolution, which took place on the first of December, 1640, is one of the most extraordinary that occurs in the history of any nation. Though the design had been communicated to above three hundred persons, and a complete year was taken up in preparations to insure its success, the conspiracy remained unknown to the court of Spain, till it was almost upon the point of being carried into execution; and it was at last effected in an instant, without more than the lives of two persons being lost in the tumult. Since that time the crown has continued in the family of the duke of Braganza, or John IV. from whom the present queen of Portugal is the fourth in descent.

## M I N O R C A.

**T**HE island of Minorca is situated in the Mediterranean, between thirty-nine and forty degrees of north latitude, and in near four degrees of east longitude. It is in length from south-east to north-west about thirty-three miles, and in breadth from eight to twelve miles, but generally about ten. The coasts are much indented by the sea, which forms a number of little creeks and inlets, that might some of them be rendered very advantageous.

The climate is temperate, except from June to the middle of September, when it is very hot, and the rainy season follows; but during seven months of the year the country is extremely pleasant. The north, north-east, and north-west winds generally blow from the middle of September to the middle of March, and though wholesome to the inhabitants, yet are very unfavourable to the fruit-trees which are exposed to them.

The face of the island is diversified with rising grounds, but there is properly no more than one mountain in the island. In the valleys, for want of a sufficient declivity, the rains settle in many places, and the grounds are marshy. The soil in the flat country is light and sandy; but on the sides of the hills and in the intervening valleys, black, rich, and fertile, and may be every where cultivated without any degree of labour. The principal defect is in respect of water, of which, except what is saved from rain in cisterns, there is little either palatable or healthy. The island produces excellent wheat, though not enough for the consumption of the inhabitants; as also barley, and some Indian corn. Here is great plenty of vines, bearing both white and red grapes, from which they make a considerable quantity of wine. There are likewise olives, dates, almonds, oranges, lemons, limes, pome-

pomegranates, figs, &c. Hemp and flax grow in great perfection; and from some trials which have been made, the island might produce excellent cotton. The kitchen gardens are exceedingly well stocked, and the vegetables they produce are not inferior to those of any other country. Nor must it be forgotten that the honey of Minorca is likewise reputed excellent.

The black catle upon this island are small in size, and in general lean, occasioned chiefly by the carelessness of the people, who dislike fat. The sheep are also small, and their wool neither coarse nor fine, but such as furnishes the inhabitants with cloth for their own wear; and some of their wool they likewise export. Goats are larger in proportion, but are eat only by the poorer sort of people. The swine are large, and afford great plenty of excellent meat. Here are no deer or hares, but rabbits are very numerous. The breed of horses is small, and though they seem to have spirit, have little strength. For want of grass and hay, they are fed with chopped straw and a little barley mixed. The asses, however, are large, and are used both for the saddle and plough. The mules are also large, and fit for all kinds of service. Here are all kinds of domestic fowl, of the best kinds; with variety of wild-fowl and water-fowl, besides many birds of passage. Eels, smelts, and various kinds of shell-fish, may be had in abundance. Here are no wild beasts, but many birds of prey, such as eagles, hawks, and owls. There are also snakes, vipers, scorpions, with some other troublesome reptiles and insects, yet not in such numbers as might be expected in so warm and moist a country.

In the bowels of the earth are found iron, copper, and lead ores, of none of which, except the last, has any use been hitherto made by the inhabitants; and even the working of this is said to have been long discontinued. Here are also great quantities of marble, very beautiful, and finely variegated; with free-stone and lime-stone in plenty, as well as an excellent kind of slate.

Minorca is divided into districts, which they call terminos. Of these there were anciently five, but they are now reduced to four, and resemble our counties. The termino of Ciudadella at the north-eastern extremity of the island, is so named from a place which was once a city, and the capital of Minorca. In its present state of decay the place makes a venerable and majestic figure, having in it a large Gothic cathedral, with some other churches and convents, the governor's palace, and an exchange, which is no contemptible building. It contains six hundred houses, which, before the seat of government and the courts of justice were removed to Mahon, were fully inhabited; and here are yet more gentlemen's families than in all the rest of the island. It has a port commodious enough for the vessels employed in the trade of this country, which, though in the possession of a maritime power, is less than it formerly was.

The next termino is that of Fererias, a narrow slip reaching across from sea to sea, and little cultivated. It is united to the termino of Mercandal, in which stands Mont-toro, in the centre of the island. On the summit of this mountain is a convent, where even in

the hottest months the monks enjoy a cool air, and at all times a most delightful prospect. About six miles hence, to the northward, is situated the castle that covers port Fornelle, a spacious harbour on the east side of the island, but difficult to those who are unacquainted with it, on account of shoals and foul ground. At a small distance from it lies another harbour, called Adala, which runs far into the land, but is at present little used. The adjacent country, however, is said to be the pleasantest and most healthful in the island, and almost the only part that is plentifully supplied with excellent spring-water.

Another termino is Afsior, in which there is nothing remarkable but the capital of the same name, well situated on an eminence in a pleasant and tolerably cultivated country.

The termino of Mahon, at the south-east end of the island, is at present the most considerable district, and contains nearly one half of the inhabitants in Minorca. The town of Mahon stands on an eminence on the west side of the harbour, having a pretty steep ascent, and is said to have been founded by the Carthaginian general Mago. There are in it a large church, three convents, the governor's palace, and some other public buildings. The town is large, but the streets are narrow, winding, and ill paved. The fortress of St. Philip stands near the entrance of the harbour, which it covers, and is of great strength. Port Mahon is allowed to be the finest harbour in the Mediterranean, about ninety fathoms wide at its entrance, but within very large and safe, stretching a league or more into the land. Beneath the town of Mahon is a fine quay, one end of which is reserved for the ships of war, and furnished with all the accommodations necessary for careening and refitting them; the other end serving for merchant vessels. On the other side of the harbour is Cape Mola, well situated for a fortress.

The town of Mahon derives many advantages from its elevated situation, for besides enjoying an extensive prospect and a cool air, it is even in summer almost free from musquetoes. It is also the principal place of commerce in the island, as well as the seat of government.

A disease extremely frequent in this island is the tertian fever, or ague, which an intelligent surgeon lately gone thither imputes to the influence of two causes. One is the general practice of watering the gardens too much; which, joined to their being closely planted with succulent vegetables, occasions a copious exhalation of putrid vapours. Another cause is, with great probability, supposed to be the soft nature of a species of stone much used in building, which being easily penetrated by water, renders the houses very unhealthy. It is to be hoped, from the residence of this judicious gentleman upon the spot, that the inhabitants of Minorca will adopt such improvements, in consequence of his observations, as may render the island less liable to those diseases with which it has hitherto been infected.

Minorca is one of the islands which were termed by the Romans the Balears. After being successively occupied by various nations, in ancient times, and lastly by Spain, it was reduced by the British arms

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*A Kamtchadal in his full dress in 1768.*



*The whole dress says V. Abbe' Chappe, is made of the skins of  
Rein Deers, Dogs, Seals, and Birds, sewed together without  
any choice, and dyed of different colours. On the back and sleeves  
they sew narrow pieces of Cloth and Skin, with Tassels of Thread  
and Leather.*

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in 1708; since which period, except a short interruption during the last war with France, it has remained part of the territory of this crown. By the capitulation made with general Stanhope at the time when it fell into our hands, the inhabitants were allowed the free exercise of their religion, with their ancient form of government, which is entirely modelled on the feudal system. The whole rental of the landed property in the island does not exceed twelve thousand pounds per annum, and of this sum the public revenue amounts to about one third. The number of priests secular and regular, with that of the nuns, is about three hundred; and the number of the inhabitants, about two years after the island was restored to us at

the last peace, was between eighteen and twenty thousand. Our usual establishment consists of a governor, deputy-governor, &c. with five regiments, the expence of which, including the staff and subsistence, may amount to about seventy thousand pounds a year, exclusive of the ordnance and marine, the repairs of buildings, and other contingencies. This charge, however, is compensated by its great importance, in affording refreshments and accommodation to our squadrons in the Mediterranean, as well as protection to our trade. In time of war it is a constant baffle, on the ports of Marseilles and Toulon; and its vicinity to the ports of Spain is another advantage resulting from the possession of it.

### M A J O R C A

**M**AJORCA is about sixty miles in length, and forty-five in breadth. The north and west parts of this island are mountainous, but not barren; and the others are not only level, but well cultivated, abounding in corn-fields, vineyards, and orchards, besides exceeding rich pastures. The air, though very hot in the summer, is generally not unwholesome; and the island is well supplied with water. It has several good harbours, and anchoring places; and the whole is encompassed with strong towers, whence the approach of an enemy may be observed at a distance.

The capital is Majorca, the ancient Palma, seated on a bay between two capes, in 39 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and in 2 degrees 36 minutes of east longitude, on the west side of the island. It is a large town, fortified in the modern taste: the streets are broad, the houses stately, and the squares spacious. Of the latter the largest is that of Born, which is encompassed with grand buildings, whence the principal inhabitants view the bull-fights and other shews. Here are no less than twenty-two churches, besides

chapels and oratories. The cathedral is a magnificent structure, the bishop of which is suffragan to the archbishop of Valencia. The town likewise contains a university and a court of inquisition; and the inhabitants are computed at about ten thousand. This city was taken by the English in 1706, and retaken in 1715.

Besides the capital, Majorca contains several other towns; and round it lies a considerable number of small islands. One of these is Cabrera, so called from its abounding with goats. This island, now allotted for exiles, is mountainous, and inhabited only on the borders of its spacious and secure harbour, the entrance of which fronts Majorca, and is defended by a castle with a small garrison. Les Bledes was formerly a populous island, and is still distinguished for a quarry of fine marble. Dragonera is uninhabited, and produces only an excellent bird called a Spaniard. Here is, however, a small fortress on a hill, called Mount Popia.

### I V I C A

**A**BOUT fifty-six miles south-west of Majorca lies the island of Ivica, the ancient Ebusus, about five miles long, and four broad. Though mountainous, the soil is not unfruitful; but the inhabitants following chiefly the salt-trade, it is little cultivated. It however produces pines, and fruit-trees of various kinds. Ivica, the capital, is fortified in the modern manner, and is the residence of the governor, from

whom lies an appeal to the royal audience at Majorca. Formentera, the ancient Ophiusa, and Colluberia, or the Adder Island, was formerly well inhabited, but is at present abandoned, on account of the African corsairs, that continually swarm about it. The only animal here observed is a kind of wild ass; but the island is furnished with some harbours, and good anchoring places.

## E N G L A N D.

## C H A P. I.

*Of the counties of Kent and Suffex.*

**E**NGLAND, or the southern division of Great Britain, is situate in the Atlantic Ocean, between 50 and 56 degrees of north latitude, and between 2 degrees of east, and 6 degrees 20 minutes of west longitude. It is bounded on the north by Scotland; on the east by the German Ocean; on the south by the English Channel, which separates it from France; and on the west by St. George's Channel, which divides it from Ireland. Including Wales, its length from south to north is three hundred and sixty miles, and its greatest breadth three hundred; but in the northern parts it is not more than a hundred miles broad.

The weather in England is subject to great vicissitudes; but, except in the fens and marshy grounds, the air is generally healthful, and is warmer than in those countries on the continent which lie under the same parallel.

The greater part of the country is champain, diversified with rising grounds, and exhibiting a beautiful intermixture of arable and pasture land, inclosures, plantations, farm-houses, and elegant country seats. The most remarkable mountains are the Peak in Derbyshire, the Endle in Lancashire, the Wolds in Yorkshire, the Cheviot-hills in Northumberland, the Chiltern in Bucks, Malvern in Worcestershire, Cotswold in Gloucestershire, and the Wrekin in Shropshire; with those of Plinlimmon and Snowdon in Wales.

The principal rivers are, 1. The Thames, which rises on the confines of Gloucestershire, whence being joined by several other streams, it passes to Oxford, afterwards by Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windsor. At Kingston it formerly met with the tide, but since the building of Westminster-bridge, this is said to flow no higher than Richmond. Below London the Thames divides the counties of Kent and Essex, and widening in its progress, falls into the sea at the Nore, between which place and the capital it is navigable for large vessels. 2. The river Medway, which rises near Tunbridge, falls into the mouth of the Thames at Sheerness, and is navigable for the largest ships as far as Chatham, where the men of war are laid up. 3. The Severn has its source at Plinlimmon-hill in North-Wales: becoming navigable at Welch-Pool, it runs east to Shrewsbury; whence turning south it visits Bridgnorth, Worcester, and Tewksbury, where it receives the Upper Avon. Having passed Gloucester, it directs its course to the south-west, and being increased near its mouth by the

Wye and Uſtre, it discharges itself into the Bristol Channel near King-road, where lie the large vessels, which cannot get up to Bristol. 4. The Trent rises in the Moorlands of Staffordshire, and running south-east by Newcastle-under-Line, divides that county into two parts: then turning north-east on the confines of Derbyshire, it visits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnshire, and being joined by the Ouse, and several other rivers towards the north, it obtains the name of, the Humber, and falls into the sea south-east of Hull.

The other rivers of note are, the Ouse, which falls into the Humber. Another river of the same name rises in Bucks, and discharges itself into the sea, near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tyne runs from west to east through Northumberland, and falls into the German Sea at Tinmouth below Newcastle. The Tees runs in the same direction, dividing Durham from Yorkshire, and falls likewise into the German Sea below Stockton. The Tweed also runs from west to east, on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the sea at Berwick. The Eden runs from north to south through Westmorland and Cumberland, and passing by Carlisle, falls into Solway Firth below that city. The Lower Avon runs west through Wiltshire to Bath, and then dividing Somersetshire from Gloucestershire, runs to Bristol, below which city it falls into the mouth of the Severn. The Derwent runs from east to west through Cumberland, and passing by Cocker-mouth, falls into the Irish Sea a little below. The Ribble runs from west to east through Lancashire, and passing by Preston, discharges itself into the Irish Sea. The Mersey runs from the south-east to the north-west through Cheshire, whence, after dividing that county from Lancashire, it passes by Liverpool, and falls into the Irish Sea a little below that town. The Dee rises in Wales, and dividing Flintshire from Cheshire, falls into the Irish Channel below Chester.

At present the lakes in England are few, but it is evident from the face of the country in some places, as well as from ancient documents, that meads and fens have been very frequent in former times, until they were drained and converted into arable land. The chief lakes that remain are, Sokam-mere, Wittlesca-mere, and Ramsfey-mere, in the Isle of Ely in Cambridgeshire. All these in a rainy season are overflowed, and form a lake of forty or fifty miles in circumference. Winander-mere lies in Westmorland, and in Lancashire there are some small lakes, which go by the name of Derwent waters.

Under the first Norman kings, immense tracts of land in different parts of England were converted into forests, for the benefit of hunting; but out of sixty-nine which once existed, the principal now remaining

are those of Windſor, New-Foreſt, the Foreſt of Dean, and Sherwood Foreſt. Thoſe foreſts produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, aſh, and beech, walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of timber. In ancient times England likewiſe contained large woods of cheſnut trees, which were excellent for building, as yet appears from the beams and roofs in ſome great houſes, which, though upwards of ſix hundred years old, remain undecayed.

England, including Wales, is divided into fifty-two counties; viz. Bedfordſhire, Berkſhire, Buckinghamſhire, Cambridgeſhire, Cheſhire, Cornwall, Cumberland, Derbyſhire, Devonſhire, Dorſetſhire, Durban, Eſſex, Glouceſterſhire, Hampſhire, Herefordſhire, Herefordſhire, Huntingdonſhire, Kent, Lancaſhire, Leiceſterſhire, Lincolnſhire, Middleſex, Monmouthſhire, Norfolk, Northamptonſhire, Northumberland, Nottinghamſhire, Oxfordſhire, Rutlandſhire, Shropſhire, Somerſetſhire, Staffordſhire, Suffolk, Surry, Suſſex, Warwickſhire, Weſtmoreland, Wiltsire, Worceſterſhire, Yorkſhire, Angleſea, Brecknockſhire, Caermarthenſhire, Caernarvonſhire, Cardiganſhire, Denbighſhire, Flintſhire, Glamorganſhire, Merionethſhire, Montgomeryſhire, Pembrokeſhire, Radnorſhire.

We ſhall begin with the deſcription of Kent, as being ſituated neareſt to the Continent.

The county of Kent is bounded on the ſouth by the Engliſh Channel and Suſſex, on the weſt by Surry, on the north by the Thames and the German Sea, and on the eaſt by the ſame ſea. It extends in length from eaſt to weſt fifty-fix miles, and in breadth thirty-fix. As a great part of this county lies upon the ſea, the air is frequently thick, foggy, and warm, but in the higher and more inland parts it is reckoned very healthy. The ſoil is generally rich, abounding not only in corn, and orchards of cherries, apples, and other fruit, but in hops. The ſouth and weſt parts of Kent are well ſtocked with oak, beech, and cheſnut-trees; and here are likewiſe many woods of birch, whence the broom-makers in and about London are abundantly ſupplied. This county alſo produces woad and madder for dyers, with plenty of ſamphire, hemp, and ſaint-foin. The cattle of all ſorts are reckoned larger here than in the neighbouring counties; and the ſouth part, or the Weald, is remarkable for bullocks of a great ſize. Here are ſeveral parks of fallow-deer, and warrens of grey rabbits. The county alſo abounds in ſea and freſh-water fiſh, and is particularly famous for large oysters. Kent affords ſome mines of iron, but is not remarkable for any ſort of manufacture, its trade conſiſting chiefly in thoſe articles which are its natural produce.

This county is divided into five lathes, which are ſubdivided into fourteen bailiwicks, and theſe into ſixty-eight hundreds. A lath is a diſiſion peculiar to Kent and Suſſex, and conſiſts of two or more bailiwicks, as a bailiwick does of two or more hundreds. Kent lies partly in the dioceſe of Canterbury, and partly in that of Rocheſter. It contains four hundred and eight pariſhes, two cities, and twenty-nine market-towns. The two cities are Canterbury and Rocheſter; and the market-towns are Aſhford, Bromley, Cranbrook, Crayford, &c.

Canterbury lies fifty-fix miles ſouth-eaſt of London, in 51 degrees 17 minutes north latitude, and in 1 degree 15 minutes of eaſt longitude, reckoning from Greenwich obſervatory. It is ſituated in a pleaſant valley about a mile wide, ſurrounded by hills of moderate height and eaſy aſcent, and is watered in ſeveral places by the river Stour. This city is ſaid to have been built by one Rudhurdras, or Lud Rudibras, a king of the Britons, about nine hundred years before the Chriſtian æra. But that it was a place of importance in the time of the Romans, appears from the Itinerary of Antoninus, from the coins dug up here, and from remains of a military Roman way, leading hence to Dover and the town of Limme near Hithe. The cathedral church of this city was partly built in the time of the Romans, by Lucius, the firſt Chriſtian king of the Britons, and was uſed as a place of worſhip by thoſe of the ſame perſuaſion, till they were driven beyond the Severn by the Saxons. About the year 600, Ethelbert, king of Kent, a pagan, being converted by St. Auguſtine, he gave the latter this church, with his palace and the territories belonging to the city, upon which the archiepiſcopal ſee was removed hither from London. Auguſtine immediately repaired the cathedral, and conſecrated it by the name of Chriſt Church, but in 1011, it was plundered and burnt, with the reſt of the city by the Danes. King Canute having repaired it, preſented to it his crown of gold, but in 1043, it was again much injured by fire. Archbiſhop Lanfranc afterwards totally rebuilt it, as well as the palace, and dedicated it anew to the Holy Trinity; but in the reign of Henry the Firſt, it was again dedicated in preſence of the king and queen, David king of Scotland, and many of the biſhops and nobility of both kingdoms, by the name of Chriſt Church. In the year 1174, it was once more deſtroyed by fire, but was begun to be rebuilt in the reign of king Stephen, though not completed till that of Henry the Fifth. This Cathedral, before the Reformation, had no leſs than thirty-seven altars. Here lie interred the bodies of Henry the Fourth, and his queen, Joan, beſides thoſe of ſix other kings, Edward the Black Prince, and other eminent perſonages. St. Auguſtine, with the ſeven archbiſhops that immediately ſucceeded him, lie buried in one vault, on a marble in which were engraved the following verſes.

Septem ſunt Angli primates & protopatres,  
Septem rectores, ſeptem cœloque triones;  
Septem ciſternæ vitæ, ſeptemque lucernæ;  
Et ſeptem palmæ regni, ſeptemque coronæ,  
Septem ſunt ſtellæ, quas hæc tenet area cellæ.

In this church was a ſhrine of Thomas Becket, archbiſhop of Canterbury, ſo rich, by the offerings made to it for ſeveral ages, that, according to the account of the celebrated Erasmuſ, the chapel glittered all over with jewels of incalculable value, and through the whole church there appeared a profuſion of more than royal ſplendor. At the general diſſolution of religious houſes, the plate and jewels belonging to this tomb only, filled two great cheſts, each of which required eight men to remove it.



The cathedral is a noble Gothic pile, in the form of a cross, five hundred and fourteen foot long, seventy-four foot broad, and eighty foot high from the area of the nave to the canopy. Underneath is a large church of foreign Protestants, given first by queen Elizabeth to the Walloons, who fled hither from Artois and other provinces of the Netherlands, during the time of the persecution in those parts. The houses of the prebendaries, with other buildings, form a spacious clofe.

The buildings of this city are neither grand nor elegant, but there is a good market-house, over which are apartments where the magistrates transact the affairs of the corporation. Besides the cathedral, here are sixteen parish churches, with a free-school, and three charity-schools, for fifty-eight boys and sixty-six girls. Here also are seven hospitals, one of which, called Bridewell, is a house of correction, and a place for the reception of poor townsmen's boys. Here is a noble conduit, erected by archbishop Abbot, who died in 1633, which is of great benefit to the city.

The name given to Canterbury by the Romans was *Durovernum* and *Darvernum*, which some derive from the British word *Durnburn*, which is said to signify a rapid river, and to have been applied to this town on account of the impetuosity with which the Stour flows through it.

This city was surrounded by strong walls, chiefly of flint, and fortified by a great number of towers, a deep ditch on the out-side, and a rampart within. Here also was a castle supposed to have been built by the Saxons, a part of which is still visible on the fourth side of the city. The two gates of a monastery dedicated to St. Augustine, yet remain, and are both very stately. This monastery, which occupied a great deal of ground, and the site of which is surrounded with a very high wall, was for some time the burying-place of the kings and archbishops.

Rochester is situated in a valley on the east of the Medway, at the distance of twenty-nine miles from London, and next to Canterbury, is the most ancient see of a bishop in England. It is a small city, consisting chiefly of one broad, but ill-built street, and having no more than one parish church and the cathedral. The town is nearly surrounded with a wall, of little strength, on the south-east and west sides of which are large suburbs. Some part of an old castle, said to have been built by William the Conqueror, is yet standing, and used as a magazine. Many lands in the county are still held by the tenure of castle-guard, or upon condition that the tenant should mount guard in his turn. At present, however, a composition is taken for this service, and the payment of it is strictly exacted. Upon a day appointed, a flag is hung out from the castle, and all tenants who do not then appear, and pay their quit-rents, are liable to have their rents doubled at every tide of the Medway.

The best buildings in the place, except the churches, are the town house, and a charity-school. A mathematical school was founded here in the reign of queen Anne, by Sir Joseph Williamson. Here is a bridge over the Medway, built in the reign of Henry the Fourth, by Sir John Cobham, and Sir Robert Knowles,

with money which they had raised from spoils taken in France. It consists of twenty-one arches, and is one of the best bridges in England, next to those of London, Westminster, and Black-friars. For keeping this bridge in repair, certain lands were appropriated by act of parliament, in the reign of king Richard the Third, and by two other acts in the reign of queen Elizabeth.

In several of the creeks of the Medway, within the jurisdiction of Rochester, there is an oyster-fishery, at present in a very flourishing condition, which may be occupied by every person who has served seven years apprenticeship to any fisherman or dredger that is free of the city.

The castle at Rochester is supposed to have been built by William the Conqueror, and the cathedral by Ethelbert, king of Kent, who dedicated it to St. Andrew, and made Rochester an episcopal see. The latter of those buildings was repaired in the time of William the Conqueror, by Gundolph, bishop of the diocese, who is said to have been skilled in architecture. On the north side of the north-west tower of the cathedral, is the effigy of the prelate; and here are walls four yards thick, the remains of a great tower which has been denominated from him.

The ancient military way, called Watling-street, which crosses Kent from Shooter's Hill to Dover, runs directly through this city.

On the opposite side of the river lies Chatham, a suburb to Rochester, and a station for the royal navy. The dock at this place was begun by queen Elizabeth, and has been so much improved by her successors, that at present it may be esteemed the most complete arsenal in the world. The houses of the commissioners and other officers are in general handsome, and the public buildings even magnificent. This important station is defended by two castles, which are those of Upnor and Gillingham. The former stands on the west side of the river, and was built by queen Elizabeth. Its platform carries thirty-seven guns, that command two reaches of the river. Gillingham castle is also well furnished with artillery, there being no less than a hundred and seventy embrasures for cannon.

On a point of Shepey island, where the West Swale of the Medway falls into the Thames, stands the fort of Sheerness, erected by Charles the Second. Here is a line of cannon, facing the mouth of the river, with good apartments for the officers of the ordnance, navy and garrison. Here is also a yard and dock, as an appendix to Chatham. The chief town in Shepey is Queenborough, a mean dirty place, the inhabitants of which subsist entirely by fishing. This island, which received its name on account of the great number of sheep usually fed here, is thought by Camden to have been the *Toliatis* of Ptolemy. In the marshy parts of the island are several tumuli, called by the inhabitants *coterels*, in which some Danish officers are supposed to be buried.

Proceeding along the north coast of Kent, from the mouth of the Thames, the first town of note is Milton, otherwise Middletown, so named from its situation in the middle of the country, reckoning from Deptford to the Downs. It stands upon a branch of the Thames, called

called the East Swale, about forty-four miles from London. Here is a great fishery for oysters, esteemed the best in Kent, of which vast quantities are sent to the capital.

Faversham is situated forty-eight miles south-east of London, in the pleasantest part of the county, having the conveniency of a creek that communicates with the East Swale of the Medway, and is navigable for hoys. The town consists chiefly of one long broad street. From this place the London markets are supplied with abundance of apples, cherries, and the best oysters for stewing. Of the latter of these articles the Dutch take so great a quantity, that an incredible number of men and boats is employed here in the winter to dredge for them. It is computed that the value of the oysters taken annually from Faversham by the Dutch, amounts to two thousand, or two thousand five hundred pounds, at the first purchase. A few years ago this town was notorious for running wine, brandy, tea, coffee, and other goods, from France and Holland, and likewise for exporting wool, by means of the Dutch oyster-boats. This town is of great antiquity, and appears to have been a royal demesne in the year 802, when it was called in king Kenulph's charter, the King's Little Town. In 903, king Athelstan summoned a great council here, in which several laws were enacted. Here also a stately abbey was built by king Stephen, who, with his queen Maud, and their son Eustace, lies buried in it. At present, the only remains of this abbey are two mean gate-houses.

Reculver, the Regulbium of the Romans, stands on the sea-side about eight miles north-east of Canterbury. From the great number of Roman antiquities which have here been discovered, it appears to have been a very considerable place in former times. It is said, that about the year 205, the emperor Severus built here a castle, which he fortified against the Britons; and that Ethelbert, one of the kings of Kent, erected at this place a palace, the compass of which is yet visible, from the ruins of an old wall.

In the neighbourhood of Reculver begins the island of Thanet, which occupies the north-east corner of the county, and is formed by the sea and the river Stour. This was the first place given to the Saxons by the British king Vortigern, when he requested their assistance against the Scots and Picts; and here it was that the Danes commenced their ravages in England. On the eastern extremity of the isle of Thanet, is the point called the North Foreland, which is declared by act of parliament to be the most southern part belonging to the port of London; the jurisdiction of which, according to the same act, extend northward to a point called the Naze, on the east of Essex. All the towns and harbours between London and those places, whether on the Kentish or Essex shore, are considered as members of the port of London. Among other small towns in the isle of Thanet are Ramsgate, and Margate, whither company resorts much in summer, for the benefit of sea-bathing.

The town of Sandwich is situated at the bottom of a bay, near the mouth of the river Stour, seventy No. 28.

miles distant from London. This is one of the cinque-ports, but the harbour has been for many years choaked up with sand, that it can receive only small vessels. The town was once surrounded by a wall, which is still standing on the north and west sides. On the south and east it is secured by a rampart and ditch. It supplies the London markets with carrots, and the feedmen with the greater part of their stock for the kitchen garden; but the chief trade of the town consists in shipping and malting. Before Sandwich gates are two Roman tumuli, and southward, on the sea-shore, are six large Celtic tumuli.

About a mile north of Sandwich on the bank of the Stour, lies Richborough, the Rutupia of the Romans, in whose time it was a flourishing city. Before the port was choaked up with sand, it was also a famous harbour, and was the place where the Roman forces usually landed, as well as embarked for the continent. Here the Romans built a castle, which was destroyed by the Danes; as was likewise the ancient town, the site of which is now a corn-field, where, when the corn is grown up, the course of the several streets may easily be discovered, by the crop being thinner than in other places. On three sides the walls of the city are almost entire, and in some places twenty-five or thirty foot high, without any ditch. Some vestiges remain of the walls of a tower, built with flints and long bricks, of the old British form, and cemented with sand in such a manner as to be rendered inseparable.

Deal is situated in the east of Kent, seventy-two miles distant from London. Here almost all foreign ships, bound to and from London, and foreign parts, by way of the channel, generally stop; if homeward bound, to dispatch letters notifying their arrival in the Downs, and to set passengers ashore; if outward bound, to take in fresh provisions, and to receive their last letters from their owners and friends. This town has a castle for the security of the coast, which is also defended by one at Walmer, on the south, and the castle of Sandown on the north, all built by king Henry VIII. The latter of those castles consists of four lunettes, of thick arched stone-work, with many port-holes for great guns. In the center is a large round tower, with a cistern at top, and underneath is an arched cavern, bomb proof. The whole is encompassed by a fosse, over which is a draw-bridge.

Here Julius Cæsar is supposed to have landed, in his second descent upon Britain, on the 26th of August. The sea-shore at this place is thrown up into long ridges, like ramparts, which some imagine to have been done by the wind, but Camden supposes to have been the work of Julius Cæsar; and this opinion seems to be favoured by the name of *Rome's work*, the appellation by which the neighbouring inhabitants distinguish them.

In the south-east corner of Kent is a promontory, called South Foreland, which shelters the coast on that quarter, as does North Foreland on the other. Between those two promontories lie the Downs, which are so much used as a road for ships. This station is also sheltered by a natural bank, called Goodwin Sands;

running parallel to the shore, at the distance of a league and a half from it.

Dover is situated on the sea shore, seventy-one miles from London, in the narrowest part of the channel, which separates England from France; the cliffs of Calais being only ten leagues distant. The town stands under a semicircular range of chalky cliffs, and consists chiefly of one street, near a mile in length. It was formerly surrounded by a wall, in which were ten gates, but no vestiges of either now remain. The extremities of the cliffs are very lofty, and the harbour is farther secured by two piers; but it is fit only to receive small vessels, and not even such, except at high water. Above the piers is a fort with four bastions, and on the summit of the cliff are the remains of a castle, said to have been begun by Julius Cæsar, and finished by Claudius. The area of the fortification occupies thirty acres of ground, and the walls are yet standing, though most of the works are destroyed. Here are likewise the remains of a royal palace and chapel, with stables and other offices, from the ruins of which it appears that the buildings had been magnificent. One part of the remaining fortification is of a circular form, in which is an old church, in the figure of a cross, said to have been built by Lucius, the first Christian king in Britain, with some fragments of the Roman buildings that had fallen into ruins. The castle is supplied with water by a well three hundred and sixty foot deep, said likewise to be the work of Julius Cæsar; whence the water is raised by a wheel.

In the same castle are two very old keys, and a brass trumpet, shaped like a horn, said to have lain since the time of Julius Cæsar. Here is also a brass gun, reckoned the longest in the world, and of curious workmanship, which was presented by the states of Utrecht to queen Elizabeth, and is called her pocket-pistol. It measures twenty-two foot in length, requires fifteen pounds of powder, and, it is said, will carry a ball seven miles. The greatest curiosity in this town, however, is a Roman pharos, or watch-tower, standing at the west end of a church supposed to have been built by king Lucius. Upon a rock opposite the castle are the remains of another Roman watch-tower, called Bredensfonte, and by the vulgar, Devil's Drop, from the strength of the mortar. In this place the constable of the castle, who is always lord-warden of the cinque-ports, is sworn into his office.

Dover is one of the principal cinque-ports; and hence our packet-boats, in time of peace, go twice a week to France and Flanders.

Folkstone is situated within two or three miles of Dover. It has a harbour for small ships, and several hundred fishing boats belonging to it, which are employed at the season in catching mackerel for London. About Michaelmas the Folkstone barks, with others from the Sussex shore, sail to the coast of Suffolk and Norfolk, to catch herrings for the merchants of Yarmouth and Leostoff, considerable market-towns of those counties. From the great number of ancient coins and bricks frequently found about Folkstone, it appears

to have been a place of note in the time of the Romans. It also flourished under the Saxons, when it had five churches, four of which were destroyed in the reign of Edward the Confessor, by earl Godwin and his sons. In the south part of the town, there was a castle built by Esdbald, king of Kent, above a thousand years ago, which falling to decay about the year 1063, a fort was erected upon the same foundation, out of the materials of the old castle; and the ruins of this fort are yet visible. On a hill in the town, still called the Castle-hill, there was a watch-tower, now in ruins.

A little south from Folkstone, upon the sea-shore, in a bottom between two hills, stands a castle, called Sandgate Castle, built by king Henry the Eighth, to defend the fishing craft from privateers in time of war, and at present it mounts sixteen guns.

Hithe lies sixty-seven miles from London, and is a cinque-port; but the harbour is at present almost entirely obstructed with sand-banks. This town had anciently five parish-churches, which are now reduced to one. Here are two hospitals, and a charity-school for thirty-eight boys. Here the captain of the Turnacenses had his station, under the count of the Saxon shore; and between this place and Canterbury is a paved military way, called Stoney-street, which is obviously a Roman work.

At a little distance from Hithe is the small town of Limme, where, upon the side of a hill, are the remains of a castle, which included ten acres of land; and almost to the bottom of the marlies the ruins of Roman walls may be seen. There is the strongest reason to conclude that this was the *Portus Lemaniæ* of the Romans, though the port is now choked up with sand. It still retains the horn and caque, with other tokens of its ancient grandeur. Several coins and other Roman antiquities have been found in this neighbourhood; and Limme formerly was the place where the warden of the cinque-ports was sworn.

Rumney, distinguished by the name of New Rumney, is another of the cinque-ports, and is distant from London seventy-three miles. This town stands on a gravelly hill, in the middle of a marshy track of country, twenty miles long, and eight broad, called Rumney Marsh. The inhabitants subsist chiefly by grazing cattle in the marsh, which contains between forty and fifty thousand acres of firm fruitful land, the richest pasture in England. This track is supposed to have been once covered by the sea. Being very unwholesome, it is but thinly inhabited, though it includes two towns and nineteen parishes, so which great privileges have been granted. In this marsh great trees are often discovered, lying under ground, as black as ebony, but fit for use when dried in the sun.

Among the more interior towns in this county is Ashford, or Eshford, which takes its name from a neighbouring ford over a small river called the Esh, near the head of the Stour. It stands fifty-seven miles from London, and has a large church, which had formerly been collegiate.

Wye is about the same distance from London as the preceding town, and is situated on the bank of the river

river Stour, over which it has a bridge. The church at this place had likewise once been collegiate.

Maidstone is situated nearly in the center of Kent, upon the bank of the river Medway. It is a pleasant, large, and populous town. Here the courts of justice are always held, as are likewise, for the most part, the county assizes, and elections for knights of the shire. This town, however, is but one parish, of which the archbishop of Canterbury is rector, it being one of his peculiars, and served by his curate; but there are two parish churches; in one of which, dedicated to St. Faith, some Dutch inhabitants have divine service performed. Here is a fine stone bridge over the Medway, erected by an archbishop of Canterbury. At this place the river Len falls into the Medway; the tide flows quite up to the town, and carries barges of sixty tons. Maidstone was anciently reckoned the third among the principal cities of Britain. It appears to have been a Roman station, and Camden supposes it to be the Vagniacæ mentioned by Antoninus.

Near Aylesford, about four miles north of Maidstone, under the side of a very high chalky hill, is a heap of huge stones, some standing upright, others lying across, called by the people in the neighbourhood Kett's, or Keith-coty-house. It is supposed to be the tombs of two Danish princes, killed here in battle.

Tunbridge, or *the Town of Bridges*, was thus named on account of its bridges, of which it had five; one over the Medway, and the rest over different branches of that river. It stands twenty-nine miles from London. Most of the houses are ill built, and the streets worse paved. Here is a free-school, erected by Sir Andrew Judd, lord-mayor of London, a native of this place, who appointed the Skinner's Company trustees of the charity, on which an estate was settled by parliament, in the reign of queen Elizabeth. About four or five miles south of the town are Tunbridge Wells, situated at the bottom of three hills, called Mount Sinai, Mount Ephraim, and Mount Pleasant, on each of which are good houses, and fine fruit gardens; but the wells are supplied from a spring in the neighbouring parish of Spelhurst. The waters of these wells is a chalybeate, and reputed of great efficacy in weakness of the bowels, and some other chronical diseases. The principal well is walled in; and running from it are two paved walks, in one of which is a long covered gallery for a band of music, and for the convenience of the company in wet weather. Here is likewise a row of shops and coffee-rooms, with a public room for dancing. There is a good market on the other side, and behind the wells is a chapel of ease to the parish church, where divine service is performed twice a day during the months of June, July, and August, which is the season for drinking the waters. Seventy poor children are maintained here, by the contribution of the company at the wells, by which the chaplain likewise is chiefly supported.

Wrotham is twenty-five miles distant from London, and in the church are sixteen stalls, supposed to have been made for the clergy attending the arch-

bishop of Canterbury, who formerly had a palace here.

Gravefend is situated upon the Thames, opposite Tilbury Fort, in Essex, at the distance of twenty-two miles from London. King Richard II. granted the inhabitants of Gravefend and the small adjacent town, called Milton, the sole privilege of carrying passengers by water hence to London, at four pence the whole fare, or two pence a-head, which was confirmed by Henry VIII. but now the fare is nine pence a head in the tilt boat. Coaches ply here at the landing of passengers from London, to carry them to Rochester. All outward bound ships are obliged to anchor in this road, till they have been visited by the custom-house officers. For this purpose a centinel at a block-house gives notice by firing a musket. As the vessels outward bound generally take in provisions here, the place is full of seamen. The towns for several miles round Gravefend are supplied by it with garden-stuff, of which great quantities are also sent to London, where the asparagus of Gravefend is preferred to that of any other place.

Woolwich stands likewise on the river Thames, at the distance of nine miles from London. It is rendered considerable by a dock, the oldest in the kingdom, and by a gun-yard, called the warren or park. In this dock more ships have been built, than in any other two docks in the kingdom. In the warren, artillery of all kinds and dimensions is cast. A company of matrosses also is there employed to make up cartridges, and to charge bombs and gerradoes for the public service. At this place are many yards, warehouses, and magazines of military and naval stores; and an academy has lately been established for teaching mathematics, with whatever relates to the attack and defence of fortifications. A guard-ship is generally stationed here, especially in time of war; and the largest ships may safely ride at this place, even at low water.

Charlton, a pleasant village on the edge of Blackheath, in the road from Greenwich to Woolwich, is remarkable for a fair, held on St. Luke's Day, called Horn Fair. It consists of a frolicsome mob, which, after a printed summons, dispersed through the adjacent country, meets at a place called Cuckold's Point, near Deptford, whence the crowd marches in procession through that town and Greenwich, to Charlton, with horns of various kinds on their heads. This assembly used to be notorious for indecency and rudeness, but is now kept in tolerable order by constables, who are ordered to attend for that purpose; and a sermon is now preached at the church of Charlton in the fair-time.

Greenwich stands on the river Thames six miles from London, and is a pleasant and populous town. Here was formerly a royal palace, erected by Humphry, duke of Gloucester, who gave it the name of Placentia. It was enlarged by king Henry VII. and completed by his son, Henry VIII. who frequently resided here. The building having afterwards been much neglected, king Charles II. caused it to be pulled down, and began another structure, of which he lived to see the west wing

wing magnificently finished, at the expence of thirty-six thousand pounds. In 1694, this wing, with nine acres of ground belonging to it, was appropriated for a royal hospital, for aged and disabled seamen. The other wing was begun in the reign of king William, and finished in that of George II. The noble architecture, the delightful situation, and the ample endowment of this edifice, are not to be equalled in any other institution of the kind. Its hall, which is very superb, was finely painted by the late Sir James Thornhill. The number of seamen maintained in this hospital at a time, amounts to near two thousand, besides one hundred boys.

Here is a noble park, planted and walled in by king Charles II. whence is a delightful prospect of the city of London, the Thames, and the adjacent country. On the top of a steep eminence in this park, Humphry, duke of Gloucester, began a tower, which was finished by Henry VII. but afterwards demolished, and a royal observatory erected in its place, by Charles II. furnished with all sorts of mathematical instruments, besides a deep dry well for observing the stars in the day-time. This place is now commonly known by the name of Flamstead House, from Mr. Flamstead, formerly astronomer to the king.

There is still a royal palace in this town, but it is a small building, converted into apartments for the governor of the royal hospital, and the ranger of Greenwich park. The town of Greenwich is the chief harbour for the king's yachts.

Bromley is a small town, ten miles from London, on the road to Tunbridge. Of this parish the bishop of Rochester for the time being is rector, who has a palace at a little distance from the town, where there is a mineral spring, found to contain the same qualities as the Tunbridge water. At this place is a college, which was created and endowed by bishop Warner, in the reign of Charles II. for twenty widows of poor clergymen, with an allowance of twenty pounds a year to each, and fifty pounds to a chaplain.

At Keston, a village about three miles south of Bromley, is a fortification, the area of which is enclosed with very high treble ramparts, and deep ditches, almost two miles in compass. It is supposed to be a work of the Romans, but at what period is uncertain. Some observing that the river Ravensbourn rises at Keston Heath, near this camp, imagine it to be the same which Cæsar made, just before he passed the Thames in pursuit of Cassivolaunus; and suppose that the name Keston favours this conjecture, because the Britons called him Kæsar, and not Cæsar. But others, who think that Cæsar had not time to cast up such a work, or that if he had so employed his army, he would have mentioned the transaction in his Commentaries, are of opinion this is the remains of the ancient Noviomagus, which Camden, and after him Dr. Gale, place at Woodcot, or Woocot, near Epsom in Surry.

Dartford stands upon the river Darent, sixteen miles from London, on the road to Canterbury and Dover. It is a large handsome town, has a harbour for barges,

and a good corn-market, which is much frequented from all parts of the country.

On the south side of Black-heath, in a field called Great Stone Field, is an hospital named Mordaunt's College, from the founder Sir John Mordaunt, a Turkey merchant. It is a spacious edifice, and appropriated for the reception of decayed merchants. The number of pensioners is not limited; but the building and endowments will accommodate forty.

About a mile and a half west of Greenwich, upon the river Thames, stands Deptford, a populous place, though not a market-town. Here is a royal dock and yard, for building ships for the navy, with a number of store-houses. At this place is a college, commonly called Trinity-house of Deptford Strond. It was incorporated by king Henry VIII. and designed for the reception of decayed pilots, masters of ships, or their widows. The men are allowed twenty shillings, and the women sixteen shillings a month.

The inhabitants of Kent are said to have been the first in England that were converts to Christianity; and by their courage and resolution they retained some privileges, by a capitulation with William the Conqueror; particularly a tenure called Gavelkind. By virtue of this tenure, every man possessed of lands in the county is in a manner a freholder, not being bound by copyhold, customary tenure, or tenant right, as in other parts of England. Secondly, the male heirs, or in default of such, the female, share all the lands alike. Thirdly, the lands of a brother, if he has no legitimate issue, are divided among the surviving brethren. Fourthly, an heir, at the age of fifteen, is empowered to sell or alienate. Fifthly, though a person be convicted of felony or murder, the heirs shall enjoy the inheritance. To this custom alludes the Kentish proverb, "The father to the bough, and the children to the plough." But this privilege extends not to treason, piracy, outlawry, or abjuring the realm.

This county sends eighteen members to parliament; two knights of the shire for the county, two members for each of the cities of Canterbury and Rochester, two for each of the boroughs of Maidstone and Queenborough, and two for each of the four cinque-ports, Dover, Sandwich, Hithe, and R Romney.

#### S U S S E X.

The county of Sussex is bounded on the east and north-east by Kent; on the south by the British Channel; on the west by Hampshire; and on the north by Surry. It extends in length from east to west, sixty-five miles, and in breadth twenty-nine. The air of this county, along the sea-coast, proves agreeable to strangers, but the inhabitants are in general very healthy. In the northern parts, the air is foggy, but not unhealthy; and upon the Downs, in the middle of the county, it is reckoned exceeding pure.

The north part of Sussex abounds in woods, which not only supply the navy docks with much timber, but the iron works with fuel, and likewise afford mate-

materials for charcoal, of which great quantities are made. The middle part of the county is agreeably diversified with meadows, pastures, groves, and corn-fields, that produce wheat and barley; and in the south, towards the sea, are high hills, called the South Downs, consisting of a fat chalky soil, fertile both in corn and grass, and feeding vast multitudes of sheep, remarkable for very fine wool.

In the Weald of Suffex is found the fossil called talc, and towards the borders of Kent great quantities of iron ore, for the working of which there are here many forges, furnaces, and water-mills.

The principal rivers in this county are the Arun, the Adur, the Ouse, and the Rother. The Arun rises in a tract called St. Leonard's Forest, near Horsham, whence running a few miles westward, it turns due south, and passing by Arundel, discharges itself into the British channel. By an act of parliament passed in 1733, a new outlet was cut to this river, to improve its navigation, and it now carries ships of about a hundred tons burden, as high as Arundel, which lies three miles from the sea.

The Adur, otherwise called the Beeding, rises likewise in St. Leonard's Forest, and running almost parallel to the Arun, passes by Steyning and Bramber, from the latter of which towns it is sometimes called Bramber Water; falling afterwards into the British channel at New Shoreham.

The Ouse consists chiefly of two branches, one rising in the Forest of St. Leonard, near the spring of the Adur, and the other in the Forest of Worth, north of Cuckfield; near which place the two streams uniting, run south by Lewes, whence after a farther course of seven or eight miles, the river falls into the British channel, and forms a harbour, called Newhaven.

The Rother rises at Rotherfield, south-east of East Grinstead, and running towards the borders of Kent, divides into two streams, which again uniting, form an island, called Oxney Island, and afterwards fall into the British channel near Rye.

Other less considerable rivers in this county are the Lavant, the Cuckmeer, the Ashburn, and the Aften, all which, as well as those above described, are confined within the limits of Suffex.

None of the rivers in Suffex will admit a vessel of five hundred tons; and there are very few good ports in the county, for besides that the shore is much incommoded with rocks, there are many sand banks, which receive continual increase from the south-west winds, so frequent on this coast, especially in the winter.

The most general division of Suffex is into six rapes, a division peculiar to this county; and these are subdivided into sixty-five hundreds. In this county are, one city, which is Chichester, two boroughs, namely, Bramber and Seaford, and sixteen market-towns, viz. Arundel, Battel, Brightelmton, Cuckfield, East Grinstead, Hastings, Haylsham, Horsham, Lewes, Midhurst, Petworth, Rye, New Shoreham, Steyning, Terring, and Winchelsea.

Chichester derives its name from a Saxon word signifying the city of Cissa, and was thus called from

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Cissa, the second king of the South Saxons, who rebuilt it after it had been destroyed by some Saxon and Norwegian pirates, and made it the capital of his kingdom. It is situated sixty-three miles from London, surrounded by the Lavant on every side but the north, and is a neat compact city, inclosed by a stone wall, with four gates, answering to the four cardinal points. From each gate runs a street, terminating in the market-place, which forms the center of the city, and is adorned with a stone piazza, and a stately cross in the middle. The streets in general are broad, and the houses uniform and well built. Though the river is not deep enough near the city to make a good harbour, yet the place enjoys some foreign trade. Here is a great corn-market, and one of the most noted cattle-markets in England. Prodigious quantities of malt are made here, but the chief manufacture is that of needles. Chichester has been the see of a bishop since the time of William the Conqueror. Besides five parish churches, it has a cathedral, which, though small, is a neat building, and is adorned with a spire much admired for its strength and curious workmanship. Here is a bishop's palace, lately rebuilt, which is rather large than sumptuous, and, with the cathedral, and the houses of the prebendaries, occupies the whole quarter of the city between the west and south gates. Near Chichester are several villas of the nobility and gentry, which command a delightful prospect of the adjacent country and the sea.

In a flat low ground, on the west of Chichester, is the vestige of a Roman camp, called the Brill, which forms an oblong square, above half a mile long, and a quarter broad. It consists of a great rampart with a single grass, and is generally supposed to have been the first camp of the emperor Vespasian, after landing in Britain. Not far from the city, on the same side, is another camp, called Gonshill, likewise of an oblong form, and reputed to be of Roman origin.

On a hill north of the city of Chichester, called Rook's Hill, or Roche's Hill, is an ancient camp of an orbicular form, above a quarter of a mile in diameter, conjectured to have been thrown up by the Danes.

The town of Bramber lies forty-five miles from London, and is an ancient borough by prescription. It is separated into two parts, of which the most northerly, joining to Steyning, consists of mean buildings, and is half a mile distant from the other, which is distinguished by the name of Bramber-Street. Bramber was joined with Steyning in the writs for electing burgesses to parliament from the year 1298 to 1472; but since that time they have always elected as different boroughs. Here is a church, but neither a fair nor market.

Seaford lies fifty-five miles from London, and is a cinque port. It is a small fishing town, defended by a fortress; and has a charity-school, but no market.

Rye is distant from London sixty-four miles, and is an appendage to the cinque port of Hastings. It enjoys the same privilege with other cinque ports, and has sent members to parliament ever since the year 1368. This town is a peninsula, washed on the west and

South by the sea, and on the east by the Rother, it stands on the side of a hill, and has a delightful prospect. The houses are well built of brick, and the town is populous. Here is one of the largest parish churches in England, and a free grammar-school. There is also a small settlement of French refugees, who are for the most part fishermen, and have a minister of their own, paid by the archbishop of Canterbury. This place had formerly one of the most considerable harbours between Portsmouth and Dover; but it was afterwards so choked up with sand, that the smallest vessel could hardly find entrance, and a great part of the harbour, gained from the sea, was turned into arable land. In 1761, however, an act of parliament passed for making a commodious harbour in this place, which being carried into execution, vessels of three hundred tons burden and upwards, may now ride in it with the greatest safety. The town is well supplied with water by pipes, from two hills in the neighbourhood. Its trade consists in hops, wool, timber, kettles, cannon, chimney-backs, and all sorts of fish.

Winchelsea lies seventy-one miles from London, and is one of the cinque ports. It was originally built in the reign of king Edward the First, when an older town of the same name, two or three miles to the south-east, was swallowed up by the sea in a tempest. The new town was hardly finished before it was deserted by the sea, after which it lost all its trade, and in time its market. The streets are now almost all turned into corn-fields or pasture grounds; and of three parish churches there remains only the chancel of one, which is used for divine service. Upon the level relinquished by the sea, appear the vestiges of a castle built by Henry the Eighth.

Battel lies fifty-seven miles from London, and is reckoned unhealthy from its low and dirty situation. It was anciently called Epiton, and derives its present name from the battle in which William the Norman defeated Harold, and obtained the crown of England. Near the town is a hill with a beacon on it, thence called Beacon-hill; but its name formerly was Standard-hill, from having been the place where William the Conqueror first erected his standard, the day before the battle of Hastings. The gun-powder made at this place is held in great reputation.

Lewes is distant fifty-five miles from London, and is a borough by prescription. It is pleasantly situated in an open country, on the edge of the South Downs, and is one of the largest and most populous towns in Sussex. The streets are handsome, and here are six parish churches. It was formerly defended by a castle and walls, of which there are yet some remains. From a windmill near the town is a prospect, which for its extent is hardly to be equalled in Europe.

East Grinstead lies twenty-nine miles from London, and is also a borough by prescription. At this place the county assizes are sometimes held; and here is an hospital, built in the reign of James the First, by the earl of Dorset, who endowed it with three hundred and thirty pounds a year, for the maintenance of thirty-one poor persons of this town.

Horsham is situated thirty-five miles from London, and is a borough by prescription. The county assizes are generally held in this town, and here is the county jail. This is one of the largest towns in Sussex; it has a fine church, and a well endowed free-school. Vast numbers of poultry are bought up at the market of this place for London. Horsham is said to derive its name from Horfa, brother of Hengist the Saxon, who probably had his residence here. At Billingshurst, south-west of this place, are some noble remains of the Roman military way, called Stone Street, which ran across the county to Arundel.

Petworth is distant from London forty-six miles, and is a large, populous, handsome town, situated on a fine dry ascent, in a healthy air. In the neighbourhood of this town are many beautiful seats, particularly a magnificent house which belonged formerly to Algernon duke of Somerset.

Arundel is situated on the bank of the river Arun, fifty-five miles from London, and is a borough by prescription. Here is an ancient castle, reckoned a mile in compass, and said to have been built in the time of the Saxons.

Midhurst stands on a hill fifty-two miles from London, and is also a borough by prescription. Here is a pretty large town, pleasantly situated on a hill, surrounded with several other hills. It is supposed to have been the Roman Mide.

Brightelmstone stands at the distance of fifty miles from London, upon a bay of the sea, in which there is good anchorage. It is a large populous old town, chiefly inhabited by fishermen. It is enclosed by a wall, fourteen or fifteen foot high, in which are four gates, built of free-stone by queen Elizabeth; and on the side fronting the sea, it is fortified by another wall, in which are many port-holes for cannon. It has seven streets, besides many lanes. For the convenience of the company that resorts hither for bathing, there are two public rooms, one of which is not inferior in point of elegance to any of the kind in England. This place has suffered greatly by inundations, not less than a hundred and thirty houses having been destroyed in the space of forty years. Many barks are built here for the merchants of London and other ports; and on the neighbouring hills are fed great flocks of sheep, the wool of which is esteemed to be among the finest in England.

On the west side of Brightelmstone has been found a great number of human bones, whence some conclude that a battle was fought here. Many are of opinion that Cæsar, in one of his expeditions into Britain, landed at this place. Between Brightelmstone and Lewes are to be seen some ranges of lines and entrenchments, which bear strong marks of being Roman work. In the neighbourhood of Brightelmstone an urn was dug up some years since, containing a thousand silver denarii, and some of all the emperors from Antoninus Pius to Philip; and the altars of the Druids are no where more frequent than about this place.

New Shoreham is distant from London fifty-five miles, and owes its origin to the decay of Old Shoreham, at present a small village north-west of it.

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This is a borough by prescription; and though most of the town has been washed away by the sea, it is still a large and populous place. It has a good harbour for vessels of considerable burden, and many ships are built here, both for war and trade. This place is generally supposed to have been the *Portus Adurni* of the Romans.

The principal manufactures of *Suffex* are cast and wrought iron. This county sends twenty-eight members to parliament; two knights of the shire, two members for *Chichester*, and two burgesses for each of the following towns, viz. *Horsham*, *Lewes*, *Midhurst*, *New Shoreham*, *Bramber*, *Steyning*, *Arundel*, and *East Grinstead*; besides two barons for each of the cinque ports of *Rye*, *Winchelsea*, *Hastings*, and *Sesford*.

#### C H A P. II.

*The counties of Surry, Hampshire, Dorsetshire, and Devonshire.*

**SURRY** is bounded on the east by *Kent*, on the south by the county of *Suffex*, on the west by *Berkshire* and *Hampshire*, and on the north by the river *Thames*, which separates it from *Middlesex*. It extends in length from east to west thirty-four miles, and from north to south twenty-one miles.

The principal rivers in this county are the *Thames*, the *Mole*, the *Wey*, and the *Wandle*, the first of which has been mentioned in the preceding chapter.

The *Mole* rises near *Okeley*, south-west of *Darking*, and running eastward several miles, along the borders of *Suffex*, forms an angle, and directs its course north-west. At the bottom of a hill, near *Darking*, the stream disappears, and passes under ground in a place called the *Swallow*; emerging again, as is supposed, at *Letherhead*, after a subterraneous passage of more than two miles, whence it has obtained the name of *Mole*, from working its way under ground. From *Letherhead* it continues its course northward, till it falls into the *Thames* near *Hampton-Court*. Some writers however are of opinion, that the stream of the *Mole* is altogether lost at the *Swallow*, and is not the same that rises at *Letherhead*.

The *Wey* takes its rise near *Alton*, a market-town of *Hampshire*, and directing its course eastward, enters the county at *Farnham*, whence it passes on in the same direction, to *Godalming*, where forming an angle, it runs north by *Guilford*, and thence north-east, discharging itself by two outlets into the *Thames* about a mile from *Chertsey*.

The *Wandle*, or *Vandal*, rises at *Carshalton*, near *Croydon*, and running north, with a small but clear stream, falls into the river *Thames* at *Wandsworth*, about four miles from *London*.

The air and soil of the middle and extreme parts of *Surry* are very different. Towards the borders of the county, especially on the north side, near the *Thames*, and on the south side, in and near a vale, called *Holmsdale*, that stretches for several miles from *Darking* to the county of *Keat*, the air is mild and healthy, and

the soil fertile in corn and hay, with a fine mixture of woods and fields; but in the midland parts, the air is bleak; and though there are some delightful spots, the county in general consists of open and sandy ground, interspersed with barren heaths. In some places there are long ridges of hills or downs, which afford nothing but warrens for rabbits and hares, and parks for deer.

It has been observed of the inhabitants of the interior parts of *Surry*, that they are generally of a pale complexion, resembling the natives of *Picardy* in *France*; and that even the cattle here are of a lighter colour than is usual in other parts of *England*; both which circumstances have been attributed to the influence of the air and soil.

This county produces great quantities of box-wood and walnut-tree; and the downs, particularly those of *Banstead*, which stretch thirty miles in length from *Croydon* to *Farnham*, producing a short herbage, perfumed with thyme and juniper, the mutton here is remarkably sweet. The county in general is well provided with river fish, and the *Wandle* is famous for plenty of fine trout.

The county of *Surry* is divided into thirteen hundreds, and contains thirteen market-towns, besides two ancient boroughs. It lies in the province of *Canterbury*, and diocese of *Winchester*, and comprises a hundred and forty parishes.

The boroughs are those of *Southwark*, *Blechingley*, and *Gatton*; and the market-towns are *Chertsey*, *Croydon*, *Darking*, *Epsom*, *Ewel*, *Farnham*, *Godalming*, *Guilford*, *Hastmere*, *Kingston*, *Rygate*, and *Woking*.

Of the borough of *Southwark*, and those parts of the county which lie in the neighbourhood of *London*, an account will afterwards be given in treating of the capital.

*Blechingley* is distant from *London* twenty miles, and is a borough by prescription, but has no market. It is a small town, and stands on a hill on the north side of *Holmsdale*, commanding a fine prospect into *Suffex*. On an eminence close to the town, there formerly stood a castle, the ruins of which are yet visible.

*Gatton*, said to have been formerly a large town, but now a mean place, is situated at the bottom of a hill, eighteen miles from *London*. It is also a borough by prescription, and has no market.

*Rygate* stands on a branch of the river *Mole*, in the vale of *Holmsdale*; twenty-four miles from *London*, and is surrounded with hills. It is a borough by prescription, and has a handsome church, built of freestone. Here are the remains of a castle erected in the time of the Saxons; particularly a long vault, in one end of which is a room large enough to contain five hundred persons. It is said that the barons who took up arms against king *John*, held their private meetings in this apartment.

*Darking* stands about the same distance from the capital, upon a sandy rock, on the bank of the river *Mole*, near the *Swallow*. In the rock on which it is situated, several of the inhabitants have cellars. This



place is noted for its trade in meal. It has also the greatest market in England for lambs; nor is it less known for poultry, particularly fat geese and capons, which are brought hither from Sussex.

The remains of the Roman military way, called Stone Street, are visible at this place. The causeway passes through the church-yard of Darking, and is plainly traced for more than two miles south of Okeley. It consists chiefly of flint-stones and pebbles; is near thirty foot broad, and five foot deep.

Effingham, a small village north-west of Darking, was anciently a town of note, and is said to have contained sixteen parish churches.

Boxhill is situated in the neighbourhood of the preceding town, and derives the name from its being planted for the most part with box-trees, which are cut out into a great number of arbours, and formed into labyrinths. This hill, on account of the beautiful prospect from it, is generally the resort of much genteel company during summer.

Guildford stands on the river Wey, thirty miles distant from London, in the road to Chichester and Portsmouth. It is a large handsome town, and has many good inns. Here is an alms-house called Trinity-hospital, founded by George Abbot, archbishop of Canterbury, and endowed by him with lands worth three hundred pounds a year. It consists of a handsome quadrangle, built of brick, with a tower and four turrets over the gate. This town had formerly a great manufacture of cloth, of which there are still some remains. By the navigation of the river Wey, great quantities of timber and flour are sent hence to London. This was a royal seat even in the time of the Saxons. Here the county assizes are often held, and always the election for knights of the shire.

In the neighbourhood is a fine circular course for horse-races.

Haslemere stands on the borders of Sussex, forty-one miles from London, and is a borough by prescription.

Godalming lies thirty-four miles from London, and is the most eminent town in the county for the manufacture of cloth, particularly mixed and blue kerseys. Here is also a manufacture of stockings. The best whited brown paper in England is made at this place, which is likewise famous for liquorice, carrots, and excellent peat for firing. The manor of Catteshall, near this town, was anciently held by the tenure of maintaining the king's laundresses, who being called in old deeds by the Latin word *meretrices*, some writers have erroneously imagined, that the lord of this manor held his estate by being serjeant of the king's *concubines*. There are instances of some other lands in the county, which were held by the same tenure in the years 1234, and 1254.

Farnham is distant forty miles from London. It is a large populous town, containing many handsome houses, and well paved streets. The castle, which has been a magnificent structure, is now much decayed; but is still fortified with deep moats, besides towers placed on the walls at proper distances, and has a fine park. Here is one of the greatest wheat-markets in England, and large quantities of good hops are pro-

duced in the neighbourhood. The bishops of Winchester have generally resided here in the summer, since the reign of king Stephen, in a castle built by that king's brother, who then was prelate of the diocese.

Woking is twenty-four miles distant from London, but not being situated in any great road, is very little known. Here is a neat market-house, built in 1665, at the charge of James Zouch, esq.

Chertsey is nineteen miles from London, and stands on the bank of the Thames, over which there is here a timber bridge. This town communicates its name to the hundred in which it stands, and which is exempt from the jurisdiction of the high-sheriff, who must direct this writ to the bailiff of this hundred, an officer appointed by the exchequer, and who holds his place for life.

At Cowey-stakes, near this town, Julius Cæsar passed the river Thames from the south, and entered the territories of Cassivelaunus. This being then the most noted ford, the Britons encamped on the north bank, with a design to guard the passage. Both the banks were fenced with sharp pointed stakes, driven into the ground, as was likewise the ford with stakes of the same kind under water. Several of those stakes were visible in the time of Bede the historian, who had seen them. He informs us that they were as thick as a man's thigh, and so secured with lead in the bottom of the river, as to be immoveable. From those stakes the place derives its name. At Walton, in the neighbourhood, are the remains of a Roman camp, of about twelve acres, with a rampart and trench.

Epsom stands on the north side of Banstead Downs, sixteen miles from London. It is a pleasant town, and has been long famous for medicinal purging waters, impregnated with alum. At present those waters are not in such repute as formerly; but a salt is extracted from them, which is much esteemed as a cooling purgative.

Ewel lies two miles north of Epsom, and is a small obscure town, that contains nothing worthy of note.

Croydon is distant from London ten miles and a half to the south. In this town is a palace belonging to the archbishop of Canterbury, near which stands a church reckoned the handsomest and the largest in the county, and containing several beautiful pieces of sculpture. The monument of archbishop Sheldon, in particular, is esteemed one of the finest in England. Great quantities of charcoal are made at this place. At Woodcote, in the neighbourhood, are the remains of an ancient town, with several walls, built of small flints, supposed to be the Roman city which Antoninus calls *Noviomagno*. On the top of a hill near this place, called Bottle-hill, are the remains of a square Roman camp, with a single rampart; and on the top of a neighbouring hill are vestiges of another Roman camp.

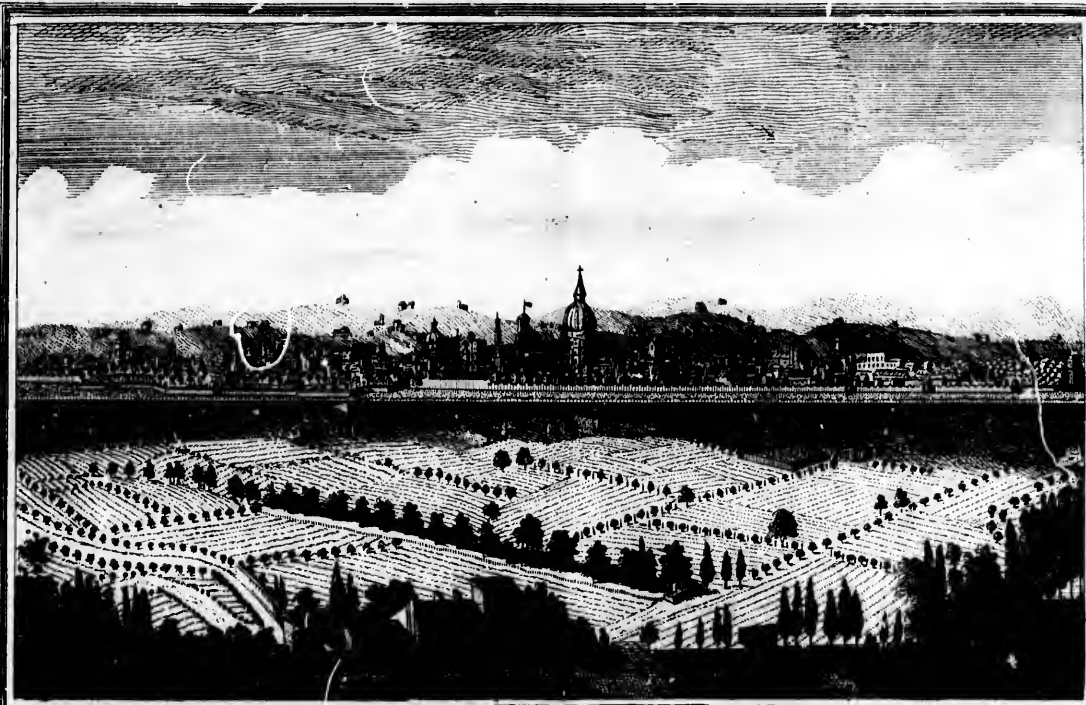
Kingston is situated fourteen miles west of London, on the bank of the Thames. It was formerly called *Moreford*, but obtained its present name from having been the residence of several Saxon kings, some of whom were crowned here. At this town there is a wooden bridge over the Thames, which was formerly supported by a toll, but in 1567 forty pounds a year were



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*A General View of FLORENCE.*

bers to parliament; viz. two knights of the shire, and two members for each of the following boroughs, namely, Southwark, Gatton, Haslemere, Blechingly, Ryigate, and Guildford.

#### H A M P S H I R E.

Hampshire, or Hants, is bounded on the east by the counties of Sussex and Surry, on the south by the English Channel, on the west by Dorsetshire and Wiltshire, and on the north by Berkshire. Its length from north to south is sixty-four miles, and its breadth thirty-six.

The chief rivers in this county are the Avon, the Test, and the Itching. The first of these rises in Wiltshire, and passes through Salisbury, at which place it begins to be navigable. Entering Hampshire at Charford, in the neighbourhood of Fordringbridge, it runs southward by Ringwood, to Christ church, near which it receives the Stour, a considerable river

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who gave it the name of Venta Belgarum, as appears from a pavement of brick, and some coins of Constantine the Great, discovered in digging the foundations of the royal palace. Winchester is about a mile and a half in circuit, and almost surrounded with a wall built of flint, in which are six gates communicating with the adjacent country. The buildings in general have neither grandeur nor beauty, but the streets are broad and clean. Near the west gate of the city are the vestiges of a strong and stately castle, which tradition reports to have been erected by the famous king Arthur, A. D. 523. This ancient structure was demolished by Oliver Cromwell; but the chapel, which was a detached building, still remains, and is the place where the assizes are held for the county. Over the court of Nisi prius, above the judge's seat, hangs what is commonly called king Arthur's round table, which measures eighteen foot in diameter. This piece of antiquity is said to be upwards of twelve hundred years standing, though some affirm that it is of a much later

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Kingston is situated fourteen miles west of London, on the bank of the Thames. It was formerly called *Moreford*, but obtained its present name from having been the residence of several Saxon kings, some of whom were crowned here. At this town there is a wooden bridge over the Thames, which was formerly supported by a toll, but in 1567 forty pounds a year were

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were appropriated for its support, and the toll was taken off.

Richmond, though not a market-town, is too considerable to be omitted in a description of the county. It was formerly called Shene which signifies *splendor* or *shining*; and was named Richmond, from having been the summer residence of Henry VII. who, before he came to the crown, was earl of Richmond in Normandy. The town extends near a mile along the bank of the Thames, and is mostly situated on a hill, whence there is a beautiful prospect of the adjacent country. It has for many ages been a favourite residence of our kings; but the palace being now demolished, and not yet rebuilt, the summer residence of his present majesty is chiefly at Kew, a mile eastward, lying also on the bank of the Thames. The royal park at Richmond is one of the finest in England, and the gardens exceeding beautiful. Those of Kew are particularly distinguished for the valuable assemblage of exotic plants, collected by the late prince of Wales, and for a pagoda of curious construction. In the gardens at Richmond, is an observatory, built by the king, and nobly furnished with all sorts of mathematical instruments. Over the Thames at Kew, is a handsome wooden toll-bridge, which was finished in the year 1759, and one of the same kind has lately been erected at Richmond.

Adjoining to Richmond, on the west, is Peterham, a beautiful village, where many of the nobility have country-houses.

Putney, another pleasant town on the bank of the Thames, five miles east of Richmond, has a wooden toll-bridge over the river; as likewise has Battersea, within two miles and a half of London. At Wimbledon, near two miles south of Putney, may be seen a military work, called Bensbury, of an orbicular form, where Cheaulin, king of the West Saxons, fought and defeated one of the Kentish generals, in the first battle of the Saxons among themselves.

The principal manufacture of this county is woollen cloth, particularly kerseys. Surry sends fourteen members to parliament; viz. two knights of the shire, and two members for each of the following boroughs, namely, Southwark, Gatton, Haffemere, Blechingly, Reygate, and Guildford.

#### H A M P S H I R E.

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The chief rivers in this county are the Avon, the Test, and the Itching. The first of these rises in Wiltshire, and passes through Salisbury, at which place it begins to be navigable. Entering Hampshire at Charford, in the neighbourhood of Fordingbridge, it runs southward by Ringwood, to Christ church, near which it receives the Stour, a considerable river

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from Dorsetshire, and discharges itself into the English Channel.

The Test, or Tese, called likewise the Anton, rises in the north part of the county, and running southward, forms several islands at Stockbridge, whence passing by Rumsley, it falls into an arm of the sea; which reaches several miles up the country, and is called Southampton bay.

The Itching, named also the Alre, rises at Chilton Candover, whence it runs south-west to Winchester, and thence directly south, till it falls into Southampton bay. It was made navigable from Winchester to Southampton in the time of William the Conqueror.

The air of Hampshire is for the most part pure and healthy, especially upon the Downs, which stretch along the county from east to west, dividing it nearly into equal portions; and it is observed that the vapours in the low grounds adjacent to the sea, are not so pernicious as in many other countries.

This county excels all others in sheep and hogs; and is also famous for its honey, of which it is said to produce both the best and the worst in England, in different parts. It is well supplied with sea and river fish, as well as with game of all kinds; and affords so much wood, particularly oak, that the greatest part of the British navy is built of its timber.

Hampshire, exclusive of the Isle of Wight, is divided into thirty-nine hundreds. It lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Winchester, and contains two hundred and fifty parishes. Besides the city of Winchester, there are in it the following market-towns, viz. Alresford, Alton, Andover, Basingstoke, Christ Church, Fareham, Fordingbridge, Gosport, Havant, Kingsclere, Lymington, Odiham, Petersfield, Portsmouth, Ringwood, Rumsley, Southampton, Stockbridge, Walsham, and Whitechurch.

The city of Winchester stands on the river Itching, sixty-six miles south-west of London. It is a place of great antiquity, and is supposed to be the fourth in order of time, of the cities which were founded by the Britons. It was afterwards occupied by the Romans, who gave it the name of Venta Bagarum, as appears from a pavement of bricks, and some coins of Constantine the Great, discovered in digging the foundations of the royal palace. Winchester is about a mile and a half in circuit, and almost surrounded with a wall built of flint, in which are six gates communicating with the adjacent country. The buildings in general have neither grandeur nor beauty, but the streets are broad and clean. Near the west gate of the city are the vestiges of a strong and stately castle, which tradition reports to have been erected by the famous king Arthur, A. D. 523. This ancient structure was demolished by Oliver Cromwell; but the chapel, which was a detached building, still remains, and is the place where the assizes are held for the county. Over the court of Nisi prius, above the judge's seat, hangs what is commonly called king Arthur's round table, which measures eighteen foot in diameter. This piece of antiquity is said to be upwards of twelve hundred years standing, though some affirm that it is of a much later date.

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date. The names of the knights inscribed on the table, are much the same as those we find in an old romance, called *Morte Arthur*. Here king Charles II. founded a royal palace; but not being finished at his death, it afterwards lay neglected. The south side of this edifice measures two hundred and sixteen feet, and the west front three hundred and twenty-six. The episcopal palace here was built by bishop Blois, in the time of king Stephen. It was almost surrounded by the river Itching, and was adorned and fortified with several turrets. Being demolished by the parliament army in the reign of Charles I. it was rebuilt by bishop Morley in the succeeding reign.

The city of Winchester had no less than thirty-two parish churches, of which at present only six remain. The cathedral is a large fabric, begun by bishop Walkelin about the year 1070, and finished by William of Wickham. Instead of a steeple or spire, this church has only a short tower with a flat covering. The length of the cathedral, including a chapel at the east end, is five hundred and forty-five feet; and the breadth of the body and cross isles eighty-seven feet. The font in this church was erected in the time of the Saxons. It is of black marble, of a square figure, supported by a plain stone pedestal. The sides are ornamented with sculptures in bas relief, representing the miracles of some saint belonging to the church.

In this cathedral were buried several of the Saxon kings, whose bones were collected by bishop Fox, and put into six gilded coffins, which he placed upon a wall in the fourth side of the choir. Here lies the marble coffin of William Rufus, which being opened by the soldiers in the civil wars under king Charles I. they found on his thumb a gold ring adorned with a ruby.

Near the bishop's palace is the college of St. Mary, commonly called Winchester College, the foundation of which was laid in 1387, by William of Wickham. The allowance to the wardens, masters, and fellows, is very considerable, and they have handsome apartments adjoining to the college.

Here is also a magnificent hospital, called the Hospital of the Holy Cross. By the institution of the founder, every traveller that kneels at the door of this house in his way, may claim a manchet of white bread, and a cup of beer. The revenues of this hospital were originally appropriated to the maintenance of a master and thirty pensioners, for whom handsome lodgings were allotted; but the number is now reduced to fourteen, though the master has an appointment of eight hundred pounds a year.

Winchester claims the honour of having been the first place in England incorporated by a charter; and it is said to have obtained this privilege twenty-two years before London. It was in the height of its prosperity in the reign of king Henry I. when it abounded in magnificent edifices, and was enriched by the residence of many noble inhabitants, among whom was often the royal family. It also flourished at that time in the woollen manufacture, which was removed to Calais by the king's command, in 1363.

The see of Winchester is one of the richest in England, and was first founded by Kingulf, a king of the Mercians, whose son translated hither the see of Dorchester in the year 663. Its bishops, besides being prelates to the most noble order of the Garter, are chancellors to the see of Canterbury. In the cathedral at this place, was kept the *Domebooc* (Doomsday book) of king Alfred; and also that of William the Conqueror, till it was removed to Westminster Abbey.

Odiham is situated forty-one miles from London, in the road to Basingstoke. It is a corporation town, and was formerly a free borough of the bishop of Winchester. Here was anciently a royal palace and a strong castle, which in king John's time was defended for fifteen days, by thirteen men only, against Lewis the dauphin of France, and the army of the barons. In this castle David, king of Scotland, was kept prisoner in the reign of Edward III.

Basingstoke stands at the distance of forty-eight miles from London. It is a large populous town, and has a great market for all sorts of corn, especially barley, and a considerable trade in malt. The chief manufacture is druggets and shalloons.

Kingclere is pleasantly situated on the Downs, bordering upon Berkshire, at the distance of fifty-two miles from London, and was once the seat of the Saxon kings of this county.

At Silchester, a hamlet, consisting only of a farmhouse and a church, situated north-east of Kingclere, are the remains of the celebrated *Vindomia*, or *Vindonum*, of the Romans, and the *Caer Segant* of the Britons, once the chief town of the *Segontiaci*. According to tradition, it was built by Constantius, son of Constantine the Great, who is reported to have sown corn in the traces of the walls, as an omen of their perpetuity. The walls, which are built of flint and rag-stone, yet remain, and measure two Italian miles in extent. They were surrounded by a ditch, which continues impassible, and is full of springs. North-east of the wall, at the distance of five hundred feet, are the remains of an amphitheatre, which has long been a yard for cattle, and a watering pond for horses. Several Roman ways, yet visible, unite at this place; and in the adjacent fields a great number of Roman coins, and other pieces of antiquity, have been found.

Witchurch is pleasantly situated on the great western road through Andover, on the skirts of a forest, called the Forest of Chute, fifty-eight miles from London. It is a borough by prescription; and its trade consists chiefly in shalloons, serges, and other articles of the woollen manufacture.

Andover is situated sixty-six miles from London, on a small river called the Ande, and is a large, handsome, and populous town. Great quantities of malt are made here, but the chief manufacture is shalloons. About a mile from the town there is a Roman camp, called *Brerehill*; at the distance of half a mile, another of great extent, with double works; and near Egbury, a village some miles to the north, there is a third of  
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the same kind. At Okebury, about six miles from Andover, is also a large Roman camp, and another at Frippsbury, a few miles distant.

Stockbridge is situated in the road to Weymouth, at the distance of sixty-nine miles from London, and is a borough by prescription. The town in general is but a mean place, though there are some good inns in it, and the best wheelwrights and carpenters in the county. The celebrated Sir Richard Steel, who represented this borough in the reign of queen Anne, carried his election against a powerful opposition, by sticking a large apple full of guineas, and declaring it should be the prize of that man whose wife should first be brought to bed after that day ninth months. This merry offer procured him the interest of all the ladies, who, it is said, commemorate Sir Richard's bounty to this day, and once made a vigorous effort to procure a standing order of the corporation, that no man should ever be received as a candidate, who did not offer himself upon the same terms. This town is supposed to have been the Brige or Brage of the ancients, which Antoninus places nine miles from Sorbiodunum, or Old Sarum, in Wiltshire.

Alton lies in the road to Winchester, fifty miles from London; and Alresford ten miles farther: but neither of them contain any thing worthy of particular description.

Petersfield is situated fifty-five miles from London, in the road to Portsmouth. The town is populous, and being a great thorough-fare, is well accommodated with inns.

Portsmouth derives its name from its situation at the port or mouth of a creek that runs up a part of the coast, which at high water is surrounded by the sea, and therefore called Portsea Island. It is about fourteen miles in circumference, and is joined to the continent by a bridge a little above the town. At this bridge there formerly stood a small castle, the ruins of which yet remain; and a town called Port Peris, now known by the name of Porchester, which was then close upon the strand; but the sea retiring thither, many of the inhabitants followed it, and settling below Port Peris, built Portsmouth. This town is distant from London seventy-three miles, and is one of the principal harbours in the kingdom for the royal navy. At this place all our fleets of force, and all squadrons appointed as convoys to our trade, homeward or outward bound, generally rendezvous. The mouth of the harbour, which is not so broad as the river Thames is at Westminster, is, upon the Portsmouth side, defended by a castle called South Sea Castle, situated about a mile and a half south of the town, and built by king Henry VIII. This castle is fortified with a good counter-scarp and double mote, with ravellines, and double palisades, besides advanced works to cover the place from any approach where it may be practicable. The mouth of the harbour is, on the Gosport side, defended by four forts, and a platform of above twenty great guns, level with the water. On the land side, the town is fortified by works raised of late years about the docks and yards. Here are immense quantities of military and naval stores of all kinds. The docks and yards have the appearance of a distinct town, and

the number of men constantly employed in them is hardly ever less than a thousand.

Portsmouth being situated so near the level of the sea, is full of ditches, on which account the inhabitants are very liable to agues. The streets are for the most part exceeding dirty, and the inns and taverns perpetually crowded with seamen and soldiers. Though the adjacent country abounds with all sorts of provisions, the consumption of them is so great, that they sell at a very high price; and what renders the situation yet more inconvenient, the town is badly supplied with fresh water.

The church of Portsmouth is a large handsome building, furnished with a tower, at the top of which a bell is rung, to give an account of the number of ships that enter the port. From a watch-house at the top of the steeple, there is a fine prospect of the vessels in the harbour, as well as of those at Spithead; a point between Portsmouth and the Isle of Wight, where ships generally ride, both homeward and outward bound.

So great has been the increase of business at Portsmouth of late years, that as the place does not admit of enlargement, a sort of suburb has been built on the heathy ground adjoining, which is like to become more populous than the town, not only because the situation is more pleasant and healthy, but because it is not subject to the laws of the garrison, nor incumbered with the duties and services of the corporation.

Gosport is situated over against Portsmouth, on the west side of the harbour at its entrance. Though separated from that town by an arm of the sea, it generally goes by the name of Portsmouth, and boats are constantly passing between them. Gosport is a large town, and has a considerable trade. It is chiefly inhabited by sailors and their wives, with the warrant officers; and travellers mostly choose to lodge here; on account that every thing is cheaper and more convenient than at Portsmouth. Here is a noble hospital for the cure of the sick and wounded seamen in the service of the navy.

Fareham is sixty-five miles distant from London, and is a pleasant town, but of little note.

Southampton is situated between the rivers Test and Itchen, at the distance of seventy-eight miles from London, and is a place of great antiquity. It was greatly harassed by the Danes, who took it in 980. In the reign of Edward I. it was plundered and burnt to the ground by the French; but was soon rebuilt in a more convenient situation, and well fortified. At present the town is surrounded by a wall built of very hard stone, resembling those little white shells, like honeycombs, that grow on the back of oysters. These stones appear to have been gathered near the sea, which nearly encompasses one half of the town, and is so deep, that ships of five hundred tons burden have frequently been built here. To defend this part of the town from the violence of the waves, a strong bank has been erected of what is called sea ore, a substance composed of long and slender, but strong filaments, resembling undressed hemp.

The principal street is near three quarters of a mile long, and one of the broadest in England, well paved

on each side, and ending in a very fine key. On the fourth-east corner, near the key, is a fort with some guns upon it, called the tower, erected in 1342. This town has a public hall in which the assizes are usually kept; but its chief ornaments are its churches, of which there are five, besides a French church. Here is an hospital called God's House, and a free-school, founded by king Edward VI.

A little north-west of Southampton, at the hamlet of St. Mary's, stood an old Roman town, called Clausentum, the ruins of which may be traced as far as the haven on one side, and beyond the river Itching on the other. The trenches of a castle half a mile in compass, are also still visible in St. Mary's Field.

Rumsey stands on the river Test, seventy-eight miles from London, in the road from Salisbury to Southampton. It is an old town of considerable extent, and chiefly inhabited by clothiers. The church is a noble pile, arched with stone. It is built in the form of a cross, and has semicircular chapels in the corners.

Ringwood is situated near the Avon, ninety-six miles from London, in a valley that is frequently overflowed by the river, which here divides into several streams. It is however a large, well built, and flourishing town, having a good trade in druggets, narrow cloths, stockings, and leather.

Christ-church lies between the rivers Avon and Stour, a hundred miles from London, and is a pleasant town. Its chief manufactures are silk stockings and gloves.

Fordingbridge stands on the river Avon, eighty-five miles from London. Having suffered greatly by fire, it is at present an inconsiderable town.

Lymington, or Lymington, stands at the same distance from the capital as the preceding, within a mile of the sea, upon a hill which commands a fine prospect of the Isle of Wight. The town is small, but populous, and has a commodious quay. At this place are made great quantities of salt, which is said to be particularly excellent for preserving flesh.

Havant is a little town, between Portsmouth and Chichester about sixty-three miles from London, chiefly conspicuous for its market.

Waltham, called also Bishop's Waltham, and by a corrupt abbreviation, Bush Waltham, from a palace which the bishop of Winchester formerly had here, lies sixty-five miles from London. Except a charity-school, it has nothing else worthy of note.

Between the east side of the river Avon and Southampton Bay, is a Forest, called New Forest, which is computed to be forty miles in circumference. This large tract once abounded with towns and villages, in which were no less than thirty-six parish-churches; but the whole was laid waste by William the Conqueror, for the purpose of hunting. It has been remarked, as an instance of the just vengeance of Heaven, that in this forest, the monument of his oppression and cruelty, two of his sons, Richard and William Rufus, and his grandson Henry, lost their lives. Richard was killed by a pestilential blast; William Rufus by an arrow, which was shot by Sir Walter Tyrrel at a

stag; and Henry, while pursuing his game, was caught by the hair of his head in the boughs of a tree, in which situation he died. Here is an oak which was paled by king Charles the Second, upon a tradition that it was the tree which Sir Walter Tyrrel's arrow glanced when it killed Rufus. The country people have a tradition, that every Christmas day in the morning this oak puts out its buds, which wither before night.

In the time of the Romans this county was inhabited by the Regni and the Belge. The former were a tribe of the ancient Britons, and inhabited the sea-coast, but whence they derived their name is not known. The latter were a people of Germany, who having passed the Rhine, and possessed themselves of part of Gaul, sailed over to this coast, with a design of plundering the inhabitants, and returning with the spoil: but finding the country an agreeable residence, they drove the Britons from the inland parts of Hampshire, as well as from some other adjacent counties, and were found in possession of the territories by Cæsar when he made his expedition into Britain. Besides these, the northern part of this country was inhabited by a people called the Segontiaci, and the eastern by the Meanvari, where the lands are now divided into three distinct hundreds, called Meanstoke, Eastmean, and Westmean, from the name of their ancient inhabitants.

The chief manufacture here consists in kerseys, and cloth, in which a good foreign trade is carried on, from the many ports and harbours with which the county abounds. Hampshire, including the Isle of Wight, which will be described afterwards, sends twenty-six members to parliament: two knights of the shire, two citizens for Winchester, and two burgesses for each of the following corporations, viz. Southampton, Portsmouth, Newport, Yarmouth, Newton, Lymington, Christ-church, Andover, Whitchurch, Petersfield, and Stockbridge.

#### D O R S E T S H I R E.

Dorsetshire is bounded on the east by Hampshire, on the south by the English Channel, on the west by Devonshire and part of Somersetshire, and on the north by Wiltshire and another part of Somersetshire. It is fifty miles in length from east to west, and about forty in breadth.

The principal rivers in this county are the Stour and the Frome. The Stour rises in Somersetshire, and entering Dorsetshire, runs due north to Sturminster-Newton, a considerable market-town, where making an angle, it runs nearly east-south-east, and quitting Dorsetshire about five miles from Wimborne-minster, falls into the English channel, called Pool-harbour, in the neighbourhood of Warham. Other less considerable rivers of the county are the Piddle, the Lyddon, the Dulish, and the Allen.

The air in Dorsetshire is in general healthy: on the hills it is somewhat sharp, but mild and pleasant in the valleys, and the country near the coast. The soil is for the most part extremely fertile: towards the north, which was formerly overspread with forests,

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the land affords good pasture for black cattle; and the southern parts, which chiefly consist in fine dowos, feed vast numbers of sheep.

In general the rivers afford plenty of fish; but the tench and eels of the Stour are particularly famous. The port-towns supply the inhabitants with all sorts of sea-fish; and the rocks upon the coast abound with samphire and eringo. Here are swans, geese, and ducks, without number, and great plenty of game. The county also abounds with corn, cattle, wool, hemp, and timber.

There is in this county a peninsula, called Portland Island, the sea having formerly flowed round it, though the place is now joined to the main land by a beach, called Chessil Bank, which the surge has thrown up. This peninsula is hardly seven miles in compass, and but thinly inhabited; for though it affords plenty of corn and pasture, yet wood and coal are so scarce, that the inhabitants are forced to dry the dung of their black cattle for fuel. The land here is so high, that in clear weather it gives a prospect above half way over the English channel. This sequestered spot is rendered inaccessible by high and abrupt rocks, except on the north side, where it is defended by a strong castle, which was built by King Henry VIII. called Portland Castle, and another erected on the opposite shore, called Sandford Castle. These two forts command all ships that come into the road, which on account of its strong current setting in from the English and French coasts, is called Portland Race. The currents render this part of the sea always turbulent, and have frequently driven vessels, not aware of them, to the coast of Portland, and wrecked them on Chessil Bank. On the two extremities of this bank are light-houses. The peninsula is famous for its quarry of excellent stone, called Portland stone; and the inhabitants were anciently noted for being the best flingers in England.

Here is likewise another peninsula, supposed also to have been once surrounded by the sea, and thence called Purbeck Island. It is situated between Warham and the English channel; and besides Purbeck stone, furnishes some fine marble, and the best tobacco-pipe clay in the world.

Dorsetshire lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Bristol, and comprizes two hundred and forty-eight parishes. It is divided into thirty-four hundreds, and contains twenty-two market towns, viz. Abbotsbury, Bemister, Bere-Regis, Blandford, Bridport, Carne-Abbey, Corfe-Castle, Cramborn, Dorchester, Evershot, Frampton, Lyme, Melcomb-Regis, Milton, Pool, Shaftsbury, Sherborn, Stalbridge, Sturminster-Newton, Warham, Weymouth, and Wimborne-minster.

Cranborn is situated ninety-eight miles from London, in a fine sporting country, near a very large lake. It is a pleasant little town and well watered.

Wimborne-minster, or Winborn-minster, stands between the rivers Stour and Allen, near their conflux, at the distance of ninety-eight miles from London. This is a populous, but poor town, and is chiefly supported by knitting stockings. The church, how-

ever is a noble edifice, built in the manner of a cathedral, a hundred and eighty foot long, with a fine tower in the middle, and another at the west end, each of which is ninety feet high.

In the time of the Romans this town, called by Antoninus, Vindogladia, was one of the two winter stations for their legions in this county, Dorchester being the other. The summer station was a hill, called Bradbury, distant hence two miles. This hill is entrenched with a triple ditch, and there is a fosse-way from it to the city of Old Sarum in Wiltshire.

King Etheldred, the brother of Alfred, lies buried in the church at this place, under a marble tomb, on which is the effigy of a king crowned, a half length, and the following inscription.

“In hoc loco quiescit corpus S. Etheldredi Regis West Saxonum, Martyris, qui Anno Domini DCCCLXXII. xxiij. Aprilis, per manus Danorum paganorum occubuit.”

Pool is distant from London a hundred and ten miles. It derives its name from a bay, called Luxford Lake, which surrounds it on every side but the north, and in a calm looks like a pool, or standing water. The town is supposed to contain about four hundred houses, and is one of the most considerable ports in the west of England; it carries on a great trade to the West-Indies, to Newfoundland, and, in time of peace, to France. Here is great plenty of fish, with which the town supplies Wiltshire, and the inland parts of Somersetshire. It is particularly remarkable for vast quantities of mackerel in the season, and for the best and largest oysters in this part of England, which also contain larger pearls, and more in number, than any others in the kingdom. They are pickled and barrelled up here, and sent not only to London, but to the West-Indies, Spain, Italy, and other parts. Great quantities of corn, pulse, and Purbeck stone, are also exported from this place.

Corfe Castle stands in the middle of that part of the county called the Isle of Purbeck, a hundred and sixteen miles from London. It derives its name from a castle now in ruins, supposed to have been built by king Edgar, who kept his court here, and endowed the town with several privileges. It was a long time a borough by prescription, and afterwards incorporated by queen Elizabeth. King Charles II. also, as a reward for the gallant defence the castle made for him, granted the inhabitants an exemption from toll, arrears, suit, or service, without the borough; and besides every other privilege in common with the Cinque Ports, the peculiar honour of baron to its principal members; the style of the letters of incorporation being the mayor and barons of Corfe Castle. The lord of the manor is by inheritance lord lieutenant of the Isle of Purbeck. The town has a large and lofty church, which is a royal peculiar, not liable to any episcopal visitation or jurisdiction. The site of the old castle is half a mile in circumference, and by the ruins, it appears to have been not only a strong but magnificent building.

Warham is distant from London a hundred and eight miles, and stands in the most healthy part of



the county, though surrounded with water on every side, having the river Frome on the south, the Piddle on the north, and on the east the bay into which they fall. It is reported to be the oldest town in the county, and was once the largest, having had seventeen churches. It was inclosed with walls, and had a castle, built by William the Conqueror. In former times it was likewise a harbour of note, being washed by the sea, which has since retired from it. Here are three churches, St. Martin's, Trinity church, and St. Mary's, which are all supplied by one minister, who preaches at St. Mary's, the great church, in the summer, and at the two others alternately in the winter. The tower of St. Mary's is the chief ornament of the town. The ground about the place produces vast quantities of garlick, but the chief trade of the town is in tobacco-pipe clay, of which the best in Great Britain is dug out of a hill in the neighbourhood, called Hunger Hill. This town had anciently a strong castle, of which no traces remain; but the hill on which it stood is called Castle Hill.

Bere-Regis stands upon a rivulet of its own name, near its influx into the river Piddle, ninety-two miles from London.

Blandford lies upon the Stour, a hundred and seven miles from London. It is an ancient borough, and now a flourishing town, well built, with a bridge over the Stour, and is much frequented by the gentry, who have seats upon pleasant downs, extending hence to Dorchester, and called Burford Downs. Formerly the chief manufacture of the place was band-strings; and afterwards straw-hats, and bone-lace; but at present the principal traders are milters and clothiers.

Near Blandford lies a village called Brienston, the proprietor of which, when the king marched to war against Scotland or Wales, was obliged to furnish a man to walk before him, without any other cloaths than his shirt and drawers; holding in one hand a bow without a string; and in the other an arrow without a feather.

Sturminster-Newton, lies a hundred and twenty-two miles from London, and is a mean obscure place. It has, probably, derived its name from having been once a monastery, or minster, upon the river Stour, and joined by a stone bridge over that river to another town called Newton-Castle, of which there are now hardly any remains.

Not far hence, near Shillington, a village upon the Stour, are two hills, one called Hamilton Hill, and the other Hodde Hill; the former of which is fortified with a triple rampart, and the latter with a single one. It is certain they have been camps; but as neither of them is mentioned by Antoninus, they are supposed to be the work of the Britons or Danes, and not of the Romans.

Shaftsbury, or Shafton, stands on a hill in the post road from London to Exeter, from the former of which it is distant a hundred and three miles. Here are about six hundred houses, many of which are built of free stone. Water is here so scarce, that it used to be brought from Motcomb, a village at some distance;

by horses; but in the year 1718, William Benson, esq. one of the representatives for the borough, was at the expence of constructing engines, which raised the water of a well, about two miles off, to the height of above three hundred foot, and conveyed it to a large cistern in the middle of the town. These engines, however, have for some time been disused, and the inhabitants have dug pits at the doors of their houses for preserving rain water, which not being sufficient for a constant supply, the poor subsist by bringing hither water in pails, or upon horses, from Motcomb.

Shaftsbury was built by king Alfred about the year 880, as appears from the following inscription upon a stone, which Malembury, the historian, informs us was preserved here in his time:

“Anno Dominicæ incarnationis Aelfredus rex fecit hanc urbem DCCCLXXX. Regni sui viii.”

In this town was buried king Edward the Martyr, and a shrine having been erected to him in the church, the superstitious pilgrims of those times resorted so much hither, that the town lost its old name, and was for many years called St. Edward's Town.

Stalbridge lies a hundred and fifteen miles from London, and is a small inconsiderable place; as is likewise Cerue-Abbey, ninety-nine miles from the capital.

Dorchester is distant from London a hundred and twenty-three miles, and is situated on a steep ascent, commanding a fine view of the river Frome, which lies towards the north. It is the county town, consisting chiefly of three streets, which are well paved and clean; and the houses, though old and low, are yet regularly built, and in general of stone. This town was once famous for a manufactory of broad cloth and serge; but the former is now entirely lost, and the serge trade become very inconsiderable. The chief business of the place at present is breeding sheep, of which it is said that no less than six hundred thousand are fed within six miles of the town. The ewes generally bring two lambs, which is ascribed to the wild thyme, and other aromatic herbage, that grows upon the downs here in great plenty. The sheep and lambs are purchased by the farmers of Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, Oxfordshire, Kent, and Surry, to supply the east of England. This town also sends great quantities of male every year to the city of Bristol, and is noted for excellent cakes, as well as for incomparable beer.

Dorchester is called by Antoninus, Durnovaria, and by Ptolemy, Durnium. In the time of the Romans it was one of the winter stations of the legions quartered in those parts; and at about a mile from the town they had a summer station, now called Maiden-Castle. It was then a camp, with five trenches, and included near ten acres of ground. In the neighbourhood of this town the Romans had also an amphitheatre, two hundred and twenty foot long, and a hundred and forty wide, now called Maumbury; having on the top a terrace, which is used as a public walk, and commands a prospect of the adjacent country.

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The famous Roman caufeway, called Ickening Street, leading from the town to Maiden Castle, and the foundations of an old Roman wall, that furround' ed the town, are ftill vifible. This town was very confiderable before it was destroyed by the Danes; and in the time of the Saxons, there were two mints in it for the coinage of money.

Melcomb, called Melcomb-Regis, becaufe it was anciently the king's demefne, is diftant from London a hundred and thirty-two miles. It has four tolerable ftreets, and moft of the houfes are built of ftone, though not very high. It is feparated from Weymouth by a fmall river called the Wey. The port here, which generally goes by the name of Weymouth, is one of the beft frequented in the county, and is defended by Sandford and Portland caftles. There being here a bridge over the river, the inhabitants of Weymouth generally attend bufinefs, as well as divine fervice, in Melcomb.

Weymouth is fituated low, but is a clean agreeable place. It formerly carried on a confiderable trade to France, Spain, Portugal, and the Weft-Indies: the Newfoundland trade ftill flourifhes here; the wine trade is alfo in a prosperous ftate; and the town has a large correfpondence in the country, for the confumption of its returns.

Abbotfury is diftant from London a hundred and thirty-three miles, and derives its name from an abbey, of which it was formerly the feat.

Frampton, or Fromiton, lies a hundred and feventeen miles from London, and is remarkable only for its excellent trouts.

Everhot is a little obfcure town, fituated on the borders of Somerfetfhire, a hundred and twenty-three miles from London. Not far hence lies Bemifer, another inconfiderable place.

Bridport ftands a hundred and forty-five miles from London, upon a fmall river near the Englifh Channel, and in the great weftern road. This town had formerly a good harbour, and was then a confiderable place; but a mortality happening, which carried off the greater part of the inhabitants, the harbour was fo much neglected, that the entrance was barred by the fand which the tides threw up; and though an act of parliament paffed in 1722, for rebuilding the haven and piers, it has not yet been carried into execution.

This place was once famous for the manufacture of ropes and cables; but at prefent there is hardly any remains of this trade, or indeed of any other, though the foil between this town and Bemifer produces as good crops of hemp as any in England.

Lyme was thus called from a rivulet of the fame name that run by it; and is alfo called Lyme-Regis, or King's Lyme, probably from its having been annexed to the crown, in the reign of Edward I. It is diftant from London, a hundred and forty-four miles. Here are fome fine houfes, built of free-ftone, and covered with blue ftate; and the harbour is one of the beft in the Englifh channel. This town had formerly a confiderable trade, particularly to Newfoundland, fo that the customs have fome years produced upwards of

fixteen thoufand pounds. The merchants have lately began to trade in the pilchard fifhery with fuccefs.

On account of the declivity of the town, the merchants are obliged to lade and unlade their goods at a place called the Cobb, a quarter of a mile diftant. This is a building of mafonry, and confifts of a firm ftone wall, that runs a confiderable way into the fea, and is of breadth fufficient to admit of ware-houfes and carriages on it, befides a houfe for the custom-houfe officers. Without this wall there is another of equal ftrength, carried round the end of the preceding, and forming the entrance into the port, which perhaps is equal for fafety to any in the world. Some guns are planted at proper diftances, for the defence of the Cobb and the town.

Milton, or Middleton, is fituated fouth-weft of Blandford, a hundred and ten miles from London. It has nothing worthy of note except its abbey, built by King Athelftan, and a great part of which is, or was lately ftanding.

Sherborn is fituated a hundred and eighteen miles from London, on the borders of White-Hart foreft, and in the road from London to Exeter. It is an ancient town, and was once a bifhop's fee, but never fent members to parliament. The houfes here are computed to be above three hundred; the ftreets are fpacious, and the town is divided into two parts by a fmall river, called the Parret. One part is diftinguifhed by the name of Sherborn, and the other by that of Caftle-town. Here was formerly an abbey, the church of which is ftill ftanding, and is a magnificent fttructure. At the entrance from the porch lie interred Ethelbald and Ethelbert, both Saxon kings, who lived about two hundred years before the Conqueft. This town had formerly a good trade in the medley cloth, but at prefent its manufactures are buttons, bone-lace, and haberdafhery wares, with which it fupplies all the weftern parts of the kingdom.

White-Hart foreft, abovementioned, is faid to have received its name from a white hart which was chafed in it by Henry III. The king was fo pleafed with the beauty of the creature, that he not only fpared its life, but ftroctly commanded that no other perfon fhould kill it. Some time afterwards, however, it was hunted and killed by one Thomas de la Linde, with feveral others. The king was fo much incenfed at the intelligence, that he laid all their lands under a pecuniary mulct, which to this day is paid yearly into the exchequer, by the name of white-hart filver.

In the time of the Romans, Dorfetfhire was inhabited by the Durotriges, a compound Britifh word, fignifying a people who dwell by the water or fea-fide. At the firft fettlement of the Saxons in Britain, this county was part of the Weft Saxon kingdom, and continued fo till their monarch Egbert, having fubdued the reft of the heptarchy, became king of England. Moft of the Saxon princes who fucceeded him, admiring the beauty of this country, refided and were buried in it.

Dorchefter fends twenty members to parliament; two of which are knights of the fhire, and the reft bur-

geses for the following towns, each of which sends two; namely, Dorchester, Pool, Lyme, Bridport, Shaftsbury, Warham, Corfe Castle, Weymouth, and Melcomb-Regis, the two latter being an united corporation.

### DEVONSHIRE.

Devonshire is bounded on the east by Dorsetshire and Somersetshire, on the south by the English Channel, on the west by Cornwall, and on the north by the Bristol Channel. It extends in length from south to north about sixty-nine miles, and in breadth sixty-six.

The principal rivers are the Tamar and the Ex. The Tamar rises in Moor-Winflow, in the north-west part of Cornwall, whence running southward along the borders of Devonshire, it falls into the English Channel.

The Ex has its origin in the barren tract of country, called Exmore, situated partly in Devonshire, and partly in Somersetshire, near the Bristol Channel. Running directly south, it is afterwards joined by several less considerable rivers, and passing through Exeter, falls in the English Channel in a large stream, about nine miles to the south-east of that city.

There are in this county so many considerable rivers besides the Tamar and the Ex, that it contains more than a hundred and fifty bridges. Of these the chief are the Tave, the Lad, the Oke, the Tame, the Touridge, and the Dart.

The air in this county is mild in the valleys, and sharp on the hills; but in general it is healthy. The soil is of various qualities; in the western parts it is coarse, moorish, and barren, and in many places a stiff clay, which the water cannot penetrate. It is therefore bad for sheep, which are here not only small, but very subject to the rot, especially in wet seasons. This part of the county, however, is happily adapted to the breeding of fine oxen, which the Somersetshire drovers purchase in great numbers, and fatten for the London markets. Towards the north, the soil is dry, and abounds with downs, which afford excellent pasture for sheep, and when well dressed with lime, dung, and sand, yield good crops of corn, though not equal to those produced in the middle parts of the county, where there is in some places a rich marle for manuring the ground; and in others, a fertile sandy soil. In the eastern parts of Devonshire the soil is strong, of a deep red, intermixed with loam, producing great crops of corn, and the best pease in Britain. The southern parts of the county, however, are much the most fertile, and therefore called the garden of Devonshire.

There are in this county many mines of lead, tin, and silver; besides several veins of loadstone, with quarries of good stone for building, and of slate, of which great quantities are exported. As this county abounds in fine rivers, salmon is here not only excellent, but in great plenty.

Devonshire is divided into thirty-three hundreds, containing one city, and thirty-seven market-towns. It lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of

Exeter, and includes three hundred and ninety-four parishes.

The city is Exeter, and the market towns are Ashburton, Axminster, Bampton, Barnstaple, Bear-alston, Biddisford, Bowe, Brent, Chimley, Chudleigh, Columton, Comb-Martin, Crediton, Culliton, Dartmouth, Dudbrook, Hartland, Hetherley, Honiton, Houlsworth, Ilfordcomb, Kingsbridge, Madbury, Mureton, Moulton-South, Newton-Bushel, Okehampton, Ottery St. Mary's, Plymouth, Plympton, Shipwark, Sidmouth, Tavistock, Tiverton, Topsham, Torrington, and Totnes. Three of these are stannary towns, viz. Ashburton, Plympton, Tavistock; besides Chagford, a small place near Moreton. A stannary town is one in which is kept a stannary court, that determines the differences concerning mines and among miners, or such as work in digging and purifying tin.

Exeter stands on the river Ex, a hundred and seventy-two miles from London, and is one of the first cities in England, as well on account of its buildings and wealth, as its extent and the number of inhabitants. Including the suburbs it is two miles in circumference, encompassed with a stone wall, in good repair, and fortified with turrets. It has six gates, and four principal streets, all centring in the middle of the city. The High-street in particular is spacious and grand. There is a long bridge over the Ex, with houses on both sides, except in the middle, where there is a vacancy. The city is well supplied with water, brought from the neighbourhood in pipes. In the north side is an old castle, called Rougemont, from the red soil on which it stands, where, from a beautiful terras walk, with a double row of fine elms, there is a delightful prospect of the British channel ten miles to the south. There are sixteen churches, besides chapels, and five large meeting-houses, within the walls of the city, and four without. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Peter, is a curious and magnificent fabric, said to have been four hundred years in building, notwithstanding which it looks as uniform as if it had been the work of one architect. It is three hundred and ninety feet long, seventy broad, and vaulted throughout. The trade of this city in ferges, perpetuaries, long-cells, druggets, kerseys, and other woollen goods, is computed at six hundred thousand pounds a year.

This city is the *Istva Danmoniorum* of the Romans. It was for some time the seat of the West Saxon kings, and the walls which at this day enclose it, were built by king Athelstan, who encompassed it also with a ditch. The castle of Rougemont is supposed to have been built by the West Saxon kings, and to have been the place of their residence.

Axminster derives its name partly from its situation upon a river called Axe, and partly from a minster established at this place by king Athelstan, for seven priests, to pray for the souls of some persons buried here, who were killed in his army, when he defeated the Danes in a bloody battle on a field in this neighbourhood, which is still called King's Field. The town is a hundred and forty-six miles from London,

lying on the borders of Somersetshire and Dorsetshire, in the road to Exeter. It carries on a small trade in kerseys, druggets, and other articles of the woollen manufacture.

Honiton stands near a small river called the Otter, at the distance of a hundred and fifty-six miles from London, and in the road to Exeter. It is a borough by prescription, and is governed by a portreeve, who is chosen yearly at the court of the lord of the manor. It is situated in the best and most pleasant part of Devonshire, abounding with corn and pasture; and commanding a most delightful prospect of the adjacent country. It consists chiefly of one street, remarkably well paved with pebbles, through which runs a small channel of clear water, with a little square dripping-place at every door. The town is well built, and there is here a bridge over the Otter. The parish church stands upon a hill half a mile distant. The first serge manufactory in Devonshire was in this town; but the inhabitants are now much employed in the manufacture of lace, which is made broader here than in any other place in England, and great quantities are sent to London.

Ottery. There are three towns of this name, which they derive from their situation upon a small river called the Otter. They are distinguished by the names of Ottery St. Mary's, Ottery Mohuns, and Ottery Up. The former of these is the market-town, and had its name belonging anciently to St. Mary's church, in Roan in France. It is a large town, distant from London a hundred and sixty-one miles.

Sidmouth, so named from its situation, at the mouth of a small river called the Side, which flows into the British channel, lies a hundred and fifty-seven miles from London. It was formerly a considerable port, but the harbour is now so choked up with sand, that no ships of burden can enter. It remains; however, one of the chief fishing towns in the county; and supplies the eastern parts of it with much provisions.

Clumbton stands on the small river Clumb, a hundred and sixty-six miles from London. The church here has a curious and rich gilded rood loft, which is still preserved as an ornament, though the image it contained in the days of popery, is removed. This town has a considerable woollen manufacture.

Topham stands three miles south from Exeter, of which it is the port. It is almost surrounded by the Ex, and a rivulet called the Cliff. Both the horse-road and foot-way from Exeter to this town, being very pleasant, many people resort hither for pleasure, as well as for business.

Credton, vulgarly called Kirton, has its name from the river Credon, on which it stands. It is a hundred and eighty-three miles distant from London. Its principal manufacture is serge, in which it carried on a great trade till the year 1743, when upwards of four hundred houses were destroyed by fire. This town was formerly an episcopal see.

Barnstaple is distant from London a hundred and ninety-four miles, and is pleasantly situated among hills, in the form of a semicircle, a river called the

No. 29.

Taw being the chord of the arch. It once had walls, with a castle, and enjoyed the privileges of a city, which having lost, it was incorporated by a charter of queen Mary. The houses are built of stone, and the streets are clean and well paved. There is a stone bridge over the Taw, of sixteen arches, and adjoining to it a paper-mill. The town had formerly a haven, which became at last so shallow, though at spring tides the neighbouring fields are overflowed, that most of the trade removed to Biddiford. Till the beginning of the present disturbances in America, however, it had a considerable traffic to that country, as it still has to Ireland, whence it is an established port for landing wool. It also carries on a great trade with the serge-makers of Tiverton and Exeter, who came hither to buy shad-fish, wool, and yarn.

Biddiford stands on the river Touridge, which a little farther north joins the Taw, and falls with it into that part of the Bristol channel called Barnstaple-Bay. This town is a hundred and ninety-seven miles distant from London, and is a clean, well-built, populous place. It has a street three quarters of a mile in length, running parallel to the river, with a fine quay, where ships can load and unload in the very heart of the town. Here is also another street of considerable extent, with good buildings, inhabited by wealthy merchants.

Torrington, called Great Torrington, to distinguish it from another of the same name, is situated on the river Touridge, a hundred and ninety-two miles from London. It is a rich populous town, carries on a great trade with Ireland, and other places to the west.

Hartland stands in the extreme part of the county to the north-west, upon a promontory that runs far into the sea, and is called Hartland-Point. The town is a hundred and ninety-seven miles from London, and is a great resort not only of people from Cornwall, but of fisher-boats of Barnstaple, Biddiford, and other towns upon the coast. It carries on a considerable herring fishery; and the cod taken here is remarkably excellent, though it is not near so plenty as on the banks of Newfoundland.

Okehampton, vulgarly Ocklington, stands on the river Oke, a hundred and ninety-three miles from London. Here is a manufacture of serges; but the principal support of the place is said to be the road between the towns of Launceston, in Cornwall, and Credton, in this county; the best houses in the place being inns.

Tavistock lies two hundred and one miles from London, and is a borough by prescription. It is also a stannary town, and is large and well built.

In the church of Lamerton, or Lamberton, a village two miles from Tavistock, are the effigies of Nicholas and Andrew Tremaine, twins, of this parish, who in features, stature, voice, and every other particular, so exactly resembled each other, that those who knew them best could not always distinguish them. The sympathy that subsisted between them was no less extraordinary than the similitude of their persons; for even at a distance one from the other, they per-

formed the same functions, had the same appetites and desires, and suffered the same pains and anxieties at the same time. Of these remarkable persons nothing farther is related, but that in the year 1663, they were killed together at Newhaven in France; but upon what occasion, or in what manner, is not known.

Tiverton is situated between the rivers Ex and Loman, near their conflux, a hundred and sixty-five miles from London. Here is the greatest woollen manufactory in the county, except that of Exeter; next to which it is also the largest, if not the most populous, of all the inland towns in Devonshire.

Bearsiton stands on a small river, called the Tave, two hundred miles from London, and is a borough by prescription. All persons who pay three pence or more a year to the lord of the manor, as an acknowledgment for land held in the borough, are called burgeholders, and are the only voters for representatives of this borough in parliament. The houses here do not amount to a hundred, and the place is only a hamlet in the parish of Bear Ferris, from the church of which it is almost two miles distant.

Ashburton stands upon the river Dart, a hundred and ninety-one miles from London, half way between Exeter and Plymouth. It is a borough by prescription; being also a stannary town, and is remarkable for its mines of tin and copper, as well as a manufacture of serge.

Totnes is situated upon the river Dart, a hundred and ninety-five miles from London, and is a borough by prescription, esteemed the most ancient in the county. The town consists chiefly of one broad street, three quarters of a mile long, on the south of a rocky hill, declining to the river. It had formerly a wall, and four gates; but only the south gate and some parts of the rest are now remaining. Here is a spacious church, with a fine tower and four pinnacles, each above ninety foot high. The chief trade is the woollen manufactory.

Dartmouth, so called from its situation at the mouth of the Dart, is a hundred and ninety-two miles from London, and is a corporation originally formed out of three distinct towns, viz. Dartmouth, Clifton, and Hardness. It stands on the side of a craggy hill, which renders the streets very irregular, but the houses are generally high. Here are three churches, besides a large dissenting meeting-house; but the mother church is at a village called Townstall, about three quarters of a mile from Dartmouth. This church stands on a hill, and the tower of it, which is sixty-nine foot high, serves as a sea mark. The harbour of Dartmouth, which is so large that five hundred sail of ships may ride in it, is defended by three castles, besides forts and blockhouses, and its entrance may, upon occasion, be shut up with a chain. Here is a large quay, and a spacious street adjoining, inhabited chiefly by merchants, who carry on a considerable trade to Portugal and the plantations, especially Newfoundland, whence they carry fish to Italy. Here also is the greatest pilchard fishery of any part in the west, except Falmouth. By a grant of Edward III. the burgeses of this town are toll free throughout all Eng-

land; and in the reign of Richard II. they obtained the exclusive privilege of exporting tin.

Dodbrook stands on a little river called the Salcomb, at the distance of a hundred and ninety-eight miles from London. The place is remarkable only for a custom of paying the parson tythe of a liquor called white ale.

Plympton stands on a small stream that runs into the river Plym about two hundred and twenty miles from London. It is called Plympton Maurice, or Earl's Plympton, to distinguish it from Plympton St. Mary; a small town half a mile distant. This is a stannary town; and is well inhabited, consisting chiefly of two streets. It has the best free school in the county, being endowed with lands to the amount of a hundred pounds a year, and built on stone pillars in 1664, by Sir John Maynard, one of the trustees of Elizeus Hele, Esq. of Cornwood, near Plymouth, who gave fifteen hundred pounds a year to such uses.

Plymouth is distant from London two hundred and sixteen miles, and stands on the river Plym above mentioned, which a little hence falls into a bay of the English channel called Plymouth sound, on one side of the town, as the river Tamar does on the other. Plymouth, from a small fishing town is become the largest in the county, and is supposed to contain near as many inhabitants as the city of Exeter. Its port consists of two harbours, capable of containing a thousand sail. It is defended by several forts, mounted with near three hundred guns, and particularly by a strong citadel, erected in the reign of Charles II. before the mouth of the harbour. This citadel, the walls of which include at least two acres of ground, has five regular bastions, contains a large magazine of stores, and mounts a hundred and sixty-five guns. The inlet of the sea, which runs some miles up the county, at the mouth of the Tamar is called the Hamoaze; and that which receives the Plym, the Cut-water. About two miles up the Hamoaze are two docks, one wet and the other dry, with a basin, two hundred foot square; both hewn out of a mine of slate, and lined with Portland stone. The dry dock is formed after the model of a first rate man of war; and the wet dock will contain five first rates. Here are conveniences of all kinds for building and repairing ships; and the whole forms as complete, though not so large as arsenal, as any in the kingdom.

The ships that are homeward bound generally put into this port for pilots, to carry them up the Channel; and in time of war, the convoys for ships outward bound, for the most part rendezvous here.

Till the reign of Queen Elizabeth this town suffered great inconvenience from the want of fresh water, but is now well supplied by a spring seven miles off, the water of which was brought hither at the expence of Sir Francis Drake, who was a native of Plymouth. There is here a good pilchard fishery, and the town has a considerable trade to the Streights and the West Indies.

This county, with Cornwall, constitutes that district which was anciently inhabited by the Danmonii. Its chief manufactures are kerseys, serges, long-cells,

shal-

shalloons, narrow cloths, and bone lace, in which, as well as in corn, cattle, wool, and sea-fish, the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade. It is also much noted for cyder, of which great quantities are made. The chief inconvenience under which the people of this country labour, is the colic, resembling that of Poitou, which often rages with great violence among the poorer sort of the inhabitants. Various are the causes that have been assigned for the production of this disease; but the common opinion is, that it is occasioned by the cyder, either drank in too crude a state, or impregnated with lead from the vessels in which it is made or preserved. Dr. Hardy imputes the disease to the deliterious quality of glazed vessels, used by many of the people, the lead which is employed in the manufacture of those utensils being dissolved by the acid liquor.

Devonshire sends twenty-six members to parliament: two for the county, two for the city of Exeter, and two for each of the following boroughs, viz. Ashburton, Barnstaple, Berrafston, Dartmouth, Honiton, Okehampton, Plymouth, Plymton, Tavistock, Tiverton, and Totnes.

### C H A P. III.

#### *Cornwall, and Somersetshire.*

**CORNWALL** is bounded on the south, and the north, by the sea, and on the east by the river Tamar, which separates it from Devonshire. It is the most western county of England, having on the south a promontory, called the Lizard Point, and another on the west, named the Land's End. Its greatest extent from east to west is seventy-eight miles, and its greatest breadth forty-three.

The principal rivers of Cornwall are the Tamar and the Camel, the former of which has been described in treating of the county of Devon. The Camel rises about two miles north of the borough of Camelford, and having run a course of twelve miles, becomes navigable for small ships, discharging itself afterwards into St. George's Channel, on the north of the county.

Besides these two rivers, there are in Cornwall the Lynher, the Tide or Tidl, the Seaton, the Loo, the Duloo, the Fawy, the Fal, the Hël, the Lo, and the Heyl.

The Lynher rises in the hills in the parish of Altarun, about eight miles west of Launceston; and after a course of about twenty-four miles, falls into the Tamar. In the summer the stream is small, but in the winter very large and rapid.

The Tide, or Tidl, rises on the south side of Caradon hill, near Leskard, and falls into the Lynher, a little below St. Germans.

The Seaton has its source in some high lands called St. Clare, about four miles to the north-east of Leskard; its whole course being about twelve miles.

The Loo, or East Loo, has also its rise in the lands of St. Clare, and after a course of about ten miles, falls into the sea.

The Duloo, or West Loo, rises in the parish of St. Pinock, and after a course of about seven miles, falls into the East Loo.

The Fawy rises in a moor of the same name, not far from a mountain called Brownwilly, which is one of the highest in the county. Having received several rivulets in a course of twenty-six miles, it discharges itself into the sea, between two old towers, which were built in the reign of Edward IV.

The Fal, or Fals, rises at a place called Fenton Val, about two miles to the west of Roche-Hills; and after a course of about twenty miles, falls into the sea.

The Hël issues from some hills near Penhal Guy, and having run a course of about six miles, falls into the sea, where it forms a haven almost a mile wide.

The Lo, or Loo, called the Loo in Kerrier, to distinguish it from the East and West Loo; rises in the north part of the parish of Windron, and after a course of six miles, falls into the sea, having first formed a lake, called Loo Pool.

The Hayl rises from four brooks, about three miles north of a town called St. Erth, and after a course of more than five miles; falls in the sea at St. Ives Bay.

These are all the rivets in Cornwall that are navigable in any part of their course; the others being too inconsiderable to be particularly mentioned.

This county being of a peninsular form, the air here is more damp than in other places that lie remote from the sea. A dry summer is extremely rare in Cornwall; but the rains are rather frequent than heavy. Storms of wind are more sudden and violent than within the land; and the air is impregnated with salt, which rises with the vapours from the sea. This quality renders it unfavourable to persons of a scorbutic habit, and it is also hurtful to shrubs and trees, which are far less common here, on rising grounds, than in the northern counties of England, which are not exposed to blasts from the sea.

Notwithstanding this sharpness of the air, the winters are more mild in Cornwall than in any other part of the Island; so that myrtles, if secured from the sea winds, will flourish here without a green-house. The snow seldom lies more than three or four days upon the ground, and a violent shower of hail is hardly ever known. The spring shews itself early in buds and blossoms, but its progress is not so quick as elsewhere. The summers are not more hot in proportion as the winters are less cold; for the air is always kept cool by the breezes from the sea; and the sun-beams are not reflected from the surrounding water with so much force as from the earth. On this account, though Cornwall is the southernmost county in England, the harvest is later, and the fruit has less flavour here than in the midland parts.

As the county abounds in mines the air is impregnated with mineral vapours, which in some places are so inflammable as to take fire, and appear in flame over the grounds from which they rise. The air of Cornwall, however, is generally esteemed salubrious, except to scorbutic habits, as has already been mentioned;

tioned; for the atmosphere is in a great measure free from the putrid exhalation that in other places rise from bogs, marches, and stagnant waters; and from the corrupt air that is often found in places that are not sufficiently ventilated. In Cornwall, the country is open, the soil in general sound, and the air is always in motion; all which circumstances atone for any noxious effluvia supposed to rise either from the mines or the sea.

The soil of Cornwall is of three kinds; viz. the black and gritty, the shelly and stoney, and the stiff reddish soil, approaching to clay.

The highest grounds are covered with the black soil; and on the tops and sides of hills it bears nothing but four grass, moss, and heath, which is cut up in thin turfs for firing. The bogs and marshes, which are few, and of small extent, yield a thick brick turf, full of the matted roots of sedge-grass, flags, and other marsh plants, which, when perfectly dry, make a strong fuel. In ground farther down from the hills, this black soil serves as wintering for horned cattle, and bears good potatoes, rye, and pillas, the *avena nuda* of Ray. In fields it bears barley and oats, and produces pasture for cows and sheeps, but seldom yields any advantage when it is sown with wheat. The shelly stoney soil is found chiefly in the middle of the county. It is reckoned to bear better corn, especially wheat, and a stronger spine of grass than the black. The reddish loamy soil, which is most common on level grounds and gentle declivities, is of a closer texture, and yields better crops. These three soils, however, are not always found distinct from each other, but in many places are mixed in a great variety of proportions.

In almost every parish there are strata of clay for making brick, as well as white clay for tobacco pipes; with a great variety of the clays called statites, from their resemblance to tallow: but no chalk has yet been discovered in the county.

Of sea sands there is here great variety. Some are spread in a stratum on the highest hills, and there are found in cliffs far above the highest sea mark. On the side of St. Agnes Beacon, one of the highest hills on the coast, at the height of at least four hundred and eighty foot above the level of the sea, the strata, upon digging, appeared in the following order: the vegetable soil and common under it, five foot deep; of fine white and yellow clay six foot; under this a layer of sand like that of the sea below; six foot under this a layer of rounded smooth stones, such as are found on the beach; then a layer of white stony rubble and earth four foot deep; and afterwards the firm rock within which are veins of tin.

The tin mines in Cornwall were, in all probability, wrought before the Romans visited Britain; and though some learned men have inclined to doubt whether that celebrated people extended their conquests hither, yet the frequent discoveries made of late years, of great quantities of Roman coins, urns, and other antiquities, seem to have put this matter out of all question. The tin mines continue to be wrought with great advantage, and no contemptible parcels of gold are some-

times found in them. Here are also lead mines rich in silver, besides almost all kinds of semimetals, and a variety of gems, which are, however, extremely small.

The chief produce of the county is tin and copper. These metals are found in veins or fissures, which are sometimes filled with other substances; this substance, whatever it is, being generally called a lode, from an old Saxon word which signifies *to lead*, as the miners always follow its direction. The course of the fissures is generally east and west, not however in a straight line, but wavy, and one side is sometimes a hard stone, while the other is loose clay. Most of the lodges are impregnated with metal, but not equally in all parts. The lodges seldom more than two foot wide, and commonly do not exceed one foot; but in general, the smaller the lode the better the metal.

The tin is found either collected and fixed, or loose and detached. When collected, it lies either in a lode, or in a horizontal layer of ore, called a floor, interspersed in grains and bunches in the natural rock. If loose and detached, it is found either in single separate stones, shodes, or in a continued course of such stones called the beuhey, i. e. the living stream; for when a stone has no metal in it, the tinners say it is dead. The detached tin is also sometimes found in a powder by itself; but this is only upon the banks of creeks and rivers, where it has probably been thrown by the water after having been washed from its bed by the sea.

A floor is frequently found at the depth of many fathom; and the same ore is sometimes discovered in a perpendicular lode for many fathom, and then dissolved into a floor. The mines which contain those floors are extremely dangerous; for great care must be taken to support the vast mass that is undermined by digging out a horizontal stratum of ore, at the depth of many fathoms below.

Tin, which is the peculiar product of this county, affords not only employment to the poor, but enriches the proprietors of the lands; and yields a considerable revenue to the prince of Wales, who is duke of Cornwall; besides which, it is also an important article of trade to the nation.

Copper is no where found richer, or in greater variety of ores than in Cornwall; though the mines have not been worked with much advantage longer than sixty years. The most common ore is of a yellow brass colour; but some of it is green, blue, black, grey, or red. The green, blue, and black kinds yield but little copper; the grey contains more metal than the yellow, and the red more than the grey. There are, besides, in almost all considerable mines, small quantities of malleable copper, which, from its purity, the miners call the virgin ore. This is combined and alloyed with various substances; sometimes with base crystal, sometimes with a gravelly clay, and at other times with the rust of iron. Its figure also is extremely various: sometimes it is in thin plates, shaped like leaves; sometimes in grains and lumps; at other times branched, fringed, or twisted into wires. It sometimes shoots into blades, crossed at the top like  
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*Another Habit of a Uralian Woman in Siberia, in 1768.*



*L'Abbe' Chappe had great difficulty in bringing away one of these Dresses,  
which he had purchased, it being looked upon as a sacrilegious Bargain.*

a dagger; and sometimes it has the appearance of hollow fillagree. It has also been found in powder, little inferior in lustre to that of gold.

The waters in which the copper ore is washed, has been lately discovered to make blue vitriol of the best kind.

In the vegetable and animal productions of this county there is nothing peculiar, except the pyrrhocorax, a crow with a red bill and red feet, called the Cornish chough; and the seal, or sea-calf, which is frequently found in the caves and other parts of the shores as are least frequented.

Cornwall is divided into nine hundreds, and contains thirty-one towns which are incorporated. It lies in the diocese of Exeter, and province of Canterbury, and includes, according to Camden and Speed, a hundred and sixty-one parish churches; according to others a hundred and eighty; and in Martin's Index Villaris, they are said to be a hundred and ninety-eight.

The towns are, Bodmyn, Boscastle, Boffiney, Camelford, Columb Magna, East Loo, Falmouth, Fowey, St. Germans, Grampont, Helston, St. Ives, Kellington, Launceston, Leskard, Lestwithiel, Market Jew, St. Michael, Mouse Hole, Newport, Padstow, Penryn, Pensance, Redruth, Saltash, Stratton, Tregony, Truro, Wadebridge, and West Loo.

Launceston stands on a rising ground near the Tamar, two hundred and eight miles from London. It includes two ancient boroughs, called Dunhivid or Dunevet, and Newport. It was made a free borough by king Henry III. and incorporated by Queen Mary in 1555. The knights of the shire are elected at this place, and, till lately, the summer assizes were held here; but these are now removed to Bodmyn.

Kellington is distant from London a hundred and ninety-nine miles; and though it has no charter of incorporation, is governed by a portreeve, who is annually chosen at the court leet of the lord of the manor. It stands on the river Lynher, or Lynher, and is greatly superior to the majority of Cornish boroughs. It consists of one good broad street, and its chief trade is the woollen manufacture.

Saltash is situated on the declivity of a steep hill, not more than three miles from the dock of Plymouth, to which there is a ferry over the Tamar, called the Crimble Passage. The harbour will receive ships of any burden; and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in malt and bear. They also furnish the inhabitants of Plymouth Dock with almost all the necessaries that are sold at market; provisions being much cheaper here than at Plymouth, and the people choosing rather to come to Saltash in the town boat, than by land to the town of Plymouth, because the boat without any additional expence, brings home what they buy.

St. Germans derives its name from St. Germanus, a bishop of Burgundy, who came over hither to suppress the Pelagian heresy. It is distant from London two hundred and twenty miles, and is a mean place, consisting only of a few fishermen's cottages, built upon an irregular rock, in form of an amphitheatre, and washed by the river Tide, which abounds with oysters. It was once a bishop's see, and the ruins of the episcopal palace are still visible at Cuttenbeck.

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about a mile and a half from the town. The church is large, and not ill built, with an episcopal chair and stalls for the prebends. The parish in which this town stands, which is also called St. Germans, is the largest in the county, being twenty miles in compass, and containing seventeen villages. It is supposed to include more gentlemen's seats and lordships than any other parish in England.

East Loo and West Loo, so called from their situation on the river Loo, are distant from London two hundred and thirty-two miles, and joined by a stone bridge of fifteen arches. East Loo has a wall next to the sea, with a battery of four guns; and the inhabitants carry on a small trade, by fishing for pilchards. At West Loo, which is also called Port Pig-ham, there is a commodious harbour, though not large, and the river is navigable for vessels of a hundred tons.

Leskard is distant from London two hundred and twenty-nine miles, and was first incorporated by Edward earl of Cornwall. It is seated upon a hill, and is one of the largest and best built towns in the county. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade with the neighbouring towns in boots and shoes, and spin a great deal of yarn for the clothiers of Devonshire.

Boscastle lies a hundred and eighty-six miles from London, in the north part of the county; and was, in ancient times, a place of considerable note; but now very mean.

Boffiney, called also Tintagel and Trevona, is distant from London two hundred and fifty-two miles. It stands upon two rocks, one of which is on the main land, and the other in the sea. The two parts were formerly joined by a drawbridge; but this has been destroyed by the fall of the cliffs on the farther side, which has filled up the space between the different parts of the town. The farthestmost point of the rock that was surrounded by the sea, is called Black-head, and is well known to mariners. On the top of it are the ruins of a castle, said to have been the birth-place of the British king Arthur. At present the town is very inconsiderable, being little more than the ruins of ancient buildings, most of which were of stone, joined together by a cement, so strong, that where the stone is washed away, this remains in many places.

Padstow, originally Petrock-Stow, derived its name from Petrocus, a British hermit, who lived here in his cell. It stands on the river Camel, in the Bristol Channel, two hundred and thirty-two miles from London. The harbour is the best in the north part of the county, and capable of receiving ships of great burden; but it cannot be entered without danger, except by a very skilful pilot, as there are rocks on each side, and banks of sand on the west. The chief trade of this place is in slate, tiles, and the herring fishery.

Five miles south of Padstow lies Wadebridge, which derives its name from a bridge over the Camel, the largest construction of the kind in this county. The erection of this bridge was undertaken in the year 1460, by the vicar of Egloshel, whose name was Lovebon, a man of a great public spirit. There was then a

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ferry over the Camel, but it could be plied only when the tide was in; and when the tide was out the ford was exceeding dangerous. The expence of this noble work was greatly disproportioned to the circumstances of the projector; and in the course of it many difficulties arose, by which a mind less ardent and less firm would have been driven from its purpose. The foundation of some of the piers proved so swampy, that after many other expedients had been tried without success, they were at last built upon woolpacks. But whatever were the difficulties and discouragement that occurred, Lovebon persevered, and being aided by the contributions of others, whose assistance he solicited with unwearied application, when his own powers were exhausted, he lived to see his bridge completed as it now stands, with seventeen arches stretching quite across the valley, to the great emolument of his country, and the immortal honour of his name.

Bodmyn is distant from London two hundred and sixty-three miles, and lies between two hills, almost in the centre of the county, a situation which renders it less healthful than any other part of Cornwall. This inconvenience is perhaps increased by the water that supplies the town, which runs in a conduit through the church-yard, if its course has not lately been altered. Bodmyn consists chiefly of one street, near a mile in length, and containing about three hundred houses. The church here is the largest in the county, and had once a spire, but this was destroyed by lightning in the year 1699. The remains of an episcopal palace and priory are still to be seen, besides vestiges of many other buildings, which shew that this place was anciently far more considerable than at present. In this town is the sheriff's prison for debtors, and a free-school, maintained partly by the duke of Cornwall, and partly by the corporation. The principal manufacture is yarn, for which Bodmyn was once the only staple in the county, but in this it is much decayed.

Leftwithiel is distant from London two hundred and thirty-nine miles, and was in ancient times the place where the earl of the province resided. It originally stood upon a high hill, where are still the remains of an old castle, called Lestormin, or Restormel, which was the provincial palace; but the town is now removed into the valley, and, though well-built, is not populous, because the river Fawy, on which it stands, is no longer navigable for vessels. It still however enjoys some peculiar privileges: the common jail for all the stanaries, and their weights and measures, are kept here. This place also holds the bushelage of coals, salt, malt, and corn in town of Fowey, with the anchorage in its harbour, for which, and other privileges, it pays 11 l. 19 s. 10 d. per annum to the duchy of Cornwall. The remaining trade of the town consists in woollen manufactures.

Fowey, so called from the river on which it is situated, lies to the south of Leftwithiel, two hundred and forty miles from London. It is both populous and extensive, reaching more than a mile on the east side of the river, and has a commodious haven in the channel. On each side of the harbour there was formerly a fort, the remains of which are yet visible.

This place flourished greatly in former times, by naval wars and piracies; and it has still a considerable share of the fishing trade, especially of that for pilchards. It is a member of the cinque ports, having obtained that privilege from king Edward III. for succouring some ships of Rye that were in distress.

Grampont stands two hundred and fifty-one miles from London, and consists only of one street. Among other privileges, which are held of the duchy at the annual rent of twelve guineas, the corporation is exempted from all tolls within the boundaries of Cornwall. The inhabitants carry on a considerable manufacture of gloves.

Tregony is distant from London two hundred and seventy-four miles, and stands on the river Fal, which is navigable from Falmouth to this place. The chief manufacture is serge.

Truro, so called from its consisting chiefly of three streets, as the Cornish word *Truru* signifies, lies two hundred and seventy-four miles from London, and was first incorporated by king John. It is situated near the conflux of two small rivers, which almost surround it, and forms a large wharf, with a commodious quay, for vessels of about one hundred tons. The streets are regular, and the church, which is a large Gothic building, not inferior to any in the county. The people of this town live and dress so elegantly, that the *pride* of Truro is one of the by-words of the county. The chief trade of the place consists in shipping off tin and copper ore.

Redruth is distant from London two hundred and seventy-three miles; and lying in the middle of the mines, is populous by the resort of the tinners.

Penryn is situated upon a hill at the entrance of Falmouth harbour, near Pendennis Castle, and is surrounded with gardens and orchards. It is well watered with rivulets, and has on each side of it an arm of the sea, with a good custom-house, quay, and other neat buildings. Here are the ruins of a collegiate church, founded by Brancomb, bishop of Exeter, consisting of a tower and part of the garden walls. Penryn is inhabited by many merchants, and carries on a considerable trade in catching, drying, and vending pilchards, and in the Newfoundland fishery.

Falmouth, so called from its situation at the mouth of the river Fal, is distant from London two hundred and eighty-two miles, and is a well-built town. The harbour here is almost a mile wide, secured with hills and winding creeks, with a deep channel, and a bold shore. In this harbour it is said that a hundred ships may anchor, and no one see the other's top. It is also situated conveniently for getting clear of the Channel, and is reckoned the second harbour in Great Britain, yielding only to Milford Haven, on the coast of Wales. Near the middle of it, however, there is a rock, the top of which is below high water mark, but no damage happens from it, because the heirs of Killebrew, the lords of Pendennis Castle, which guards the entrance, are obliged to keep a tall pole fixed on the highest part of it, so that its situation is seen and avoided.

Hellston stands about two hundred and ninety-four miles from London, on the river Cober, not far from

its influx into the sea. It is large and populous, consisting chiefly of four streets, built in the form of a cross, through each of which runs a stream of water. At the intersection of these streets stands the market-house, which is a large convenient building. This town has also a guild-hall and a church, with a steeple that is ninety feet high, and serves as a sea-mark. A little below the town is a harbour, which is far from being contemptible, where many of the tin ships take in their lading.

Market-Jew lies several miles north-west of Helston, upon a bay, called Mounts Bay. It has a harbour, which is neither commodious nor safe, and the town is very inconsiderable.

St. Ives is distant from London two hundred and seventy-eight miles, and stands upon a bay, now almost choked up with sand, that has been driven hither by the north-west wind, to which it is greatly exposed. The town at present is small, but has a handsome church, which however is but a chapel to the parish of Unilant. Before the harbour was blocked up, the inhabitants carried on a considerable trade in pilchards and Cornish slates but is now greatly declined.

Penzance is situated two hundred and ninety miles from London, in the bottom of Mounts Bay. It is well built, and populous, and carries on a considerable trade.

Cornwall was anciently inhabited by those Britons whom the Romans named Dunmonii, or Danmuni, and there are yet in the country many monuments of its former possessors. Of those the most simple are single stones, not only unincised, but unhewn. Others are composed of two, three, or more stones, arranged sometimes in a straight line, and sometimes in a circular form. In Mên Perken, a village between Falmouth and Helston, there stood, not many years ago, a large pyramidal stone, twenty four foot high, of which twenty foot appeared above ground. Here is also a stone shaped like the Greek letter omega; it is thirty-feet round, and eleven feet high; adjoining to which are other large stones, that still shew plain marks of workmanship, as if they had been partly fashioned according to the same model.

Near a village called St. Cleere, north of Leskard, are many large stones of a rude columnar shape, now lying at full length on the ground, though it is unquestionable that they formerly stood erect. Here is also a pile of rocks, placed one over another, called Wingcheefe, from the resemblance of some of them to large cheeses, pressed by the superincumbent weight. This pile is thirty-two feet high, and attracts the admiration of all travellers. The stones towards the top project so far over the middle part, that it has been a matter of wonder how so ill constructed a mass could resist for so many ages the storms of so exposed a situation. Most writers, however, are of opinion, that this is a natural structure. The top stone is said to have been formerly a legan, or rocking stone, but is now become immoveable.

Some stone monuments in this country consist of a large orbicular rock, supported by two other rocks,

between which there is a passage. The most astonishing monument of the kind now remaining is at Mên, between Falmouth and Helston. It consists of one vast oval pebble, placed on the points of two natural rocks, so that a man may creep under the incumbent rock, and between its two supporters, through a passage about three foot wide. The longest diameter of the incumbent stone, which points due north and south, is thirty-three foot, and the circumference ninety-seven. On the top, the whole surface is wrought into basons, and resembles a mutilated honeycomb. Most of those cavities discharge their contents into two principal basons, one on the south, and the other at the north end of the rock.

Near Madern, north of Penzance, are three stones standing erect in a triangular figure. One of them is thin and flat, and fixed in the ground on its edge, having in the middle a large hole about fourteen inches diameter.

Each of the other two stones is a rude pillar about four feet high; and near one of them is a stone lying like a cushion or pillow, as if to kneel upon. To what particular rite of superstition this monument was appropriated, is uncertain; but the country people in the neighbourhood, even at this day, creep through the holed stone for pains in their backs and limbs; young children are drawn through it to cure them of the rickets, and it serves also as an oracular monument, to inform the devotees of some material incident of love or fortune.

Of the same kind there are many other stones, in different parts of the country, all which, there is the strongest reason to suppose were worshipped by the Druids, a people who were much addicted to this superstition.

In this county there are several rocking-stones; or, as they are here called, logan stones; some of which are supposed to be natural, and others artificial. Near the southernmost point of the Land's-End, there is a promontory called Castle Trerryn, which consists of three distinct piles of rocks. On the west side of the middle pile, near the top, lies a very large stone, so evenly poised, that any hand may rock it; yet we are told, that the extremities of its base are at such a distance from each other, and so well secured, that it is impossible any lever, or indeed, any force, however applied in a mechanical way, could remove it from its present situation.

In the parish of Sithny, near Helston, stood a famous logan stone, commonly called Mân Amber. It is eleven foot long, twenty-four in girth, and was so nicely poised, that the smallest force could move it; but in the time of Oliver Cromwell it was undermined and thrown down by order of the governor of Pendennis.

Among the multitude of monuments in Cornwall, are circles of erect stones, also frequent in other places. The number of stones erected on a circular plan is various, and is supposed to have been either the effect of some established rules observed in their construction, or to be expressive of the erudition of those ages. In the parish of St. Cleere, there are three cir-

circles, called the Hurlers, contiguous to each other, having their centres in a line. The stones of this monument are by the vulgar supposed to have been once men, who were thus transformed as a punishment for profaning the sabbath day with hurling; a game at ball used by the people of Cornwall.

Here are also great numbers of those artificial heaps of earth or stone, called barrows, or tumuli, but in Cornwall generally crigs, or crugs; those which consist of stone being for the most part denominated karnes.

An earthen barrow of a large circumference, and about five foot high, situated in a field at Trelowarren, not far from Helston, was opened in 1751. When the workmen had dug half-way to the bottom, they found a parcel of stones placed in some order, which being removed, a cavity was discovered in the middle of the barrow, about two foot in diameter, containing human bones, intermixed with wood ashes. At a little distance were found two urns, one on each side the cavity, with their mouths turned downwards, and likewise inclosing small bones and ashes.

Besides these plain barrows, there are others which discover greater art. Some are surrounded with a single row of stones, which form the base; others with a sofa of earth; some have a large flat stone on the top, and some a pillar, now and then with, but oftener without inscription. Some have a circle round both the top and bottom; and where this custom prevailed, and no stones lay convenient for the purpose, trees were planted.

The size of these sepulchral monuments is various, and generally in proportion to the quality of the deceased, or the vanity, affection, and power of the surviving relations. When not very large; and the burying places of private persons only, they were situated near public roads, to put travellers in mind of their common destiny. Such as were the sepulchres of common soldiers, slain in war, were generally thrown up on the field of battle. Of this kind many are to be seen in straight lines, stretching along the plains which have been the scenes of great action.

In several parts of Cornwall we meet with a large flat stone, in a horizontal position, supported by others of the same form, fixed in the ground. The name of this kind of monument is cromlech, and its situation is generally on the top of a hill, but sometimes on that of a barrow. It is for the most part elevated six or eight foot, or upwards, from the ground, though some are found inclosed in the barrow, on a level with its surface. The number of supporters in all the monuments of this class is uniformly three, and these inclose an area generally of six foot or more in length, and three foot in breadth at the widest parts. Monuments of this kind have been found in many places on the continent of Europe, and the islands of the Mediterranean, as well as in Great Britain and Ireland. They are generally supposed to be of Celtic origin; and from the skeleton of a human body, with several pieces of bones lately dug up in a monument of this kind in Ireland, it is conjectured that they also were sepulchral.

In the parish of Madern, in this county, there are two cromlechs, one at Moltra, and the other at Lanyon. The former is placed on the summit of a round hill. The cover-stone measures eight foot nine inches by fourteen foot three inches, and the supporters, of which there are three, are five foot high. The stone barrow that surrounds this cromlech is not two foot high from the adjacent ground, but is thirty-seven foot in diameter.

The cover-stone of the cromlech at Lanyon is forty-seven foot in girt, and in some places two foot thick; it is also so high, that a man on horseback can stand under it. This cromlech stands on a bank of earth about the same height with the preceding; seventy foot long, however, and twenty foot wide. Under the cover-stone of some of these monuments is found a stone chest.

Besides these various monuments, referred by antiquaries to the times of the Druids, many other stones are found in the county, which bear inscriptions, and are thence attributed to later ages. Great numbers of ancient coins, both British and Roman, have also been dug up in several places; and there yet remain the vestiges of many fortifications, which had been erected in a remote period.

Till the time of king Henry VIII. the inhabitants of Cornwall used a peculiar language, which, though a dialect of the Celtic, was different from all the other modifications of that ancient tongue; but since the period abovementioned it has gradually declined, and is now, we believe, totally extinct.

Cornwall sends no less than forty-four members to parliament, viz. two for the county, and two for each of the following boroughs; namely, Bodmyn, Bosfiney, Camelford, East Loo, West Loo, Fowey, St. Germans, Grampton, Helston, St. Ives, Kellington, Launceston, Lelkard, Lestwithiel, St Maws, St. Michael, Newport, Saltash, Tregony, and Truro.

#### S O M E R S E T S H I R E.

Somersetshire is bounded by the Bristol channel on the north-west; by part of Gloucestershire on the north-east; by Wiltshire on the east; by Dorsetshire on the south; and by Devonshire on the west. It extends in length from east to west about sixty miles, and in breadth fifty.

The principal rivers are the Avon, the Bry, and the Pedred, or Parret. The former of these, distinguished by the name of Avon-West, runs near Tetbury, a market-town in Gloucestershire, and, separating that county from Somersetshire, falls into the Severn, near Bristol, in Somersetshire.

The Bry, called also the Bru, and the Brent, rises in a large wood, called Selwood, in the east part of the county; when running westward, and dividing the county nearly into two equal parts, it falls into the Bristol channel a few miles north of Bridgewater.

The Pedred, or Parret, rises in the southernmost part of the county, near Crewkern, a market-town, and running north-west, is joined by the Evel or Ivel; the Thone or Tone, with the Ondred, and some

some other small rivers, after which it discharges itself into the æstuary of the Bly. Other less considerable rivers in this county are the Frome, the Axe, and the Torr.

The air in this county is said to be the mildest in England; in most places it is very healthy, and upon the hilly parts exceeding pure. The soil is of various qualities: the eastern and western parts of the county are mountainous and stony; but they yield good pasture for sheep, and by the help of cultivation are rendered fit to produce corn. The lower grounds, except such as are boggy or fenny, afford great plenty of grass and corn; and a valley of a very large extent, called Taunton-Dean, or the Vale of Taunton, is so exceeding rich, that it produces corn, grass, and fine fruit in great abundance, without manure. The grain of this county supplies many domestic and foreign markets.

In no part of England is wood known to thrive better than in Somersetshire; and teazle, a species of thistle, much used in the woollen manufacture, is almost peculiar to this county. On the beach of the Bristol Channel there is also found a weed, or sea plant, of which the inhabitants make cakes, called laver, reputed wholesome and nourishing food, and which are not to be found in any other part of the kingdom.

The oxen of this county are as large as those of Lancashire or Lincolnshire, and the grain of the flesh is said to be finer. The valleys fatten a prodigious number of sheep, of the largest size in England. There is great plenty of wild fowl; but there being only a few parks, venison is scarce. The south shore furnishes the inhabitants with lobsters, crabs, and mackerel; the Bristol Channel and the Severa with soles, flounders, plaice, shrimp, prawns, herrings, and cod; the Parret affords plenty of Salmon; and the Avon abounds with a sort of blackish eels, called elvers, hardly so big as a goose quill, which are skimmed up in vast quantities with small nets, and which, when the skin is taken off, are made into cakes and fried.

The Mendip-hills, a large tract of mountains which occupies the interior parts of the county are the most famous in England for coal and lead mines; but the lead is less soft, fusible, and ductile, than that of Derbyshire, and therefore not so proper for sheeting. On this account it is generally exported, or cast into bullets and small shot. Copper and okre are also found in those hills, and the lapis calaminaris is dug up here in greater quantities than in any other part of England.

The beautiful fossil called Bristol stone, is found in great plenty in some rocks upon the banks of the Avon, near Bristol; and at Bishop's-Chow, near Writon, is dug up a red bole, called by the country people redding, which is sent all over England, for marking of sheep and other uses.

Somersetshire lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Bath and Wells. It is a large and populous county, divided into forty-two hundreds, and containing no less than three cities, with thirty-one market towns. The cities are Bath, Bristol, and Wells; and

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the market-towns are Axbridge, Bridgewater, Bruton, Castle-Cary, Chard, Crewkerne, Cruscomb, Dulverton-Dunster, Frome-Selwood, Glastonbury, Ilchester, Ilminster, Keynsham, Langport, Milbourn-port, Minehead, North-Cursy, Ponsford, Petherton-South, Phillips-Norton, Shepton Mallet, Somerton, Stoway, Taunton, Matchet, Wellington, Wincaunton, Wivelcomb, Writon, and Yeovil.

The city of Bath is distant from London a hundred and eight miles, and derives its name from some natural hot baths, for which the place has been long celebrated. It stands in a valley, upon the north bank of the river Avon, and is surrounded with hills in the form of an amphitheatre. It is encompassed with walls, which, though slight and almost entire, are supposed to have been the work of the Romans; and the upper part seems to have been repaired with the ruins of Roman buildings. The ground inclosed by the walls is in the form of a pentagon; and in those were four gates and a postern, which have lately been demolished.

Bath is a bishop's see, united to that of Wells; and contains a cathedral, besides three parish churches. The former, which is dedicated to St. Peter, was begun in 1137, but not finished till 1612. Though small, it is a noble structure, and the inside of the roof is elegantly wrought. In the middle there is a handsome tower, and the east window is very magnificent. On the south side of the cathedral there are some remains of an abbey, to which the church formerly belonged. The gate-house of the abbey is still standing, and has been a long time converted into lodgings.

Here is a hospital dedicated to St. John, which was founded by Fitz-Joceline, bishop of this see in the twelfth century, for the sick and poor people who come hither for the benefit of the waters. Another hospital, or infirmary, intended likewise for the reception of the sick and lame from all parts of the kingdom, has been lately built. It measures a hundred foot in front, ninety in depth, and will accommodate a hundred and fifty patients. Here are also some alms-houses, one of which, called Ruscot's charity, is endowed for the maintenance of twelve men and as many women; and the others are chiefly supported by the chamber of the city.

Over the market place is a town-hall, erected on twenty-one stone pillars. The hall is a large stone building, and adorned with several paintings.

Here are five hot baths, called the King's Bath, the Queen's Bath, the Cross Bath, the Hot Bath, and the Leper's Bath; besides a cold bath, which was erected by contribution not many years ago.

The King's Bath is sixty foot square, supplied by many hot springs that rise in the middle of it. Contiguous to this bath is a neat pump-room, where the company meet to drink the water, which is conveyed hither from the springs, as hot as it can be drank. In this bath is the figure of an ancient British king, called Bleyden the Soothsayer, with an inscription, importing that he discovered the use of those springs three hundred years before the Christian æra.

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The Queen's Bath is separated from the King's only by a wall. It has no spring, but receives its water from the King's Bath, and is therefore less hot.

The Cross Bath received its name from a cross that formerly stood in the middle of it. It is of a triangular form, and its heat is also less than that of the King's Bath, because it has fewer springs. This bath, which is most frequented by persons of quality, was covered by James Ley, earl of Marlborough. On the side is a gallery, where gentlemen and ladies stand and converse with their friends in the bath. On the opposite side is a balcony for music, which plays all the time of bathing. This bath will fill in fifteen or sixteen hours all the year round, and is more temperate than either the King's Bath, or the Hot Bath; the latter of which was thus named from having been formerly hotter than the rest, but it was not then so large as at present.

The Lepers' Bath is formed from the overflowings of the Cross Bath, and is allotted for the use of the poor people, supported by the charity of the place.

Those hot springs were surrounded by the Romans with a wall, to separate them from the common cold springs, with which this place abounds; and there is a tradition that they also made subterranean canals to carry off the cold waters, lest they should mix with the former. The hot waters are grateful to the stomach, have a mineral taste, and a strong scent, with a bluish colour. They prove neither diuretic nor cathartic; but if salt be added, they generally purge in a short time. After long standing, they deposit a black mud, which is used by way of cataplasms for local pain; and is frequently found more serviceable than the waters themselves. They are of great use in many chronic diseases, and in obstructions and constipations of the bowels, which they remarkably strengthen.

The seasons for drinking the Bath waters are the spring and autumn: the former begins with April and ends with June; and the latter, which commences in September, lasts till December; but some persons remain 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 resort hither for amusement. In some seasons there have been no less than eight thousand persons at Bath, besides its inhabitants.

Without the walls of the city there is a quadrangle of elegant stone buildings, called Queen's Square, lately erected. The front extends two hundred foot, and is beautified with columns and pilasters of the Corinthian order. On the side of this square is a fine chapel, and in the centre an obelisk, seventy foot high, with an inscription, expressing, "that it was erected by Richard Nash, esq. in memory of honour bestowed, and in gratitude for benefits conferred on the city, by the prince and princess of Wales, in 1738," when their royal highnesses lodged in the Square.

In the year 1740, the first stone of another new and magnificent building was laid on the south side of the city, upon the bank of the river. The princi-

pal front of this structure is five hundred foot in extent; and the two wings are two hundred and sixty foot each. In each front are sixty-three windows, and in each wing thirty-one. Here is a superb ball-room, ninety foot long, and fifty-two broad, besides an assembly-room of the same dimensions, with a garden, and bowling green. On the east is a grand parade, called the North Parade, two hundred yards in length, and a terrace five hundred yards in circumference, with several other walks. Here is also a bridge over the Avon, of one arch, a hundred and twenty foot wide.

The South Parade is likewise adorned with such noble buildings, as render this city one of the most elegant that is any where to be seen.

In general, the houses in Bath are handsome, and neatly furnished. The stone of which they are built, is for the most part dug out of quarries upon Clarton-Down, where there are frequent horse-races; and it is conveyed from a steep hill to the river Avon, by means of a curious machine, invented by Mr. Allen, formerly mayor of Bath. It is therefore afforded at so small a price, that building is cheaper here than, perhaps, in any other part of the kingdom. From the same quarries stone is also sent by the Avon, to Bristol, London, and other places; and, near this city, Mr. Allen built for himself, of the same materials, one of the most magnificent villas in England.

The city of Bath was famous among the Romans for its medicinal waters. It is called by Ptolemy *Therma Siqua, hot waters*, and by Antoninus *Aqua solis, waters of the sun*. Upon the spot now occupied by the cathedral church, it is said there formerly stood a temple dedicated to Minerva, who was the tutelary deity of those springs; and hence the ancient Britons called this city *Caer Palladur*, which signifies *the city of the water of Pallas*.

Upon Landdown-Hill, in the neighbourhood of Bath, are still to be seen the remains of a fortification, supposed to have been thrown up by the Saxons in the year 520, when they defended themselves against the victorious king Arthur.

On the inside of the city wall, between the north and west gates, are several stones with ancient figures and inscriptions. On one of those is an image of Hercules holding up his left hand, and having his club in the right. Upon another, the same hero is represented with snakes in his hands. It has been said that all natural hot baths were sacred to Hercules; but as the baths of this place are known to have been dedicated to Minerva, there appears some reason to conclude, that natural hot baths were dedicated both to Hercules and Minerva.

At Bathford, north-east of the city of Bath, and on the other side of the river Avon, in the beginning of the last century, a room was discovered under ground, with a chequered pavement of white, blue, and red stones.

Bristol is distant from London a hundred and seventeen miles, and is a bishop's see. It stands upon the north and south sides of the river Avon, and is therefore partly in the county of Gloucester, and partly in that of Somerset, but chiefly in the former.

Here

Here is a stone bridge, consisting of four broad arches. The streets of the city are narrow, irregular, and not well paved. Many of the houses are five or six stories high, with the upper floors projecting over the lower, as was the fashion in London before the fire in 1666. The Gloucestershire side of the city is four miles and a half in circumference, and the Somersetshire two miles and a half. The whole is supposed to contain thirteen thousand houses, and ninety-five thousand inhabitants.

Bristol had formerly a castle, and was inclosed with walls, which were demolished in the time of king William Rufus. Some parts of them, however, yet remain, with two of the gates, called Ratcliffe-gate, and Temple-gate. Here is a cathedral and eighteen parish churches, besides seven or eight meeting-houses of Protestant dissenters. The cathedral was formerly the collegiate church of a monastery dedicated to St. Augustine, and was founded in 1148. Few places can boast of a greater number of charitable foundations.

In Wine-street, there is a large corn-market, built of free-stone, and a guard-room adjoining, with barracks for soldiers. In the middle of a square called College-Green, is a fine Gothic structure, distinguished by the name of the Cross, having round it the effigies of several kings of England.

On the north side of a square, called Queen's Square, is a custom-house, with a quay half a mile in length, reputed to be the most commodious in England.

This place is famous for a medicinal hot spring, which rises near the Avon, about a mile from the city, and is very much frequented from April to September. It is lighter than other water, clear, pure, soft, and has a gentle degree of heat. It is chiefly prescribed for hæmorrhages, the diabetes, and purulent ulcers of the viscera. It is not only drank at the pump-room, but every morning cried in the streets of the city like milk; and it retains its virtues longer than any other medicinal waters. Near the well is an assembly-room, and lodgings for the accommodation of strangers.

This city carries on considerable manufactures of woollen stuffs, particularly cantaloons; and here are no less than fifteen glass-houses for the manufacture of drinking-glasses, bottles, and plate-glass. The extensive commerce maintained by Bristol, renders it, next to London, the principal port in the British dominions. It has a very great trade to the West Indies, as it has also to Guinea, Holland, Hamburgh, and Norway. Its constant intercourse with Ireland alone, constitutes a most important branch of traffic; besides which it has acquired the whole trade of South Wales, as well as the greater part of North Wales by means of the Severn and the Wye.

The city of Wells derives its name from a great number of springs in the neighbourhood, and is distant from London a hundred and twenty-seven miles. It was erected into an episcopal see in 905; but Johannes de Vallula, the sixteenth bishop, transferred the see to Bath, and renounced the title of Wells.

For a considerable time after this period, great disputes subsisted between the churches of Bath and Wells concerning the election of a bishop. About the year 1133, however, the matter was compromised, and it was agreed, that upon the vacancy of the see, the bishop should be elected by the canons both of Bath and Wells, but the presidency in style should be given to Bath.

This is a small but neat city, situated at the bottom of Mendip-hills; the buildings are handsome, and the streets broad. Here is a cathedral and one parish church, the former of which is said to have been first built by king Ina, about the year 704, but it was afterwards so effectually repaired by Fitz-Joceline, in the twelfth century, that it was considered as a new work. The front of this Gothic structure is much admired for its carved stone-work, but particularly for a window which is most curiously painted. Adjoining to the church are spacious cloysters, and a chapter-house, which is built in the manner of a rotundo, supported by one pillar in the middle. Here is also a close belonging to the cathedral, with very good houses, and a bishop's palace, in which is a fine chapel, built by the same Fitz-Joceline. The palace, reckoned one of the handsomest in the kingdom, is fortified with walls and a moat.

In the middle of the city is the old market-house, called the Cross, and near it there was lately erected another market-house, which is a handsome building, and is also the place where the judges hold the assizes. Some bone-lace is made here; but the poor are chiefly employed in knitting stockings.

The first market-town in our route from Cornwall is Dulverton. This is a pretty little town, with a good market, situated on the borders of Devonshire, and is distant from London a hundred and sixty-nine miles.

Minehead lies a hundred and sixty-seven miles from London; it is a well-built town, and an harbour in the Bristol Channel, much frequented by passengers to and from Ireland, with which kingdom it carries on a considerable trade in wool, and with South Wales in coals. It has a fine quay, and the largest ships may enter and ride safe in the harbour. Three or four thousand barrels of herrings are here caught, cured, and shipped off annually for the Levant and other parts.

About fourteen miles east of Minehead, lies Watchet, situated likewise on the Bristol Channel. There are about seven or eight vessels belonging to this port, which trade in coals, or serve as coasters to Bristol, where they supply the glass-houses with the ashes of sea-weed, of which a great quantity is burnt here for that purpose; as they also do with alabaster, collected from the adjacent cliffs. The inhabitants of this town and neighbourhood burn vast heaps of pebble-stones which are found upon the coast, into lime, for dressing their lands, but chiefly for the purpose of building.

Wellington is distant a hundred and fifty-one miles from London. Here is a manufacture of serges, druggets, and other woollen stuffs, with a considerable pottery.



Taunton is pleasantly situated, a hundred and forty-seven miles from London, and is one of the largest and most populous boroughs in the kingdom. Several of the streets are spacious and handsome, and here are two parish-churches, one of which, dedicated to St. Mary Magdalen, is a noble structure, having a high tower of stately pinnacles, adorned with carved work. Here are also several meeting-houses of Protestant dissenters, a grammar-school well endowed, and a number of almshouses. A castle was built here by one of the bishops of Winchester, to the prelates of which see this town belonged, even before the Conquest. Of this building, which appears to have been of great extent, the castle-hall, with the outward-gate, and porter's lodge, are yet standing. In the hall the assizes for the county are generally held. A fine bridge is erected here over the Tone.

It is a privilege of this place, that every post-walloper, i. e. all who dress their own victuals, are entitled to vote at the election of a member of parliament. In consequence of this privilege, the inmates or lodgers, some time before an election, have each a fire made in the street, at which they dress victuals publicly, lest their votes should be called in question.

Many thousand persons are here employed in the manufacture of serges, duroys, sagathies, shalloons, and other woollen stuffs, for the weaving of which, eleven hundred looms have frequently been employed at a time. The river Tone, by an act of parliament passed in the reign of king William III. was made navigable by barges from Taunton to Bridgewater.

Somerton is a port-town, situated on a branch of the Parret, a hundred and twenty-nine miles from London, and seventeen east of Taunton. The chief support of the place is the markets and fairs held for the cattle which are fed on a neighbouring common. Not far hence is a steep mountain, called Camalet Hill, said to be a mile in compass at the top, where vestiges of a Roman camp are still to be seen.

Chard is a hundred and forty miles from London, and was made a free borough in the reign of Henry III. a privilege which it has since lost. It consists chiefly of four streets that terminate near a market-place. Here is a small woollen manufactory, and and there are fulling-mills in the neighbourhood.

Bridgewater lies a hundred and forty-three miles from London, and is one of the most considerable towns in the county. It is situated upon the river Parret, twelve miles from the Bristol Channel, whence ships of two hundred tons may come up to its quay. Here is a castle, built by William de Brivere, lord of Bridgewater, in the reign of king John; and a church with a spire, which is one of the loftiest in England. Near the church is a large school, built of free-stone, and under the school-room are lodgings for the poor of the parish. Over the Parret here is likewise a stone bridge, begun by the same William de Brivere who built the castle, and finished by Thomas Trivet, the succeeding lord of the manor.

The revenues of the corporation, consisting of the manor of the borough, the great and small tithes, and some estates in Dorsetshire, are valued at ten thousand

pounds a year; and its burgesses are free of all the ports of England and Ireland, except London and Dublin.

By its convenient situation Bridgewater carries on a pretty good coast-trade to Bristol, Wales, and Cornwall; and upwards of twenty coal-ships are constantly employed from this port. Its foreign trade is chiefly to Portugal and Newfoundland. Wool is imported hither in great quantities from Ireland. The receipt of the customs here amounts to upwards of three thousand pounds a year. The market is the most considerable in the county for corn, cattle, hogs, sheep, and cheese; and there is no part of the kingdom where provisions may be purchased cheaper.

Langport stands on the river Parret, south-east of Bridgewater, at the distance of a hundred and twenty-nine miles from London, being a great thoroughfare in the road thence to Taunton, and other towns in the West. It formerly sent members to parliament, but has lost that privilege. A great number of lighters are constantly employed in bringing coals, and other commodities, to this place from Bridgewater, by the river Parret.

In the river Parret, near its confluence with the Tone, north-west of Langport, is a small island, hardly containing two acres of ground, called the Isle of Athelney; a name derived from the Saxon word *Ætheling*, which signifies *an island of nobles*. It received its name from being the retreat of the great king Alfred, and a few of his attendants, after he had been defeated by the Danes. That king afterwards built here a monastery, the foundations of which were discovered by some labourers in the year 1674. Among other subterraneous remains of this building, were found the bases of church pillars, consisting of wrought free-stone, with coloured tiles. Soon afterwards, near this island, was found a fort of medal or picture of St. Cuthbert, with a Saxon inscription, importing that it was made by order of king Alfred. It appears, by its form, to have hung by a string; and it is conjectured, that the king wore it either as an amulet, or in veneration of St. Cuthbert, who is said to have appeared to him in his troubles, and assured him of the victories which he afterwards obtained over the Danes.

Ivelchester, or Ilchester, stands a hundred and twenty-five miles from London, and is a very ancient borough. In the reign of Edward III. the assizes for the county were fixed here; but they have long since been held alternately at Wells, Taunton, and Bridgewater. Here, however, the knights of the shire continue to be elected. At this place are held the county-courts, and here is the jail for debtors and malefactors.

This town was known to Antoninus by the name of *Ischalis*, and was doubtless a place of consequence in the time of the Romans. The ruins of a double wall, with which the town was enclosed, are still visible, and Roman coins, of gold, silver, and brass, have frequently been dug up here. This town was the birth place of the celebrated Friar Bacon, who lived in the thirteenth century.

This town was anciently a place of great importance, and very populous. About the time of the Conquest it not only had a castle, which is now in ruins, but was encompassed with a double wall. Over the Ivel it has a stone bridge, on which are yet to be seen the remains of two ancient towers. It had also several parish churches, though now there is but one. At present its chief dependence is upon the county jail, on which account it cannot be supposed to be an agreeable residence. A place called King's-moor in the neighbourhood, is famous for horse-races.

Yeovil stands also upon the river Ivel, a hundred and twenty-three miles from London. The streets are narrow, and the houses for the most part mean; but the town is of considerable extent, and a great thoroughfare in the post-road to Cornwall.

Milborn-Port is a hundred and sixteen miles distant from London, and was a borough at the time of the Conquest. The town has a church, but the houses are detached from one another, in a very irregular manner.

Glastonbury is situated a hundred and twenty miles from London, in a peninsula, formed by the river and a small rivulet. The peninsula is called the Isle of Avalon, a name supposed to be derived from *Avalla*, which, in the ancient British language, signifies *apples* for the production of which this spot may formerly have been famous. Before the dissolution of monasteries, Glastonbury was a place of great note; for by some ruins that still remain, the abbey here appears to have been extremely magnificent. The abbot, besides enjoying great revenues, was distinguished with peculiar marks of honour. He had the title of lord, and sat among the barons in parliament. The town, while under the protection of its abbots, was a parliamentary borough; but at the dissolution of the abbey, it not only lost this privilege, but the rights of a corporation, till these were restored by queen Anne, who granted it a new charter. Here are two parish churches, in the structure of which there is nothing remarkable. The only manufacture carried on in the place is that of stockings; and the chief subsistence of the town arises from the great resort of people to see the ruins of the abbey.

This celebrated structure is reckoned the most ancient Christian church in Great Britain, and is said to have been founded by Joseph of Arimathea, about thirty-one years after the passion of our Saviour. The first congregation of regular monks in Britain, is also said to have been in this place, and to have been collected by St. Patrick in the year 435. This monastery was afterwards most liberally endowed by king Ina, Edmund the Elder, and other Saxon kings and nobles. Benedictine monks were first brought into it by St. Dunstan, in the year 954. It was dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and at the time of its suppression, the revenues were valued at 331 l. 7 s. 4 d. *per annum*.

The vast ruins which remain of this magnificent monastery consist of large walls overgrown with ivy: the abbot's kitchen, built of stone, is still entire; and upon the top of the Torr are noble ruins of a church which belonged to the abbot.

No. 30.

Glastonbury was once famous for a kind of hawthorn tree, reckoned by botanists a species of *mespilus* or *medlar*. This tree was believed to have been produced from a staff stuck into the ground by Joseph of Arimathea, who is said to have resided in this place. The same thorn was thought to bud miraculously upon Christmas-day in the morning, flower at noon, and decay at night. It is certain that there was a tree in the abbey church-yard here, which in mild weather used to put out some blossoms about that season. After the suppression of the abbey this tree was cut down; but as it is propagated by layers, several branches of it were planted in the neighbourhood, which continue, in mild weather, and a warm exposure, to blossom about the same time of the year. It has also been propagated in several other parts of England, by superstitious persons, who still give credit to the miracle, though refuted annually by experience.

It having been recorded in the songs of the ancient bards, that the famous British king Arthur was buried in the abbey church of Glastonbury, king Henry II. ordered a search to be made for his tomb. About seven feet under ground a sort of tomb-stone was found, on which was fixed a large plate of lead, with the following inscription in Gothic letters: "Hic jacet sepultus inclitus rex Arturius in insula Avalonia." About nine feet below this monumental stone, was found a coffin of hollowed oak; containing the bones of a human body, supposed to be that of king Arthur.

In the parish of Meer, near Glastonbury, are to be seen the remains of four camps, one of which has a double ditch, and is supposed to be the work of the Danes.

Axbridge is a neat little town, situated on the north bank of the river Axe, at the bottom of Mendip-hills, a hundred and thirty miles from London.

Winton is a pretty good town, situated among the Mendip-hills, at the distance of a hundred and twenty-five miles from London. Here is a handsome church with a high tower, adorned, with four pinnacles; and the place has a considerable trade in teasles, which grow in the neighbourhood in great plenty. In this town was born the celebrated Locke.

Reynsham, or Canesham, is situated a hundred and eleven miles from London, on the south bank of the Avon, and the west bank of a small river called the Chew, which at this place discharges itself into the former. It is a great thoroughfare in the lower road between Bath and Bristol. The town is reckoned foggy, but it has a fine large church, and deals considerable in malting. Here is a stone bridge of fifteen arches over the Avon, and another stone bridge over the Chew.

On the top of a hill called Stantonbury, between Bath and this place, are the remains of a camp, consisting of about thirty acres, with large double works.

Frome-Selwood is distant from London ninety-nine miles, and derives its name from being situated upon the bank of the river Frome, in that part of the county which was formerly called Selwoodshire. This town is of very considerable extent, but the streets are extremely irregular. It contains however only one church

church, which is a handsome building; but here are six or seven meeting-houses, for presbyterians, baptists, and quakers, two of which are built of free-stone, and are reckoned as spacious and elegant as any of the kind in England. Here is a fine stone bridge over the Frome, and a considerable manufacture of broad cloth, in which so many hands were employed about the beginning of the present century, that the annual return from London for the article alone, was computed at no less than seven hundred thousand pounds.

Bruon stands upon the river Bru or Bry, a hundred miles from London, and is a well built populous place. Here is a handsome church, and a stately almshouse, consisting of the ruins of a priory; with a stone bridge over the river. The town carries on a good trade in ferges, stockings, malt, and other commodities.

Shepton-Mallet, lying a hundred and seven miles from London, is a large market town. The streets however are narrow and irregular, and the town being situated on hills, they are also steep. It is well watered with rivulets, and has some considerable clothiers, for whom such a situation is convenient.

Castle-Cary derives its name from a castle with which the place was anciently fortified. It stands at the distance of a hundred and twenty-five miles from London, and is noted only for a spring of purging water impregnated with alum, on account of which it is much frequented.

Wincanton stands at the distance of a hundred and twelve miles from London. The greater part of this town was destroyed by fire in April 1747; but here is still a considerable market for corn, cheese and cattle.

North Curry is situated upon the river Tase, at the distance of a hundred and thirty-six miles from London; and is a pretty town, with good markets.

Penaford lies a hundred and thirteen miles from London, and has a manufacture of woollen cloth.

At Stanton-Drew, near this place, there is a monument called the Wedding, consisting of stones about six foot high, ranged in a circle about ninety foot in diameter. The occasion of this monument is not known, but the name is derived from a fabulous tradition, that as a bride was going to be married, she and the rest of the company were changed into stones.

South-Petherton originally named Pedred's Town, from its situation upon the bank of the river Pedred, now commonly called Parret, stands a hundred and thirty-one miles from London. It receives the epithet *South*, to distinguish it from North-Petherton, a place about twelve miles distant, and situated likewise on the Pedred. The former had anciently a palace, built by Ina, king of the West Saxons, but now contains nothing worthy of note.

Innumerable Roman coins have been dug up in various parts of this county. Somersetshire is part of the large tract which in the time of the Romans was inhabited by the Belgæ, and is supposed to be the district occupied by the Cangi, a tribe of that people. It afterwards constituted part of the kingdom of the West Saxons.

This county sends eighteen members to parliament, viz. two for the county, and the same number for each of the following cities and boroughs: Bath, Bristol, Wells, Bridgwater, Ilchester, Milbourn-port, Minehead, and Taunton.

#### C H A P. IV.

##### *Wiltshire, and Berkshire.*

**W**ILTSHIRE is bounded on the west by Somersetshire; on the north and north-west by Gloucestershire; on the north-east by Berkshire; on the south-east by Hampshire; and on the south by Dorsetshire. It extends in length from north to south forty miles, and in breadth thirty.

The principal rivers in this county are the Thames, the Upper and Lower Avon, the Nedder, the Willey, the Bourne, and the Kennet. The Thames enters the north part of this county, from Gloucestershire, near its source, and runs eastward, by Cricklade, into Berkshire. The Upper Avon rises in the middle of the county near Devizes, and runs southward, by Salisbury, into Hampshire. The Lower Avon has its source in Gloucestershire, and entering, this county near Malmsbury, runs south by Chippenham, after which, turning westward, it separates the counties of Gloucester and Somerset, as formerly mentioned. The Nedder rises near Shaftsbury in Dorsetshire, upon the borders of this county, and running north-east, in a serpentine course, falls into the Willey at Wilton. The Willey rises near Warminster, and running south-east, after receiving the Nedder, falls into the Upper Avon, on the west side of Salisbury. The Kennet rises near the spring of the Upper Avon, and runs eastward by Marlborough into Berkshire.

The less considerable rivers of this county are the Calne, the Were, and the Deveril.

The air of Wiltshire is dry and healthy: it is sharp on the hills, but mild in the vallies, even in winter. The northern part of this county, called North Wiltshire, abounds with pleasant eminences and clear streams, forming a variety of delightful prospects; the southern part is extremely fruitful; and the middle, called Salisbury Plains, from the city of that name, consists chiefly of downs, which afford excellent pasture for sheep. The soil of the hills and downs in general is chalk and clay, but the interjacent valleys abound with corn fields and rich meadows. In some parts of Wiltshire, particularly about East Lavington, is found a sort of herbage, called knotgrass, near twenty foot in length, and used in feeding hogs. The north part of the county yields plenty of wood; and in the south parts, particularly at Chilmark, near Hindon, are excellent quarries, where the stones are very large; some of them being sixty foot in length, and twelve in thickness, without a flaw. As there is no coal in this county, fuel is scarce. Here are made great quantities of good cheese: and the best sort of broad cloth, both white and dyed, is manufactured.

Wiltshire is divided into twenty-nine hundreds, and contains one city, with twenty-four market towns. It

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lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Salisbury, and comprises three hundred and four parishes.

The city is Salisbury, or New Sarum, and the market towns are Ambresbury, Auburn, Bedwin Great, Bradford, Calne, Chippenham, Cricklade, Devizes, Downton, Harebury, Highworth, Hindon, Lavington East, Ludgershall, Malmesbury, Marlborough, Mere, Old Sarum, Swindon, Trowbridge, Warminster, Westbury, Wilton, and Wotton-Basset.

Salisbury is distant from London eighty-three miles. It is a bishop's see, and owes its origin to a cathedral founded here in 1249, by bishop Poor, who removed hither from Old Sarum, upon which the greater part of the citizens of that place followed him, and the new town increased so fast that it was incorporated by king Henry III. Salisbury is watered by the Upper Avon on the west and south, and by the Bourne on the east, and the water of the former running through the streets in canals lined with brick. It is a large, well-built, clean city, the streets generally spacious, and their direction running at right angles. The cathedral, which was finished in 1258, is built in the Gothic style, and the most elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lantern, having in the middle a beautiful spire of free stone, four hundred and ten foot high. The length of the church is four hundred and seventy-eight foot, the breadth seventy-six, and the height of the vaulting eighty-foot. The outside appears singularly magnificent, consisting entirely of buttresses and windows, the latter of which are said to be as many as the days of the year.

The cathedral has a cloyster, a hundred and fifty foot square, and of as fine workmanship as any in England. The chapter-house, which is an octagon, measures a hundred and fifty-foot in circumference; yet the roof bears upon one small pillar in the centre, so much too weak in appearance for the support of such a weight, that the construction of this building is reckoned one of the greatest curiosities of the kind in Europe.

Here is a library well furnished with books, belonging to the cathedral; and adjoining to it is a clove, for the residence of the canons and prebendaries, which is so large and well built, that it looks like a fine city of itself.

Besides the cathedral there are three other churches; but none of those has vaults, nor are there cellars in any part of the city, the soil being so moist, that the water rises up in graves dug in the cathedral, and is sometimes two foot deep in the chapter-house.

This city has a spacious market-place, in which is a fine town-house. The manufactures are flannels, druggets, and the cloths called Salisbury whites. Salisbury is also famous for the manufactures of bone-lace and scissars; and may be reckoned as flourishing a city as any in England, that depends entirely on a home trade.

Old Sarum, or Salisbury, lies a mile northward of the city of Salisbury, and was formerly the see of a bishop, who had here a castle and a cathedral; but king Stephen quarrelling with bishop Roger, seized the castle, and put a garrison in it. This event was

soon followed by the translation of the episcopal seat to the adjacent valley, where the city of Salisbury now stands; the situation of which being more convenient, the old town was abandoned by its inhabitants, and at present consists of only a single farmhouse. It continues however to send to parliament two members, who are elected by the proprietors of certain adjacent lands. Old Sarum had anciently the names of Sorbiodunum, Sarum, and Severia; and was much frequented in the time of the latter emperors, as appears from the coins of Constantine, Magnentius, Constantine, and Crispus, found at this place.

Six miles north of the city, on Salisbury Plain, is the celebrated Stone-henge, a pile of huge stones, concerning the origin, use, and structure of which, antiquaries are much divided in opinion. The name *stone-henge* is purely Saxon, and signifies *hanging stones*, or a *stone gallows*. It probably alludes to the disposition of several of the stones of which this extraordinary fabric consists. Some however conjecture the true name to be *Stonhengeft*, and suppose the stones to be a monument erected by Ambrosius, a British king, in memory of the Britons slain at or near this place, by Hengist the Saxon. But Dr. Stukeley, who not many years ago wrote a learned treatise on this piece of antiquity, has endeavoured to shew that the original name of Stone-henge was *ambres*, whence he supposes the adjacent town of Ambresbury to have been denominated. The ancient Britons called it *choir-gaur*, which Dr. Stukeley is of opinion signifies the *great church*, or *cathedral*. The *choir-gaur*, of the ancient Britons was by the monks latinized *chorus gigantum*, or the *giants dance*, a name suited to the superstitious notions they entertained of its structure.

Stone-henge is situated near the summit of a hill, and consists of the remains of two circular and two oval ranges, of rough stones, having one common centre. The outer circle is a hundred and eight foot in diameter, and, when entire, consisted of thirty upright stones, seventeen of which are yet standing, and seven more lying upon the ground, either whole or in pieces. The upright stones are from eighteen to twenty foot high, from six to seven foot broad, and about three foot thick. Being placed at the distance of three foot and a half one from another, they are connected at top by imposts, or stones laid across, with tenons fitted to mortises in the uprights. Of the imposts, or cross stones, six are yet standing, each of which is seven foot long, and about three foot and a half thick. The upright stones have been wrought a little with a chissel, and are something tapered towards the top, but the imposts are quite plain. All the uprights are fixed in a kind of sockets, dug in a chalky soil, with small flints rammed between the stone and the socket.

The inner circle, which never had any imposts, is a little more than eight foot from the inside of the outward one, and consisted originally of forty stones, the general proportions of which are half the dimensions of the abovementioned uprights every way. Of the forty stones which originally composed this circle,

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about nineteen remain, and of these only eleven are standing. The walk between the two circles is three hundred feet in circumference; and from this walk the structure has an awful effect on the beholders.

At the distance of about nine foot from the inner circle, is the outer oval range, which is supposed to be the principal part of the work, and by most writers is called the cell and the adytum. The stones that compose it are stupendous, some of them measuring thirty foot in height. This range consists of five compages, or trilitheons, as they are sometimes called, being formed of two uprights, with an impost at top, like the outer circle; and of these compages three are entire, but two somewhat decayed. The inner oval is composed of twenty stones, each about six foot high; and near the eastern extremity of this oval, is a stone of coarse blue marble, about sixteen foot long, and four broad, which lies flat upon the ground, is somewhat pressed into it, and supposed to have been an altar.

This work is enclosed by a deep trench, near thirty foot broad, and upwards of a hundred foot from the outer circle. Over this trench are three entrances, the most considerable of which faces the north-east. At each entrance, on the outside of the trench, there seems to have been two huge stones set up in the manner of a gate; and parallel to these, on the inside, two other stones, of a smaller size. The whole number of stones originally composing this structure, is computed to be exactly a hundred and forty.

The rude magnitude of Stone-henge has rendered it the admiration of all ages. As the enormous stones which compose it, appear too big for land carriage, and as Salisbury Plains, for many miles round, hardly afford any stones, it has been imagined by some antiquaries that these stones are artificial, and have been made upon the spot. Most authors, however, are agreed, that the stones are all natural, and that they were brought from a quarry, called the Grey Wethers, on Marlborough Downs, near the town of that name, at the distance of fifteen or sixteen miles north of Stone-henge.

The use and origin of this work has been the subject of various conjectures. The common tradition is, that Stone-henge was built by Ambrosius Aurelianus, as already mentioned. Some have supposed it to be a funeral monument, raised to the memory of a brave commander; and others maintain that it was erected in honour of Hengist, the Saxon general; but the structure is, probably, more ancient.

Sammes, in his Antiquities of Britain, conjectures it to have been a work of the Phœnicians; and the famous Inigo Jones, in a treatise called Stone-henge Restored, attempts to prove that it was a temple of the Tuscan order, built by the Romans, and dedicated to the god Cœlum, or Terminus, in which he is confirmed by its having been open at top. Dr. Charleton, physician to king Charles II. wrote a treatise called Stone-henge Restored to the Danes, attempting to prove that it was a Danish monument, erected either as a burial place, as a trophy for some victory, or for the election and coronation of their kings.

Soon after the appearance of this treatise, Mr. Webb, son-in-law of Inigo Jones, published a vindication of the opinion of his father-in-law on this subject.

But antiquaries have since agreed, that it was a temple of the Druids, built, as Dr. Stukeley thinks, before the Belgæ came into Britain, and not long after Cambyes invaded Egypt, where that prince committed such horrid outrages among the priests and inhabitants in general, that they dispersed themselves into all quarters of the world, when some of them, it is imagined, arrived in Britain. This fact Dr. Stukeley thinks the more probable, as the Phœnician trade, which afforded a ready conveyance into this country, was then at its height. He therefore conjectures that the Egyptians introduced their arts, learning, and religion among the Druids, and probably had a hand in erecting Stone-henge; this being the only work of the Druids in which the stones are chiseled.

The heads of oxen, deer, and animals with wood-ashes, and other apparent relics of sacrifices, have been dug up in and about those ruins. Around them is also a great number of barrows, or monumental heaps of earth thrown up in the form of a bell, and each enclosed with a trench from a hundred and five to a hundred and seventy foot in diameter. These barrows extend to a considerable distance, but are all placed as to be seen from the supposed temple. In such barrows as have been opened, skeletons, or the remains of burnt bones have been found. In one of them was an urn, containing ashes, some bones, and other substances, which the funeral pile had not consumed. By the collar-bone, and one of the jaw-bones, which were entire, it was judged that the person there buried must have been about fourteen years old; and from some female trinkets, with the brass head of a javelin, the body was conjectured to be that of a girl who had carried arms. The trinkets consisted of a great number of glass and amber beads, of various shapes, sizes, and colours, with a sharp bodkin. In some other barrows were found human bones, mixed with those of horses, deer, dogs, and other beasts and birds; in others some bits of red and blue marble, and chipping of stones; and in some a brass sword, with an ancient brass instrument, called a celr.

Upon the whole, the most probable conjecture is, that Stone-henge has been a temple in some remote period; and antiquaries must ever regret, that a table of tin, with an inscription, which was discovered here in the reign of Henry VIII. and might probably have confirmed this opinion, should not be preserved. But as the characters were not understood by such as were consulted upon the occasion, the plate was destroyed, or at least thrown by and lost.

At Frippisbury, north-east of Salisbury, there is a very large intrenchment, of a rude circular form, with a deep ditch and a high rampart: the diameter is about three hundred paces; and about eighty paces within the outer circumvallation, is another deep trench, but no rampart.

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Upon the river Willey, not far from Harebury, is a very large camp, fortified with a deep double ditch, and called Yancsbury-Castle. From its figure, it is by some supposed to be Roman, and to have been the encampment of Vespasian, when he was lieutenant of the twentieth legion, under Claudius. Others, however, are of opinion, that this camp was Danish.

Warminster stands upon the river Deveril, at the distance of ninety-nine miles from London, and had formerly great privileges, among which was an exemption from every kind of tax. It is a populous place, with very good inns, and has the greatest trade in malt of any town in the west of England; besides a considerable traffic in cheese, wool, and cloth. On the east side of this town are two camps, one with double works, called Battlesbury, supposed to have been thrown up by the Danes; and the other a square, single trenched fortification, called Scratchbury.

Westbury, so called from its situation in the western part of the county, near the river Were, lies ninety-five miles from London, and is supposed to No. 3r.

particularly druggets. Here is also one of the best markets in England for corn, wool, horses, and all sorts of cattle.

On a hill called Rundway-hill, near this town, is a square camp, with a single trench, supposed to be Roman; and many Roman coins, of different emperors, as well as other antiquities, have been found in the neighbourhood.

Heddington, about four miles north of Devezes, was a Roman town, and the foundations of the houses are yet visible for the space of a mile. Some antiquaries, are of opinion that this was the Verlucio mentioned by Antoninus; but the greater number place Verlucio about half a mile north of Westbury, where the ruins of a large town have been discovered, and many Roman coins dug up. Camden, however, places Verlucio at Warminster.

Ludgerhall lies fifty-seven miles from London, and is a borough by prescription. It consists only of a few mean houses, and contains nothing worthy of notice. Not far from the town, however, are the remains of a great caufeway supposed to have been a Roman vicinal way; as also the vestiges of a vast forti-

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Downton, or Donckerton, is pleasantly situated on the bank of the Upper Avon, at the distance of eighty-

eighty-four miles from London, and is a borough by prescription.

Wilton lies northward of Salisbury, eighty-seven miles from London, and derives its name from being situated upon the bank of the river Willey. In the time of the Saxons it was a bishop's see, with twelve parish churches, and the great road from London to the West of England passed through it; but in the reign of Edward III. Robert Wyvil, bishop of Salisbury, having by the king's grant, turned the western road through Salisbury, this town soon declined. It is now a mean place, with only one church, and a carpet manufacture. But here is a magnificent house belonging to the earl of Pembroke, which was begun in the reign of king Henry VIII. on the ruins of an abbey. This place is particularly remarkable for its collection of paintings and antique statues, which is reckoned one of the noblest in Europe.

Ambresbury is distant from London eighty miles, and has a handsome church. About the year 980, Alfrida, the queen dowager of king Edgar, founded a monastery here for nuns of the Benedictine order, which she dedicated to St. Mary and St. Melorius. In 1117, the abbess, with about thirty nuns were expelled for incontinency; and Henry II. afterwards removed hither a prioress and twenty-four nuns, from Font Ebrald in Normandy; to which this house was, for some time, subject; but it was at length made a denizen, and became again an abbey.

Hindon lies ninety-four miles distant from London, and is a great thoroughfare to the south parts of Somersetshire. It is a small town, and has a manufacture of fine twill.

Mere is situated upon the borders both of Dorsetshire and Somersetshire, a hundred and two miles from London, and is a considerable staple for wool.

Harebury, or Heightbury, lies ninety-nine miles from London, and is a borough by prescription. Here is a collegiate church with four prebendaries, and a free school.

Upon the river Willey, not far from Harebury, is a very large camp, fortified with a deep double ditch, and called Yanesbury-Castle. From its figure, it is by some supposed to be Roman, and to have been the encampment of Vespasian, when he was lieutenant of the twentieth legion, under Claudius. Others, however, are of opinion, that this camp was Danish.

Warminster stands upon the river Deveril, at the distance of ninety-nine miles from London, and had formerly great privileges, among which was an exemption from every kind of tax. It is a populous place, with very good inns, and has the greatest trade in malt of any town in the west of England; besides a considerable traffic in cheese, wool, and cloth. On the east side of this town are two camps, one with double works, called Battlebury, supposed to have been thrown up by the Danes; and the other a square, single trenched fortification, called Scratchbury.

Westbury, so called from its situation in the western part of the county, near the river Were, lies ninety-five miles from London, and is supposed to

No. 31.

have derived its origin from a Roman station about half a mile to the northward. It was formerly endowed with great privileges, and has at present a good church, with a manufacture of coarse and broad cloth, and a great market for corn.

On the east-side of Westbury, at Bratton-Castle, are the traces of a vast fortification, of an oval form, into which the Danes fled, and where they defended themselves fourteen days, after being defeated by king Alfred, in a battle fought in this neighbourhood. This fort is surrounded by two ditches, where several pieces of old iron armour have been dug up; and about the middle is a large oblong barrow, sixty paces in length, supposed to have been the burying-place of some of the Danish nobility.

Trowbridge lies ninety-nine miles from London, and has a manufacture of broad-cloth for the most part of the fine sort, mixed with Spanish wool. The court of the duchy of Lancaster for this county, is held here annually about Michaelmas.

Bradford is situated at the distance of ninety-eight miles from London, upon the bank of the Lower Avon, over which there is here a bridge. This town has likewise a great manufacture of broad cloth.

Lavington, called also East Lavington, and Market Lavington, to distinguish it from West Lavington, or Bishop's Lavington, a village in the neighbourhood, is distant from London eighty-seven miles, and has a charity school for thirty-six children, with some almshouses. At Casterly, north-east of the town, there is a large irregular camp, with a single trench, supposed to be Roman.

The Devizes, or the Vies, is situated eighty-nine miles from London, on an eminence, and consists chiefly of two long streets, running parallel to each other. It is large and populous, but the buildings are old, and for the most part of timber. The town is well supplied with water, but has a considerable trade in malt, and a good manufacture of woollen cloths, particularly druggets. Here is also one of the best markets in England for corn, wool, horses, and all sorts of cattle.

On a hill called Rundway-hill, near this town, is a square camp, with a single trench, supposed to be Roman; and many Roman coins, of different emperors, as well as other antiquities, have been found in the neighbourhood.

Heddington, about four miles north of Devizes, was a Roman town, and the foundations of the houses are yet visible for the space of a mile. Some antiquaries, are of opinion that this was the Verlucio mentioned by Antoninus; but the greater number place Verlucio about half a mile north of Westbury, where the ruins of a large town have been discovered, and many Roman coins dug up. Camden, however, places Verlucio at Warminster.

Ludgerhall lies fifty-seven miles from London, and is a borough by prescription. It consists only of a few mean houses, and contains nothing worthy of notice. Not far from the town, however, are the remains of a great causeway supposed to have been a Roman vicinal way; as also the vestiges of a vast

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fortification, of an oval figure, with some barrows, ascribed to the Danes.

Bedwin, called also Great Bedwin stands upon the borders of Berkshire, seventy-two miles from London, and is a borough by prescription. It has a spacious church, built in the form of a cross, with a high tower in the middle. Here Cisca, viceroy of Wiltshire and Berkshire, under a king of the West Saxons, built a castle, the ditches of which are yet visible.

Marlborough stands seventy-five miles from London, and is a borough by prescription. It is a well built town, consisting chiefly of one broad street, with a piazza along one side of it. It is a great thoroughfare from London to Bath and Bristol, and is well furnished with convenient inns. It was the *Cunetium* of the Romans; and here are the ruins of a castle, which seems to have been a Roman work.

On a hill north of Marlborough are the ruins of a vast fortification, called Barbary-Castle. It is surrounded with a double ditch, and supposed to be the place where Kenrick, king of the West Saxons, and his son, Ceaulin, fought against the Britons, in the year 556.

On the east-side of Martenfall-Hill, south of Marlborough, there is a quadrangular camp with a single trench, supposed to have been Roman.

At Abury, on Marlborough Downs, near the town of that name, are a few huge stones, like those of Stone-henge. These stupendous remains are also supposed to be the ruins of an ancient temple of the Druids. Dr. Stukeley is of opinion, that this temple is much more ancient than Stone-henge. A high rampart, with a proportionable ditch on the inside, surrounds it; and the whole village is now contained within its circumference.

From Abury to West Kennet, there is a kind of walk, about a mile long, which was once enclosed on both sides with large stones: on one side the inclosure is broke down in many places, and the stones taken away, but the other side is almost entire. On the brow of a hill near this walk, is a round trench, inclosing two circles of stones, one within another. The diameter of the outer circle is a hundred and twenty foot, and that of the inner forty-five foot. The stones are about five foot in height. At the distance of about two hundred and forty-foot from this monument, great quantities of human bones have been discovered, which are supposed to be those of the Saxons and Danes, slain at the battle of Kennet in 1006.

In a field near Kennet, are three huge stones, called the Devil's Carts: they stand upright, and are supposed to have been British deities. On Oldbury-hill, near the same place, is a large oval camp, with double trenches, supposed to be Danish.

Calne is eighty-eight miles distant from London, and is a borough by prescription. It stands on a stony hill, near a small river of the same name, that runs into the Lower Avon. It is a well-built, populous, little town, and has a manufacture of cloth. This was one of the seats of the West-Saxon kings. Ethelred had a palace at Cosham, not far from Calne; and

at Chippenham, Ludgershall, and Courtfield, near Westbury, there were palaces of other Saxon kings.

Chippenham is distant from London ninety-four miles, and was a borough by prescription, but afterwards incorporated by queen Mary. Here is a bridge of sixteen arches over the Lower Avon, and a manufacture of cloth.

At West-Kington, north-west of Chippenham, near the Fosse-way, there is a camp, with a single ditch, supposed to be Roman; and at Burywood, west of Chippenham, is another camp, with a double intrenchment.

Wotton-Basset lies seventy-eight miles from London, and is a borough both by prescription and charter. It is a mean place, but has a small manufacture of cloth.

Malmesbury stands on a hill at the distance of eighty-nine miles from London, and was first incorporated by Edward king of the West Saxons, about the year 916. It is a neat town, with a parish church, which was formerly an abbey church, and where is still to be seen the sepulchral monument of king Arthur, who is said to have been buried under the high altar. The town carries on a considerable trade in the woollen manufacture; and here are no less than six bridges over the Lower Avon.

At Remble, north-east of Malmesbury, the consular way of the Romans, called the Fosse-way, enters this county out of Gloucestershire. Sherston, near this place, is supposed to have been a Roman station, from Roman coins that have been frequently found here. There are in the neighbourhood several barrows.

Swindon is a small inconsiderable town, at the distance of seventy-three miles from London. Wainborough, two miles eastward, is supposed to have been a Roman town, from the great quantity of Roman coins which have been discovered.

Cricklade is eighty-one miles distant from London, and is a borough by prescription. Some writers, who have called this town *Grekelade*, relate that there was here formerly a Greek school, which being translated to Oxford, gave origin to the university of that city. As this story, however, seems to be founded entirely on the similarity of the two names, it is generally believed that the latter was invented to support the fiction.

Highworth is seventy-three miles distant from London, and derives its name from its situation on a high hill, near the borders of Berkshire. It commands an extensive prospect, but contains nothing worthy of note.

Wiltshire sends to parliament thirty-four members, viz. two for the county, two for the city of Salisbury, and two for each of the following boroughs, namely, Old Sarum, Marlborough, Devizes, Malmesbury, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Great Bedwin, Hindon, Downton, Harebury, Ludgershall, Wilton, Westbury, and Wotton Bassett.

#### B E R K S H I R E.

Berkshire is bounded on the south by Hampshire; on the west by Wiltshire and Gloucestershire; and on the north by the river Thames, which separates it

it from Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire; and on the east by Middlesex and Surry. It extends in length about thirty-nine miles, and in breadth in the widest part twenty-nine miles.

The principal river in this county is the Thames, besides which there are four others; viz. the Kennet, great part of which is navigable; the Lodden, the Ocke, and the Lambourne, a small stream which is remarkable for being always highest in summer, shrinking gradually as winter approaches, and at last becoming nearly, if not quite dry.

The air of Berkshire is healthy, and though the soil in general is not remarkably fertile, the face of the county is pleasantly diversified with hills and valleys, and wood and water, which are seen at once in almost every prospect. The county is well stored with timber, particularly oak and beech; and some parts of it produce great plenty of wheat and barley. The most fruitful parts are the banks of the Thames and the Kennet, with the country about Lambourne, towards the borders of Wiltshire; those which lie towards Surry being generally covered with woods.

This county is situated in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Salisbury, and contains a hundred and forty parishes: it is divided into twenty-two hundreds, and comprises twelve market-towns, but has no city. Those towns are Abingdon, Hungerford, Farrington, Maidenhead, East-Isley, Newbury, Lower-Lambourne, Wallingford, Ockingham, Wantage, Reading, and Windfor.

Lower-Lambourne is situated near the borders of Wiltshire, and derives its name from the small river Lambourne, which rises near it. The town is a place of little note, but not far hence is the most remarkable curiosity in the county. This is the rude figure of a white horse, which occupies almost an acre of ground, on the side of a green hill, thence called White-Horse-Hill. A horse being the device in the Saxon standard, some have imagined that this figure was made by Hengist, one of the Saxon kings; but Mr. Wise, the author of a letter to Dr. Mead on this subject, endeavours to evince that it was made by order of Alfred, in the reign of his brother Ethelred, as a monument of his victory gained over the Danes, in the year 871, at Ashdown, now called Ashen or Ashbury Park, the seat of Lord Craven, not far from this hill. Others however suppose it to have been partly the effect of accident, and partly the work of shepherds. Whatever have been its origin, a custom has prevailed for time immemorial among the neighbouring peasants, to assemble on a certain day about midsummer, and clear away the weeds from this figure, after which the evening is spent in mirth and festivity. To the north of this hill there is a long valley reaching from the western side of the county, as far as Wantage, which is hence called the Vale of White Horse, and is the most fertile part of Berkshire.

About the head of the river Ocke, near White-horse-Hill, is the vestige of a camp, supposed to be Danish. The figure is a kind of quadrangle with the corners cut off, and the diameter is a hundred paces. This piece of antiquity was a few years since

almost defaced, by digging for stones called Sariden-stones, to build a house for lord Craven in Ashbury-Park.

Here is also another camp of the same kind, but much larger, sometimes called Uffington-Castle; and at the distance of two furlongs there is a barrow, called Dragon's-Hill, supposed by some to be the burial place of Uther Pendragon, of which, however, there is no better evidence than the name.

At the distance of about a mile from the hill, there are many large stones, some of them standing on their edges, which appear to have been brought hither with some design, though they now lie in great disorder. Mr. Wise supposes they were erected as a funeral monument for a Danish king, who was slain in the battle of Ashdown. This place is called Wayland-Smith, by the country people, who have a fabulous tradition that it was once the dwelling of an invisible smith, and that if a traveller's horse had lost a shoe upon the road, he need only bring the animal to this place, with a piece of money, and leaving both there for a short time, upon returning he might find the money gone, and the horse new shod.

Within about two miles of Denchworth, which lies between Abingdon and the Vale of the White-Horse, there is an orbicular rampire, fortified with three ditches; it is called Cherbury-Castle, and said to have been a fortress of Canutus the Dane. At the distance of a mile from this castle, there are some scattered remains of another; and between the two, is a round hill, called Windmill-Hill, on which it is supposed there was a watch tower, where signals might be seen from both forts.

Farringdon stands on a hill near the Thames, sixty-five miles from London, and is a well-built town, with a large and handsome church.

Hungerford stands sixty-four miles from London, in the great road to Bath. It is situated in a moorish ground on the river Kennet, and is not considerable either for its buildings or trade.

Newbury stands fifty-six miles from London, on the Bath road, and is pleasantly situated on the river Kennet, which runs through the town. The streets are spacious, and there is a large market-place. Here is a considerable manufacture of shaloons and druggets, as well as of broad cloth; but at present, the latter is not so flourishing as formerly. Newbury was supposed to have risen out of the ruins of the ancient Spinæ, a town mentioned by Antoninus in his Itinerary, and which is now a small village in the neighbourhood, still called Spence.

In a castle standing on the brow of a woody hill, at a village called Denington, or Dunnington, not far from Newbury, Chaucer, the celebrated English poet is said to have lived; and till within these few years an oak-tree was shewn near the castle, under which tradition relates that he composed many of his poems, and which was called Chaucer's oak.

East and West Enbourne, near Newbury, have long been remarkable for a whimsical custom of the manor. The widow of every copyhold tenant is entitled to the whole copyhold estate of her husband, so

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long as she continues unmarried and chaste. If she marries, she loses her estate without remedy; but if she be guilty of incontinence, she may recover her forfeiture, by riding into court on the next court day, mounted on a black ram, with her face towards the tail, which she holds in her hand, and repeating the following lines:

Here I am, riding on a black ram,  
Like a whore as I am;  
And for my crinum crancum  
Have lost my bincum bancum,  
And for my tail's game  
Am brought to this world's shame;  
Therefore, good Mr. Steward, let me have my  
lands again.

East-Illey stands fifty-four miles from London, in a fine sporting country, and in the road from Oxford to Newbury. Its market is famous for sheep, of which great numbers are fed on the surrounding downs.

Wantage lies fifty-nine miles from London, on the side of a small river which soon afterwards falls into the Ocke. It is a neat town, situated likewise in a fine sporting country; and the downs which are distant about a mile, are famous for horse-races. In the time of the Saxons this was a royal villa, and has been rendered illustrious by the birth of the great king Alfred. In the neighbourhood is a Roman work, called Ickleton-Way. About a mile from the town, on the brow of a hill, there is a very large camp of a quadrangular form, with single works, which is supposed to be Roman.

Abingdon, or Abendon, stands on the banks of the river Thames, at the distance of fifty-five miles from London. The streets are well-paved, and center in a spacious area, where the market is held. In the middle of this area is the market-house, a curious building of ashler-work, supported by lofty pillars. Here is a large hall in which the assizes are held, and other public business transacted. The trade of the town consists chiefly in barley and malt, great quantities of which are sent in barges to London.

Abingdon is thought by bishop Gibson to be the place called in the Saxon annals Clovesthoo, and where two synods are said to have been held, one in the year 742, and the other in 822.

Wallingford is distant from London forty-six miles. It is a large town, and stands on the river Thames, over which it has a stone bridge, of nineteen arches, besides four draw-bridges. Of fourteen churches, which were formerly in this place, only one remains. The chief manufacture of the town is malt, which it sends by water to London.

Wallingford is supposed by Camden to have been anciently the chief city of the Atrebatii, called by Antoninus, Galeva, Atrebatum, and by Ptolemy, Galeva. It was once surrounded by a wall and ditch, the traces of which are yet visible, and are more than a mile in compass. Here are also the remains of a castle, supposed by Camden to have been originally built by the Romans, and after it had been ruined by the Saxons and Danes, to have been rebuilt by Wil-

liam the Conqueror. This castle was seated on the river Thames, and fortified with a double wall, and three ditches, very wide and deep, which are always full of water. In the middle there stood a tower raised on a high mount, in the ascent of which, Camden says, he saw a well of exceeding great depth. The site of this ancient castle, and its remains, now belong to the college of Christ-Church at Oxford.

Not far hence, on a high hill, called Sinodun-Hill, which is still surrounded by a deep ditch, there was a Roman fortification.

Reading, the county-town, is situated forty-four miles from London, on the bank of the Thames. The streets of the town are well built, and it is more spacious and populous than many cities. It stands so near the Thames, that the largest barges come up to the town bridge, where there are commodious wharfs for clearing and loading them. The Kennet, which runs through the town, will bear a barge of more than a hundred tons, and is navigable almost to Newbury. Reading, therefore, has a considerable trade into the country, but its chief traffic is to London, whither it sends malt, meal, and timber, receiving in return, coals, salt, tobacco, grocery wares, oil, and other commodities.

During the Saxon heptarchy, there was at this place a castle of considerable strength. The Danes, in one of their incursions into Berkshire, seized upon this castle, and to secure the possession of it, drew a ditch from the Kennet to the Thames. Not long afterwards they abandoned it to the Saxons, who plundered and destroyed the town. The Castle remained the twelfth century, when it became a refuge for some of those who had taken up arms for king Stephen against Henry Plantagenet, afterwards Henry II. but the latter forcing them to quit their retreat, entirely demolished it, and there is not now the smallest trace by which its situation can be discovered.

At a little distance from Reading, stands Laurence-Waltham, where are to be seen the foundations of a Roman fort, and Roman coins are often dug up.

Ockingham, or as it is sometimes called, Wokingham, is distant from London thirty three miles, and is situated in Windfor-Forest. It contains several streets, and has a manufacture of silk stockings and cloth. At East-Hampsted, not far hence, there are the traces of a large Roman camp, which is commonly called Cæsar's camp.

Maidenhead is distant from London twenty-eight miles. It stands in two parishes, Cookham and Bray, and is well accommodated with inns. Here is a bridge over the Thames; and the town has a considerable trade in malt, meal, and timber, which are sent in barges to London.

Windfor stands on an eminence, by the side of the river Thames, twenty-three miles from London, and was originally incorporated by Edward I. Though the town is not of any considerable extent, here are several good houses, with a large church, and a handsome town-hall, which was built in the time of king Charles II. At the north-east end of the town is a castle reckoned about a mile in circumference, and consist-

consisting of two square courts, one to the east, and the other to the west, with a circular tower between them. In the former there is an old royal palace, and in the middle an equestrian statue of king Charles II. Here likewise stands the house lately built by his present majesty for his summer residence. On the outside of this square, towards the north, the east, and the west, there is a noble terrace, which in beauty and extent of prospect, perhaps exceeds any thing of the kind in Europe. It is faced with free stone, like the ramparts of a fortified place, and is covered with fine gravel. The apartments in the castle are very spacious, and richly adorned with sculptures and paintings, particularly St. George's hall, where the sovereign of the order of the Garter, used to give annually an entertainment to the companions of the order, every St. George's day.

The tower, which is the residence of the constable or governor, is built in the form of an amphitheatre, very lofty and magnificent.

The Western Square is the same breadth as that to the east, but considerably longer. On the north side of this court or square, stands the chapel of the order of the garter, dedicated to St. George. Here the knights are installed, and in the choir each of them has a seat or stall, with the banner of his arms fixed over it. This chapel has a dean and six canons, who have houses on the north side of it in the form of a flock, which was one of the badges of Edward IV. by whom they were rebuilt. Adjoining there are little cells for eighteen poor knights, originally intended for gentlemen who had been wounded in war, impaired by age, or become indigent by misfortune; but it is not now uncommon for these places to be bestowed even on the menial servants of noblemen. Each has a pension of forty pounds a year. They wear a cassock of red cloth, with a mantle of purple, having St. George's cross on the left shoulder. They have stalls in the middle of the choir, immediately below those of the knights of the garter; and are obliged by their institution to go twice a day to church in their robes, to pray for the sovereign and knights of the order. In the chapel is also a chantry; and at the west end of this square are the houses of the choiristers; at the bottom is the library. This square is surrounded with a high wall, as the other is by a terrace; and both are entered by a stone bridge with a gate.

At a little distance stands Old Windsor, which has been falling to decay ever since the time of Edward III.

Windsor, supposed by some to be the Pontes of Antoninus, was granted by Edward the Confessor to Westminster abbey; but William the Conqueror being struck with the beauty of its situation, procured a surrender of it in exchange for some lands in Essex, and built here a hunting lodge for his own use. King Henry I. repaired and fortified it. Edward III. who was born in this fortified house, built the castle nearly as it now stands, new from the ground, and fortified it with walls, ditches, and a rampart. Henry IV. rebuilt the chapel with much greater magnificence; and several elegant improvements and additions were

No. 31.

made in different parts of the building by king Henry VII. and the three subsequent sovereigns. The terrace was added by queen Elizabeth; and king Charles II. furnished the castle with a magazine of arms.

The architect employed by Edward III. was William of Wickham, afterwards bishop of Winchester, from whom one of the towers is still called Winchester Tower.

At this place Edward III. is said to have instituted the order of the Garter. The patron of this order is St. George of Cappadocia, the tutel'ar saint of England. Various accounts are related concerning the origin of this order and its ensigns. It is in general agreed, that the king had formed a design to institute a new order of knighthood, to excite and reward military merit; but on what account it received the name of the order of the Garter, has never been clearly ascertained. Some have supposed it to be merely accidental, and that the countess of Salisbury, a lady of great beauty, while she was dancing in the king's presence dropped her garter; which he taking up, and perceiving her confusion, gallantly atoned for it, by making it an ensign of honour, and precluded any slanderous report which such an accident might produce, by choosing a motto expressive of this sentiment:

To him that thinks evil, let evil be.

Others report that the king gave the signal to charge at the battle of Cressly with his own garter, and that proving successful, he made the garter an ensign of a new order, as a memorial of his own victory, and a pledge of conquest to his knights.

Near this place are two parks; one called the great, and the other the little park. The latter is about three miles in compass, the walks are finely shaded, and it is well stocked with deer. The great park is above four miles in circumference: it is beautifully diversified by nature, and abounds with all kinds of game. A circuit of thirty miles south of Windsor is called the Forest, which is also well stocked with various animals.

Not far from Windsor is a hill, called St. Leonard's hill, where many ancient coins, instruments of war, and lamps have been dug up.

Berkshire was the district which in ancient times was inhabited by the people called the Atrebatii, who are supposed to have migrated hither from the Atrebatians in Gaul. This county was once superior to all the rest of England in the manufacture of wool. At present its chief manufactures are woollen cloth, sail-cloth, and malt. It sends to parliament nine members, viz. two for the county, two for New Windsor, two for Reading, two for Wallingford, and one for Abingdon.

## C H A P. V.

### Middlesex.

MIDDLESEX is bounded on the west by Berkshire and Buckinghamshire; on the north by Hertfordshire; on the east by Essex; and on the south by the river Thames, which divides it from the county

of Surry. It extends not above twenty-four miles in length, and hardly eighteen in breadth; but as it comprehends the two vast cities of London and Westminster, which stand in the south-east part of the county, it is by much the wealthiest and most populous district in England.

The rivers of this county are Thames, the Coln, the Lea, and the New River; the first of which has been already described.

The Coln rises near Bishop's-Hatfield, a market-town in Hertfordshire, whence running south-west, it passes by Watford, a few miles from which it runs almost directly south, and, separating Middlesex from Buckinghamshire, falls into the river Thames near Staines, a market-town of this county.

The Lea rises in the north-west of Essex, and runs almost directly south, till after separating Essex from the counties of Hertford and Middlesex, it falls into the river Thames at Blackwall, a village on the east side of London.

The New River rises near Ware, a market-town in Hertfordshire, twenty-one miles north of London, to which capital it is conveyed in an artificial channel, which is cut through several rising-grounds, and lined with bricks and stones; being also carried across several valleys in a trough of wood, the bottom of which is in some places so much above the surface of the ground, that a man, by stooping, may pass under it. The whole length of its course is about thirty-six miles; and being collected in a large basin, on a rising-ground near Ilington, at about a mile from London, it is conveyed in various directions, through a number of wooden pipes, to different quarters of the city. In these pipes, each of which is seven inches diameter, an almost infinite number of leaden pipes, of an inch bore, is inserted, and conducted under ground, one to every house, the possessor of which chooses to be so supplied, in all parts of the metropolis. Before this stupendous work was executed, the city was supplied with water chiefly by conduits erected in such public places as were thought most convenient, whence the neighbouring inhabitants fetched it in buckets, and filled their cisterns for use.

The air of Middlesex is pleasant and healthy, which is not a little improved by a fine gravelly soil. The latter produces plenty of corn; and the county abounds with excellent meadows, gardeners grounds, which, assisted by the rich compost from London, yield luxuriant crops.

Its natural productions are cattle, corn, and fruit, and its manufactures are too many to be enumerated.

It lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of London; and exclusive of London and Westminster, has seventy-three parishes, besides chapels of ease. It is divided into six hundreds, and two liberties, containing two cities, and five market-towns.

The cities are London and Westminster; and the market-towns are Brentford, Edgware, Enfield, Staines, and Uxbridge.

London and Westminster, though distinct cities in respect of their jurisdictions, are now so united by the

suburbs of each, as to form one vast metropolis, comprehended under the general name of

### L O N D O N.

London is situated in fifty-one degrees thirty minutes of north latitude; and being the metropolis of the British dominions, is the meridian whence all British geographers compute the longitude of places. It is supposed to be equal, if not superior, to every other city upon earth, for the numbers and wealth of its inhabitants, its extensive commerce, and the variety of charitable foundations for the support of the sick and indigent. So early as the time of the Romans, it was celebrated for the multitude of its merchants, and the vast extent of its trade. During the heptarchy it was the metropolis of the kingdom of the East Saxons, and has always been the chief residence of the kings of England.

London is advantageously situated on the north side of the Thames, on a gentle rise from that river, and on a gravelly and loamy soil, which conduces very much to the health of its inhabitants. The country round consists chiefly of gardeners grounds and pasture, adorned with a great number of beautiful villas.

The streets and public buildings in London and its liberties, being far too numerous for a particular description in this work, we shall only select the most remarkable, beginning with London-Bridge as the most ancient, and proceeding in our survey through the wards into which the city is divided.

The original bridge, which stands in Bridge-ward, was of wood, and appears to have been first built between the years 993, and 1016; but being burnt down about the year 1136, it was rebuilt of wood in 1163. The expences, however, of maintaining and repairing it became so burdensome to the inhabitants of the city, that they resolved to build a stone bridge a little westward of the wooden one. This building was begun in 1176, and finished in 1209. It consisted of nineteen arches, was nine hundred and fifteen foot long, forty-four foot high, and seventy-three foot wide; but houses being built on each side, the space between them was only twenty-three foot. The narrowness of this passage having occasioned the loss of many lives, from the number of carriages continually passing; and the straitness of the arches, with the enormous size of the sterlings, which occupied one fourth part of the water-way, and rendered the fall at low-water no less than five foot, having also occasioned frequent and fatal accidents; the magistrates of London, in 1756, obtained an act of parliament for improving and widening the passage over and through the bridge; which granted them a toll for every carriage and horse passing over it; and for every vessel with goods passing through it: but these tolls proving insufficient, were abolished by an act made in 1758, for explaining, amending, and rendering the former act more effectual; and for granting the city of London money towards carrying on that work. In consequence of these acts of parliament, a temporary wooden bridge was built, and the houses on the old bridge

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bridge were taken down. Instead of a narrow street, twenty-three foot wide, there is now a passage of thirty-one foot for carriages, with a raised pavement of stone on each side, seven foot broad, for the use of foot-passengers. The sides are secured by stone balustrades, enlightened in the night with lamps. The passage through the bridge is enlarged, by throwing the two middle arches into one, and by other alterations and improvements ; notwithstanding which, however, it is still greatly subject to its former inconveniencies.

Under the first, second, and fourth arches, from the north side of the bridge, and now likewise towards the southern extremity, there are engines, worked by the flux and reflux of the river ; the water of which they raise to such a height, as to supply many parts of the city. Those engines were contrived in 1582, by one Peter Morice, a Dutchman, and are called London-Bridge water-works.

Near the north-side of London-Bridge, stands a beautiful and magnificent fluted column, of the Doric order, built with Portland stone, and called the Monument. It was erected to perpetuate the memory of a most dreadful fire, that broke out near the spot where it stands, upon the second of September, 1666, and destroyed almost the whole city. This column which was begun in 1671, and finished in 1677, is fifteen foot diameter, and two hundred and two foot high. It stands on a pedestal forty foot high, and twenty-one foot square, adorned with emblems in alto and basso relievo. Within it is a spiral staircase of black marble, containing three hundred and forty-five steps, with iron rails, leading to a balcony, encompassing a cone thirty-two foot high, and which supports a blazing urn of brass gilt. At present, it is said that a part of the staircase is ruinous, and that the column discovers a perceptible declination from the perpendicular.

Upon this monument is an inscription, purporting that the fire was kindled and kept up by papists ; but this invidious charge is generally believed to be groundless.

Eastward of the bridge and monument, on the side of the Thames, stands the Tower of London, which gives name to another ward. It was anciently a royal palace, but now the chief fortress of the city. It is supposed to have been originally built by William the Conqueror, about the year 1076, when it consisted only of that part called the White Tower, which was new built in 1637, and 1638. A great number of other buildings has been since added. Here are now a church, the offices of ordnance and of the mint, those of the keepers of the records, of the jewel-office, of the Spanish armoury, the horse armoury, and the new or small armoury ; with barracks for the soldiers of the garrison, and handsome houses for several officers who reside here. In 1098, king William Rufus surrounded the Tower with walls, and a deep ditch, in some places a hundred and twenty foot wide, and which in 1758, was railed all round. New barracks were lately erected on the Tower wharf, which parts it from the river ; and upon the wharf is a line of sixty-one pieces of cannon, which are fired upon state holidays. On

this side of the Tower the ditch is narrow, and over it is a draw-bridge. Under the Tower wall, on the same side, is a water-gate, commonly called Traitor's Gate, because it had been customary to convey traitors and other state prisoners this way by water, to and from the Tower. The principal entrance to the Tower is by two gates, on the west side, one within the other, both large enough to admit coaches, and parted by a bridge, built over the ditch. In a part of the Tower, several lions, and other foreign animals, are constantly kept, for the gratification of the curious, at the expence of the crown.

The principal officers of the Tower are, a constable, a lieutenant, and a deputy-lieutenant. Belonging to this fortress are eleven hamlets, the militia of which, consisting of four hundred men, are obliged, at the command of the constable of the Tower, to repair hither, and reinforce the garrison.

On Little Tower Hill is the vicqualling-office for the navy. It is separated from Tower-Hill by a wall and gate, and contains houses for the officers, slaughter-houses, store-rooms, a brew-house, a salting-house, and a barrelling-house ; under the direction of seven commissioners, and other inferior officers.

In Tower ward is also the custom-house, a large, handsome, and commodious building of brick and stone. It stands upon the bank of the Thames, and is accommodated with large wharfs, keys, and ware-houses. The custom-house is governed by nine commissioners, who are entrusted with the management of his majesty's customs in all the ports of England.

Lime-street ward is remarkable for a very large building, of great antiquity, called Leaden-hall, with flat battlements leaded on the top, and a spacious square in the middle. In this edifice are ware-houses for the sale of leather, Colchester baize, meal and wool. Adjoining to Leaden-hall is a market, thence called Leaden-hall market, consisting of five considerable squares or courts, and reckoned one of the greatest markets in Europe for steth and other provisions, as well as for leather, green hides, and wool.

In Broad-street ward, till lately, stood Gresham College, founded agreeable to the will of Sir Thomas Gresham, dated in July 1575, for lectures in divinity, geometry, astronomy, civil law, rhetoric, physic, and music. Here was a professor of each science ; with a salary of fifty pounds per annum. The building was of brick, and covered with slate, inclosing a court of a hundred and forty-four foot square. It had a large hall for the public lectures, and commodious apartments for the several professors.

In this ward is also the Bank of England, a stone building, consisting of two quadrangles. The principal front is about eighty foot in length, of the Ionic order, raised on a rustic basement, in a good style. The top is adorned with a balustrade, and handsome vases. In the first or exterior court is the hall, which is of the Corinthian order, seventy-five foot long, and forty broad. It is waincotted about eight foot high, has a fine fretwork ceiling, and a statue of king William III. with a Latin inscription. On the east and west sides of the interior court, is an arcade ; and on

the north side is the accountant's office, which is sixty foot long, and twenty-eight broad. Over this office, and on the other sides, are handsome apartments, with a fine stair-case, adorned with fret work; and under it are large strong vaults, with iron gates, for the preservation of the money. Besides this edifice, another large building detached from it, and furnished with a variety of accommodations for the purpose of the Bank, has been erected within these few years. The Bank is under the management of a governor, a deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, established by act of parliament, in 1693, by the title of the Governor and Company of the Bank of England.

The Royal-Exchange, which is the meeting-place of the merchants of London, stands in the ward of Cornhill, and is the finest and strongest fabric of the kind in Europe. It was first built of brick, in 1567, at the expence of Sir Thomas Gresham, and in 1570, was proclaimed the Royal Exchange, in a solemn manner, by herald, by found of trumpet, at the command, and in the presence of Queen Elizabeth. That structure being destroyed by the fire of London, in 1666, it was rebuilt of Portland stone; in the same manner as it now stands, at the expence of eighty thousand pounds. The first stone was laid by king Charles II. in 1667, and the building was completed in 1669. The whole is a parallelogram, two hundred and three foot in length, and a hundred and seventy-one foot in breadth, inclosing an area a hundred and forty-four long, and a hundred and seventeen foot broad. This area is surrounded with piazzas, forming ambulatories for the merchants to shelter themselves from the weather. The area is paved with fine pebbles, and the ambulatories with black and white marble. Upon a marble pedestal, in the centre, is a fine statue of king Charles II. in a Roman habit. Under the piazzas within the Exchange, are twenty-eight niches, all vacant except two; one in the north-west angle, where is the statue of Sir Thomas Gresham, and the other at the south-west, in which is a statue of Sir John Bernard, a magistrate of exemplary virtues. Above the arches of the piazzas is an entablature, with curious enrichments, and on the cornice a range of pilasters, with an entablature, extending round, and a compass pediment in the middle of the cornice of each of the four sides. In the inter-columns are twenty four niches, nineteen of which are filled with the statues of the sovereigns of England, from the time of king Edward I. all adorned with the ensigns of royalty, except those of king Charles II. king James II. and king George II. which are habited like Roman emperors. On the outside of the south and north fronts of this building is a piazza, and in the middle of each an entrance into the area, under a magnificent arch. On each side of the south entrance, in the inter-columns, is a niche, one containing a statue of king Charles I. and the other of Charles II. both dressed in Roman habits, and well executed. Within the piazzas of those two fronts, are two spacious stair-cases, with iron rails, and black marble steps, which lead into a

kind of gallery, that extends round the four sides of the building, in which were about two hundred shops, now mostly deserted. The height of this building is sixty-six foot; and from the centre of the south front rises a turret and lantern, a hundred and seventy-eight foot high, on the top of which is a fan in the form of a grasshopper, of polished brass, esteemed a fine piece of workmanship. The ground-floor of this building is taken up in shops and offices; and underneath are vaults, which are used by the East-India company as ware-houses for their pepper.

South of the Royal-Exchange, and near the west extremity of Lombard-street, is the general post-office, which is a handsome and commodious building.

In Walbrook-ward is the mansion-house, for the residence of the lord-mayor. It stands upon a spot which was formerly a market for provisions, and called Stocks market. This edifice was begun in 1739, and finished in 1753. It is built of Portland stone, with a portico of six fluted columns, of the Corinthian order, in the front. The basement story is very massy, and consists of rustic work; in the center of it is the door, which leads to the kitchens, cellars, and other offices. On each side rises a flight of steps, leading up to the portico, in the middle of which is the principal entry. The stone balustrade of the stairs is continued along the front of the portico, and the columns support a large angular pediment, adorned with a group of figures, in bas relief, representing the dignity and opulence of the city of London. It is an extreme heavy building, of an oblong form, and its depth is the long side, having several magnificent apartments, which are however not well lighted on account of the houses that surround it.

Behind the mansion-house is St. Stephen's church, in Walbrook, justly reputed the master-piece of the celebrated Sir Christopher Wren, and said to exceed every modern structure in the world; in proportion and elegance.

In Dowgate-ward is a noted academy called Merchant-Taylors school, from its having been founded by the Merchant-Taylors company, in the year 1561. It was destroyed by the fire of London in 1666, but was rebuilt, and is a very large structure, with commodious apartments for the masters and ushers, and a fine library. Sir Thomas White, lord-mayor of this city, having founded St. John's College in Oxford, in 1557, appointed this school as a seminary for it, and established at Oxford forty-six fellowships for scholars elected from this school.

The church of St. Mary le Bow, in Cordwainers-street ward, is the most eminent parochial church in the city. It was originally built in the reign of William the Conqueror; and being the first church the steeple of which was embellished with stone arches or bows, took thence its denomination of le Bow. It was burnt down in the fire of 1666, but soon afterwards rebuilt. The steeple of this church is reckoned the most beautiful of its kind in Europe.

In Cheap ward is Guildhall, or the town-house of London. This was originally built in 1411, but

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but so damaged by the great fire already mentioned, as to be rebuilt in 1669. The front has a Gothic appearance; and this character, is also due to the two gigantic effigies which stand within the hall. The hall is a hundred fifty-three foot long, fifty foot broad, and fifty-five high, adorned with the royal arms, and those of the city and its companies, as well as with several portraits of English sovereigns and judges. In this building are many apartments for transacting the business of the city, besides one for each of the judicial courts, namely that of the King's Bench, the Common-Pleas, and the Exchequer.

In Bassishaw, or Basinghall ward, in Blackwell, or Bakewell-hall, which adjoins to Guildhall, and is the greatest mart of woollen cloth in the world. It was purchased of king Richard II. by the city; and has ever since been used as a weekly market for broad and narrow woollen cloths, brought out of the country. It suffered the general devastation in 1666, but was rebuilt in 1672, and is now a spacious edifice, with a stone front, adorned with columns.

Cripplegate-ward is remarkable for a college, called Sion-college, founded in 1627, by Dr. Thomas White, vicar of St. Dunstan's in the West, for the improvement of the London clergy; with almshouses for twenty poor persons, ten men and ten women. In the year 1631, a charter was procured for incorporating the clergy of London, by which they were constituted fellows of the college; and out of the incumbents are annually elected, on Tuesday three weeks after Easter, a president, two deacons, and four assistants, who are to meet quarterly, to hear a Latin sermon, and afterwards be entertained at dinner in the college-hall, at the expence of the foundation.

In this ward is a hall, which belonged to the company of barber-surgeons, the professions of barber and surgeon being formerly exercised by the same person. It was built by the celebrated Inigo Jones; and the anatomical theatre is a very fine piece of architecture. This hall is now called Barber's-Hall; the surgeons, who disdained to be any longer associated with their ancient brethren, having obtained a separate charter, and built themselves a new hall in the Old Bailey.

In Aldersgate-ward is an edifice, called the London-Dispensary, built with brick, and ornamented with stone in an elegant taste. It was designed by Inigo Jones, and originally known by the name of Shaftesbury-house, from being the town-residence of the earls of that name. This charity is supported by voluntary contributions.

Farringdon-ward Within, is distinguished by the most magnificent protestant church in the world, the cathedral of St. Paul. It is said to be originally founded in 610, by Ethelbert, the Saxon king, on, or near a place where, in the time of the Romans, stood a temple dedicated to Diana. It had several times suffered much by fire and lightning, but in the conflagration of 1666, was entirely destroyed. It was afterwards rebuilt according to a model prepared by Sir Christopher Wren, who laid the first stone of the present structure in 1675; and the last stone on the

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top of the lantern was laid by his son, Mr. Christopher Wren, in the year 1710.

This superb edifice is built of fine Portland stone, in form of a cross, after the model of St. Peter's church at Rome. On the outside are two ranges of pilasters, consisting of an hundred and twenty each; the lower range of the Corinthian order, and the upper of the composite. The spaces between the arches of the windows, and the architrave of the lower order, are filled with a great variety of curious enrichments, as are also those above. On the north-side is a portico, the ascent to which is by twelve steps of black marble, and its dome supported by six very large columns. Over the dome is a pediment, the face of which is engraved with the royal arms, regalia, and other ornaments. On the south is a portico, the ascent to which is by twenty-five steps, and its dome supported by six columns, corresponding with those on the north side. The west front is graced with a most magnificent portico, supported by twelve lofty Corinthian columns; over these are eight columns of the composite order, which support a noble pediment, crowned with its acroteria, and in this pediment is the history of St. Paul's conversion, boldly carved in bas relief. The ascent to this portico is by a flight of steps of black marble, extending the whole length of the portico; and over each corner of the west front is a beautiful turret. A vast dome, or cupola, rises in the centre of the building. Twenty foot above the roof of the church is a circular range of thirty-two columns, with niches, placed exactly against others within. These are terminated by their entablature, which supports a handsome gallery, adorned with a stone balustrade. Above the columns last mentioned is a range of pilasters, with windows between them; and from the entablature of these, the diameter of the dome gradually decreases. On the summit of the dome is an elegant balcony, from the centre of which runs a beautiful lantern, adorned with Corinthian columns. The whole is crowned with a copper ball, supporting a cross, both finely gilt. Within, the cupola stands on eight stupendous pillars, curious adorned; the roof of the choir is supported by six pillars, and that of the church by two ranges, consisting of twenty more.

The roof of the church and choir is adorned with arches and spacious peripheries of enrichments, admirably carved in stone. Quite round the inside of the cupola, there is a whispering iron balcony, or gallery, the top of which is richly painted by Sir James Thornhill.

Notwithstanding the magnificence of this noble pile, it is remarked to have many defects. Its situation is such, that it cannot be viewed at a distance. The division of the porticos, and the whole structure into two stories on the outside, certainly indicate a like division within, which is acknowledged to be a fault. The dome, it has also been observed, bears too great a proportion to the rest of the pile, and ought to have been raised exactly in the centre of the building; besides that, there ought to have been two steeples at the east end, to correspond with those at the west. On

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entering this church, we instantly perceive an obvious deficiency, not only of elevation but length, to assist the perspective; and the columns are heavy and clumsy, rather encumbering the prospect than enriching it.

The length of this cathedral, from east to west, between the walls, is four hundred and sixty-three foot, and including the west portico, five hundred foot. The extent of the west front is a hundred and eighty foot; and in the centre, where it is widest, including the north and south porticos, its breadth is three hundred and eleven foot. The height of this edifice, from the ground to the top of the cross, is three hundred and forty-four foot. The outward diameter of the cupola is a hundred and forty-five foot, and the inward a hundred foot. The outward diameter of the lanthorn is eighteen foot; the height of the turret is two hundred and eight foot, and that of the body of the church a hundred and twenty foot.

This cathedral occupies an area of six acres, and is railed all round with iron balustrades, each about five foot and a half high, fixed on a dwarf wall of hewn stone. In the west end of this area, is a marble statue of queen Anne, holding a sceptre in one hand, and a globe on the other, surrounded with four emblematical figures representing Great Britain, France, Ireland, and America.

Besides very large contributions for carrying on this edifice, the parliament granted a duty on sea-coal, which, at a medium, produced five thousand pounds a year; and the whole expence of the building is said to have amounted to 736,752 l. 2 s. 3 d.

On the east side of the cathedral is St. Paul's School, founded in 1509, by Dr. John Collet, dean of this church, who endowed it for a principal-master, an under-master, a chaplain, and a hundred and fifty-three scholars.

In Warwick-lane, in this ward, stands the College of Physicians, erected in 1684, by sir Christopher Wren. It is built of brick, and has a spacious stone frontpiece. Near the fourth extremity of the Old Bailey, on the east-side, is the hall of the Company of Surgeons, with a theatre for dissection.

Adjoining to Christ-Church, in Newgate-street, is Christ's-Hospital, which, before the dissolution of monasteries by Henry VIII. was a house of Grey Friars. The hospital was founded by king Edward VI. for supporting and educating the fatherless children of poor freemen of this city; of whom one thousand of both sexes are generally maintained in the house, or out at nurse, and are likewise clothed and educated. In 1673, a mathematical school was founded here by Charles II. endowed with three hundred and twenty pounds a year; and a writing-school was added in 1694, by sir John Moor, an alderman of the city. After the boys have been seven or eight years on the foundation, some are sent to the university, and others to sea; while the rest, at a proper age, are put apprentices to trades, at the charge of the hospital. At first their habit was a russet cotton, but was soon after changed for blue, which has ever since continued to be their colour; and on this account the foundation is frequently called

the Blue-coat hospital. The affairs of this charity are managed by a president, and about three hundred governors, besides the lord-mayor and aldermen.

The fabric, which is partly Gothic, and partly modern, was much damaged by the fire of 1666, but was soon repaired, and has been since increased with several additions. The principal buildings, which form the four sides of an area, have a piazza round them, with Gothic arches, and the walls are supported by abutments. The front is more modern, and has doric pilasters, supported on pedestals.

In Castle-Baynard ward, is a large structure, called Doctor's Commons. It consists of several handsome paved courts, in which the judges of the court of admiralty, those of the court of delegates, of the court of arches, and the prerogative court, with the doctors that plead causes, and the professors of the place, all live in a collegiate way; and from communing together, as in other colleges, the name of Doctor's Commons is derived. Here courts are kept for the trial of civil and ecclesiastical causes, under the archbishop of Canterbury, and the bishop of London. The college has an excellent library, every bishop, at his consecration, giving twenty or fifty pounds towards purchasing books for it.

Near Doctor's Commons, on St. Bennet's-Hill, is the College of Heralds, who were incorporated by king Richard III. Besides the chief officer, who is the earl-marshal of England, here are three kings at arms, viz. Garter, Clarenceux, and Norroy, with six heralds, four pursuivants, and eight proctors. Garter attends the instalments of knights of that order, carries the Garter to foreign princes, regulates the ceremonies at coronations, and the funeral of the royal family, and nobility; Clarenceux directs the funeral ceremonies of those under the degree of peers, south of Trent; and Norroy performs the like office for those north of Trent. This building was originally the house of the earl of Derby. It is a spacious quadrangle, built of brick, and has convenient apartments. Here are kept records of the coats of arms of all the families and names in England, with an account when they were granted, and on what occasion.

In Farringdon-ward Without, is a large building, called Bridewell, from a spring formerly known by the name of St. Bridget's, or St. Bride's-Well. It was originally a royal palace, and occupied all the ground from Fleet-ditch on the east, to Water-lane on the west. That part of it, now called Salisbury-court, was given to the bishops of Salisbury for their town-residence; and the east part, which was rebuilt by king Henry VIII. is the present Bridewell. It was granted to the city by Edward VI. as an hospital; and he endowed it for the lodging of poor travellers, and for the correction of vagabonds, strumpets, and idle persons, as well as for finding them work.

In one part of the building, twenty artificers have houses; and about a hundred and fifty boys, distinguished by white hats and blue doublets, are put apprentices to gloves, flax-dressers, weavers, &c. and, when they have served their time, are entitled to the freedom of the city, with ten pounds, to-

wards carrying on their respective trades. The other part of Bridewell is a receptacle for disorderly persons, who are kept at beating hemp, and other hard labour.

Near Bridewell, is St. Bride's church, a stately fabric, a hundred and eleven foot long, fifty-seven broad, and forty-one high, with a beautiful spire, two hundred and thirty-four foot in altitude, and has a ring of twelve bells in its tower.

Opposite to Fleet-ditch, is now built, over this part of the river, a stately bridge, with elliptic arches, which is acknowledged to equal in point of elegance, any construction of the kind.

West Smithfield, in this ward, is an area containing three acres of ground, called in old records Smithfield-Pond, or Horse-Pool, it having been formerly a watering-place for horses. It was, in ancient times, the common place of execution; and at the south-west corner there was a gallows called the Elms, from a number of elm-trees that grew in the neighbourhood. It was likewise the scene of public jousts and tournaments, and has been a market-place for cattle above five hundred years.

On the south-side of this area, and contiguous to Christ's hospital, is St. Bartholomew's hospital. It was originally founded soon after the accession of Henry I. by Rahere, the king's jester, as an infirmary for the priory of St. Bartholomew the Great, which then stood near the spot. But upon the dissolution of religious houses, Henry VIII. refounded it, and endowed it with five hundred marks a year, on condition that the citizens should pay the same sum annually for the relief of a hundred lame and infirm patients. The endowments of this charity have since been so much enlarged, that it now receives the distressed of all denominations. In 1702, a beautiful frontispiece was erected towards Smithfield, adorned with pilasters, entablature, and a pediment of the Ionic order, with a statue of king Henry VIII. standing in a niche in full proportion, and those of two cripples on the top of the pediment over it. In 1729, a plan was formed for rebuilding the rest of this hospital, in consequence of which a magnificent edifice has been erected.

Among many other privileges granted by Henry I. to the prior and canons of the monastery of St. Bartholomew the Great, and to the poor of the infirmary, was that of keeping a fair in Smithfield on the eve, day, and morrow of St. Bartholomew.

This fair, called Bartholomew-fair, has been held annually ever since, and by the indulgence of the magistrates of London, to whom the privilege of keeping it devolved, upon the dissolution of the priory, it used to continue a fortnight. A great number of booths was erected in it by the actors of the theatres, for the exhibition of dramatic performances of various kinds, and it became at length a scene of so much licentiousness and riot, that sir John Barnard, when lord-mayor of London, reduced the time of the fair to its original duration of three days. This laudable example has been followed ever since; and the magistrates have likewise prohibited all public exhibitions, which had been formerly accompanied with so much disorder.

In a street in this ward, called the Old Bailey, is a hall named Justice-hall, or the session's house, where a court is held eight times a year, by the king's commission of oyer and terminer, for the trial of criminals for offences committed within the city of London and county of Middlesex. The judges of this court are the lord-mayor, those of the aldermen that have served that office, and the recorder, who are attended by the sheriffs, and by one or more of the national judges.

In this street is also the great criminal prison, lately built in a much more convenient situation, and on a more enlarged plan than the former prison, called Newgate; by which name it is still distinguished.

In this ward is likewise a prison, called the Fleet-prison, from a small river named the Fleet, which formerly run by it: this building is large, and reckoned the best in the city, for good rooms and other conveniences. It has the benefit of a large yard, which is enclosed with a very high wall. This prison is as ancient as the reign of Richard I. and belongs to the court of chancery, &c.

In Chancery-lane, in this ward, is an office, consisting of a house and chapel, called the office and chapel of the Rolls, from being the great repository of the modern public rolls and records of the kingdom. This building was originally the house of an eminent Jew; but being forfeited to the crown, king Henry III. in the year 1223, converted it into a hospital for the reception and accommodation of Jewish and other profelytes. In 1377, Edward III. granted this hospital and its chapel to William Bursfall, master of the rolls, to whose successors in that office, it has ever since belonged. Round this office, there is a small district, consisting of about two hundred houses, called the Liberty of the Rolls, over which the magistrates of London have no authority, it being under the government of the master of the rolls.

In this ward are several inns of court and chancery, particularly the Inner and Middle-Temple, Serjeant's-Inn, Clifford's-Inn, Barnard's-Inn, Staples-Inn, and Furnival's-Inn.

The Temple received its name from being originally founded by the Knight's Templars, who settled here in 1185. It was at first called the New Temple, to distinguish it from the former house of the Knight's Templars, which stood in Holborn, near Chancery-lane.

The original building was divided into three parts; the Inner, the Middle, and the Outer Temple. The Inner and the Outer Temple were so called, because one was within, and the other was without the Bar; and the Middle derived its name from being situated between them. Upon the dissolution of the order of Knights Templars, the New Temple devolved to the Knights Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem, who granted a lease of it to the students of the common-law, and converted that part of it called Inner and Middle Temple, into two inns of court, for the study and practice of the common-law. The Outer Temple became a house for the earl of Essex.

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The buildings of the Temple escaped the fire in 1666, but were most of them destroyed by subsequent fires, and have since been rebuilt. The two Temples are each divided into several courts, and have pleasant gardens on the banks of the Thames. They are appropriated to distinct societies, and have separate halls, where the members dine in common during term-time. The Inner Temple-hall is said to have been built in the reign of Edward III. and the Middle Temple-hall, which is a magnificent edifice, was rebuilt in 1577, in form of a college-hall. Each has a good library, adorned with paintings, and well furnished with books. An assembly, called a parliament, in which the affairs of the society of the Inner-Temple are managed, is held there every term. Both Temples have one church, first founded in 1185, by the Knights Templars; but the present edifice is supposed to have been built in 1420. It is supported by neat slender pillars of Suffolk marble, and is one of the most beautiful Gothic structures in England. In this church are many monuments, particularly of nine Knight's Templars, cut in marble, in full proportion, some of them seven foot and a half long; six are cross-legged, and therefore supposed to have been engaged in the crusades. The minister of this church, who is usually called the master of the Temple, is appointed by the benchers, or senior members of both societies, and presented by a patent from the crown.

Serjeant's-Inn is a small inn in Chancery-lane, where the judges and serjeants have chambers, but not houses, as they had in another inn of this name in Fleet street, which they abandoned in 1730; but in each of them there is a hall and a chapel.

Clifford's-Inn is an inn of chancery belonging to the Inner-Temple. It was originally a house granted by Edward II. to the family of the Cliffords, from which it derived its name; but was afterwards let upon lease to the students of the law, and in the reign of Edward III. sold to the members of this society.

Bernard's-Inn is likewise an inn of chancery belonging to Grays-Inn. It stands in Holborn, and was the house of John Mackworth, dean of Lincoln, who gave it to the professors of the law.

Staple's-Inn belongs also to Gray's-Inn, and is situated in Holborn. It was once a hall for the merchants of the staple for wool, whence it derives its name; but it was purchased by the benchers of Gray's-Inn, and has been an inn of chancery since the year 1415.

Furnival's-Inn is an inn of chancery, belonging to Lincoln's-Inn, and was once the house of the family of the Furnivals, by whom it was let out to the professors of the law. It is a large old building, with a hall and a pleasant garden.

In Colman-street ward, on the south-side of a large square, called Moorfields, stands Bethlehem-hospital, founded in 1675, by the lord-mayor and citizens of London, for the reception and cure of poor lunatics. It is a noble edifice, built with brick and stone, and adorned with pilasters, entablatures, and sculpture, particularly with the figures of two lunatics over the grand gate, which are well executed. This building is

five hundred and forty foot long, and forty broad, exclusive of two wings, of a later erection, intended for the reception of such lunatics as are deemed incurable. This hospital contains a great number of convenient cells or apartments, where the patients are maintained and receive all medical assistance without any other expence to their friends than that of bedding. The structure is divided into two stories, through each of which runs a long gallery, from one end of the house to the other. On the south side are the cells, and on the north the windows, that give light to the galleries, which are divided in the middle by handsome iron-gates, to keep the men and women separate.

This hospital being united to that of Bridewell, both are managed by the same president, governors, treasurer, clerk, physician, surgeon, and apothecary; but each a steward and inferior officers peculiar to itself.

Bethlehem-hospital being found incapable of receiving and providing for the relief of all the unhappy objects, for whom application was made, a plain edifice was built for the same purpose on the north side of Moorfields, called St. Luke's hospital, which is maintained by private subscription.

Besides the two markets already mentioned at Smithfield for cattle and hay, and at Leadenhall for butcher's meat, wool, hides, and Colchester baize, there are in this city the following other markets, which are all very considerable; viz. Honey-lane, Newgate, and Fleet-market, chiefly for fish, though with separate divisions for fish, butter, eggs, poultry, herbs, and fruit; Billingsgate market for fish only; and the Three-Cranes market, for apples, and other fruit. The principal corn-market is held in a neat Exchange, situated in Mark-lane, and that for flour at Queenhithe. In Thames-street, near Billingsgate, there is an exchange for dealers in coals and masters of vessels in that trade to transact their business.

Before the great fire in 1666, there were within the walls of London ninety-seven parishes, and sixteen without, exclusive of those in the city and liberties of Westminster, and in the borough of Southwark. At present, however, the number of parochial churches in the city and liberties of London is only sixty two.

London is a bishop's see, the diocese of which comprehends not only Middlesex, Essex, and part of Hertfordshire, but the British plantations in America. The bishop of London takes precedence next to the archbishops of Canterbury and York; but the following parishes of this city are exempt from his jurisdiction, being peculiar to the immediate government of the archbishop of Canterbury; viz. Allhallows in Breadstreet, Allhallows Lombard-street; St. Dionys Back-Church, St. Dunstan in the East, St. John Baptist, St. Leonard Eastcheap, St. Mary Aldermary, St. Mary Bethlaw, St. Mary le Bow, St. Michael Crooked-lane, St. Michael Royal, St. Pancras Soper-lane, and St. Vedast Foster-lane.

The civil government of London is vested in the lord-mayor, twenty-six aldermen (from among whom the lord-mayor is annually chosen), a recorder, a chamberlain, two hundred and thirty-six common-councilmen, and other officers.

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The lord mayor is elected annually at Guildhall, on Michaelmas day, when the aldermen below the chair, who have served the office of sheriff, are put in nomination, out of whom the liverymen, consisting of about eight thousand, return two to the court of aldermen, who usually prefer the senior. Upon the 8th of November, the lord mayor elect is sworn into his office at Guildhall, and the next day he is inaugurated at Westminster. For this purpose, he is met in the morning by the aldermen and sheriffs, at Guildhall, whence they ride in great state in their coaches, attended by the city officers, and the company of which the lord mayor is a member, in furred gowns, on foot, to the Three Cranes. Here all the persons in the procession enter their barges, which are richly decorated, and furnished with streamers and music; and rowing towards Westminster, amidst the salutation of great guns from the shore, they land at Palace-yard; whence the company march in order to Westminster-hall, followed by the lord mayor and aldermen. Having entered the hall, they walk round it, with the city sword and mace carried before them, to salute the several courts, and then walk up to the court of Exchequer, where the new lord mayor is sworn before the barons. His lordship then walks round the hall again; after which he returns with the citizens by water to Black-friars, whence they ride in their coaches, preceded by a part of the city militia, and attended by the city companies, with their flags and music, to Guildhall, where a magnificent entertainment is given, at which many of the nobility of both sexes are generally present.

The lord mayor's jurisdiction extends, in some cases, a great way beyond the limits of the city, not only over a part of the suburbs, but upon the river Thames, east as far as its conflux with the Medway, and westward to the river Colne. He keeps courts annually, for the conservation of the river Thames, in the counties through which it flows, within the boundaries already mentioned. He always appears abroad in a state coach, robed in scarlet or purple, richly furred, with a hood of black velvet; a great gold chain, or collar of SS, to which a jewel is appended; and his officers walk before him, or on each side of his coach. He usually goes on Sunday morning, attended by some of the aldermen, to St. Paul's cathedral, where, on the first Sunday in term time, several of the twelve judges, if not all of them, are usually present, whom, after divine service, he invites to dinner at the Mansion-house.

The city is divided into twenty-six wards, over each of which there is an alderman, who enjoys the office for life. Upon the death of an alderman, a court, called a wardmote, is held in the ward over which he presided, by the lord mayor, for electing a successor, who is afterwards sworn into his office at court of aldermen. All the aldermen are, by charter, justices of peace in the city.

The two sheriffs of this city are also sheriffs of the county of Middlesex; and are chosen at Guildhall, No. 32.

on Midsummer day, by the liverymen, but not sworn till Michaelmas eve, when they enter on their office; two days after which, they are presented in the Exchequer court in Westminster-hall, by the lord mayor and aldermen. Each sheriff has a deputy, with six clerks, and thirty six sergeants, and every serjeant a yeoman, who belongs to either of the prisons, called Wood-street compter, or the Poultry compter. If the person chosen sheriff declines serving the office, he is fined four hundred pounds to the city, and thirteen pounds, six shillings, and eight pence, to the ministers of the city prisons, unless he swear that he is not worth fifteen thousand pounds. If he serves, he is obliged to give bond to the corporation.

After the sheriffs are elected, the livery choose the chamberlain of the city, and other officers, called the bridge-masters, auditors of the city and bridge-house accounts, and the ale-conners. The recorder is appointed by the lord mayor and court of aldermen, and holds his place for life.

The common council, constables, and other officers, are chosen by the housekeepers in the respective wards, on St. Thomas's day, at a wardmote then held by the different aldermen.

The court of common council, which is the name given to the assembly of the lord mayor, aldermen, and common councilmen, make bye-laws for the city, and, upon occasion, grant the freedom to strangers. It is called and adjourned by the lord mayor; and out of it are formed several committees, for letting the city lands, and other services.

The lord mayor and court of aldermen are a court of record, in which all leases and instruments are executed, that pass under the city seal. They fix the price of bread, determine all differences relating to lights, water-courses, and party walls, suspend or punish offending officers, and annually elect the rulers of the watermens company. They also appoint most of the city officers; but the rent-gatherer is nominated by the chamberlain, and the high bailiff of Southwark by the common council.

The court of hustings is reckoned the most ancient tribunal in the city, and was instituted for the preservation of its laws, franchises, and customs. It is held at Guildhall, before the lord mayor, the sheriffs, and the recorder, the latter of whom, in civil causes, sits there as judge. Here deeds are enrolled, recoveries passed, wills proved, and outlawries sued out; writs of right, waste, partition, dower, and replevins, are also determined. Here also the representatives of this city in parliament are elected by the liverymen, who, out of eight candidates that are usually set up, make choice of four.

The lord mayor's court is likewise a court of record and of equity, held in the chamber of Guildhall every Tuesday, where the recorder also sits as judge, and the lord mayor and aldermen may, if they please, sit with him. Actions of debts, trespass, and others, arising within the city and liberties, of any value, may here be tried, and an action may be removed thither from the sheriffs courts, before the jury is sworn.

This court has an office peculiar to itself, consisting of four attorneys, and six serjeants at mace. The juries for trying causes in this and in the sheriff court, are returned by the several wards, at their wardmote inquests at Christmas, when each ward appoints the persons to serve on juries, for every month in the ensuing year.

The sheriffs have two courts, which are also courts of record for the trials of actions of debt, trespass, account, covenant, attachments, and sequestrations. They are held on Wednesday and Friday, for actions entered in Woodstreet compter; and on Thursday and Saturday, for such as are entered in the Poultry compter.

The chamberlain has a court or office, which is held at the chamber in Guildhall. He receives and disburses all the city cash, keeps the securities taken for it by the court of aldermen, and annually accounts to the auditors appointed for that purpose. He generally attends every morning at Guildhall to enrol or turn over apprentices, or make them free, and hears and determines differences between them and their masters.

The orphans court, is a court held by the lord mayor and aldermen, once a year or oftener, for managing the affairs of the city orphans, or freemen's children, under twenty-one years of age. The common serjeant takes inventories of such freemen's estates, and the common crier summons their widows, or other executors and administrators, to appear before the court of aldermen, to bring in an inventory, and give security for the testator's estate. When the orphans are of age, or are married with consent of the court of aldermen, they may receive their portions upon demand.

The court of requests, is a court erected by act of parliament, in the year 1606, for recovering debts under forty shillings, at an easy expence; the creditor's oath of the debt being sufficient to ascertain it, without farther evidence. Some members of the common council, being appointed monthly in their turn, by the lord mayor and court of aldermen, sit at the hustings in Guildhall every Wednesday and Saturday, as commissioners of this court.

The military government of the city is lodged in a lieutenantancy, consisting of the lord mayor, aldermen, and other principal citizens, who receive their authority by a commission from the king. Those have under their command the city trained bands, consisting of six regiments of foot, distinguished by the names of the white, orange, yellow, blue, green, and red, each containing eight companies, of a hundred and fifty men, amounting in all to seven thousand two hundred. Besides these six regiments, there is a corps called the artillery company, from its being taught the military exercise in the Artillery-ground. This company is independent of the rest, and consists of seven or eight hundred volunteers. All these, with two regiments of foot, of eight hundred men each, commanded by the lieutenant of the tower of London, make the whole militia of this city, which, exclusive of

Westminster and the borough of Southwark, amounts to about ten thousand men.

The companies of the city of London, or the several incorporations of its citizens, in their respective trades, are in number ninety-one, besides several other companies, or incorporated societies of merchants. Of these ninety-one companies, fifty-two have each a hall for transacting the business of the corporation; and this consists of a master, or prime warden, a court of assistants, and livery.

Twelve of these companies are superior to the rest, both in antiquity and wealth; and of one of those twelve the lord mayors have generally made themselves free at their election. These companies are the mercers, grocers, drapers, fish-mongers, goldsmiths, skippers, merchant-tailors, haberdashers, salters, iron-mongers, vintners, and clothworkers.

The principal incorporated societies of the merchants of this city are, the Hamburgh Company, the Hudson's Bay Company, the Russia Company, the Turkey Company, the East India Company, the Royal African Company, the South Sea Company, and some Insurance Companies. The most of these companies have stately houses for transacting their business, particularly the East India and South Sea companies.

The trade of this vast and opulent city is almost coeval with its foundation. Tacitus, in the sixty-third year of the Christian era, represented it as celebrated for its great commerce, and the number of its merchants. It appears from an estimate, that one fourth part of the foreign trade of the nation is carried on at London; and it has been said that the port of London pays two thirds of the customs of all England.

At what precise time London was founded, does not appear from history. Many have supposed, that before the arrival of Cæsar in Britain, it was the great emporium, or mart of the British trade, with the Phœnicians, Greeks, and Gauls. There was, however, no building, either of brick or stone, in this place, till it was inhabited by the Romans; the dwellings of the natives, before that time, being formed only of twigs matted together. London is generally thought to have been founded in the reign of the emperor Claudius; and so rapidly did it increase, that in a few years it became too large to be defended by an army of ten thousand Romans; on which account it was abandoned by Suetonius Paulinus, the Roman general, to the fury of the British queen Boadicea, who burnt it to the ground, and put all the inhabitants to the sword. But it soon recovered its former state, and, in imitation of Rome, was made a prefecture by the Romans, who gave it the name of Augusta.

By Ptolemy, and some other ancient writers of good authority, Londinium is placed in Cantium, or Kent, on the south side of the Thames; and it is the opinion of some moderns, that the Romans probably had a station there, to secure their conquests on that side of the river, before they reduced the Trinobantes.

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The place fixed upon for this station is St. George's fields, a large plat of ground situated between Lambeth and Southwark, where many Roman coins, bricks, and chequer'd pavements have been found. Three Roman ways from Kent, Surry, and Middlesex, intersected each other in this place: this therefore is supposed to be the original Londinum, which it is thought, became neglected after the Romans reduced the Trinobantes, and settled on the other side of the Thames.

By whom London was first encompassed with walls is uncertain: some think by Constantine the Great; others by his mother Helena; but there is great reason to believe that it was by the emperor Valentinian I. about the year of the Christian epoch 368. It is imagined that those walls quite surrounded the city, as well upon the side of the Thames as the land side; but that the part of the wall next the river has been destroyed by the tide so many ages ago, that there are now no traces even of its ruins.

The extent of the city, as limited by mural fortification, measured in circumference three miles, one hundred and sixty-five feet. The walls were composed of alternate layers of Roman brick, and rag-stones. From the remains of the Roman work, it is conjectured that the original height of the walls was twenty-two feet. They were fortified with several lofty towers: the number of which, on the land side, was fifteen. The remains of two of these towers, yet to be seen, one in a street called Shoemaker-row, near Aldgate; and the other on the west side of Houndsditch, are thought to be the most considerable pieces of Roman architecture now in Britain. One of them still consists of three stories, and is twenty-six feet high, though greatly decayed, and rent in some parts from top to bottom: the other is twenty-one feet high, perfectly sound, and very beautiful, the brick being as good as if newly laid, though the stones are in some places crumbled away. In a street called the Vineyard, not far from those towers, is the basis of another Roman tower, about eight feet high, supporting a new building of three stories. From the remains of these towers it is imagined, that their height was originally forty feet.

In the reign of Henry II. the walls of the city were considerably ruined; in that of Richard I. a great part was demolished, to make room for the ditch round the tower of London; and being much decayed in the time of Henry III. he obliged the citizens to repair them at a great expence.

In the reign of king John, the city of London was fortified by encompassing the wall with a moat or ditch two hundred feet wide. This ditch was cleaned in the reign of Richard II. and it appears that the crown usually granted the magistrates of London a duty on certain goods, to defray the expence of this work, and repairing the walls.

In the reign of Edward V. great part of the walls were rebuilt at the charge of the city companies; in the reign of Henry VIII. the ditch was cleaned; and in the reign of queen Elizabeth it was twice cleaned, and part of it widened. For many years, however,

the ditch has been filled up, and covered with buildings; and so much both of the walls and ditch has been appropriated by the city to public uses, that there are few places in which either of them can be seen to advantage.

Some of the walls yet remain between the houses on the east side of poor Jewry-lane, the Minorities, and along Houndsditch, from the place where Aldgate lately stood, to the right of Bishopsgate. From the latter the walls may be traced towards the spot which was occupied by Little Moorgate; thence by Aldermanbury, to the right of Cripplegate; and proceeding afterwards by the back of St. Giles's church, and of the houses in Crowder's-well-alley, they are visible almost to the place where Alderfgate stood: from this spot they run along the back of the houses in Bull and Mouth-street; whence there is hardly any part of them visible to Newgate; but from this they are in some places of a considerable height, along the back of the houses in the Old Bailey, almost to the right of Ludgate.

The original gates of this city are supposed to have been four, viz. Newgate, Cripplegate, Aldgate, and Dowgate; but the latter has been demolished so long ago, that even the sight of it is not exactly known. Those gates were erected over the three great Roman military ways. The way called Watling-street, which was intersected by the Thames, entered London through Dowgate, crossing the city, passed through Dowgate: the military-way called Ermine-street, is supposed to have pointed towards Cripplegate; and the Vicinal-way to have run through Aldgate.

In the reign of Henry II. the walls had seven gates, which were Aldgate, Bishopsgate, Cripplegate, Alderfgate, Newgate, Ludgate, and a postern near the Tower. In respect to the places called Bottolph's-gate, Billingsgate, and the watergates near the Custom-house; it does not appear that they ever were reed gates, but wharfs only.

All these gates stood till lately, when an act of parliament having passed for widening and improving the streets of this city, they were considered as incumbrances, and all taken down in the years 1760 and 1761, excepting Newgate, which was not taken down till lately.

One of the most remarkable pieces of antiquity in London is a great stone, now standing in a case on the north side of Cannon-street, close under the south wall of St. Swithin's church, in Walbrook-ward: It is called London-stone, and was formerly pitched edgeways on the other side of the street, opposite to where it now stands, fixed deeply in the ground, and strongly fastened with iron bars; but for the convenience of wheel-carriages it was removed to its present situation. This stone is mentioned so early as the time of Ethelstan, king of the West Saxons, and has been carefully preserved from age to age. Of the original cause of its erection no memorial remains; but it is conjectured, that as London was a Roman city, this stone might be the centre, and might serve as an object from which the distance was computed to the other considerable cities or stations in the province.



## WESTMINSTER.

The city of Westminster derives its name from a *minster*, or abbey, called Westminster, on account of its situation with respect to St. Paul's cathedral, which was formerly called East-minster. In ancient times this district stood upwards of a mile from the city of London, and contained only two parishes, which were those of St. Margaret and St. John, with two chapels of ease; but at present it has seven other parochial churches, viz. St. Clement's Danes, St. Paul's Covent-garden, St. Mary's-le-Strand, St. Martin's in the Fields, St. Anne's, St. James's, and St. George's Hanover-square.

Westminster was anciently called Thorny-island, from its having been covered with thorn-bushes, and encompassed by a branch of the Thames, which is said to have run through the ground now called St. James's-park, from west to east, and to have rejoined the river at Whitehall.

Till the general dissolution of religious houses, Westminster was subject to the arbitrary rule of its abbot and monks; but in 1541, upon the surrender of William Benson, the last abbot, Henry VIII. not only turned it into an honour, but created it the see of a bishop, and appointed for a diocese the whole county of Middlesex, except Fulham, which belonged the bishop of London. This bishoprick, however soon after its institution, was dissolved by Edward VI.

The city of Westminster is governed by a high steward, an officer of great dignity, who is usually one of the first peers in the realm; and is chosen for life, by the dean and chapter of the collegiate church of St. Peter. There is also a deputy steward, and a high bailiff, who also hold their offices for life; being nominated by the dean and chapter, and confirmed by the high steward.

The dean and chapter are invested with an ecclesiastical and civil jurisdiction within the liberties of Westminster, St. Martin's-le-grand, near Cheapside, in the city of London, and some towns in Essex, which are exempted from the jurisdiction of the bishop of London, and the archbishop of Canterbury.

St. Margaret's church was founded by Edward the Confessor, since which time it has been frequently rebuilt. In the east end of this church is a window curiously painted, with the history of the crucifixion, and with the figures of several apostles and saints finely executed. It formerly belonged to a private chapel at Copt hall, near Epping, in Essex, and was purchased by the officers of this parish a few years ago, for four hundred guineas. In this church the house of commons attends divine service on state holidays.

The church of St. John the Evangelist was erected in 1728, and having sunk considerably while it was building, occasioned an alteration of the plan. On the north and south sides are magnificent porticoes, supported by vast stone pillars, as is also the roof of the church; at each of the four corners is a beautiful

stone tower and pinnacle, which were added with the view of making the whole structure sink equally. The parts of this building are held together by iron bars, which run across even the aisles.

The most remarkable structure in Westminster is the abbey-church of St. Peter, which was erected in the time of king Henry III. upon the spot where a church and convent had anciently stood. It suffered much by fire in 1274, but was repaired by Edward I. Edward II. and the abbots. In 1700, this church being much decayed, the parliament granted money for repairing it, and has frequently repeated the bounty since that time. The form of the abbey is that of a long cross; its greatest length is four hundred and eighty-nine feet, and the breadth of the west front sixty-six feet; the length of the cross aisle is a hundred and eighty-nine feet, and the height of the roof ninety-two feet. At the west end are two towers: the nave and cross aisle are supported by fifty slender pillars of Sussex marble, exclusive of pilasters. In the upper and lower ranges there are ninety-four windows, all which, with the arches, roofs, and doors, are in the Gothic taste. The inside of this church is much better executed than the outside: and the perspective is good, particularly that of the grand aisle. The choir, from which there is an ascent by several steps to a fine altar-piece, is paved with black and white marble; having twenty-eight stalls on the north, the same number on the south, and eight at the west end.

In this church, which is the depository of our illustrious dead, there are twelve sepulchral chapels, namely, those of Edward the Confessor, Henry VII. St. Benedict, St. Edmund, St. Nicholas, St. Paul, St. John Baptist, St. Erasmus, St. John the Evangelist, St. Michael, St. Andrew, and St. Blaise. These several chapels contain many ancient and curious monuments of kings, queens, and other great personages; besides which there is a great number in the different aisles, in memory of poets, philosophers, heroes, and patriots. In a fine vault under Henry the seventh's chapel, is the burying-place of the present royal family, erected by his late majesty king George II. Adjoining the abbey are the cloysters, built in a quadrangular form, with piazzas towards the court, where several of the prebendaries have their houses.

Near the abbey church is the king's school, usually called Westminster-school. It was originally founded in 1070, and a second time by queen Elizabeth in 1560, whence it is sometimes called the queen's college; and is at present one of the greatest schools in the kingdom.

On the north-east side of the abbey is an old Gothic building called Westminster-hall, first built by William Rufus, as an addition to a royal palace; and afterwards rebuilt by Richard II. in the year 1397. It is reckoned one of the largest rooms in Europe, being two hundred feet long, seventy feet broad, and ninety feet high, supported only by buttresses. The roof is of timber, and was a few years ago slated, the old covering of lead being reckoned too heavy. It is paved

paved with stone. In this spacious room the kings of England have generally held their coronation, and other solemn feasts; and it is used for the trial of peers. Since the reign of Henry III. the three great courts of Chancery, King's Bench, and Common Pleas have been held in separate apartments of this hall; and the court of Exchequer above stairs.

Adjoining to the south-east angle of Westminster-hall is a building formerly called St. Stephen's Chapel, from its having been dedicated to that saint. It was founded by king Stephen, and 1347, rebuilt by king Edward III. who converted it to a collegiate church; but since it was surrendered to Edward VI. it has been used for the assembly of the representatives of the commons of England; and is now generally called the House of Commons. The benches, which ascend behind one another, as in a theatre, are covered with green cloth; the floor is matted, and round the room are waincot galleries supported by centilevers adorned with carved work, in which strangers are often permitted to sit and hear the debates.

On the south side of the hall is the House of Lords, so called from being the place where the peers of Great Britain assemble in parliament. It is an oblong room not quite so large as the House of Commons, and is hung with fine old tapestry, representing the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588, the gift of the states of Holland to queen Elizabeth. Here is a throne for the king, with seats on the right and left for such peers of the realm as are of the blood royal. Before the throne are three broad seats; on the first of which, next the throne, sits the Lord Chancellor, or keeper of the great seal, who is speaker of the House of Peers; and on the other two sit the judges, the master of the rolls, or the masters in chancery, who attend occasionally to give their opinions on points of law. The two archbishops sit at some distance from the throne on the right hand, and the other bishops in a row, under them. All the benches are covered with red cloth stuffed with wool. Here likewise, by a late order of the house, a gallery for strangers has been erected.

Adjoining to the House of Lords is the Princes Chamber, where the king is robed when he comes to the parliament. On the other side is the Painted Chamber, which is said to have been Edward the Confessor's bed-chamber; and the room in which the parliaments were anciently opened. Here conferences are often held between the two houses, or their committees. Contiguous to those is an apartment called the Court of Requests, where such as have business in either house may attend.

Near these buildings is a bridge over the Thames, called Westminster-bridge, accounted one of the first in the world. It consists of thirteen large, and two smaller arches, all semicircular, and which spring from about two foot above low-water mark. The middle arch is seventy-six feet wide, and the rest decrease equally on each side by four feet. Each pier terminates with a blunt right angle against the stream, both upwards and downwards: the middle piers are each seventeen feet wide at the springing of the arches,

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and contain three thousand cubic feet, or near two hundred tons of solid stone; the others decreasing by one foot on each side. The length of the bridge is one thousand two hundred and twenty-three feet, and the breadth forty-four feet; a commodious foot-way on each side being raised above the road allowed for carriages, and paved with broad moor-stones. For the convenience of passengers, it is furnished on either hand with semi-octangular recesses, which are connected together by a wall and balustrade. The first stone of this bridge was laid in January 1739, and the building was completed towards the end of 1750.

On the bank of the Thames, at the east confines of St. Margaret's parish, was a palace called Whitehall, originally built by Hubert de Burgh, earl of Kent, before the middle of the thirteenth century. It afterwards devolved to the archbishop of York, whence it received the name of York Place, and continued to be the city residence of the archbishops, till it was purchased by Henry VIII. of cardinal Wolsey, in 1530. At this period it became the residence of the court; but, in 1697, was destroyed by accidental fire, all except the Banqueting-house, which had been added to the palace of Whitehall by James I. according to a design of Inigo Jones. This is an elegant and magnificent structure of hewn stone, adorned with an upper and lower range of pillars, of the Ionic and Composite orders; the capitals are enriched with fruit and foliage, and between the columns of the windows. The roof is covered with lead, and surrounded with a balustrade. The building chiefly consists of one room of an oblong form, forty feet high, and a proportionable length and breadth. The ceiling is painted by the celebrated Sir Peter Paul Rubens. It is now used only as a chapel-royal, and the other part of the house is occupied with state-offices.

Opposite to the Banqueting-house stands the Horse-guards, so called from being the station where that part of his majesty's troops usually do duty. It is a strong building, of hewn stone, consisting of a centre and two wings. In the former is an arched passage into St. James's Park; and over it, in the middle, rises a cupola. In a part of the building is the War-office.

Adjoining to the Horse-guards is the Treasury, a large building, which fronts the Parade in St. James's Park. Here are kept the board of Treasury, and the office of Trade and Plantations.

Eastward of the Horse-guards is the Admiralty Office, a magnificent structure, built with brick and stone. The front towards Whitehall has two deep wings, and a lofty portico, supported by four large stone pillars. A piazza, consisting of beautiful columns, runs almost from one end to the other. The wall before the court has been lately built in an elegant manner, and each side of the gate is ornamented with naval emblems. Besides a hall, and other public apartments, here are spacious houses for seven commissioners of the admiralty.

At a little distance from the Admiralty, where three capital streets terminate, is a large opening, called

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Charing-

Charing-crofs, from one of the *croffes* which king Edward I. caufed to be erected in memory of his queen, Eleanor, and *Charing*, the name of a village in which it was built. The crofs remained till the civil wars in the reign of Charles I. when it was destroyed by the fanatics, as a monument of popifh fuperftition; but after the Reftoration, an equeftrian ftatue of Charles I. was fet up in its ftcad. This, which is of brafs, and finely executed, continues to be an ornament to the place.

Contiguous to Charing-crofs, upon the east fide, is Northumberland-houfe, fo called from its having been in poffeffion of the family of Northumberland for more than a hundred years. It was originally built in the reign of James I. by Henry Howard, earl of Northampton, and is almoft the only houfe of ancient nobility remaining in London. At firft it confifted of three fides, but is now a fpacious quadrangle, with a large garden, and fine walks, behind it, extending almoft to the Thames.

At the west end of the Mall, in St. James's Park, which begins near Charing-crofs, ftands the Queen's Palace. It was originally known by the name of Arlington-houfe; but being purchafed by the late duke of Buckingham's father, who re-built it from the ground in 1703, it was called Buckingham-houfe, till the year 1762, when it was purchafed by his majefty for a royal refidence. It is built of brick and ftone; having in the front two ranges of pilafters, of the Corinthian and Tufcan orders. It has a fpacious court-yard, inclofed with iron rails, fronting St. James's Park, with offices on each fide, with two pavilions, feparated from the manson-houfe by colonades, of the Tufcan, Doric, and Ionic orders. His majefty has here built a fine library, in an octagonal form, befides feveral other additions.

Eastward of the Queen's Palace ftands St. James's, an old building, which, till the former was purchafed by the crown, had been the town refidence of the royal family, fince the burning of Whitehall in 1697. This palace was built by Henry VIII. and obtained its name from an hofpital which formerly ftood on the fpot. It is an irregular building, of a mean appearance without, but contains feveral magnificent apartments. Here the court and levees are ftill kept, and moft of the perfons belonging to the houfhould have their refidence. The chapel of the hofpital was converted to the ufe of the royal family, as it now remains, and is a royal peculiar, exempted from all epifcopal jurifdiction.

When this palace was built, it abutted in the fouth-west upon an uncultivated, fwampy tract of ground, which the king inclofed, and converted into a park, called from the palace St. James's park. He alfo laid it out into walks, and collected the water into one body. It was afterwards much enlarged and improved by king Charles II. who planted it with lime trees, and formed a beautiful vifta, near half a mile in length, called the Mall, from its being adapted to a play at bowls diftinguifhed by that name. He alfo formed the water into a canal a hundred feet broad, and two thoufand eight hundred feet long; and furnished the park with a decoy, and other ponds for

water-fowl; but thofe have lately been destroyed, on account of the unwholfome vapours which they excited.

In a line with St. James's palace, on the east fide, is Marlborough-houfe, which belongs to the duke of Marlborough, and is a large brick edifice, ornamented with ftone.

The church of St. Martin is diftinguifhed by the name of St. Martin's in the Fields, from its fiteuation, which was formerly a field, with only a few fcattered houfes. The church being decayed, was rebuilt by Henry VIII. and again by James I. but not being large enough to accommodate the inhabitants of the parifh, it was augmented in 1607, at the charge of prince Henry, eldeft fon of James I. and feveral of the nobility. After many expenfive reparations, however, it was entirely taken down in 1720, and a new church began, which was finifhed in 1726. This is an elegant edifice, built of ftone. On the west front is a noble portico of Corinthian columns, fupporting a pediment, in which are represented the royal arms in bas relief. The afcent to the portico is by a flight of very long fteps. The length of this church is about one hundred and forty feet, the breadth fixty, and the height forty-five. It has a fine arched roof fupported by ftone columns of the Corinthian order. The fteeple has a beautiful fpire, and one of the beft rings of bells in London.

St. James's church was built in the reign of Charles II. at the expence of Henry earl of St. Alban's, and other neighbouring inhabitants. The building is of brick and ftone, about eighty-five feet long, fixty broad, and forty-five feet high, with a handfome fteeple a hundred and fifty feet in height.

St. George's church, near Hanover-square, is a beautiful ftructure. This was one of the fifty new churches erected within the bills of mortality, by act of parliament, in the reign of queen Anne. The ground for the edifice was given by the late lieutenant-general Stewart, who alfo left four thoufand pounds to the parifh, towards erecting and endowing a charity-fchool; which, by additional benefactions and fubfcriptions, is become very confiderable.

The greater part of the parifh of St. Paul Covent-garden, was anciently a garden, belonging to the abbot and convent of Weftminfter, and was then called Covent-garden, a name corrupted into Covent, and more generally Common-garden. In 1552, Edward VI. gave it to the earl of Bedford, with an adjoining field, formerly called the Seven Acres, but now being turned into a long ftree, is called Long-acre. The church of St. Paul's, Covent-garden, was built by Inigo Jones, and is efteemed one of the moft fimple and perfect pieces of architecture in England. In the front is a plain portico of the Tufcan order, with mafsy columns.

Before the church is a fquare area, containing about three acres of ground, called Covent-garden market, and is the beft in England for herbs, fruit, and flowers. On the north, and part of the east fide, is a magnificent piazza, defigned by Inigo Jones.

Next to the parifh of St. Paul, Covent-garden, is that of St. Mary le Strand. This is alfo one of the

fifty new churches built in the reign of queen Anne, and is a handsome piece of architecture, though not very extensive. At the entrance, on the west side, is an ascent by a flight of steps, in a circular form, which leads to a similarly shaped portico of Ionic columns, covered with a dome, that is crowned with a vase. The columns are continued along the body of the church, with pilasters of the same order at the corners; and in the intercolumniations are niches handsomely ornamented. Over the dome is a pediment supported by Corinthian columns, which are also continued round the body of the structure, over those of the Ionic order. A handsome balustrade is carried round the top of the church, and adorned with vases.

A little eastward from the preceding church is that of St. Clement's Danes, situated likewise in the Strand. A church is said to have stood in this place since about the year 700. but the present structure was begun in 1680, designed by Sir Christopher Wren. It is built of stone, with two rows of windows, the lower plain, but the upper ornamented; and the termination is by an Attic, the pilasters of which are covered with vases. On the south side is a portico, covered with a dome, supported by Ionic columns; and opposite to this is another. The steps are beautiful, and of a great height.

The church of St. George's Woodbury, is also one of the fifty new churches erected by act of parliament. It is distinguished from all the rest by standing south and north, and by the statue of king George I. at the top of its pyramidal steeple.

Within the precincts of Westminster are several stately houses belonging to the nobility. The most remarkable of those at present are Burlington-house, Devonshire-house, Egremont-house, Bedford-house, and Carlton-house, the residence of the late prince's dowager of Wales; to which may be added the British Museum. This noble structure was formerly called Montagu-house, from having been the residence of the dukes of that title; but in consequence of an act of parliament, was purchased upwards of twenty years ago, as a repository for the museums of Sir Hans Sloane and Dr. Mead, and of the Harleian and Cotton collection of manuscripts. It is a large and magnificent building, and has behind it a garden consisting nearly of nine acres.

Besides a great number of spacious streets, which are daily increasing, this part of the town is ornamented with several magnificent squares, viz. Grosvenor-square, Portland-square, Hanover-square, St. James's-square, Scho-square, Bloomsbury-square, Queen's-square, Lincoln's-Inn-fields, not to mention others that are at present building, and Red-Lion-square, which is situated farther eastward.

In Lamb's Conduit-fields, on the north side of the town, is a large and commodious structure called the Foundling-hospital, for the reception of exposed and deserted children. This laudable charity was projected by several eminent merchants, in the reign of queen Anne, but was not carried into execution till many years afterwards, when a charter for its establishment was obtained, through the indefatigable assiduity

of Mr. Thomas Coram, the commander of a merchant vessel, who spent the remainder of his life in promoting this design. From the time of its institution, the parliament has occasionally granted considerable sums for its support; and in some years, upwards of six thousand infants have been received.

Not far hence is an hospital for the Small-pox; and in different parts of the town there are others, either for the sick of all kinds, or those in particular circumstances. Of the latter are several Lying-in-hospitals, and the Lock-hospital for female patients in the venereal disease. Of the former are St. George's, and the Middlesex-hospitals, besides several infirmaries.

Gray's-Inn is one of the four principle inns of court, which, though situated within the limits of the parish of St. Andrew, Holborn, is yet without the liberties of the city of London. It took its name from an ancient family of the name of Gray, which formerly resided here, and in the reign of Edward III. demised it to some students in the law; but it is said to have been afterwards conveyed to the monks of Shene, near Richmond, in Surrey, who leased it to society of the inn. It was held by this tenure till the dissolution of the monasteries, when Henry VIII. granted it to the society in fee-farm.

This inn consists chiefly of two quadrangles, and has an old hall well built of timber, with a chapel in the Gothic stile. Here is also a good library, and the inn is accommodated with a spacious garden.

Lincoln's-Inn, another of the four principal inns of court, was originally the palace of Ralph Neville, bishop of Chichester, and chancellor of England, about the year 1226. It afterwards devolved to the earl of Lincoln, who converted into a court for the students of law, about the year 1310. From him it received the name of Lincoln's-inn, and consisted only of what is now called the old square, which is entered from Chancery-lane. At present this square contains, besides buildings for the lawyers, a large hall, where the lord chancellor hears causes in the sittings after term; and a chapel in the Gothic style, built by Inigo Jones in the year 1623. To this inn belongs likewise a fine garden, which has lately been diminished by the building of some large and commodious offices, for the use of the six clerks in the court of Chancery, &c.

In the parish of St. James, Clerkenwell, is an hospital called the Charter-house, which is a corruption of the word *chartreux*, a name formerly used for a convent, or priory of the Carthusians, which this place formerly was. After the dissolution of monasteries it fell to the earl of Suffolk, who disposed of it to Thomas Sutton, Esq; a citizen of London, in the time of king James I. for thirteen thousand pounds. The purchaser intending it for an hospital, applied to the king for a patent, which he obtained in 1611, and the grant was confirmed by parliament in 1623. Mr. Sutton having expended seven thousand pounds in fitting up the buildings, gave it the name of king James's hospital, and endowed it with lands to the amount of near four thousand five hundred pounds a year,

for

for the maintenance of eighty gentlemen, merchants, or soldiers, who should be reduced to indigent circumstances; and forty boys, to be instructed in classical learning. The men are provided with handsome apartments, and all the necessaries of life except cloaths, instead of which each of them is allowed a gown, and seven pounds a year. Of the boys, twenty-nine are at a proper time sent to the university, where each has an allowance of twenty pounds a year, for eight years. Others, who are judged more fit for trade, are put out apprentice, and the sum of forty pounds is given with each of them. As a farther encouragement to the scholars, there are nine ecclesiastical preferments in the gift of the governors. It is also by the recommendation of the latter that all pensioners and youths are received into the hospital. They consist of sixteen, of which number the king is always one, and the others are generally noblemen of the first rank. To this hospital belong a master, a preacher, two school-masters, a physician, a register, a receiver, a treasure, a steward, an auditor, and other officers; and the annual revenues of it being now increased to upwards of six thousand pounds, five men and four boys have been added to the original number.

In the parish of St. Luke stands the Haberdashers alms-house, or Aske's hospital, so called from having been erected by the company of haberdashers, pursuant to the will of Robert Aske, Esq; one of their members, who left thirty thousand pounds for the building, and the relief of twenty poor members of the company; besides the maintenance and education of twenty boys, sons of decayed freemen of the same company. This is a large edifice of brick and stone, four hundred foot long, with a piazza in front, three hundred and forty foot in length, consisting of stone columns of the Tuscan order. In the middle of the building is a chapel, adorned with columns, entablatures, and pediment of the Ionic order; and under the pediment is a niche, with a statue of the founder.

In the same parish is the Ironmongers hospital, likewise a large building.

In the parish of St. Mary, Whitechapel, stands the London hospital, for the reception of the sick. It is a large building, and was erected a few years since by voluntary contribution. Here are also some considerable alms-houses.

London and Westminster, united, form one of the largest cities in the world, if not superior to every other for the number and wealth of its inhabitants. The extent, from Blackwall in the east, to Tothill-fields; is reckoned seven miles and a half; and the circumference, including from Newington-butts, on the south side of the borough of Southwark, to Jeffrey's alms-houses, in Kingsland Road, not less than eighteen miles.

#### S O U T H W A R K.

Southwark lies in the county of Surry, but being considered as a suburb of the metropolis, to which it is connected by London bridge, the account of it was reserved for this place.

The earliest mention of this town in history, is in the year 1033, when it was a distinct corporation, governed by its own bailiff; and it enjoyed this privilege till 1327, when a grant was made of it to the city of London, the mayor of which was appointed the bailiff of this borough, and might govern it by his deputy. Some time afterwards, the inhabitants recovered their former jurisdiction; but in the reign of Edward VI. the crown again granted it to the city of London, for six hundred and forty-seven pounds two shillings and a penny; and in consideration of a farther sum of five hundred marks, it was annexed to the city, with a reservation of certain privileges enjoyed there by the archbishop of Canterbury, and some other ecclesiastics. By virtue of this grant, it is subjected to the lord mayor of London, with the steward and bailiff. But Southwark being divided into two parts, this is to be understood of the division called the Borough Liberty, which consists of three of the parishes belonging to the town, with the greater part of a fourth parish. For the city division, the lord mayor, by his steward, holds a court of record every Monday, at the sessions-house on St. Margaret's Hill, in this borough, for all debts, damages, and trespasses, within the limits of his jurisdiction.

The other division is called the Clink, or the Manor of Southwark, and is subdivided into the Great Liberty, the Guildhall, and the King's Manor; for each of which subdivisions a court-leet is held, where the constables, ale-conners, and flesh-tasters, are chosen, and other business of this kind transacted. The Clink liberty is under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Winchester, who, besides a court-leet, keeps here a court of record, by his steward or bailiff, for pleas of debt, damages and trespasses. Court-leets are also kept at Lambeth, Bermondsey, and Rotherhithe, three small districts adjoining to the Borough.

Southwark consists of the parishes of St. Olave, St. John at Horsleydown, St. Saviour, commonly called St. Mary Over, St. George, St. Thomas; the parish of Christ-church, though contiguous to the Borough, is in the county of Surry.

The principal parish in Southwark is that of St. Saviour, which was formerly a priory of regular canons. Being dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and situated near the bank of the Thames, it was called St. Mary Over-Ke, or Over, by which appellation it is commonly known. This church is built in the manner of a cathedral, with three aisles from east to west, and a cross aisle. It is reckoned the largest parish-church in England, the three aisles first-mentioned measuring two hundred and sixty-nine feet in length, and the cross aisle one hundred and nine feet. The height within is forty-seven feet, and it has a tower with four spires, a hundred and fifty foot high.

Besides several alms-houses, there are here St. Thomas's and Guy's hospitals, two of the noblest endowments in England. The former was first erected in 1215, by Peter de Rupibus, bishop of Winchester, who endowed it with land to the amount of three hundred and forty-three pounds a year; from which

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time it was held of the abbots of Bermondsey, one of whom, in 1428, granted a right to the master of the hospital, to hold all the lands it was then in possession of, belonging to the said abbot and convent, the whole revenue of which did not exceed two hundred and sixty-six pounds seventeen shillings and six pence per annum. In the year 1551, after the citizens of London had purchased of Edward VI. the manor of Southwark, and its appurtenances, of which this hospital was a part, they expended eleven hundred pounds in repairing and enlarging the edifice, and immediately received into it two hundred and sixty patients; upon which the king, in 1553, incorporated this hospital with those of Christ-church and Bride-well, in the city of London. The building being much decayed, three beautiful squares, adorned with colonades, were erected by voluntary subscription in 1693, to which, in 1731, the governors added a magnificent building, consisting of several wards, with proper offices. The annual disbursements of this hospital have, for many years, amounted to eight thousand pounds. The house is divided into nineteen wards, and is said to contain four hundred and seventy-four beds.

Adjoining to St. Thomas's stands Guy's hospital, perhaps the most extensive charitable foundation that ever was established by one man in private life. The founder of this hospital was Thomas Guy, a book-feller in Lombard-street, London, who lived to see the edifice roofed in, and at his death, in 1744, left two hundred and thirty-eight thousand two hundred and ninety-two pounds sixteen shillings, including the expence of the building, to finish and endow it. This hospital consists of two capacious squares, containing twelve wards, and four hundred and thirty-five beds.

Almost contiguous to the borough of Southwark, is the King's Bench prison; a little beyond which is another, lately erected, called the New Bridewell. Westward is the Magdalen hospital, for the reception of penitent prostitutes; and a little farther is situated the Asylum for orphan girls.

At Lambeth, the archbishops of Canterbury have long had a palace, the north part of which, consisting of a tower, called Lollard's Tower, a chapel, a guard-room, the archbishop's apartments, a library and cloisters, is supposed to have been built before the year 1250. The gate of this palace, and a gallery in the east part of it, with some adjoining rooms, were erected by cardinal Pole; and the whole palace, at the restoration of Charles II. was repaired by archbishop Juxton.

At Vauxhall, near Lambeth, is a spacious garden for musical entertainments, which is open every evening, Sundays excepted, from about the middle of May till towards the end of August.

Repassing the river Thames, we shall take a view of the most remarkable objects in the neighbourhood of the metropolis.

Westward of London lies the village of Kensington, distinguished by one of the most magnificent of the royal palaces. It was originally the seat of the

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earl of Nottingham, from whom it was purchased by king William III. who greatly improved it. The building is irregular, but the royal apartments are sumptuous, and contain some valuable paintings. The gardens belonging to the palace are three miles and a half in compass, kept in good order, and, since the death of his late majesty, who resided here mostly in the summer, have constantly been open to the public.

At Chelsea, a large and populous village, pleasantly situated on the bank of the Thames, about two miles south-west of London, is an edifice for the reception of invalid or old soldiers, called Chelsea Hospital, and sometimes Chelsea College. It was originally a college founded by Dr. Sutcliff, dean of Exeter, in the reign of James I. for the study of polemic divinity. The king, who laid the first stone of the building, gave many of the materials, and promoted the work by a large sum of money. Many of the clergy were also very liberal upon the occasion; but the endowment made by Dr. Sutcliff being unequal to the end proposed, the rest was left to private contributions, which coming in slowly, the work was suspended, and soon fell to ruin. At length, the ground on which the building stood devolving to the crown, king Charles II. began to erect the present hospital, which was carried on by James II. and completed by William and Mary. The structure is magnificent, built by Sir Christopher Wren, and is one of the noblest foundations of the kind in the world.

The principal building consists of a large quadrangle, open to the Thames. The front, in the middle of which is a gateway leading through it, contains a chapel on one side, a hall on the other, and between them a noble pavilion, with a fine gallery facing the river, supported by stone pillars. The two sides, or wings, which are four stories high, are divided into wards, two in every story, each containing twenty-six distinct apartments. At each of the four corners is a fine pavilion, one for the governor's lodgings, and the council-chamber, and the others for offices.

Besides the principal building, there are two other large squares, which consist of apartments for the officers and servants of the house, for old maimed officers of horse and foot, and of an infirmary for the sick, with other conveniences. In the area which opens to the Thames, is a fine statue of king Charles II. in brass, placed upon a marble pedestal.

The number of pensioners in this hospital is between five and six hundred, who are provided with cloaths, diet, lodging, washing, fire, and one day's pay every week, for their pocket-money. No man is admitted into this hospital, unless he be disabled, or has served in the army twenty years. The out pensioners are usually between eight and nine thousand, and are allowed seven pounds twelve shillings and six pence a year, each.

To defray the vast charges of this hospital, the army pays poundage; and all officers and soldiers give one day's pay every year towards its support. In case of any deficiency, it is supplied by a grant from parliament. To this hospital belongs a governor, a deputy-

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Puty-governor, a treasurer, five commissioners, a steward, two chaplains, a physician, a secretary, and many other officers.

Near Chelsea-hospital is Ranelagh house and gardens, once the seat of the earl of Ranelagh, but for many years a place of public entertainment. In the garden, near the house, is a rotundo, the internal diameter of which is a hundred and fifty foot. Except at the four entrances, it is surrounded with an arcade, that has over it a gallery, with ballusters. At one of the entrances stands the orchestra, which was originally placed in the middle of the area, where at present there is a chimney for occasional use. The entertainment consists of a fine band of music, with an organ, accompanied by the best vocal performers; and tea and coffee are distributed.

At Chelsea, the company of apothecaries has a spacious physic-garden, well stocked with domestic and foreign plants. The ground was a donation from Sir Hans Sloane, of whom the company has erected a statue, with an inscription on the pedestal, expressing their gratitude.

At the west end of Chelsea, a timber bridge has lately been erected over the Thames, by which a communication is opened with Surrey, near the village of Battersea.

At Chiswick, a village on the bank of the Thames, about six miles from London, is a beautiful villa, built by the late earl of Burlington, and now in the possession of the duke of Devonshire. The ascent to the house is by a grand flight of marble steps, on one side of which there is a statue of Inigo Jones, and on the other that of Palladio. The portico is supported by six fine fluted pillars, of the Corinthian order, with a very rich cornice, frieze, and architrave. The ceilings of the apartments are highly finished; and here are many valuable paintings.

In the south-west part of this county, at the distance of twelve miles from London, is a royal palace, called Hampton-Court. It is situated between two parks, which, with its gardens, are about five miles in circumference. This is a magnificent edifice, and was originally built by cardinal Wolsey, in whose time it was furnished in the most superb manner. The chambers, which were adorned with rich hangings, contained two hundred and eighty silk beds, for the reception of strangers only, and the house abounded with gold and silver plate. The splendor of this princely habitation raised so much envy against the cardinal, that he was obliged to resign it to Henry VIII. who considerably enlarged it. At present, this palace consists of two large courts, besides one for officers and servants. On one side of the outer court is a chapel built by queen Anne, and on the other a portico, supported by Doric pillars, that leads to the great stairs, which are finely painted by Verrio. The inner court was built by king William, who furnished the apartments in a good taste. In a gallery of this palace is a fine collection of paintings.

At Twickenham, three miles eastward of Hampton-Court, is the house which formerly belonged to Mr.

Pope, and is yet distinguished by his name. It is pleasantly situated on the bank of the Thames, having in the under part a grotto, from which there is a subterraneous passage beneath the high road, into the garden, where stands a small monument of stone, erected by the poet in memory of his mother. This elegant villa is now in the possession of Welbore Ellis, Esq.

Several vestiges of antiquity may yet be seen in the environs of London. In the parish of Islington is a field, called the Reedmoat, and also Six-acre Field, from the extent of it, which appears to have been an ancient fortress, inclosed with a rampart and ditch. From its form, and the manner of its fortifications, it is supposed to have been the Roman camp occupied by Suetonius Paulinaus, after his retreat from London, and out of which he fell upon the Britons under the conduct of their queen Boadicea, when he totally routed them. In the south-west angle of the field, is a square division, commonly called Jack Straw's Castle, which is supposed to have been the prætorium, or general's tent.

Spitalfields appears to have been a cemetery in the time of the Romans; for in 1576, several urns were dug up here, containing ashes and human bones. Many copper coins of Roman emperors, statues of Roman deities, lamps, cups, and other vessels, have also been found in this place. From urns, and other antiquities, discovered in the Sun-tavern Fields, in the parish of Shadwell, this place is likewise supposed to have been a Roman cemetery. Here was found a lead coffin, inclosed in one of stone, containing the body of a woman, with a Cupid cut in stone upon her breast, an ivory sceptre in each hand, a large urn at her head, and another at her feet; besides several small urns, and a great number of glass vessels, full of white liquor.

In the north-west porch of Stepney church, is a stone, which, from an inscription on it, appears to have been brought from some magnificent ruin in the ancient city of Carthage in Africa.

Near Kent-street, in Southwark, was a Roman stone fortress, the foundations of which being dug up in 1685, here were found, among other ruins, two pillars, on each of which was engraved a Janus's head.

In Lambeth-marsh, in the parish of Lambeth, are still to be seen some remains of the ditch, or channel, cut by Canute the Dane, when he besieged London, to turn off the course of the Thames, from that part of the river now called the King's Barge-boots, to the east side of the place in which London-bridge was afterwards built.

Near Vauxhall are yet visible the remains of a bastion, and lines, cast up by the Romans, which in the civil wars under Charles I. were repaired for the security of London.

From the river Thames, at Lambeth, a trench, cut by the Romans, may be traced to Deptford. This had, doubtless, been intended to prevent the incursions of the Britons into Kent, before the Romans crossed the Thames, and conquered the Triabantes.

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Magdalen, Bermondsey, are the remains of a Roman fort, which has almost the same appearance as if it had been recently demolished.

The market-towns in Middlesex are, Brentford, Edgeware, Enfield, Staines, and Uxbridge.

Brentford derives its name from a small river called the Brent, which runs through it, and falls into the Thames. It is ten miles distant from London, and is divided into the new and the old towns. In the former is a market-house and a church, which was first built in the reign of Richard I. and is only a chapel to Great Ealing, a village about a mile distant. This place is a great thoroughfare to the West; and being situated so near London, and upon the Thames, has a considerable trade, particularly in corn.

Edgeware is a little town on the borders of this county, at the distance of twelve miles west of London. It consists only of one street, and has nothing worthy of note.

Enfield is distant from London eleven miles. Till the beginning of the present century, the country hereabouts was fenny and moorish, but being now so much drained, all except the part called Enfield Wash, it is become good land. This town has several streets, and was formerly famous for tanning of hides. It is pleasantly situated, in a good air, and there are many gentlemen's seats in the neighbourhood.

Staines is said to derive its name from a Saxon word signifying a stone, which was applied to this place from a boundary stone anciently set up here, to mark the extent of the city of London's jurisdiction upon the Thames. It is situated nineteen miles from London, is a pleasant, populous town, with several good inns and has a bridge over the Thames.

At Sheperton, south-east of Staines, is a piece of inclosed ground, called Warre Close, in which spurs, swords, human bones, and other remains of antiquity, have been dug up; and on the west of Warre Close, part of a Roman camp is yet visible. Near King's Arbour, north-east of Staines, is also a small Roman camp, consisting of a single trench; and about the distance of a mile from this place there is another of the same kind.

Uxbridge stands upon the bank of the river Colne, at the distance of fifteen miles from London, and consists chiefly of one long street, with several inns, which are more numerous, on account of its being a principal stage between London and Oxford. It is not a parish, but a member of Great Hillington, a village about a mile distant. It is, however, accommodated with a church, or rather a chapel, and has a stone bridge over the Colne. On this river are several corn-mills, and the chief trade of the town is in meal, of which great quantities are sent to London every week. Near Uxbridge are the remains of an ancient camp, supposed to be British.

In the time of the Romans, Middlesex was inhabited by the Trinobantes; and under the heptarchy, it formed part of the kingdom of the East Saxons. It sends to parliament eight members, viz. two for the county, four for the city of London, and two for that of Westminster.

## C H A P. VI.

*Essex, Hertfordshire, Buckinghamshire.*

**E**SSEX is bounded on the west by the counties of Middlesex and Hertford, on the north by Suffolk and Cambridgeshire, on the east by the German ocean, and on the south by the river Thames, which separates it from Kent. It extends in length, from west to east, forty-seven miles, and in breadth forty-three.

The principal rivers in this county are, the Stour, the Lee, the Colne, the Blackwater, and the Chelmer. The Stour rises in the north-west part of Essex, and running south-east, separates it from Suffolk, falling into the German ocean at Harwich. The Lee, rising in the north-west of the county, runs almost directly south, and separating Essex from the counties of Hertford and Middlesex, falls into the river Thames at Blackwall, a village on the east side of London. The Colne rises also in the north-west part of Essex, whence directing its course south-east to Halsted, it runs parallel to the river Stour, till having passed Colchester, it forms an angle, and running south-south-east, falls into the German ocean between seven and eight miles from that town. The Blackwater likewise has its source in the north-west part of Essex, and running south-east, passes by Braintree, after which it falls into the Chelmer at Maldon. The Chelmer rises within two or three miles of the source of the Blackwater, to which running nearly parallel, it directs its course to Chelmsford, where forming an angle, it runs directly east; and receiving the Blackwater, falls into the German ocean near Maldon.

In general, the air of this county is unhealthy, especially to strangers, whom it disposes much to the ague. Those parts of the county which border upon the sea, and the Thames, are a rotten, oozy soil; and in others, fens and marshes greatly abound; but the western and northern divisions are free from those inconveniences.

It is observable, that the soil of this county is generally best where the air is most unhealthy, the more inland parts being chiefly gravel and sand, and fit neither for corn nor grass. The northern parts of this county are remarkable for the production of saffron, and in some places the soil is so rich, that after three crops of this produce, it will yield good barley for twenty years successively, without any manure. Other parts of Essex afford hops in great plenty. In general, the county furnishes abundance of wood, and no part of England is better stored with provisions of all kinds. It supplies the markets of London with corn, fat oxen, and sheep. Wild fowl is here extremely frequent, and there are great quantities of sea and river fish, especially oysters.

Essex lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of London, and contains four hundred and fifteen parishes. It is divided into twenty hundreds, and has twenty-four market-towns, but no city. These towns



towns are, Barking, Billericay, Braintree, Witham, Burntwood, Waltham-Abbey, Chelmsford, Waldon, Chipping-Ongar, Coggeshall, Thaxted, Colchester, Dunmow, Epping, Rumsford, Gray's-Thurrock, Hatfield, Rochford, Rayleigh, Manningtree, Hatfield-Broad oak, Ingatestone, Harwich, and Maldon.

Barking, so called from a stream upon which it is situated, is distant ten miles from London, and stands upon a creek, where the Barking falls into another stream, named the Roding, about two miles above their confluence with the Thames. The town is large, and inhabited chiefly by fishermen.

Waltham-Abbey is situated thirteen miles from London, on the river Lee, which here forms several small islands, that are often overflowed. This abbey was built by king Harold, who being killed in battle against William the Conqueror, was buried here. In the reign of queen Elizabeth, some workmen discovered his coffin, over which was a grave-stone, with no other inscription than, *Infelix Harold.*

Rumsford lies twelve miles from London, and is a great thoroughfare to Harwich, as well as to most towns of note in Suffolk and Norfolk.

Epping is situated at the distance of seventeen miles from London, on the side of a forest, called from this town, Epping Forest, which is a royal chase, and reaches from this place to within five miles of London. The market of this town is kept in a hamlet called Epping-Street, about a mile and a half from the church.

Brentwood stands seventeen miles from London, and is only the part of a parish called Southwold cum Brent. It is situated on a hill, in the road to Harwich, and is a populous place. The county assizes have often been held here; and there are frequent horse-races on a neighbouring plain, called Penlow-wood Common.

Gray's-Thurrock, Billericay, and Hatfield-Broad oak, contain nothing worthy of note.

Dunmow, called also Great Dunmow, is situated thirty-eight miles from London, on the side of the river Chelmer. It is an ancient town, but its trade is confined chiefly to a manufacture of baize. This is supposed by some to be the *Cæsaromagus* of the Romans. In several parts of the road, between this place and Colchester, there are still to be seen the remains of an old Roman way, which the inhabitants call the Street. Here was formerly a priory; and it is recorded, that in the reign of Henry III. the lord Fitz-walter instituted a custom, that whatever married man made oath, kneeling upon two sharp stones in the church-yard of the priory, that for a year and a day after marriage, he neither directly nor indirectly, sleeping or waking, repented his bargain, had any quarrel with his wife, or any way transgressed his nuptial obligation, he should be entitled to a sitch of bacon. The records of this place mention four persons, one of them so lately as 1748, who have claimed and received the bacon upon these terms.

Saffron-Walden is situated on the borders of Cambridgeshire, about forty-two miles from London. The saffron growing about this place is generally al-

lowed to be greatly superior to any other, but it has not been so much cultivated of late years as formerly.

At Athdon, about three miles north-west of this place, there are four barrows, or pyramidal hillocks, erected by Canute the Dane, in memory of a battle that was fought upon the spot, in which he totally defeated the army of Edmund Ironside.

At Chesterford, a village four miles north of Walden, were discovered, some years ago, the ruins of a Roman city. The walls appear to have encompassed about fifty acres of ground; and the foundations of a Roman temple are still very visible.

Thaxted, anciently called Tackfleda, and sometimes Tasted, stands upon the river Chelmer, at the distance of forty-two miles from London. The town is not very considerable, but the church is a stately building.

Chelmsford is situated twenty-nine miles north-east of London, in a fine plain, on the river Chelmer, near its confluence with a small stream called the Conn. It is a large and populous town, and a great thoroughfare; by the profit arising from which situation it chiefly subsists. Here is one church, which appears to have been rebuilt almost four hundred years ago: and there is also a bridge over the Chelmer.

Braintree is distant forty-two miles from London, and is a large town. It abounds with dissenters, and had a considerable manufacture of baize some years ago.

Witham stands thirty-seven miles from London, in the great road to Harwich and Suffolk. It is a pleasant town, and there are many elegant seats in the neighbourhood. Much company resorts hither in the summer, to drink a chalybeate water called the Spaw.

Maldon, or Malden, is situated thirty-eight miles from London, on an eminence, near a bay called Blackwater-bay, formed by the influx of the rivers Chelmer and Blackwater into the sea. The town is populous, and consists chiefly of one long street, branched out into different lanes. Here is a large library for the use of the minister of the place, and the clergy of the neighbouring hundreds, who generally reside here, on account of the unwholesome air of their own parishes. The town has a convenient haven for ships of about four hundred tons; and some of the merchants carry on a considerable trade in coal, iron, deals, and corn. Blackwater Bay is famous for excellent oysters, called Wallfleet, from a wall of earth which extends five miles along the shore where they lie. Camden is of opinion, that the Wallfleet oysters are those which Pliny mentions to have been used in the Roman kitchens, and the same that Aufonius means in the following verse to Paulinus:

*Mira Caledonius nonnunquam detegit æstat.*

From some coins which have been dug up at this place, it appears that Maldon was the *Camelodunum* of the Romans, and the seat of the kings of the Trinobantes. This was the first Roman colony in Britain, being occupied in the year 43 by the emperor Claudius, who placed here a band of veterans, and

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and called it Colonia Viſtricensis. Here was a temple erected to Claudius, in which stood an altar, called the Altar of Eternal Dominion; and certain priests, called Sedales Auguſtales, were appointed to attend it. The oppression of the Roman soldiers on this station, however, so much exasperated the Britons, that in a few years they besieged and destroyed the city; but it was afterwards rebuilt.

There is a custom in this place, that if a man dies intestate, his possessions descend to his youngest son, or if he dies without issue, to his youngest brother. This custom, which is called Borough English, is said to have been formerly much more general, and to have taken its rise from the practice imputed to the feudal lords, who, when any of those who held under them married, claimed the first night with the bride. As a doubt might sometimes arise, whether the first-born child was the son of the husband, this custom was introduced, to cut off such child from its inheritance; and the youngest, as most remote from suspicion, was preferred in its stead.

Rayleigh stands thirty-five miles from London. It appears to have been formerly of considerable extent, but at present consists only of one street, which, however, is broad and handsome.

Rochford is distant forty miles from London, and stands on a small stream that falls into a river called the Crowch. Near this place is a hill, called King's Hill, where the lord of the manor of Rayleigh holds a court, on the Wednesday morning after Michaelmas, at cock-crow. This court is called Lawless Court. The steward and suitors are obliged to transact their business in whispers. They are not allowed either fire or candle; a piece of coal supplies the place of pen and ink; and he who owes service to the court, and does not attend, forfeits double his rent for every hour. Camden says, this attendance is a punishment imposed on the tenants, for having met at the like unreasonable hour in a conspiracy against their lord.

Coggeshall, or Coxall, stands on the river Blackwater, at the distance of forty-seven miles from London. It had once a very considerable manufactory of baize and fays, as it has at present of a peculiar stuff, called Coggeshall whites, said to be finer than any other woollen cloth.

Near this place was found, in a grotto by the roadside, a phial, containing a lamp, covered with a Roman tile. In the cavity were also some urns, with ashes and bones in them. On one of them, which resembles coral, was inscribed, COCCILLI M. This is interpreted, The manes of Coccillus, from whom the town is supposed to derive its name.

Colchester stands on the river Colne, fifty-eight miles from London. This is a populous place, and the chief town of the county. It is about three miles in circumference, pleasantly situated on the side of a hill. Here are ten parish churches, one Dutch church, one French church, and five meeting-houses, two of which belong to the Quakers. It was anciently surrounded by a strong wall, and defended by a castle, the ruins of which are yet to be seen. Three bridges

No. 33.

over the river Colne, which, by an act of parliament, was made navigable for small craft up to a long street near the water-side, called the Hith, where is a quay; and for ships of large burden, to a place called the Wyvenhoe, within three miles of the town. At this place is a custom-house, and a little farther towards the sea the water may receive a royal navy.

This town has the greatest manufacture of baize and fays of any in England. It is also remarkable for candying eringo roots, but yet more for its oysters. These are taken near the mouth of the Colne, upon sands called the Spits, and are carried to the Wyvenhoe, where they are laid in beds or pits on the shore to feed. When they have continued in these pits some time, they are barrelled, and brought to Colchester, whence they are sent in great quantities to London, and other parts. Such shoals of sprats are caught and consumed by the woollen manufacturers here, that the common name for this fish in Essex is, the weaver's beef of Colchester.

That Colchester flourished in the time of the Romans is evident, not only from the number of ancient coins found here, but from several buildings which remain. At the Queen's Head inn, in the marketplace, the stable, and the room over it, is a Roman structure. The churches and their towers seem to have been built of Roman bricks and ruins; and there was a Roman military way, that led hence westward, quite across the county to Hertfordshire.

Manningtree, or Maintree, is distant fifty nine miles from London, and stands on the river Stour, over which it has a bridge. It is a little dirty town, but has a good market. The church is a chapel of ease to a neighbouring village, called Mitley.

Harwich is situated at the mouth of the river Manningtree, on the German ocean, seventy-three miles north-east of London. The town is not large, but well built and populous, and is surrounded by a wall. Between the town and a high hill, called Beacon Hill, not far distant, is a cliff, consisting of a kind of clay, fragments of which are continually falling down into a petrifying water at the bottom, which they imbibe, and being afterwards taken out and dried, they become a hard and durable stone. Of this stone the walls and pavement of Harwich consist.

Here is a very safe and spacious harbour. The mouth of it, at high water, is near three miles wide; but the channel, by which alone the ships can enter the harbour, is narrow, though deep, and lies on the Suffolk side; so that all vessels that pass are commanded by a strong fort, called Landguard fort, built by king James I. on a point of land, so surrounded by the sea at high-water, that it looks like an island lying about a mile from the shore.

Here is also a good yard for building ships. This town is the station for the packet-boats which carry the mails between England and Holland, and is likewise the port to pass to and from Holland and Germany. The inns are good, but the great concourse of passengers renders accommodations very dear.

On Beacon-hill, south of the harbour, and opposite

to the fort, there is a large high-built light-house, whence is an extensive view of the coasts of Essex and Suffolk.

South-west of Harwich are three islands, called Pewet, Horfey, and Holmes, which, however, are separated from the main land only by the winding of a stream, and the influx of the sea. Upon these islands is found a sea-fowl, which, when fat, is very delicious food. Southward of the islands are three villages, which are included within a liberty or lordship, anciently called the Liberty of the Soke. In these villages the sheriff of the county has no power; and no writ can be executed but by the bailiff of the liberty, nor by him, without the consent of the lord.

At West Tilbury, close to the river Thames, and directly opposite to the block house at Gravesend, is a fortress, which is kept constantly garrisoned. The esplanade is very large, and the bastions, which are faced with brick, are the largest in England. It has two moats, or ditches, one without the other, the innermost being a hundred and eighty feet broad. It has also a good counter-scarp, and covered way, marked out with ravelines and tenailles. On the land side are two small redoubts of brick; and the garrison can, at pleasure, lay the whole under water. On the side next the river is a very strong curtain, in the middle of which is a noble gate. Before the curtain is a platform, mounting above a hundred guns, from twenty-four to forty-six pounders, besides smaller pieces planted between those that are mounted on the bastions and curtain.

At a little distance from the fort, stands a small town called East Tilbury, where, in a chalky cliff, are several spacious caverns, about twenty feet high, and gradually tapering upwards. They are very beautifully lined with stone, and are supposed to be the work of the ancient Britons, who probably used them for granaries, in the manner of the Germans mentioned by Tacitus.

Essex is part of the country anciently inhabited by the Tribobantes, whom Cæsar represents as the most warlike people that he had found in the island. It sends to parliament eight members, viz. two for the county, and two for each of the towns of Colchester, Harwich, and Maldon.

#### H E R T F O R D S H I R E .

Hertfordshire is bounded on the east by Essex, on the south by Middlesex, on the west by Buckinghamshire and Bedfordshire, and on the north by Cambridgeshire. It measures twenty-eight miles in length from east to west, and thirty-nine in breadth.

This county is watered by several rivers, the chief of which are the Lee, the Coln, the New River, the Stort, and the Ver. Of these the first three have been already described. The Stort rises in the north-east part of the county, and passing by Bishop's Stortford, a market-town, and separating the counties of Hertford and Essex, falls into the river Lee, not far from Hoddeston, another market-town of this county. The

river Ver, More, or Moore, rises in the west part of the county, and running south-east, passes by St. Alban's, whence running southward about two or three miles, it falls into the river Colne.

The air of this county is pure, and on that account healthy. The soil is generally rich, and in several places mixed with a marl, which produces excellent wheat and barley. The pastures, however, are but indifferent; such as are dry generally producing fern and broom, and those that are wet rushes and moss; but for several years past, the wet lands have been greatly improved by the invention called bush-draining.

Hertfordshire is divided into eight hundreds; and the justices of the peace, for the greater convenience of themselves and the people, have divided the county into three parts, in each of which they hold their several courts, or petty sessions. It lies in the province of Canterbury, partly in the diocese of London, and partly in that of Lincoln, and contains a hundred and twenty parishes. There is not within its limits any city, but here are nineteen market-towns, viz. St. Alban's, Baldock, Barkway, Barnet, Berkhamsted, Buntingford, Hatfield-Bishops, Hemsted, Hertford, Hitchin, Hoddeston, Rickmansworth, Royston, Standon, Stevenage, Stortford-Bishops, Tring, Ware, and Watford.

Stortford-Bishops derives its name from a ford over the river Stort, at the bottom of the town, which, since the time of William the Conqueror, has belonged to the bishops of London. It stands on a hill declining to the river, at the distance of twenty-eight miles from the capital. It is a considerable well-built town, full of good inns, being a thoroughfare to Cambridge, Newmarket, and several towns in Suffolk; and consists of four streets, in the form of a cross. On a hill in the middle of the town stands the church, which has a handsome tower, and a spire covered with lead, fifty feet high. The bishop of London appoints a bailiff here, for what is called the Liberty, and to him are directed sheriffs warrants, to be executed in this and several of the neighboring parishes. The bailiff has a right to strays, and to the toll of corn and cattle in its market and fairs. The bishop holds his courts leet and baron at the manor of Padmore, at the north end of the town. This place formerly enjoyed the right of sending members to parliament, but has long ago lost that privilege.

Standon, or Standlow, is a small town on the river Rit, twenty-nine miles from London, and has a handsome church, with several endowments for a school, and for the poor.

Buntingford is another small town, situated on the same river, in the post-road to Cambridge, at the distance of thirty-two miles from London. It stands in four parishes, to one of which, called Layton, it is a chapelry. Here is a sumptuous alms-house, founded and endowed by Dr. Seth Ward, bishop of Sarum, in Wiltshire, for four old men, and as many old women, who, from a state of affluence, have been reduced by misfortunes to poverty.

Barkway stands thirty-five miles from London, and is a populous and flourishing town.

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Baldock is thirty-eight miles distant from London. In the middle of it stands a handsome church, with three chancels, and a beautiful tower. Here are many maltsters, and the market of the town is very considerable, both for corn and malt. A little westward of Baldock, the Roman military road, known by the name of Ickening-street, runs through an intrenchment, the remains of a British town, now called Wilbury-hill.

Between Caldecot and Hinxworth, two villages a little north of Baldock, several Roman antiquities were discovered in 1724, particularly earthen vessels, or urns, full of ashes and burnt bones; several human skeletons not above a foot below the surface of the earth; pateras of fine red earth, glass lachrymatories, a brass tribulus, and some other things. At Ashovell, in the neighbourhood of this place, is a spot of ground, consisting of twelve acres, called Arbury Banks, thought to be one of the castra exploratorum of the Romans.

Roylton stands at the distance of thirty-eight miles from London, partly situated in this county, and partly in Cambridgeshire. It is a well-built, populous town, and carries on a considerable trade in barley and malt. It is supposed to have derived its name from a lady named Roysia, who, in the opinion of some antiquaries, was countess of Norfolk, in the reign of king Stephen, but, according to others, the wife of Pagan de Beauchamp, the third baron of Bedford. This lady is said to have erected on the way-side, near the spot where Roylton now stands, a stone cross, which was therefore called Roysie's Cross. A monastery being some time afterwards founded almost contiguous, several inns and houses were also built, and at length became a town, which, from Roysie's Cross, was called Roysie's Town, and by contraction, Roylton. Some remains of the cross are yet to be seen, near an inn which stands at the meeting of the old and new post-road from London to Biggleswade.

Roylton is supposed to have been a Roman town, on account of many coins which have been dug up near it. The Roman way, called Ickenild Street, runs on the east side of it, and almost on every eminence in the neighbourhood there is a row.

Stevenage stands at the distance of thirty-one miles from London, in the great north road. Here is a free school, and several charitable foundations.

Ware is situated in a valley, on the east side of the river Lee, twenty-two miles from London, and is one of the best post-towns on the north road. It consists of one street about a mile in length, with several back streets and lanes, well inhabited. The church, which is built in the form of a cross, is large, and has a handsome gallery, erected by the governors of Christ's Hospital in London, who formerly sent hither several of the children of that hospital, either for health or education. At one of the inns of this town, there was formerly a famous bed, much visited by travellers, which is said to have been very large, and capable of containing twenty couple. This town is a great market for corn and malt, five thousand quarters of the latter being often sent to London in a week by the barges, which generally return with coals.

Hartford, or Hertford, is pleasantly situated in a plain, twenty-three miles from London. It is built in the form of a Roman Y, and has a castle placed between the two horns, in which is the session-house for the county, and likewise the jail. The town had formerly five churches, which are now reduced to two, namely, All Saints and St. Andrew's. The governors of Christ's Hospital, in London, have erected, in this town, a good house for the reception of sick and supernumerary children, and have also built a large gallery in the former of the churches above mentioned, in which two hundred children may be accommodated. The grammar-school here is a handsome structure, and well endowed; besides which, there are three charity-schools. The chief commodities of this town are wool, wheat, and malt; of the latter of which, it is computed, that not less than five thousand quarters are sent weekly to London, by the river Lee. The prosperity of this town, however, is considerably diminished, since the north road from London, which went through it, has been turned to the town of Ware.

The castle of Hertford was built by king Alfred, to defend the town and neighbourhood against the Danes, who came up in their light pinnaces from the Thames, by the river Lee, as far as Ware, where they erected a fort, whence they made several sallies to plunder and destroy the country.

Hoddesdon, or Ho-Mon, stands in the north road; at the distance of fifteen miles from London. The town is small, but here is a considerable market for all sorts of corn.

Chestnut, near this place, is thought by some to be the Durositum of Antoninus, which in his Itinerary he places fifteen miles from London, and which stands near the military way called Ermine Street. In Kilmore field, west of Chestnut, are the remains of a camp. An angle of the fortification is yet visible, as are also the rampart and ditch, for above a hundred yards.

Hatfield, formerly called Heathfield, or Hatfield-Bishops, from its belonging to the bishops of Ely, is situated in the great north road, at the distance of twenty miles from London. This town had once a royal palace, from which both king Edward VI. and queen Elizabeth, were conducted to the throne. Edward was educated here, and Elizabeth purchased the manor of the bishop of Ely.

Barnet, called also High Barnet, and Cheaping Barnet, stands at the distance of ten miles from London, in the great north road, and is therefore well supplied with inns. Here is a great market for corn and cattle, but especially for swine.

Elstree, Idlestree, or Eaglestree, near Barnet, is thought by Norden to have been the station of the Sullonicae, mentioned by Antoninus in his Itinerary; but Camden and bishop Gibson think it was at Brockley-hill, in this neighbourhood, many coins, urns, Roman bricks, and other antiquities, having been dug up there. At a place called Pennywell, near Brockley-hill, are yet visible the foundations of several walls, which, tradition informs us, are the remains of a city.

St. Albans derived its name from an abbey, built there in 703, to the memory of Albanus, the first

British

British martyr, who suffered in the persecution under the emperor Dioclesian, was canonized as a saint, and buried on a hill in the neighbourhood of the town. It is situated twenty-one miles north-west of London, and is a large and populous place, having four parish churches. The church named St. Alban's is a large pile of building, founded by Offa, king of the Mercians, in the year 793. This town is not remarkable for any manufacture, but has one of the greatest weekly markets in England for wheat. It is supposed to have risen out of the ruins of a Roman town, called Verulam, which was situated on the other side of the river Ver. Verulam was a large and populous city, even when Julius Cæsar invaded Britain, though nothing remains of it at present but the ruins of walls, and some tessellated pavements. In the last century there was dug up in this place a copper coin, which on one side had Romulus and Remus sucking a wolf, and on the other, the word Rema, much defaced. Near the town of St. Alban's are still the remains of a fortification, which the common people call Oyster-hills, whence it is supposed to have been a camp of Ostorius the prætor.

In the middle of the town of St. Alban's, Edward I. erected a stately cross, in memory of queen Eleanor.

In the church of St. Alban's, in this town, not many years ago was discovered the tomb of Humphrey duke of Gloucester, brother to Henry V. The body was preserved almost entire, by a sort of pickle, in a leaden coffin in which it lay. In this church are also several other funeral monuments and inscriptions; among which is the effigy of king Offa, the founder of the church, on his throne; one of St. Alban the martyr, and another of Humphrey duke of Gloucester, already mentioned, with a ducal coronet, and the arms of France and England quartered. In niches, on the south side, are the effigies of seventeen kings of England.

In the church there was also a noble font of brass, a donation of sir Richard Lea, master of the pioneers, who brought it among other plunder, out of Scotland in the year 1543, where it served as a font for baptizing the children of the royal family, but was here used for the common baptistry, till it was carried away in the civil wars in the time of king Charles I.

In St. Michael's church, among other monuments, is one in memory of Francis Bacon, lord Verulam, with his effigy in alabaster, seated in an elbow chair. This celebrated personage was born at Gorambury, in the neighbourhood of St. Alban's; and at Abbots Langley, a village three miles south-west of St. Alban's, was born Nicholas Breakspeare, who became pope, by the name of Adrian IV. the only native of England that ever filled the papal chair.

When the Romans drove from Verulam the powerful Cassibelinus, they plundered the town, but the inhabitants living quietly under the Roman government, they were rewarded with the privilege of citizens of Rome, and their town made a municipium, or city. This is one of the two Roman cities that were taken and sacked by the Britons, under the conduct of Boadicea; the other which was destroyed on

this occasion, being Malden in Essex. But both those cities were rebuilt, and flourished afterwards under the Romans.

Watford is distant from London seventeen miles, and consists of one very long street, which is extremely dirty in the winter, and the waters of the river Coln, at the entrance of the town, are often so much swelled by floods as to be impassable. The prætorian, or consular highway, called Watling-street, crosses the Coln near this town.

Hempsted is twenty-nine miles distant from London, and stands among hills, upon a small river called the Gade. It is considerably populous, and the market has been reckoned the greatest in the county, if not in all England, for wheat. It is computed that twenty-thousand pounds a week are often returned here for meal only. Eleven pair of mills stand within four miles of the place, which hence derives a great trade; but the road is so much torn with carriages, that it is one of the worst turnpike ways to London. Besides the trade of the town in corn and meal, some thousand pounds a week are returned for the manufacture of straw hats.

Hitchin stands in a pleasant valley, thirty-five miles from London, and is reputed the second town in the county for the number of houses and inhabitants. Here is a great market for all sorts of grain, and great quantities of malt are made in this town.

At Hexton, west of Hitchin, there is an oval camp of great strength, situated on a high hill; near which, on another hill, is a barrow, or mount, such as the Romans used to raise for their soldiers that were killed in battle, in which many bones have been found. A little from hence a battle was fought between the Danes and Edward the Elder; and a piece of ground adjoining to the camp, in which are remarkable long furrows, is to this day called Dane Furlong. About the same distance, south of Hexton, stands Ravensborough Castle, an oblong camp of about sixteen acres, with an entire fortification, and defended so well by nature, that a thousand men may protect it against a great army.

The manor of Wimley, or Wimondley Magna, near Hitchin, is held by the lord, upon condition that on the coronation-day he performs the office of cup-bearer to his sovereign. The cup must consist of silver gilt, and is afterwards given to the bearer as the fee of his office, which has been appendant to this manor since the Conquest.

Berkhamsted lies upon the borders of Buckinghamshire, at the distance of thirty miles from London. It consists chiefly of a handsome broad street of considerable length, situated on the side of a hill. The church, which stands in the middle of the town, is a spacious edifice, and has many chapels and oratories. On the pillars are representations of eleven of the apostles, with each of them a sentence of the creed; and on the twelfth pillar is a figure of St. George killing the dragon. Here is a grammar-school, a handsome brick structure, and well endowed, the patron of which is the king; and the visitor is the warden of All-Souls college in Oxford. Here is also

also an alms-house, built by Mr. John Sayer, and his wife, who endowed it with thirteen hundred pounds for the maintenance of six poor widows.

King Henry II. kept his court in this town, and granted it several privileges, particularly that its merchandize should pass free of toll and custom through England, Normandy, Aquitain, and Anjou, and that no judicial process should be executed by any of the king's officers within its liberties, but only by its own high steward, coroner, and bailiff; that no market should be kept within seven miles of it; and that the inhabitants should not be obliged to attend at any assizes or sessions. There are no less than fifty-three townships belonging to the manor that derives its name from this town, which are obliged to do homage, and choose constables here. Of these townships, eleven are in this county, fifteen in Buckinghamshire, and twenty-seven in Northamptonshire. It appears from coins, and other remains of antiquity dug up here, that this was a Roman town.

Rickmansworth stands at the distance of twenty-two miles from London, in a low, moorish situation. There are several mills upon neighbouring streams, on which account great quantities of wheat are brought hither.

Tring, or Troung, thirty-three miles from London, is the most western town in the county. In the Saxon times it gave name to a hundred of which it was the capital. It is now a small, but neat town, and has a considerable market for corn, of which there are here very large granaries. At a village called Little Tring, in the parish, rises one of the heads of the river Thames.

In the time of the Romans, this country was inhabited partly by the Caticuehlini, partly by the Tribontanes, and partly by the Cassii, a people mentioned by Cæsar, from whom the district now called Cassio hundred, in the south-west division of Hertfordshire, derives its name. During the heptarchy, this county was divided among the Mercian, East Saxon, and Kentish kings.

The chief produce of Hertfordshire is wood, wheat, barley, and other sorts of grain. Its wheat and barley are so much prized in London, that many thousand quarters of each are sold every year as the produce of this county, not a grain of which ever grew in it. The inhabitants are, for the most part, maltsters, millers, and dealers in corn; no manufacture worth notice being established in any part of the county.

Hertfordshire sends to parliament six members, two for the county, and two for each of the boroughs of Hertford and St. Alban's.

#### BUCKINGHAMSHIRE.

Buckinghamshire, or Bucks, is bounded on the east by Hertfordshire, with part of Middlesex and Bedfordshire; on the south by the Thames, which divides it from Berkshire; on the west by Oxfordshire; and on the north by Northamptonshire. It extends in length, from north to south, about thirty-nine miles, and in breadth about eighteen.

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The rivers of this county are, the Thames, which bounds it on the south, the Colne, the Ouse, and the Tame. The two former of these have been already described. The Ouse rises near Brackley, a town of Northamptonshire, and running north east, through the counties of Buckingham, Bedford, Cambridge, and Norfolk, falls into the German ocean at Lynn Regis, in Norfolk. The Tame rises in Buckinghamshire, and touching upon Oxfordshire, at a market-town of its own name, runs westward for some miles, parting those two counties, and then turning southward, falls into the Thames, north of Wallingford, a borough town of Berkshire. Besides these rivers, several nameless streams glide through other parts of the county.

The south-east part of the county lies high, and consists of a ridge of hills called the Chiltern. The northern part is distinguished by the name of the Vale.

On the Chiltern hills the air is extremely healthful, and in the Vale it is better than in the low grounds of other counties. The soil of the Chiltern is stony, but produces good crops of wheat and barley, and in many places it is covered with thick woods, among which are great quantities of beech. In the Vale, which is exceedingly fertile, the soil is marl or chalk. Some part of it is converted into tillage, but much more is used for grazing, which is found to be so profitable, that the gentlemen in the county frequently keep their estates in their own hands. The lands that are let here fetch more rent than any other in the kingdom.

This county lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Lincoln, and contains a hundred and eighty-five parishes. It is divided into eight hundreds, the whole including fourteen market-towns, namely, Aylesham, Aylesbury, Beaconsfield, Chesham, Colnbrook, Iving, Great Marlow, Newport-Pagnel, Oulney, Monk's Riborough, Stony Stratford, Wendover, Wycomb, and Winslow.

Colnbrook, or Colebrook, is situated eighteen miles from London, on four channels of the river Coln, over each of which it has a bridge. Lying on the road to Bath, it has several considerable inns, by which it chiefly subsists. This place is supposed by Camden to be the Pontes of the ancients, though some have placed it at Old Windsor, and others at Reading. His reasons for this opinion are, the exact distance on both sides from Wallingford and London, and the four bridges over the Coln.

Beaconsfield stands twenty-three miles from London, in the Oxford road, and has several good inns.

Great Marlow, so called from the marly soil in which it stands, is situated at the bottom of the Chiltern hills, thirty-one miles from London, and is a borough by prescription. Here is a bridge over the Thames. A considerable quantity of bone-lace is made in this town; and in the neighbourhood there are several mills for corn and paper, besides one for making thimbles, and another for pressing oil from the seeds of rape and flax.

Wycomb, sometimes called High Wickham, or



Wycomb, and sometimes Chipping-Wickham, is situated in the road to Oxford, thirty-nine miles from London. It stands between two hills, pleasantly shaded with wood, and, except Aylesbury, is the best built and most wealthy town in the county: though consisting only of two streets, it is divided into four wards. Here is a very considerable market.

Amersham, anciently Agmondefham, stands at the distance of twenty-nine miles from London, in a valley between two woody hills, near the river Coln. It consists of two streets, a long and a short one, which cross each other at right angles, in the middle, where stands the church, which is the best rectory in the county. In this town is a free-school, founded by queen Elizabeth. The town-house is a brick structure, raised on pillars and arches, and has on the top a lantern and clock.

Eight miles north-west of Amersham stands Monk's-Risborough, remarkable only for the antiquities in its neighbourhood. One of these is an old fortification, called Belinus's castle, situated at Ellesborough, on a round mount near the church. The inhabitants have a tradition, that king Belinus resided here. The other antiquity is at Rymbel, supposed to derive its name from Cunobeline, one of the British kings, and consists of trenches and fortifications.

Not far from Risborough, is a high, steep, chalky hill, on the south-west side of which is the figure of a cross, called White-leaf cross, from the hamlet in which it stands. It is formed by trenches cut into the chalk, about two foot deep, in the same manner as the horse on White-horse hill in Berkshire, and is also supposed to be a trophy of the Saxons. The perpendicular line is about a hundred foot long, and the transverse line about seventy. The breadth of the perpendicular line, at bottom, is about fifty foot, but it becomes gradually narrower, and at the top is not more than twenty. The breadth of the transverse line is about twelve foot, and the whole is supported on a triangle, intended to represent the flight of steps, gradually decreasing, on which it was usual, in those times, to erect crosses in the public ways. Crosses and steps of this kind are represented on some of the coins of the northern nations, and in subscriptions to charters granted, in the early ages of Christianity, by our Saxon ancestors.

In the neighbourhood of Monk's-Risborough, lies Prince's-Risborough, where, on the top of a hill, are the traces of a camp.

Wendover lies at the distance of thirty-nine miles from London, and is a borough by prescription, though a mean place. Its situation is low and marshy, but the hills on each side are pleasant.

Aylesbury is distant from London forty-four miles, and is the best town in the county. It stands on a rising-ground, at the east end of a rich valley, called Aylesbury Vale, which extends almost from Tame, on the borders of Oxfordshire, to Leighton, in the county of Bedford. Aylesbury consists of three streets, lying round the market-place, which is a large handsome square. From the middle of this area, where stands the town-hall, there is a causeway, which extends

three miles towards London, and was raised at the expense of Baldwin the chief justice, who also erected the town-house, and some other buildings. The church of Aylesbury is said to be the oldest in this part of the island. This town was a royal manor in the time of the Conqueror, and was granted by him to several of his favourites, upon condition that they should find straw for his bed, and sweet herbs for his chamber, when he came that way; and that they should thrice in the year provide him three eels, and thrice in the summer as many green geese, if he should come so often into this country.

Ivingo is a small town, situated fifty-five miles from London, in a corner between Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire, and is surrounded with woods.

Winslow, another small town, containing nothing worthy of notice, lies at the distance of forty-five miles from London, and is also surrounded with woods. A little hence, in the manor of Credendon, or Crendon, are the ruins of a castle, which was built by Hugh de Balbec, heir to Walter Giffard, the second earl of Buckingham, about the middle of the twelfth century.

Buckingham is distant from London about sixty miles, and is still considered as the county-town, though Sir John Baldwin, who was chief justice of the Common Pleas in the time of Henry VIII. having purchased the manor of Aylesbury, found it his interest to remove the assizes thither, where they are still frequently held in the winter; but the summer assizes have since been restored to Buckingham by act of parliament. The town stands low, and, except on the north, is surrounded on all sides by the Ouse, over which it has three stone bridges. This is the seat of the county-jail, and was once a staple for wool; but that trade is now entirely lost. Here is a free school, and many paper-mills in the neighbourhood, on the banks of the Ouse. Three miles beyond this town is situated Stowe, the elegant seat and gardens of earl Temple.

About the year 915, Buckingham was fortified by Edward the Elder, with a rampire and turrets, on both sides the bank, against the incursions of the Danes. In the middle of the town, on a high mount, there was anciently a castle, but by whom, or when built, does not appear. The mount is yet visible, but of the castle hardly any vestiges remain. This part of Buckinghamshire is thought to have been the seat of action, when the Romans, commanded by Aulus Plautius, made their second expedition into Britain under the emperor Claudius.

Stony-Stratford lies in the road to Chester, at the distance of fifty-three miles from London. It has two parish churches, and its chief manufacture is bone lace. This town is situated on the Roman way called Watling-street, and is supposed by Camden to have been the Lactodorum of Antoninus, though by others that town is placed at Towcester. Here stood one of the crosses which Edward I. erected to the memory of Eleanor his wife, but it is now totally destroyed.

Newport-Pagnel is situated fifty-four miles from London, in the road to Northampton, and contains nothing worthy of note.

Oulney stands at the same distance from the capital, and is remarkable only for its church, which has a very fine spire.

At Eaton, which stands on the borders of Berkshire, and is joined to Windsor by a wooden bridge over the Thames, is a college of royal foundation, now one of the principal seminaries of education in England. The building has large cloisters, and the chapel is a noble piece of Gothic architecture. The gardens of this college are very extensive and pleasant; and the revenue is computed at about five thousand pounds a year.

Buckinghamshire was anciently inhabited by the Caticuchini. Its chief manufactures are bone lace and paper: and it sends to parliament fourteen members, viz. two for the county, and the same number for each of the towns of Wicoomb, Aylesbury, Amersham, Wendover, and Great Marlow.

## C H A P. VII.

### *Oxfordshire, and Gloucestershire.*

**O**XFORDSHIRE is bounded on the east by Buckinghamshire, on the south by Berkshire, on the west by Gloucestershire, and on the north by Warwickshire and Northamptonshire. Its greatest length, from north to south, is about forty-two miles, and its breadth twenty-six.

The principal rivers are, the Thames, or Isis, the Tame, the Charwel, the Evenlode, and the Windrush. The two former of these have already been described. The Charwel rises in Northamptonshire, and entering Oxfordshire near Clendon, runs southward, and falls into the Thames near Oxford. The Evenlode rises in the north-east part of Worcestershire, near a town of its own name, and running south-east, through Oxfordshire, falls into the Thames north-west of Oxford. The Windrush rises in Cotswould-hills in Gloucestershire, and running south-east, enters Oxfordshire not far from Burford; whence passing by Witney, it falls into the Thames west of Oxford. Besides these rivers, there is a number of inferior streams that water this county.

The air of Oxfordshire is reputed as healthful as that of any part of England; and the soil, in general, is very fertile, both for grass and corn; but of this there are great varieties. The county abounds with meadows, which are not excelled by any pastures in England. Here is plenty of fish of various kinds. Its other chief productions are, cattle, fruit, freestone, and several sorts of earths used in medicine, dyeing, and scowering. Wood, however, is a commodity not frequent, and fuel is consequently very scarce.

This county lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Oxford, and contains two hundred and eighty parishes. It is divided into fourteen hundreds, and has one city, and twelve market-towns. The city is Oxford, and the market-towns are Bampton, Ban-

bury, Bicester, Burford, Chipping-Norton, Deddington, Henley upon Thames, Islip, Thame, Watlington, Witney, and Woodstock.

Oxford is situated fifty-five miles from London, in a beautiful plain on the bank of the Thames, near its confluence with several rivers. This city, lately very much improved, is one of the largest in England, including the university. The streets are spacious and regular, the private houses generally neat; and the public buildings sumptuous. Besides the cathedral, which belongs to the university, here are fourteen elegant parish churches; four of which, viz. St. Mary's, All Saints, St. Peter's in the East, and St. John's, are worthy of observation. The church of St. Mary is that in which the university hears divine service performed on Sundays and holidays. It has a beautiful tower, a hundred and eighty foot high, supporting a spire richly ornamented with Gothic workmanship. This church consists of three aisles, with a spacious choir. The pulpit is placed in the centre of the middle aisle: at the west end of it stands the chancellor's throne, and at the foot of it those of the two proctors. On either side are ranged seats for the doctors and heads of houses, and beneath, for the young nobility. The area of the church consists of benches for the masters of arts; and on the west end, with a return to the north and south; are galleries for the under-graduates and bachelors of arts. The church of All Saints is an elegant modern structure, seventy-two foot long, forty-two broad; and fifty foot high. Besides a handsome steeple, it is ornamented both within and without with Corinthian pilasters, and finished with an Attic story and balustrade. The church of St. Peter in the East was built by St. Grymbald, about eight hundred years ago, and is said to be the first stone church erected in this part of England. It is a curious piece of antiquity, and was formerly the university church. St. John's church is the chapel of one of the colleges of the university, called Merton college, and will be mentioned afterwards.

Here is a town-hall, where the assizes are held for the county, and where also are held the city and county sessions. The town contains several charity-schools, in which about three hundred children are taught and clothed. At this place is a beautiful bridge, lately rebuilt over the Charwel; besides two stone bridges over the Thames, which is navigable by barges to the city, the chief trade of which is, in sending malt by these vessels to London.

The university of Oxford is one of the noblest in the world, for the opulency of its endowments, and the conveniency of its mansions for study. It consists of twenty colleges, and five halls, and is a corporation governed by a chancellor, a high steward, a vice-chancellor, two proctors, and other officers. The chancellor, who is the supreme governor, is chosen by the students in convocation. He continues in his office for life, and is usually a peer of the realm. The high steward is named by the chancellor, but must be approved by the university. His office, which also continues

continues

tinues for life, is to assist the chancellor in the government of the university; and to hear and determine capital causes, according to the laws of the land, and the privileges of the university. The vice-chancellor, who is always of the clerical profession, and the head of some college, is appointed by the chancellor, and approved by the university. He acts as the chancellor's deputy, and chooses four pro-vice-chancellors out of the heads of colleges, to officiate in his own absence. The two proctors are masters of arts, and are chosen annually in rotation out of the several colleges and halls. Their business is, to keep the peace, punish disorders, inspect weights and measures, appoint scholastic exercises, and the taking of degrees. The public orator writes letters in the name of the university, and harangues princes, and other great personages who visit it.

The number of officers, fellows, and scholars, maintained by the revenues of the university, is about a thousand, and the number of such scholars as live at their own charge is usually about two thousand, the whole amounting to three thousand persons, exclusive of a great number of inferior officers and servants belonging to the several colleges and halls, and temporary inhabitants, in the character of tutors, &c.

Here are four terms every year, for public exercises, lectures, and disputations; and set days and hours when the professors of every faculty read their lectures. In some of the colleges there are public lectures, to which all persons are admitted.

The public schools, of which there is one for every college, form the ground apartments of a magnificent quadrangle, the principal front of which, on the outside, is a hundred and seventy-five foot long. In the centre of this front is a tower, the highest apartments of which are appointed for astronomical observations, and philosophical experiments. Three sides of the upper story of the quadrangle form one large room, called the picture-gallery, which is furnished with the portraits of founders, benefactors, and other eminent persons. This quadrangle was originally built by queen Mary, and was rebuilt in the time of James I. chiefly at the expence of Sir Thomas Bodley, who also partly erected here a public library, which he furnished with such a number of books and manuscripts, that, with other large donations, it is now become one of the principal libraries in Europe, and is called the Bodleian library. The building, like the picture-gallery, is over the public schools, and consists of three spacious rooms, disposed in the form of the Roman II. The middle apartment was erected by Humphrey duke of Gloucester, over the divinity-school, about the year 1440, and by him furnished with books. The gallery on the west, with the convocation-house beneath, were raised at the expence of the university, in the reign of Charles I. and the vestibule, or first gallery, with the proscholium under it, were built by Sir Thomas Bodley. In one of the schools are placed the Arundel marbles, and in another an inestimable collection of statues, &c. presented to the university by the countess dowager of Pomfret.

Upwards of half a century ago, Dr. John Radcliffe,

an eminent physician, left forty thousand pounds to build a library for the Bodleian collection of books and manuscripts, with a salary of a hundred and fifty pounds a year to the librarian, and a hundred a year towards furnishing it with new books. In consequence of this legacy, a building was erected, under the name of the New, or Radclivian library. It stands in the middle of a magnificent square, formed by St. Mary's church, the public schools, and two colleges, one called Brazen Nose, and the other All Souls. It is a sumptuous pile of building, standing upon arcades, disposed circularly, and inclosing a spacious dome, in the centre of which, ascended by a flight of spiral steps, is the apartment for the books. This elegant library, which is adorned with fine compartments of stucco, is surrounded with a circular series of arches, beautified with festoons, and supported by pilasters of the Ionic order. Behind these arches are formed two circular galleries, an upper and lower range, where the books are disposed in elegant cases. The compartments of the ceiling in the upper gallery are finely stuccoed. The pavement is of two colours, and consists of a kind of stone brought from Hart's Forest in Germany. The finishing and decorations of this edifice are all in the highest taste, and over the entrance is placed a statue of the founder.

Another magnificent structure, belonging to this university, is the Theatre, erected for celebrating the public acts of the university, and the annual commemoration of benefactors to it, with some other solemnities. The building is in the form of the Roman D. The front, which stands opposite to the divinity-school, is adorned with Corinthian pillars, and several other decorations. The roof is flat, and rests on the side walls, which are distant from each other eighty foot one way, and seventy the other. The roof is embellished with allegorical painting. The vice-chancellor, with the two proctors, have seats in the middle of the semicircular part; on each band are ranged the young noblemen, and doctors; the masters of arts occupy the area; and the rest of the university, and strangers, are placed in the galleries.

This structure was built by Sir Christopher Wren, in 1669, at the expence of Dr. Sheldon, archbishop of Canterbury, then chancellor of the university; who having bestowed fifteen thousand pounds on the building, endowed it with two thousand pounds for its perpetual repair.

On the west side of the Theatre is an elegant modern edifice, called the Ashmolean Museum, built also by Sir Christopher Wren, at the expence of the university. Its front towards the street is sixty foot in length. It consists of two stories, and has a grand portico, remarkably well finished, in the Corinthian order. The lower story is a chemical laboratory, and the higher a repository of natural and artificial curiosities, and Roman antiquities, chiefly collected by Elias Ashmole, Esq; and his father-in-law, Sir William Dugdale.

Near the Museum, and almost contiguous to the Theatre, is another building, called the Clarendon printing-house, which surpasses every thing of the kind

in Europe. It was founded in 1711, and built partly with the money accruing to the university from the profits of the copy of Lord Clarendon's History of the Grand Rebellion, the property of which was devised by his lordship to the university. This is a strong stone building, a hundred and fifteen foot in length, with spacious porticoes in the south and north fronts, supported by columns of the Doric order. The top of the walls is adorned with statues of the nine Muses, and of Homer, Virgil, and Thucydides. The east part of the building is chiefly appropriated to the printing of Bibles, and Common-prayer books, and the west is allotted to other books in the learned languages. Here were formerly particular apartments for a letter-founder, and others for rolling-presses, where the Oxford Almanacks, and other pieces, were printed from copper-plates.

There is also belonging to this university a physic-garden, containing above five acres of ground, well furnished with all sorts of plants, and endowed with a yearly revenue for its support; the whole being the donation of Henry Danvers, earl of Danby, in 1632.

Each college has its own particular library and chapel, and most of them are adorned with cloisters, quadrangles, piazzas, statues, gardens, and groves.

The names of the colleges are, University college, Baliol college, Merton college, Exeter college, Oriol college, Queen's college, New college, Lincoln college, All Souls college, Magdalen college, Brasen Nose college, Corpus-Christi college, Christ-church college, Trinity college, St. John Baptist's college, Jesus college, Wadham college, Pembroke college, Worcester college, and Hartford college.

University college is a noble structure, begun in 1634, at the expence of Charles Greenwood, formerly a fellow here, carried on by Sir Simon Bennet, and completed by Dr. John Ratcliffe. The magnificent north front of this college extends two hundred and sixty foot along the south side of a street called the High-street, having two stately portals, with a tower over each. The western portal leads to a handsome Gothic quadrangle, a hundred foot on every side. On the south side of the eastern quadrangle are the chapel and hall. Besides these, here is another court, consisting of three sides, each of which is about eighty foot in length. This college has a master, twelve fellows, and seventeen scholars, with many other students, amounting in the whole to near ninety.

Baliol college is an old Gothic building: it maintains a master, twelve fellows, and eighteen exhibitioners, the number of the society being about ninety. There are elegant new buildings lately added.

Merton college consists of two square courts, of which the inner one is a neat and uniform building. The chapel of this college, which is also the parish-church of St. John, is a magnificent edifice, with a tower, in which are six bells. This college maintains a warden, and has twenty-four fellows, fourteen past masters, four scholars, two chaplains, and two clerks; the total number of members being about a hundred.

Exeter college consists chiefly of one handsome quadrangle. In the centre of the front, which is two

hundred and twenty foot long, is a beautiful gate of rustic work, with a handsome tower. It maintains a rector, twenty-five fellows, a Bible-clerk, and two exhibitioners; the students of every sort are about fifty.

Oriol college consists also of one uniform quadrangle, in which there is nothing very remarkable. The members belonging to this college are, a provost, eighteen fellows, and fourteen exhibitioners; the number of students in all being about ninety.

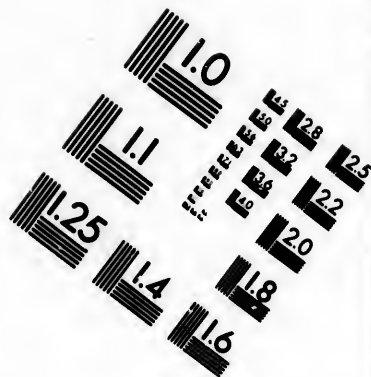
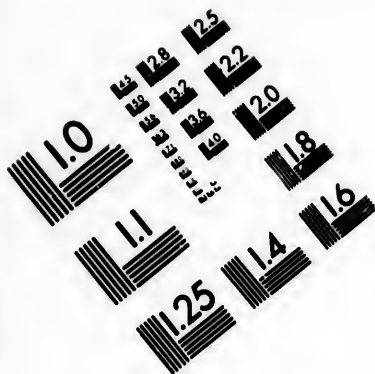
Queen's college is situated opposite to University college, on the north side of the High-street. The front, which is formed in the style of the palace of Luxemburgh, is at once magnificent and elegant. In the middle of it is a superb cupola, under which is a statue of the late queen Caroline. The area on which this beautiful college stands is an oblong square, three hundred foot in length, and two hundred and twenty in breadth. Being divided by the hall and chapel, it is formed into two courts. The first of those, or the fourth court, is a hundred and forty foot in length, and a hundred and thirty in breadth. It is surrounded by a beautiful cloister, except on the north side, which is formed by the chapel and hall, and finely finished, in the Doric order. In the centre, over a portico leading to the north court, stand a handsome cupola, supported by eight Ionic columns. The north court is a hundred and thirty foot long, and ninety broad. On the west side stands the library, which is of the Corinthian order. This college consists of a provost, twenty-two fellows, two chaplains, eight bachelors, twenty-two scholars, two clerks, and forty exhibitioners; the number of students of every sort being above a hundred and twenty.

New college is situated eastward of the Schools, and is separated from Queen's college by a narrow lane on the south. The first court is a hundred and sixty-eight foot in length, and a hundred and twenty-nine in breadth, having in the centre a statue of Minerva. The north side, which consists of the chapel and hall, is a venerable specimen of Gothic magnificence. The two upper stories of the east side form the library, and on the west are the lodgings of the wardens. The chapel, for beauty and grandeur, exceeds all in the university; and near it is a cloister, a hundred and forty-six foot in length on two sides, and a hundred and five on the other two. Contiguous to it, on the north, is a lofty tower, with ten bells. From the first quadrangle there is a passage into another, called Garden-court, the beautiful area of which displays itself gradually in approaching the garden, from which it is separated by an iron palisade, a hundred and thirty foot in length. The members of the college are, a warden, seventy fellows, ten chaplains, three clerks, sixteen choristers, and one sexton, with many gentleman commoners.

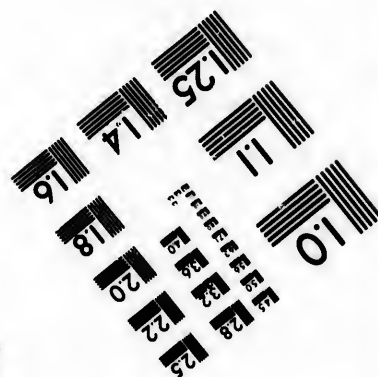
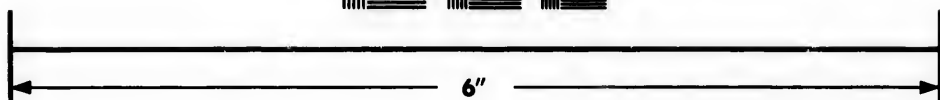
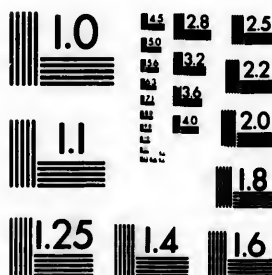
Lincoln college consists of two quadrangular courts, in which there is nothing remarkable; and maintains a rector, twelve fellows, twelve exhibitioners, and six scholars, with a Bible-clerk, besides the independent members.

All Souls college is situated westward of Queen's college,





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college, in High-street, and consists of two courts. The first of these is a Gothic edifice, a hundred and twenty-four foot in length, and seventy-two in breadth. The chapel, on the north side, is a stately pile; and the hall, which forms one side of an area to the east, is an elegant modern room, adorned with many portraits and busts. Adjoining to the hall is the buttery, which is a well-proportioned room, of an oval figure, and an arched stone roof, ornamented with curious workmanship. The second court is a magnificent Gothic quadrangle, a hundred and seventy-two feet in length, and a hundred and fifty-five in breadth. On the fourth side are the chapel and hall; on the west, a cloister, with a grand portico; on the east, two Gothic towers, in the centre of a range of fine apartments; and on the north, a library, which exceeds every thing of the kind in the university. It is two hundred foot in length, thirty in breadth, and forty in height, and is finished in the most elegant manner; being founded by colonel Codrington, at the expence of ten thousand pounds. This college maintains a warden, fifty fellows, two chaplains, three clerks, and six choristers. No independent students are here admitted.

Magdalen college stands without the east gate of the city, on the bank of the river Charwel. The west front of this college, which is a striking specimen of the Gothic manner; is entered by a Doric portal, decorated with a statue of the founder. The first court is a venerable old quadrangle surrounded by a cloister, on the fourth side of which are the chapel and hall. The windows of the chapel are finely painted; and the hall is a stately Gothic room, likewise adorned with fine paintings. On the north side of this court is a narrow passage, that leads to a beautiful opening, one side of which is bounded by a grand edifice, in the modern taste, three hundred foot in length, consisting of three stories. This college is remarkable for a beautiful situation, pleasant groves, and shady walks, and is reckoned one of the noblest foundations in the world. It has a president, forty fellows, thirty demies, a divinity-lecturer, a schoolmaster, an usher, four chaplains, an organist, eight clerks, and sixteen choristers; the number of students amounting to about a hundred and twenty.

Brafen Nose college consists of two courts, but has nothing remarkable. It maintains a principal, twenty fellows, thirty-two scholars, and four exhibitioners; besides whom there are about forty or fifty students.

Corpus-Christi college is an old Gothic structure, consisting of two courts. The members are, a president, twenty fellows, two chaplains, twenty scholars, two clerks, two choristers, and six gentlemen commoners.

Christ-church college has a stately front, three hundred and eighty foot in length, and terminated at each end by two corresponding turrets. In the centre is a grand Gothic entrance, the proportions and ornaments of which are remarkably magnificent. Over it is a beautiful tower, in which are ten musical bells, and a great bell called Tom, weighing near seventeen thousand pounds, and on the sound of which, every

night at nine o'clock, the students of the whole university are enjoined by statute to repair to their respective societies. This college consists of four quadrangles, one of which, distinguished by the name of the Grand Quadrangle, measures two hundred and sixty-four foot by two hundred and sixty-one foot, in the area. The greater part of the fourth side is occupied by the hall, which is considerably elevated above the rest of the building, and is reckoned one of the largest and most magnificent rooms in the kingdom. It is a hundred and twenty foot long, forty foot broad, and thirty foot high, and contains eight windows on each side. The church of this college is situated at the east end of the Grand Quadrangle. It is an ancient venerable structure, and is the cathedral of the diocese. Pechwater court, to the north-east of the Grand Quadrangle, is perhaps the most elegant edifice in the university; it consists of three sides, each of which has fifteen windows in front. Beyond this lies Canterbury court, originally Canterbury college, a small court, and chiefly remarkable for its antiquity. The fourth quadrangle is Chaplain's court, which stands north-east of the preceding. This college, or church, consists of a dean, eight canons, eight chaplains, eight singing men, eight choristers, a teacher of music, and an organist. The dean is the head of the college, which maintains also a hundred and one scholars. The whole number of residents amounts to about a hundred and fifty. King Henry VIII. who founded this college, having appointed no special visitor of it by any of his statutes, it is subject to the visitation of the sovereign only, or commissioners under the great seal.

Trinity college consists of two courts, in the first of which are the chapel, library, and lodgings of the president. The chapel, which was built in 1695, is a fine structure, richly and beautifully finished. The second court is an elegant pile, raised under the direction of Sir Christopher Wren. This college has a president, twelve fellows, and twelve scholars, who, with the independent members, amount to near eighty.

St. John Baptist's college consists of two large quadrangles, uniformly and elegantly built. In the first court are the chapel and hall, on the north side, and on the east the president's lodgings. The east and west sides of the second court are supported by stately and beautiful piazzas. This college has a president, and fifty fellows, two chaplains, one organist, five singing men, six choristers, and two sextons. The number of students is about seventy.

Jesus college stands with its front opposite to Exeter college. The building consists of two courts, in the first of which are the hall, the chapel, and the principal's lodgings. On the west side of the inner court is the library, and the other three sides are finished in a plain and uniform manner. This college consists of a principal, nineteen fellows, eighteen scholars, with several exhibitioners, and independent students; the whole amounting to about ninety.

Wadham college is one of the most uniform and beautiful belonging to the university, and consists of a noble quadrangle, near a hundred and thirty foot square. The windows of the chapel, which stands on the



the east side of the court, are beautifully painted, particularly the east window, which represents the passion of our Saviour, painted by Van Ling, a Dutchman, and is said to have cost fifteen hundred pounds. This society consists of a warden, fifteen fellows, fifteen scholars, two chaplains, two clerks, and sixteen exhibitioners; the number of students of every class amounting to about a hundred.

Pembroke college consists of two courts. The first is a small quadrangle, but neat and uniform; and the second an irregular area, on one side of which stands the chapel, an elegant modern building, of the Ionic order. The members of this college are, a master, fourteen fellows, twenty-four scholars and exhibitioners. The total number of students amounts to about sixty.

Worcester college stands at the extremity of the western suburb, on an eminence contiguous to the Thames, and consists of buildings that are elegant and well-disposed. The incumbents are, a provost, twenty fellows, and seventeen scholars; the whole constitutional members amounting to about fifty.

Hartford college is situated opposite to the grand gate of the public schools, and consists of one irregular court. The foundation consists of a principal, four senior fellows, or tutors, and junior fellows, or assistants, besides a certain number of students or scholars. The members were lately about twenty.

The halls of the university are, St. Edmund's, St. Magdalen's, St. Alban's, St. Mary's, and New-inn hall, which are the remains of numerous hotels, or inns, that were the only academical houses originally possessed by the students of Oxford.

These societies are neither endowed nor incorporated: they are subject to their respective principals, whose salaries arise from the room-rents of the houses. All the halls were formerly dependent on particular colleges, for the choice of their respective principals; but excepting Edmund hall, which yet remains under the patronage of Queen's college, the principals of all the others are now appointed by the chancellor of the university.

The fabulous historians of Oxford have carried the origin of this city so high as one thousand years before the time of our Saviour, and ascribe its foundation to a king of the Britons named Memprick; but it appears to have been a place of no great consideration under the Saxons, till the reign of king Alfred, who founded, or refounded, an university here, in the year 886. The city was afterwards laid in ashes by the Danes, in the reign of Ethelred, about the year 1002, and was restored by Edward the Confessor. The inhabitants joining in a rebellion against William the Conqueror, he laid siege to the city, of which he soon became master, and gave it up to be plundered, in revenge for some affront which one of the inhabitants offered him from the wall. As a check upon the city, he afterwards built, on the west side of it, a castle of great strength and extent, as appears by the ruins, among which a square high tower, and a lofty mount, yet remain. He is also supposed to have

surrounded the city with new walls, of which some scattered fragments may yet be seen; and of the original gates, that to the north is now standing.

In the reign of king John, the magistrates of Oxford having, without trial, hanged three scholars of the university, for a murder, of which they were supposed to be innocent, the students retired thence to Reading in Berkshire, the city of Salisbury, Maidstone in Kent, Cambridge, and other places. By this desertion, the town was in a short time so much impoverished, that it sent deputies to the pope's legate at Westminster, who begged pardon upon their knees, and submitted to public penance; upon which the students, after four or five years absence, returned.

The same laws and customs which obtained in London, were granted by ancient charters to this city. Its inhabitants were toll-free all over England; and it was frequently honoured with the presence of the English sovereigns, who often assembled parliaments at this place.

The earliest accounts of the university of Oxford are equally doubtful with those of the city. The foundation of the former, as well as of the latter, are by some referred to the British king Memprick, above mentioned; by others to Arrivragut, who reigned in time of the emperor Domitian; and by a third class of antiquaries, to king Vortigern. There is reason to conclude that this university was founded soon after the establishment of the Christian religion in England; for in the papal confirmation of it, under the pontificate of Martin II. in the sixth century, it is styled an ancient university. Its history, however, is extremely imperfect, till the reign of Alfred, who is therefore generally considered, if not as the founder, at least as the great restorer of learning at Oxford. When this celebrated prince ascended the throne, such was the state of literature among his subjects, that few persons could read English, and hardly one priest in the kingdom understood Latin. To remedy this inconvenience, he invited men of learning from all parts to settle at Oxford, the most eminent of whom were Grimbold, and John the monk.

The magistracy of Oxford is subjected to the chancellor, or vice-chancellor of the university, in all affairs of moment, even relative to the city. The vice-chancellor annually administers an oath to the magistrates and sheriffs, that they will maintain the privileges of the university; and on the 10th of February, every year, the mayor, and sixty-two of the chief citizens, solemnly pay each one penny, at St. Mary's church, in commemoration of a great fine laid upon the city in the reign of Edward III. when sixty-two of the students were murdered by the citizens.

Henley upon Thames, so called for distinction, stands at the distance of thirty-five miles from London, and is reputed the oldest town in the county. The inhabitants are chiefly maltsters, mealmen, and bargemen, who carry on a great trade to London, in their respective commodities of meal, malt, and wood. Over the Thames is a wooden bridge at this place, where, it is said, there was anciently one of stone.

Wallington

Watlington is distant forty-three miles from London, and has a good market-house, with a free grammar-school.

Thame, or Tame, is so called from the river Thames, on the east bank of which it stands, at the distance of forty-five miles from London. It is said to have been a borough in the time of the Danes, and is now a large town, consisting of one great street, in the middle of which is a spacious market-place. Here is a fine church, and a free school, the master of which is nominated by the warden and scholars of New college in Oxford.

Islip is distant from London fifty-seven miles, and has a good market for sheep. This being the place where Edward the Confessor was born, the font in which he was baptized remained here till lately, when being put to indecent uses, it was taken away by a gentleman in the neighbourhood.

Bicester, Bifcester, or Burcester, lies fifty-two miles from London, and is a large straggling town, with a church, a meeting-house, and a charity-school for thirty boys. This place is remarkable for excellent malt liquor.

Woodstock is sixty miles from London, and is said to have been a royal palace in the days of Ethelred. Here Alfred translated *Beatus de Consolatione Philosophiae*; and here Henry II. built a labyrinth, with an apartment in it called Rosamond's Bower, to secrete his concubine, Rosamond Clifford, from Eleanor his queen. There now remains no vestiges either of the palace or labyrinth.

Near the town is a park, called Woodstock park, which was walled round by Henry I. and is said to be the first park that was inclosed in England. It generally contains a great number of deer.

The honour and manor of the town and hundred of Woodstock were settled by parliament, in the reign of queen Anne, on the duke of Marlborough, and his descendants. A palace was also built for him at the public expence, in a most delightful situation, about half a mile distant from Woodstock; and in commemoration of the important victory which he gained over the French and Bavarian forces at Blenheim, it was called Blenheim-house. It was built by Sir John Vanburgh, and is perhaps the most magnificent structure in the kingdom. It is adorned with paintings and statues, and furnished with the most curious and costly moveables of every kind. Some of the apartments are hung with tapestry, representing the duke's principal victories. There is an ascent hither from the town of Woodstock, over a bridge of one arch, which is a hundred and ninety foot diameter, and cost twenty thousand pounds. The gardens are computed to contain above a hundred acres of land. After the duke's death, several additions were made to this noble villa by the duchess, particularly a triumphal arch at the entrance from Woodstock, and an obelisk in the principal avenue of Woodstock park, on which is inscribed a short account of the duke's victories and character, drawn up by the late Dr. Hare, who had been his grace's chaplain, and afterwards bishop of Chichester.

The duke's descendants are obliged, by way of homage, for the tenure of this manor, to present annually a standard in Windsor castle, on the 2d of August, the anniversary of the battle of Blenheim.

At Stonefield, about two miles north-west of Woodstock, a large tessellated Roman pavement was discovered, in 1713, consisting of small square stones and bricks, of different colours, strongly cemented; and near Great Tew, south-west of Deddington, another Roman pavement has been found, consisting of red, white, blue, and yellow cubical pieces, disposed in such a manner as to form a variety of beautiful figures.

At Wood-Eaton, on the river Charwel, about four miles north from Oxford, were found several British coins of Cunobeline, who reigned in this part of the island so early as the time of our Saviour's birth. On one side was the figure of a horse, with that of an ear of corn above it; and under it the letters CUNO, for Cunobeline. On the reverse was also the figure of an ear of corn, with the letters CAMU, for Cametodunom, the ancient name of Malden in Essex, where, doubtless, the coins were struck.

Bampton stands upon a small river that runs into the Thames, at the distance of sixty-six miles from London. Here is a charity-school for twenty children, with a trade superior to that of any other place in England in leather jackets, gloves, breeches, and stockings, which are brought hither in great quantities from Wrocey, and other neighbouring places, and bought up for the peasants of Berkshire, Wiltshire, and Dorsetshire.

Witney, or Whitney, is distant from London sixty-three miles, and consists of one street, about a mile long. It is a populous town, and has a great manufactory of rugs and blankets. The blankets are commonly from ten to twelve quarters wide, and are preferred to all others for their whiteness. A hundred looms are almost constantly employed in this manufactory. Each of these employs eight hands; and it is computed that no less than three thousand persons are busied in carding and spinning. Here is also a considerable manufactory of duffels, a yard and three quarters wide, which were formerly much exported to Virginia and New England, for clothing the American Indians, and are now much used in Great Britain for winter wear. Cuts for hammocks, and til-cloths for bargemen, are likewise made in this town; and here are a great many fell-mongers, who dress and stain sheep skins, manufacturing them afterwards into breeches and jackets, which they sell at Bampton. Witney has a free-school, founded and endowed by Mr. Henry Box, a druggist in London, with a fine library adjoining to it. The members of the Grocers company in London are governors of this school, and those of Oriel college in Oxford are visitors.

Burford is distant eighty-five miles from London, and has a great market for saddles. A custom formerly prevailed here, of carrying an artificial dragon about the streets on Midsummer eve, in allusion to a certain banner, containing that device, which was taken by Cuthred a West-Saxon prince, from Ethel-

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View of the City of JERUSALEM.

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Near Banbury is dug up, in great plenty, the fossil commonly called pyrite auræ, or the golden fire-stone.

In the time of the Romans, this county was inhabited by the Dobuni.

Ikenild-street, one of the four great Roman ways in England, enters Oxfordshire out of Buckinghamshire, at a village called Chinner, south-east of Thame; and running south-west, passes the river Thames, into Berkshire, at Goring, about half way between Reading and Wallingford, two market-towns of that county.

Akeman-street, a Roman consular way, that derives its name from Akeman-cafter, the ancient name of the city of Bath in Somersetshire, to which it leads, and where it terminates, enters the county of Oxford from Buckinghamshire, near Bicester, whence running south-west, through Woodstock park, and crossing the rivers Charwel, Evenfade, and Windrush, with several other less considerable streams, it enters Gloucestershire south-west of Burford.

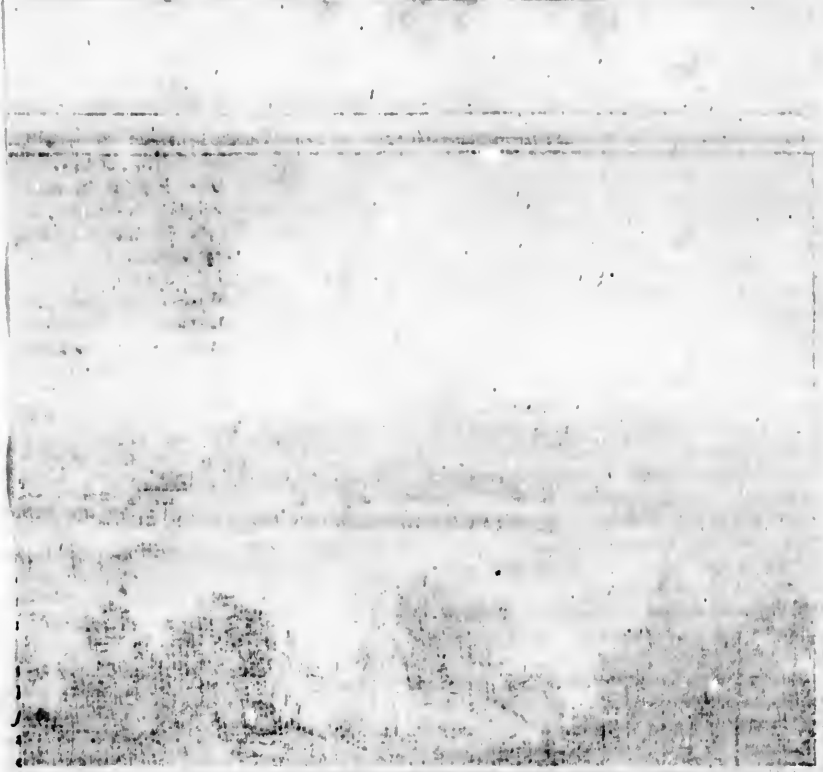
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sea, called the Bristol channel. The tide flows up the Severn as far as Tewkesbury, which is near seventy miles from the sea.

The Wye rises within half a mile of the source of the Severn, and running south-east, separates Radnorshire and Brecknockshire, two counties in Wales, from each other; whence passing through Herefordshire, and parting Montgomeryshire from Gloucestershire, it falls into the Severn near Chepstow, a market-town of Monmouthshire.

The Stroud rises a little eastward of Painswick, a market-town, and running towards the west, falls into the Severn about five miles south of the city of Gloucester. The water of this river is remarkably clear, and excels others in fixing the colours mixed with it, for dyeing broad cloth, scarlet, or any grain colour. For this reason several clothiers have settled along the banks, for twenty miles together, and have erected a vast number of fulling-mills upon it. No part of this river was navigable till the year 1730, when it was made so by act of parliament, from Stroud to its conflux with the Severn.

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bald, a Mercian prince, in a battle fought in the neighbourhood of this place.

Daddington, or Deddington, is sixty-two miles from London. It is a town of considerable extent, and sent members to parliament in the reign of Edward I. and III. but never since.

Chipping-Norton is situated seventy-six miles from London, and appears to have been formerly a place of great trade. This town also sent members to parliament once in the reign of Edward I. and twice in that of Edward III. Here is a handsome church, built after a curious model. On a heath near the town, called Chapel-heath, there are annual horse-races.

North-west of Chipping-Norton, upon the borders of Gloucestershire, there is an ancient monument, consisting of a circle of stones, mostly about four foot and a half high, standing upright. The people of the country call them Rollrich stones, and have a vulgar tradition that they are petrified men. Some antiquaries are of opinion, that they are the remains of a British temple; but the most general conjecture is, that they were intended for a memorial of the advancement of Rollo, a Danish general, to the crown of England, by his army.

Banbury stands seventy-seven miles from London, and is a considerable town, with a handsome church, and two meeting-houses, a free-school, and two charity-schools, for teaching and cloathing poor children. Here is also a workhouse; and the town is famous for a particular kind of cakes, called Banbury cakes. The lands in the neighbourhood are remarkably fertile.

In some fields near Banbury, Roman coins have been frequently ploughed up; and several Roman coins and medals have been found at Dorchester, which is a town of great antiquity, and appears to have flourished under the Romans. Coins of the same kind are also frequently dug up at Chipping-Norton; and a pot full of them was, not many years ago, discovered at Thame.

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Here are also to be seen the remains of one of the Roman vicinal ways, or *chemini minores*, of Antoninus. It is now called Grimies Dike. It enters this county from Berkshire, near Wallingford; and crossing the Thames, runs south-east; after which, crossing Ikenild-street, it again passes the Thames; near Henley, into Berkshire.

Oxfordshire sends to parliament nine members, viz. two for the county, two for the city of Oxford, two for the university, two for the borough of Woodstock, and one for Banbury.

## GLOUCESTERSHIRE.

Gloucestershire is bounded on the east by Berkshire, Oxfordshire, and Warwickshire, on the south by Wiltshire and Buckinghamshire, on the west by Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, and on the north by Worcestershire. It measures in length, from north-east to south-west, about fifty-six miles; and in breadth, from south-east to north-west, about twenty-two miles.

In this county are several large rivers; the principal of which are, the Severn, the Wye, the Stroud, and the two Avons. The Severn, which is esteemed the second river in England, issues from the mountain of Plyn Lymmon, in the south-west part of Montgomeryshire, in Wales. By a variety of windings, it runs north-east, and enters Shropshire, where, being joined by a number of smaller streams, it traverses that county and Worcestershire, in the direction of south-east; it enters the county of Gloucester at Tewkesbury, whence running south-south-west, by the city of Gloucester, it falls into that part of the Western sea, called the Bristol channel. The tide flows up the Severn as far as Tewkesbury, which is near seventy miles from the sea.

The Wye rises within half a mile of the source of the Severn, and running south-east, separates Radnorshire and Brecknockshire, two counties in Wales, from each other; whence passing through Herefordshire, and parting Montgomeryshire from Gloucestershire, it falls into the Severn near Chepstow, a market-town of Monmouthshire.

The Stroud rises a little eastward of Painwick, a market-town, and running towards the west, falls into the Severn about five miles south of the city of Gloucester. The water of this river is remarkably clear, and excels others in fixing the colours mixed with it, for dyeing broad cloth, scarlet, or any grain colour. For this reason several clothiers have settled along the banks, for twenty miles together, and have erected a vast number of fulling-mills upon it. No part of this river was navigable till the year 1730, when it was made so by act of parliament, from Stroud to its conflux with the Severn.

One of the rivers Avon rises in Northamptonshire, whence running through Warwickshire, and separating Gloucestershire from Worcestershire, it falls into the Severn near Tewkesbury. The other Avon, distinguished

tinguished by the name of Avon West, rises not far from Tetbury, a market-town near the borders of Wiltshire, and separating Gloucestershire from Somersetshire, falls into the Severn near Bristol, a city in Somersetshire.

This county is generally divided into three districts. The eastern part is called Cotswould; the middle part, the Vale of Gloucester; and the triangular part, included between the Wye, the Severn, and a small river called the Ledon, is named the Forest of Dean.

The air here in general is healthful, though of different degrees of temperature, that of Cotswould, which is a hilly country, being very sharp, while, on the contrary, the air in the Vale is soft and mild, even in winter. So great is the difference, it is commonly said, that in Cotswould eight months of the year are winter, and the other four too cold for summer; but of the Vale, that eight months are summer, and the other four too warm for winter.

Cotswould being so much exposed, is not remarkable for its fertility; and the corn advances so slowly, that, "As long a-coming as Cotswould barley," is become a proverb in the county. The hills of this part, however, afford excellent pasture, and great numbers of sheep are fed upon them, the wool of which is remarkably fine.

In the Vale, the pastures are also very rich, and the soil exceeding fertile. The cheese, called Gloucester cheese, is made in this part of the county, and next to that of Cheshire, is doubtless the best in England. The Forest of Dean, which is twenty miles long, and ten broad, was formerly covered with wood, and was then so much haunted by robbers, that in the reign of Henry VI. an act of parliament was made to suppress them. Since that time the woods have been much reduced, by clearing great part of the ground, where many towns and villages have been built. The oaks here are reckoned the best in England; on which account, a considerable part of this district was inclosed by an act of parliament passed in the reign of Charles II. and some time ago, many cottages, which had been erected in and near the woods, were ordered to be pulled down, because the inhabitants destroyed the trees, by cutting or lopping them for fuel.

In this part of the county are many rich mines of iron and coal, for the working of which several acts of parliament have passed; and at Tain-ton, a village near Newent, in the beginning of the present century, was discovered a gold mine, of which a lease was granted to refiners, who extracted some gold from the ore; but the quantity proved so small, as not to answer the expence of working it.

The king has here a swanimote court, as in all royal forests, to preserve the vert and venison; and of this the judges are the verdurers, who are chosen by the freeholders of the county. The miners have also a court, in which the presiding officer is a steward, appointed by the constable of the forest.

This county abounds with grain, cattle, fowl, and game. Bacon and cyder, each excellent in its kind,

are likewise plenty, and great quantities of fish are supplied by the rivers, especially the Severn, which abounds with salmon, lampreys, and conger eels.

This county lies in the province of Canterbury, is a diocese of itself, and contains two hundred and eighty parishes. It is divided into thirty hundreds, and includes one city, and twenty-five market-towns. The city is Gloucester, and the market-towns are, Berkeley, Campden, Cheltenham, Cirencester, Colford, Great Dean, Dursley, Fairford, Lechlade, Marshfield, Minching-Hampton, Morton-in-Marsh, Newent, Northleach, Paintwick, Sudbury-Chipping, Stanley-Leonard, Stow-on-the-Would, Stroud, Tetbury, Tewkesbury, Thornbury, Wickware, Winchcomb, and Wotton-under-Edge.

The city of Gloucester is situated a hundred and four miles west-by-north of London, upon a pleasant hill, secured on the west side by a branch of the Severn, navigable by large ships to the very quay. The town is handsomely built, and clean, well supplied with hospitals and market-houses. The cathedral is an old and magnificent fabric, with a tower which is reckoned one of the neatest and most curious pieces of architecture in England. In this church are twelve chapels, adorned with the arms and monuments of many great persons, and the tombs of Edward II. and of Robert duke of Normandy, son of William the Conqueror. Over the east end of the choir there is also a gallery, deemed a great curiosity as a whispering-place. It is of a hexagonal form, and twenty-five yards broad. This cathedral has beautiful cloisters, and belonging to it are a dean and six prebendaries.

The city of Gloucester was made a bishop's see by Henry VIII. but is said to have enjoyed this privilege at early as the fifth century. In the year 1272, Edward I. held here a parliament, in which were enacted several useful laws, now called the Statutes of Gloucester. A parliament was also held here by Richard II. and Richard III. in consideration of his having borne the title of duke of Gloucester, before he usurped the crown, added to the city the two adjacent hundreds of Dudston and King's-Barton. He also gave it his sword and cap of maintenance, and made it a county of itself, by the name of the county of the city of Gloucester. But after the Restoration, the hundreds were taken away from it by act of parliament, and the walls of the city razed, because, in 1643, it had shut its gates against Charles I. who besieged it. Before that siege it had eleven parish churches, six of which were then demolished, and five, with the cathedral, yet remain.

Here is a good stone bridge over the river, with a quay, wharf, and a custom-house; and under the bridge is a machine which supplies the whole place with water. The trade of this city was formerly considerable, but has greatly declined since Bristol became so flourishing. At present, one of its chief manufactures is pin-making.

Gloucester was a Roman colony, called Colonia Glocum, and was governed by a consul. The Saxons got possession of it about the year 570, at which time it became a part of the kingdom of Mercia. The Ro-

man way, called Ermine-street, reaching from St. David's in Penbrokehire to Southampton, passes through this city.

Lechlade stands upon the river Thames, on the borders of Oxfordshire and Berkshire, at the distance of seventy-four miles from London. The Thames, after having been joined by the several streams of the Leche, the Coln, the Churn, and the Isis, begins to be navigable at this town, where barges come to the quay, to take in butter, cheese, and other goods, for London.

Fairford stands seventy-eight miles from London. Here is a large handsome church, with twenty-eight windows of the finest painted glass in England, representing some of the principal events related in the Old and New Testament, designed by the famous Albert Durer. The glass was found on board a foreign vessel, taken as a prize by one John Tame, a merchant, in the time of Henry VII. Purchasing of the king the manor, he erected this church, on purpose to decorate it with the glass, which has been preserved to this day with much care.

Many medals and urns are frequently dug up about this town; and in the adjoining fields there are several barrows, supposed to have been raised over some considerable persons who have been slain here in battle, though history mentions no action to which we can ascribe the event.

Northluck, or Northleche, so called from its situation on the river Leche, stands about eighty miles from London. It has a neat church, with several almshouses, and a good grammar-school, which is free to all the boys of the town, and endowed with eighty pounds a year, by Hugh Westwood, Esq. who being afterwards reduced, is said to have solicited the trustees to be master of it, but was denied. By a decree of chancery, in the reign of James I. this school was settled on Queen's college, Oxford.

Stow-on-the-Would, called in all records Stow St. Edward, is seventy-seven miles distant from London. It stands so high, and is so much exposed to the winds, that the inhabitants are said to have but one element, air, there being neither wood, common, field, nor water belonging to the town. It has a church, which is a large building, with a high tower, and contains several monuments. It has also a free-school, and several charitable institutions, the poor here being very numerous. The fairs of this town are famous for hops, cheese, and especially sheep.

Morton-in-Marsh is distant from London eighty-three miles, and contains nothing remarkable.

Camden, or Camden, is situated on the borders of Worcesterhire, at the distance of eighty-seven miles from London. In the church are some very fine marble monuments, the most sumptuous of which is supported by twelve pillars, and was erected in memory of Sir Baptist Hicks, viscount Camden, who erected an almshouse for six poor men, with an equal number of women, and rebuilt the market-place. Here are also two charity-schools, one for cloathing thirty girls, and teaching them to read, knit, and spin; the other is for teaching twenty-four poor children to read. Here is

likewise a grammar-school, endowed with sixty pounds a year. This town is famous for the manufacture of stockings.

Winchcomb is distant from London eighty-seven miles. It was anciently a county or sheriffdom of itself, and was a borough in the reign of Edward the Confessor. Here is an almshouse for twelve poor women. The inhabitants of this town planted tobacco to a very good account, till they were restrained in the reign of Charles II. after which the town gradually decayed, and is now inconsiderable.

Cheltenham is distant from London ninety-five miles, and takes its name from being situated on a brook called the Chelt, which falls into the Severn. Here is a charity-school, and an hospital, founded in 1578, for six poor persons, of which the members of Jesus college in Oxford are governors. This town carries on a considerable trade in malt; and is now much frequented on account of its mineral waters, which are purgative and diuretic.

Tewkesbury is distant from London ninety-six miles, being situated at the conflux of the Severn with the Avon, those two rivers, with the smaller streams of the Carron and the Swellgate, almost surrounding the town. This is a large, beautiful, and populous place, consisting of three well-built streets, and many lanes. It has a bridge over three of the four rivers that run by it, and a church which is one of the largest in England, that is neither collegiate nor cathedral. This building is adorned with a stately tower, and sepulchral monuments, particularly those of several of the earls of Gloucester and Warwick, prince Edward, son of Henry VI. and the duke of Clarence, brother to Edward IV. Here is a free-school, and an hospital, endowed with forty pounds a year, by the late queen Mary, to be paid out of the exchequer, for the maintenance of thirteen poor persons, and a reader. The chief manufacture here is woollen cloth, and stockings; but the town has long been famous for mustard balls, which are sent in great quantities into other parts. An adjacent piece of ground, called the Ham, is a course for horse-races.

Cirencester, commonly called Ciceter, stands at the distance of eighty-five miles from London, and derives its name from having been a *castra*, or *castle*, upon a small river called the Churn, which falls into the Thames at Cricklade, a borough-town of Wiltshire. It is divided into seven wards, and by some thought to be the oldest, and to have been formerly the largest town in the county. It had once three parish churches, but at present has only one, in which are twenty-eight windows of painted glass, representing scripture and ecclesiastical history. Here is a free-school, and a charity-school for about ninety children, with several hospitals and almshouses. In this town is one of the greatest markets in the kingdom for wool and woollen manufactures.

Cirencester was a town of eminence in the time of the Romans, as appears from many Roman antiquities that have been discovered in and near this place, particularly several pillars and pavements, supposed to have belonged to a temple and bath. It is thought to

be the Corinium mentioned by Ptolemy, and the Durconovium of Antoninus. At this place two Roman consular ways cross each other, one of which is still conspicuous by a high ridge, extending as far as Birdlip hills, south of Cheltenham, and the other may be traced to Cricklada in Wiltshire.

Stroud stands ninety-three miles from London, upon a hill, at the foot of which runs the water that gives name to the town. It has a handsome church, a free-school, a charity-school, and a workhouse.

Painswick is pleasantly situated in the best air in the county, at the distance of ninety-four miles from London. It has a large handsome church, with a neat spire, a charity-school, and a manufacture of broad cloth.

Mincing-Hampton is distant from London ninety miles, and is remarkable only for a large church, built in the form of a cross. This town took its name from an order of nuns at Caen in Normandy, called Minchings, to whom it formerly belonged.

Newent is situated on a small river, navigable by boats, in the Forest of Dean, at the distance of a hundred and four miles from London. It has a handsome church, three alms-houses, and two charity-schools.

Stanley-Leonard, so called from having been a priory dedicated to St. Leonard, is situated ninety-five miles from London, and besides a charity-school, has nothing worthy of note.

Tetbury is situated in a healthful air, ninety-three miles from London. It is a well-built, populous town, and stands on a rising-ground; but water is here so scarce in some dry summers, as to be sold for one shilling and six pence a hoghead. Here is a handsome church, with a free-school, and an alms-house for eight poor persons. In the middle of the town is a large market-house, for the convenience of the yarn trade, which is the staple of the place. There is also a small market-house for cheese, bacon, and other commodities.

This town was anciently fortified by a castle, said to have been built by a king of the Britons, above two thousand years ago; but the ruins of it are now hardly visible.

At Kingfoot, in the neighbourhood of Tetbury, it has been common, after a shower of rain, to find in the fields Roman coins, which the people call cherlemoney; and not far hence are to be seen the traces of a large camp, now called Bury-hill.

Beverstone-castle, about a mile north-east of Tetbury, was built in the reign of Edward III. by Thomas earl of Berkeley, out of the ransom of the prisoners he took at the battle of Poitiers, under the Black Prince.

Dursley is distant from London ninety-seven miles, and is remarkable only for a manufacture of woollen cloth.

Wotton-under-Edge stands on a pleasant and fruitful eminence, at the distance of ninety-nine miles from London. It is a handsome town, and has a suitable church, containing several monuments of the family of Berkeley. Here is a free-school, with an alms-

house for six poor men, and the same number of women.

Berkley is distant from London a hundred and eleven miles, and has a large, handsome church, with a charity-school. Here is also a castle, where Edward II. was imprisoned. The room in which he was confined is still to be seen. The manor of this town is called, in old records, the Honor of Berkeley, and is one of the largest in England, most of the towns in Berkeley hundred, and many other places in the county, to the extent of near thirty parishes, depending upon it. The lands held of it are reckoned to be worth thirty thousand pounds a year.

Wickware is distant from London a hundred and one miles, and is a very ancient corporation. The town is well watered by two brooks, over one of which is a handsome stone bridge. It has a free-school, and the neighbourhood affords it plenty of coal.

Sedbury-Chipping lies a hundred and three miles from London, and is likewise an ancient borough. Here is a spacious church, though it is only a chapel of ease to Old Sedbury, a village in the neighbourhood. Here is also a free school, and the greatest cheese-market in England, except Atherston on the Stour, a market-town of Warwickshire. This place being a great thoroughfare in the road from Bristol to Cirencester and Oxfordshire, is well provided with commodious inns.

Thornbury is situated two miles from the eastern bank of the Severn, on a small stream which runs into that river, and at the distance of a hundred and six miles from London. The church, which is in the form of a cathedral, is large, and has spacious siles on each side, with a cross, and a beautiful high tower at the west end. Here are four small alms-houses, and a free-school. In the civil wars this town was fortified for king Charles I. as a check upon the garrison of Gloucester.

Here are still to be seen the foundations of a magnificent castle, begun, but never finished, by Edward duke of Buckingham, who was beheaded in the reign of Henry VIII.

Oldbury, upon the river Severn, and near Thornbury, was a Roman station; and according to Antoninus, the trajectus, or passage over the Severn, was at this place. Here are two large Roman camps; and at Alveston, a little distant, is a large round camp, on the edge of a hill, whence there is a noble prospect of the Severn. Near the camp is a large barrow, in which were found several stone coffins, containing bones. At a place called Castlehill, in the neighbourhood, is yet to be seen another camp, of an oblong square, with a single ditch.

Marshfield is situated at the distance of a hundred and three miles from London, in the road to Bristol, and on the borders of Wiltshire. It consists chiefly of one street of old buildings, almost a mile in length. It has a large church, and alms-house, with a chapel belonging to it, well endowed for eight persons. Here is also a charity-school, maintained by the lord of the manor.



manor. This town carries on a considerable trade in cloth and malt, and is famous for its cakes.

The ancient inhabitants of this county, as well as those of Oxfordshire, were named by the Romans, Dobuni. The people of Gloucestershire have a proverb, "The father to the bough, the son to the plough;" alluding to the ancient privilege, by which the estate of a father, though a felon, descended to the son. This privilege was confirmed to them by a statute in the reign of Edward II. but has not been claimed for many years. The custom called Borough English still remains in many parts of this county. There is also a custom at the miners court, in the Forest of Dean, for a miner who gives testimony as a witness, to wear a particular sort of cap; and that he may not defile holy writ with unclean hands, when the oath is administering to him, he touches the Bible with a stick.

The principal manufacture of this county is woollen cloth. Before our wool began to be clandestinely exported to France, it was computed that fifty thousand pieces of cloth were made here annually, which being estimated at ten pounds a-piece, the fine with the coarse, amounts to five hundred thousand pounds.

Gloucestershire sends eight members to parliament, viz. two for the county, two for the city of Gloucester, and two for each of the boroughs of Cirencester and Tewkesbury.

#### C H A P. VIII.

*Monmouthshire, Herefordshire, Worcestershire, and Warwickshire*

**M**ONMOUTHSHIRE is bounded on the east by Gloucestershire, on the south by the river Severn, on the west by the two counties of Brecknock and Glamorgan, in Wales, and on the north by Herefordshire. Its length, from north to south, is twenty-nine miles, and its breadth twenty.

This county is well-watered with fine rivers, the principal of which are, the Severn, the Wye, the Mynow, the Rumney, and the Usk. The two former have been already described in treating of the county of Gloucester. The Mynow, Mynwy, or Monow, rises in Brecknockshire, whence running south-east, and dividing this county from Hereford, it falls into the river Wye at the town of Monmouth. The Rumney rises also in Brecknockshire, where running south-east, and dividing this county from Glamorganshire, it falls into the Severn. The Usk rises likewise in Brecknockshire, whence running in the same direction as the preceding, and dividing Monmouthshire into two almost equal parts, it discharges itself into the Severn near Newport.

The air of Monmouthshire is temperate and healthy, and the soil fruitful. The eastern parts are woody, and the western mountainous. The valleys produce plenty of hay and corn; and the hills feed

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cattle, sheep, and goats. Here is abundance of coals; and the rivers afford salmon, trout, and other fish.

Monmouthshire lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Landaff, and has a hundred and twenty-seven parishes. It is divided into six hundreds, and contains seven market-towns. Those are, Abergavenny, Caerleon, Chepstow, Monmouth, Newport, Pontpole, and Usk.

Chepstow stands at the distance of a hundred and thirty-one miles from London, near the mouth of the Wye. It is a large, well-built, populous town, walled round, and is situated on a hill, close to the river, having several fields and orchards within the walls. Here is a fine bridge over the Wye, no less than seventy foot high from the surface of the water, when the tide is out. As this bridge is reckoned to stand partly in Gloucestershire, it is kept in repair at the expence of both counties; Chepstow is the port for all towns that stand upon the rivers Wye and Lug: ships of burden may come up to it, and the tide runs in with great rapidity, rising commonly six fathom, or six and a half, at the bridge. This was formerly a place of great eminence, and much frequented. It had once a castle, and is thought to have arisen from the ruins of an ancient Roman city, called Venta Silurum, at the distance of four miles hence. The ruins of Venta Silurum are still about a mile in compass; and here, in 1589, three beautiful Roman pavements were discovered, with several coins, and other antiquities.

Monmouth stands a hundred and twenty-seven miles from London, between the rivers Monow and Wye, over each of which it has a bridge, and a third over a small river called the Trothy, which falls into the Wye almost close to the mouth of the Monow. This is a large, handsome town, and has been considerable ever since the Conquest. It had a castle, which was a stately edifice, but now lies in ruins. The church is a fine building, and the east end of it, in particular, is much admired. The chief trade of the town is with Bristol, by the communication of the Wye with the Severn.

Usk stands upon the river of the same name, at the distance of a hundred and thirty miles from London, but contains nothing worthy of notice.

Abergavenny takes its name from the Gavenny, a small river, which at this town falls into the Usk. It is situated a hundred and forty-two miles from London, and is a large, populous, and flourishing town. It once had a castle, and is still surrounded by a wall. Here is a fine bridge over the Usk, consisting of fifteen arches. This town is a great thoroughfare from the western parts of Wales to Bristol, Bath, Gloucester, and other places, and is therefore well-furnished with accommodation for travellers. It carries on a considerable trade in flannels, which are brought hither from the manufactories in other parts of the county, to sell. Abergavenny appears to have been the Gebannium of Antoninus; and the town of Usk his Burrium.

Caerleon, which, in the ancient British language, is said to signify *the Town of the Legion*, was so named, from its having been the station of the *Legio Secunda*

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*Britannica,*

*Britannia*, in the time of the Romans. It stands at the distance of a hundred and forty-one miles from London, upon the river Usk, over which is a wooden bridge. In the time of the Britons, it was a fort of univarsity, and an archbishop's seat; and king Arthur is said to have held his court here. Under the Romans it was elegantly built, and surrounded by a brick wall, about three miles in compass. Geoffroy of Monmouth relates, that in his time there were many remains of the ancient splendor of this city, such as stately palaces, high towers, ruins of temples, theatres, baths, aqueducts, &c. This place is the *Isca* of Antonianus, and several Roman antiquities have been found in the neighbourhood.

Newport stands upon the Usk, between the mouth of that river and Caerleon, at the distance of a hundred and fifty-one miles from London. It is a considerable town, with a good haven, and a fine stone bridge over the river.

Postipola, or Ponty-pool, stands a hundred and thirty-six miles from London, and is a small town, remarkable only for some iron mills.

In the time of the Romans, this county was occupied by the Silures. The inhabitants were afterwards much harassed by the lords of the marches, to whom the kings of England granted all the lands which they could conquer from this people. Monmouthshire was considered as a part of Wales, till towards the end of the reign of Charles II. when the judges began to keep the assizes here for the Oxford circuit. The principal manufacture here is flannel; and this county sends three members to parliament, viz. two knights of the shire, and one member for Monmouth, the county-town.

#### HEREFORDSHIRE.

Herefordshire is bounded on the south by Monmouthshire, on the west by the Welch counties, Brecknockshire and Radnorshire, on the north by Shropshire, and on the east by Gloucestershire and Worcestershire. It is almost of a circular form, measuring thirty-five miles from north to south, and thirty miles from east to west.

The principal rivers are the Wye, the Monow, and the Lug; the two former of which have already been described. The Lug rises in the north-east of Radnorshire, and runs eastward, by several windings, through Herefordshire, to Leominster, whence directing its course south-east, after having been joined by several smaller rivers, it falls into the Wye, near Hereford.

The air of this county is pure, and consequently salubrious, particularly between the rivers Wye and Severn; which has given rise to a proverb very common among the inhabitants of this county, "Blessed is the eye between the Severn and the Wye." The soil of Herefordshire is extremely fertile, yielding fine pasture, and great quantities of corn. It is also well-stocked with wood; and some kinds of apples, particularly redstreaks, thrive better here than in any other

county. They abound in the hedges along the highways, and the hogs grow fat by feeding on the windfalls, which give a reddish colour and sweetish taste to their flesh. Those apples afford also great quantities of cyder, which is the common drink all over the county. This district abounds with springs of fresh water, and the rivers with plenty of fish.

This county lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Hereford, and includes a hundred and seventy-six parishes. It is divided into eleven hundreds, and contains one city, and seven market-towns. The city is Hereford, and the market-towns are Bromyard, Kington, Ledbury, Leominster, Pembridge, Ross, and Weobley.

Hereford is situated on the river Wye, a hundred and thirty-three miles west of London. It is about a mile and a half in circumference: the houses are old, the streets dirty, and the inhabitants few. The cathedral, however, is a beautiful and magnificent structure, adorned with the monuments of several of its ancient prelates. The bishop has a palace called the Castle, and the other dignitaries have houses in a place named the Close. Besides the cathedral, there are four parish-churches; the number was formerly six, but two of them were destroyed during the civil wars in the last century.

Here is an hospital, founded in the reign of queen Elizabeth, and well endowed, for twelve poor men; with two charity-schools, one for sixty boys, the other for forty girls, who are all taught and clothed by subscription.

Hereford is thought by some to have been founded by Edward the Elder, though others suppose that it became conspicuous about the year 825, in consequence of a church being erected here by Milseid king of the Mercians, to the memory of Ethelbert, king of the East Angles, who was murdered by the queen of king Offa, while he was courting their daughter. Hereford was soon afterwards made the see of a bishop; but in the time of Edward the Confessor, Griffin, prince of South Wales, sacked the city, destroyed the cathedral, and carried the bishop away prisoner. At the Norman invasion, therefore, the city lay almost in ruins; but the Conqueror rebuilt both it and the cathedral, and erected a castle, which is said to have been the largest and strongest in England. Leland, who lived before its demolition, informs us, that it was surrounded by two walls, each of which was encompassed with water, part being a river, and part a ditch: the donjon was high, and extremely well fortified, having ten semicircular towers in the outer wall, and one very large tower in the inner.

Renchefer, four miles north-west of Hereford, is thought to be the ancient Ariconium; about a mile from which, at Credon-hill, is a very large camp, strongly fortified with a double ditch, and occupying not less than forty acres of ground.

At Eaton-wall, a village upon the Wye, two miles from Hereford, are the vestiges of another camp, with single works, likewise including near forty acres.

Upon Compillar hill, near Brockhampton, a village

lage lying south-east of Hereford, is a fine square camp, called Wobury, double-trenched, and near half a mile long, but narrow.

At Sutton-Wallays, the river Lug, north of Hereford, are still to be seen the remains of Offa's palace.

On the borders of Shropshire there is a Roman camp, still entire, called Brandon. It consists of a single trench, of a square form, with four ports, near which are two barrows. Half a mile hence, at Bardfield, on the side of a small stream, was a British camp, now covered with great oaks, and named Cozal.

Rosse stands upon the river Wye, at the distance of a hundred and seventeen miles from London. It is a populous, well-built town, consisting chiefly of two streets, about half a mile long, crossing each other in the middle. Here are two charity-schools, one for thirty boys, and the other for twenty girls, who are taught and clothed by subscription. Camden says, that in his time, this town had a considerable manufacture of iron wares. At present it is famous for cyder, and is much frequented on account of its markets and fairs, which are well stored with cattle, and other provisions.

Ledbury is situated a hundred and eighteen miles from London, at the fourth end of a ridge of mountains, called Malvern-hills, on the east side of the county. It is a well-built town, inhabited chiefly by clothiers, and has an hospital, liberally endowed, besides a charity-school for twenty-three poor children.

Bromyard stands at the distance of a hundred and twenty-four miles from London, near a river called the Frome, in a country full of orchards. It is a small town, and contains nothing worthy of note.

Leominster, or Lemster, is distant from London a hundred and thirty-six miles. It is a large, handsome, populous town, with several bridges over the river Lug, and is a great thoroughfare between South Wales and London. Many horses and black cattle are sold at the fairs of this town; as are also the best flax, wheat, and barley in England. The wool brought to this market has been reckoned the best in Europe, except that of Apulia and Tarentum, and was deservedly called Lemster ore, because it enriched the town. By an alteration of the market-days, a great part of the profits arising from this commodity has been for several years transferred to Hereford and Worcester; but Lemster still carries on a considerable trade in this article, as well as in gloves, leather, and hats; having many mills, and other machines, constantly working on the rivers that flow through the valley on which it stands.

In a park, on the north-west of Leominster, is a large camp, with two ditches, called the Ambry; and on a hill in the neighbourhood are the ruins of a palace, now called Comfor-castle.

Pembridge is situated upon the river Arrow, at the distance of a hundred and thirty miles from London. It is a small town, but has a manufacture of woollen cloth.

Weobley, or Webley, stands at the distance of a hundred and thirty miles from London. Here are two

charity-schools, supported by subscription, one for twenty-five boys, and the other for girls.

Kington, or Kyneton, is situated upon a small river called the Arrow, a hundred and forty-six miles from London. It is a large, well-built, old town, inhabited chiefly by clothiers, who carry on a considerable trade in narrow cloths. It has a free-school and a charity-school, and its market is one of the most considerable in the county.

This county, as well as Monmouthshire, to which may be added Radnorshire, Brecknockshire; and Glamorganshire, in Wales, was anciently inhabited by the Silures. It remained under the jurisdiction of the Britons for several ages after the Saxons came into the island, but was at last subdued by a king of Mercia, who annexed it to his own dominions. It was afterwards much exposed to the incursions of the Welch; to secure it against whom, the Mercian king, Offa; made a broad ditch, a hundred miles in length, called Offa's ditch, some traces of which are still visible. This county was also fortified with no less than twenty-eight castles, but the most of them are now demolished.

Herefordshire sends to parliament eight members, viz. two for the county, two for the city of Hereford; and two for each of the boroughs of Leominster and Weobley.

## WORCESTERSHIRE.

Worcestershire is bounded on the west by Herefordshire, on the north by Staffordshire, on the east by Warwickshire, and on the south by Gloucestershire. It is of a triangular form, extending in length thirty-six miles, and in breadth about twenty-eight.

The chief rivers of this county are; the Severn, the Avon, the Stour, and the Teme. The Severn and Avon have been already described. The Stour rises in the northern extremity of Worcestershire, not far from Stourbridge, whence running south-west, it passes by Kidderminster, and falls into the Severn near Bewdley. The Teme, or Temd, rises in the north part of Radnorshire, and, running eastward, separates Shropshire from the counties of Radnor, Hereford, and Worcester, after which it discharges itself into the Severn near the city of Worcester.

The less considerable rivers are, the Ree, the Arrow, the Bow, the Salwarp, and the Swillate.

The air of this county is healthy, and the soil rich, both in tillage and pasture; the hills being covered with flocks of sheep, and the valleys abounding in corn, or displaying a luxuriance in meadows.

Here is a remarkably rich valley, called the Vale of Evesham, or Evesham, from Evesham, a borough-town, which is situated in the middle of it. This vale runs along the banks of the river Avon, from Tewkesbury in Gloucestershire, to Stratford-upon-Avon in Warwickshire. It abounds with the finest corn, and pasture for sheep, and is justly reckoned the granary of those parts. Hops, too, are much cultivated in this county; which also yields great quantities of all sorts of fruit, particularly

particularly pears. With these the hedges every where abound, and vast quantities of perry are annually made of them. The rivers here afford plenty of fish, and the Severn is remarkable for lampreys.

In this county are many brine pits and salt springs. At Droitwich, where the latter are exceeding copious, so much salt is annually made, that the tax paid for this article, at the rate of three shillings and six pence a bushel, amount, it is said, to no less than fifty thousand pounds.

This county is in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Worcester, and contains a hundred and fifty-two parishes. It is divided into seven hundreds, and includes one city, with ten market-towns.

The city is Worcester, and the market-towns are Bewdley, Broomsgrove, Droitwich, Evesham, Kidderminster, Pershore, Shipton-upon-Stower, Sturbridge, Tenbury, and Upton.

Worcester is pleasantly situated on the eastern bank of the Severn, at the distance of a hundred and nineteen miles north-west of London. The houses in general are well built, and the streets spacious. It is the see of a bishop, and was anciently fortified by a castle and walls, with five watch towers, which were destroyed long ago.

The cathedral is a large structure, but not very elegant. It is three hundred and ninety-four feet long, seventy-eight broad, and has a tower a hundred and sixty-two feet high, with a chapel on the south side, a hundred and twenty feet in length, and of very curious workmanship. In the midst of the choir in this cathedral, king John lies buried, between two pious bishops, as directed by his will. Prince Arthur, elder brother to Henry the Eighth, is interred in a neat little chapel belonging to the church; and here is a fine monument, said to be that of a countess of Salisbury, of whom it is fabulously reported, that having dropped her garter as she danced before Edward the Third at Windsor, it gave occasion to the institution of the order of the Garter. This conjecture seems to have arisen from the figure of a garter inclosing a double rose upon the tomb: but those emblems relate to the houses of York and Lancaster, which divided the regal line after the death of Edward the Third; and it is generally believed, that the lady, whose memory this monument was designed to perpetuate, was a countess of Surry, and not of Salisbury.

Belonging to this cathedral is a handsome large, circular room, used as a library, the roof of which is supported by a pillar in the middle.

Here are also twelve parish churches, nine within the city, and three without. Of those, one dedicated to St. Nicholas is a neat structure. The city has two free-schools, and six charity-schools, in which a hundred and ten boys are taught, and part of them clothed. There are likewise seven or eight hospitals, one of which is a noble building, erected and endowed by Robert Berkley, Esq. for twelve poor men. The workhouse is a handsome structure.

Worcester has an ancient guildhall, and a stone bridge over the Severn, that was formerly adorned with an elegant old tower. Here is a good quay to which ships come up the Severn. Worcester is a flourishing city, and its principal manufactures are broad-cloth and gloves.

The residence of the bishop of Worcester is at Hartlebury, in the neighbourhood of the city. The principal palace was originally built in the reign of Henry the Third, but having been demolished in the civil wars under Charles the First, it was rebuilt out of the revenues of the diocese, and is now a beautiful seat.

Worcester was a Roman city, the Branonium of Antoninus, and the Brenogenium of Ptolemy. It is one of those places supposed to have been built by the Romans, for curbing the Britons who dwelt beyond the Severn.

Tenbury is situated on the river Teme, a hundred and twenty-eight miles from London, and is a large populous town.

Upton is distant from London a hundred and one miles. It stands on the Severn, over which it has a bridge. It has also a harbour for barges, and a charity-school for sixteen girls.

Bewdley is pleasantly situated on the declivity of a hill, by the side of the Severn, a hundred and twenty-two miles from London. It is a populous town, with only a chapel of ease to the parish-church at Ribbesford, on the other side of the Severn, over which it has a stone bridge. It is a place of considerable trade by means of the Severn, and has a great manufacture of Monmouth caps, bought up generally for the use of the Dutch sailors.

Kidderminster stands upon the eastern bank of the river Stour, at the distance of a hundred and twenty-eight miles from London. It is a well-built town, containing about five or six hundred houses, with a handsome church, two good free-schools, a charity-school, two alms houses and a town-hall. This place was anciently a borough, and carries on a considerable trade in the manufacture of cloth, linsey-woolsey, and other stuffs.

Broomsgrove is distant from London a hundred and eighteen miles. Here is a charity-school founded by Sir Thomas Cook, for teaching and clothing twelve boys, and putting them out apprentices. This town likewise was formerly a borough, and has considerable manufactures both of linen and woollen cloths.

Droitwich is situated at the distance of ninety-five miles from London, and consists of about four hundred houses, with four churches. It is greatly enriched by its salt works, which appear to have been an object of attention even before the Conquest. At present, this commodity is made only from the summer to the winter solstice, for fear of overstocking the market. The proprietors of the salt-works are a corporation: none but a proprietor can be a burgett of the town, or vote at the election of its representatives.

Pershore stands upon the bank of the river Avon,

at the distance of a hundred and two miles from London, in the road from that city to Worcester. It contains about three hundred houses, with two parish-churches, and has a manufacture of stockings.

Evesham, Evesholm, or Efam, is also situated on the Avon, ninety-five miles from London. Here are two parish-churches, besides one at Bengworth, a village on the other side of the river, but included in the jurisdiction of Evesham. The bells belonging to both the churches without the town are put up in an old detached tower, built by an abbot of this place. Here are also a grammar school and a charity school, maintained by a legacy of a thousand pounds, left by Mr. Deacle, late a woollen draper in London. The town has a considerable manufacture of woollen stockings, with a bridge over the Avon, and commands a beautiful prospect of the vale of Efam. This place is an ancient borough, and enjoys many privileges, some by prescription, and others by charters.

Shipton-upon-Stower is situated seventy-five miles from London, and is a small town; but has a very considerable market.

Stourbridge, so called from a stone bridge at this place, over another river named the Stour, is distant from London a hundred and twenty-eight miles. It is a well-built town, having a church, with a free school, and a library, besides some meeting-houses of dissenters. This town derives great profit from its iron and glass works, and is also famous for the making of crucibles, the clay in the neighbourhood being particularly well adapted to that manufacture.

In the time of the Romans, Worcestershire formed part of the district inhabited by the Cornavii; and under the Saxons it was a subdivision of the kingdom of Mercia.

Dorn, a village of this county, near Campden in Gloucestershire, was a Roman city. Besides coins, many foundations of ancient buildings have been discovered here; the traces of streets are still discernable, and the Roman Fosseway passes through it.

The chief manufactures of Worcestershire, are cloth, stockings, gloves, and glass; in which, with the salt, hops, and other commodities, the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade. This district sends nine members to parliament, viz. two for the county, two for the city of Worcester, two for each of the boroughs of Evesham and Droitwich, and one for Bewdley.

#### WARWICKSHIRE.

Warwickshire is bounded on the west by Worcestershire, on the north by Staffordshire and Derbyshire, on the east by Northamptonshire, and on the south by Gloucestershire and Oxfordshire. It extends in length from north to south thirty-three miles, and from east to west twenty-six.

The most considerable rivers here are the Avon and the Tame. The Avon, which runs across the  
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county from north-east to south-west, has been already described. The Tame, or Thame, arises in the South part of Staffordshire, not far from Woolverhampton, and runs south-east into Warwickshire; where directing its course northward, it enters Staffordshire again near Tamworth, a few miles north of which town it falls into the Trent.

Other smaller streams in this county are the Amber, the Arrow, the Aine, the Leam, the Swift, and the Stour.

The air of Warwickshire is mild and healthy, and the soil is fertile. The two parts into which the county is divided by the river Avon, and distinguished by the names of the Feldon and the Woodland. The former lies south of the Avon, and produces excellent corn and pasture. The Woodland, which is the larger division, affords plenty of timber; and great part of it being now cleared of woods, it also yields abundance of fine corn and pasture. The cheese made in Warwickshire is hardly inferior to any in England.

This county is situated in the province of Canterbury, partly in the diocese of Litchfield and Coventry, partly in that of Worcester, and has a hundred and fifty-eight parish-churches. It is divided into five hundreds, and contains one city with twelve market towns. The city is Coventry; and the market-towns are Atherston, Aulcester, Birmingham, Bitford, Colehill, Henley, Kineton, Nuneaton, Rugby, Stratford, Sutton, Coldfield, and Warwick.

The city of Coventry is situated ninety-two miles north-west of London, and jointly with the city of Litchfield, is the see of a bishop. It is a large, populous, and rich place, but the buildings are generally old. Here are three parish-churches, and a tall spire, being only the remains of a church that formerly belonged to a monastery of Gray friars. One of these churches called St. Michael's, has a stone spire, three hundred foot in height, which is much admired. Here are also two or three meeting houses of protestant dissenters, a free school, with a good library, a charity school, and an hospital. The windows of the guildhall are finely painted; and here is a spacious market-house, with a cross in the middle sixty foot high, which is adorned with the statues of several kings of England, as large as the life, and for its workmanship and beauty, is inferior to no structure of the kind in the kingdom. It was erected in the reign of Henry VIII. by a legacy of Sir William Holles, formerly lord mayor of the city of London. This city has a manufacture of tammies and ribbands.

This city was once enclosed with walls, which were three miles in compass, and fortified with twenty-six towers; but soon after the restoration of Charles II. they were demolished and only the gates kept standing. These, of which twelve yet remain, are beautiful and noble structures.

At Coventry is an annual procession through the city, on the Friday after Trinity Sunday, with the figure of a naked woman on horseback, in commemoration  
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memoration of the following transaction. Leofric, earl of Mercia, and first lord of this city, who died in the thirteenth year of Edward the Confessor, on account of some offence given him by the citizens, loaded them with heavy taxes, for the remission of which Godina, his lady, the daughter of Thorold, sheriff of Lincolnshire, a woman of the most exemplary virtue and piety, incessantly solicited him. Being at length tired with her importunities, he hoped to put an end to them, by saying that he would take off the new duties, provided that she would ride naked in the day time, through the most frequented parts of the city. Godina, in compassion for the distresses of the city, accepted the terms proposed, and rode naked through the streets on horseback; having previously issued orders to the citizens, however, that all their doors and windows should be shut, and that no body should attempt to look out. It is added, that this injunction was violated by no person but a taylor, who, as a punishment for his indiscreet curiosity, was struck with blindness. The taylor is now mentioned by the name of peeping Tom; and strangers are yet shown the window through which he is said to have peeped. In it stands his effigy, which is always new dressed on the anniversary of the procession. In a window belonging to Trinity Church in this city, are pictures of earl Leofric, and his countess Godina, with the following inscription.

*I Lurick for the love of thee,  
Do set Coventry tall free.*

Aulcester stands upon the river Avon, at the distance of a hundred and five miles from London. It is a very ancient town, has a free-school, and a good market for corn. It is situated upon Ikenild-street, and was a Roman station: the foundations of Roman buildings, with many coins, of gold, silver, and brass, have been dug up at this place; and about a century ago, an urn was discovered here, containing upwards of six hundred pieces of Roman coins, eight of which were gold, and the rest silver. Most of these coins were impressed with the head of some one of the Roman emperors, and the reverses generally different.

Bitford stands upon the river Avon, near its confluence with the Arrow, at the distance of a hundred miles from London, and contains nothing worthy of note.

Atherston, called for distinction *Atherston-on-the-Stour*, is situated on that river, a hundred and three miles from London. It is a large well-built town, with a chapel of ease, and a charity-school, where twenty girls are taught to read, knit, sew, and spin. This place is famous for its cheese-fair, which is the greatest in England.

Mancester, upon Watling-street, near Atherston, was the Manducsedam of the Romans. And here several Roman coins of brass and silver have been dug up. Near this place are the remains of an ancient fort, called Oldbury. It is of a quadrangular form, inclosed with high ramparts, and contains about seven acres of ground. In the north part of this fortification have been found several flint-stones, each about four inches long, curiously ground into the form of a pole-ax, and thought by Sir William Dugdale to have been a sort of weapons used by the ancient Britons, before they learned the art of making weapons of brass and iron.

Stratford, commonly called Stratford-upon-Avon, is situated at the distance of ninety-seven miles from London. It is a large populous town with one church, and a chapel of ease. The church is dedicated to the Trinity, and is thought to be almost as old as the Norman Conquest; but parts of it have been at different times rebuilt. It was formerly collegiate, and is celebrated for containing the remains of the immortal Shakspeare, who was a native of this town, and interred in one of the aisles on the north side of this church. His grave is covered with a stone, on which is the following inscription.

*Good friend, for Jesus sake forbear,  
To dig the dust inclosed here.  
Blest be the man that spares these bones,  
But curst be he that moves my bones.*

In the wall over the grave, is a bust of the poet, cut in marble.

Here is a fine grammar-school, and an alms-house founded by Edward VI. Over the Avon is a stone-bridge, consisting of nine arches with a long causey at the end of it, walled on both sides. This town has a great trade in corn and malt.

Warwick is situated on the river Avon, a hundred and five miles north-west of London. It stands on a rock of free stone, through which a way is cut from each of the four cardinal points. The streets are regular and spacious, and all meet in the centre of the town. Its cellars are cut in the rock, and it is supplied with water by pipes, from springs about half a mile distant. It is a populous town, with only two parish churches; one of which, called St. Mary's, is a beautiful edifice. Here are three charity-schools, in which sixty-two boys, and forty-two girls are taught and clothed; besides five hospitals, one of which has a considerable endowment. The county assizes and general quarter sessions are always held in this town. The town-house is built of free-stone, and supported by stone columns. Over the Avon is a good stone bridge, consisting of twelve arches. The chief trade of the town is malt. It is much frequented by good company, and there are frequent horse-races in the neighbourhood.

But the principal ornament of this place is a castle belonging to the earl of Warwick. It stands upon the bank of the Avon, on a rock which rises forty foot perpendicular above the level of the river. The apartments are well contrived and adorned with many original pictures of Vandyke, and other great masters. Adjoining to the castle, fifty foot

above

above the same level, is a fine terrace, commanding a beautiful and extensive prospect.

Warwick is a town of so great antiquity, that it is said to have been founded by Kimbeline, a British king, who was contemporary with our Saviour. It appears to have been very eminent in the time of the Romans; and is supposed to have been the Roman *Præsidium*, where, according to the *Notitia*, the præfect of the Dalmatian horse was posted by order of the governor of Britain.

Chesterton, upon the Fosseway, south-east of Warwick, is conjectured to have been a Roman station, from some coins and other Roman antiquities that have been discovered here.

Henley, also called Henley-in-Arden, from its situation in Arden, which was the ancient name of that part of the county now called Woodland, stands near the river Alne, at the distance of eighty-five miles from London. It has a chapel of ease to Waveney, in the neighbourhood, which is the seat of the parish-church.

Birmingham stands on the borders of Staffordshire, at the distance of a hundred and nine miles from London. It is a large, well built, populous town, famous for ingenious artificers in all sorts of iron and steel small wares, and in the manufactures of snuff-boxes, buckles, buttons, and other things of the like kind, which are made here in vast quantities, and exported to all parts of Europe.

In the neighbourhood of this town there are annual horse-races.

Colehill is situated near a small river called the Cole, a hundred and three miles from London. It has two charity-schools, and a piece of land called *Pater-noster-piece*, on account of its having been given by one of the family of Digby, who was lord of the manor, for encouraging children to learn the Lord's Prayer. In consequence of this donation, all the children in the town are sent in their turns, one at a time, every morning to church, at the sound of the bell, when each kneeling down, says the Lord's Prayer before the under master, by whom they are severally rewarded with a penny. Here is a stone bridge over the river Cole.

At Colehill, which also stands upon the Roman way called *Ikenild-street*, copper coins of the emperor Trajan have been frequently dug up; and at *Polef-worth*, north of *Atherston*, was discovered in 1762, a large earthen pot, full of small copper coins, the greater part of which bears a beautiful impression of the head of the emperor Constantine, with the name *Constantinus* round it. On the reverse are two armed figures, with emblems of various kinds, and round them the words *GLORIA EXERCITUS*. A few have an armed head on each side, with *URBS ROMA* round it; and on the reverse, *ROMULUS ET REMUS*, sitting under a wolf. Others have an armed head on one side, with the name *CONSTANTINOPOLIS* round it, and *PALLAS* on the reverse. Some have on the

reverse a chariot and four horses; and others a variety of single figures.

*Sutton-Cosfield*, or *Coldfield*, stands a hundred and five miles from London, in an excellent air, and among pleasant woods, but in a barren soil. It is supposed to contain about four hundred houses. Here is a church dedicated to the Trinity, consisting of a nave, chancel, and two side aisles. At the west end of the church is a handsome square tower, sixty foot high.

In this church are three vaults, remarkable for consuming very quickly the dead bodies that are deposited in them. This town has a grammar-school, founded by bishop Vesy, and endowed with an estate worth a hundred pounds a year.

Near this town is an old building, called the *Manor-house*, said to have been one of the hunting-seats of William the Conqueror.

*Nuneaton* stands at the distance of a hundred miles from London, and is a well-built, large town, with a free-school, and a manufacture of woollen cloth.

*Rugby* is situated upon the river Avon, seventy-six miles from London. Here is a grammar-school, and a charity-school, with several alms houses. This town is remarkable for a great number of butchers.

At *Brownsover*, north of *Rugby*, are the remains of an ancient castle, supposed to have been built in the time of king Stephen.

*Kinton*, or *Kington*, stands eighty-nine miles from London, but has nothing worthy of note. To the southward of this place is a valley, called the *Vale of the Red Horse*, from the rude figure of a horse cut out upon a red soil, on the side of a hill, and supposed, like the *White Horse* in Berkshire, to have been a Saxon monument. The trenches which form this figure are trimmed by a freeholder in the neighbourhood, who enjoys his lands by that service.

Near *Warnington*, south of the *Vale of the Red Horse*, is a square military entrenchment, containing about twelve acres, where, in the last century, were found a brass sword and a battle-ax.

Warwickshire is one of the five counties which, in the time of the Romans, were inhabited by the *Corinnavii*, and under the Saxon heptarchy it was part of the kingdom of Mercia.

Three of the ancient Roman ways, namely, *Watling-street*, *Ikenild-street*, and the *Fosse-way*, pass through this county; and upon each of these, which are still visible in many places, have been discovered several considerable remains of Roman antiquity. *Watling-street* parts this county from *Leicestershire*; *Ikenild-street* passes through it, along the borders of *Worcestershire*, into *Staffordshire*; and the *Fosse-way*, crossing *Watling-street* out of *Leicestershire*, at a place now called *High Cross* and formerly the *Benones* of the Romans, runs south-west, through *Warwickshire* into *Gloucestershire*.

Warwickshire sends to parliament six members, viz. two for the county, two for the city of Coventry, and two for the town of Warwick.

## C H A P. IX.

*Northamptonshire, Bedfordshire, Huntingdonshire and  
Cambridgeshire.*

**N**ORTHAMPTONSHIRE is situated nearer the centre of England than any other county; and as it runs into a narrow tract towards the north-east, it also borders upon more counties than any other in this part of Britain. It is bounded on the west by Warwickshire and Oxfordshire; on the north by Leicestershire, Rutlandshire, and Lincolnshire; on the east by Bedfordshire, Huntingdonshire, Cambridgeshire; and on the south by Buckinghamshire. It measures from south-west to north-east, near fifty-five miles, and from east to west, in the broadest part, twenty-six miles.

This country is well watered with several rivers, of which the principal are the Nen, the Welland, the Ouse, the Leam, and the Charwell.

The Nen, formerly called Aufona, rises in a hill south-west of Daventry, and runs almost due east, till it passes the town of Northampton; whence, with various windings, directing its course north-east, and traversing the whole length of the county, it runs on in the same direction, and separating Cambridgeshire from Lincolnshire, falls into a bay of the German ocean, called the Washes, or Lynn Deeps, from *Lynn Regis* in Norfolk. The Leam and Charwell have been already mentioned. The Welland rises in Lincolnshire, whence running north-east, and separating Northamptonshire from Leicestershire, Rutlandshire, and Lincolnshire, it falls into the Nen north-east of Peterborough, in this county. The Ouse has likewise formerly been described.

The air of Northamptonshire is so pure and salubrious, that the nobility and gentry have more seats here than in any other county of the same extent in England; and this district is so crowded with towns and villages, that in some places thirty steeples may be seen at one view. There is, however, a small tract of country, called Fenland, about Peterborough, bordering upon Lincolnshire and Cambridgeshire, which is often overflowed by water from the uplands in the rainy seasons.

The soil of this county is fruitful both in corn and grass, but produces very little wood; and being an inland county, and few of its rivers navigable, the inhabitants find difficulty in supplying themselves with fuel. The rivers, however, yield great plenty of fish, and the county abounds with cattle and sheep. It also produces many pigeons, and a great quantity of salt-petre.

Northamptonshire lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Peterborough, and contains three hundred and thirty parishes. It is divided into twenty hundreds, and includes one city, and eleven market-towns. The city is Peterborough, and the market-towns are Brackley, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Kettering, Northampton, Oundle, Rockingham, Rothwell, Thrapston, Towcester, and Wellingborough.

Peterborough is said to have taken its name from an ancient monastery, founded so early as the year 655, and dedicated to St. Peter. It is situated seventy-six miles from London, upon the river Nen, over which it has a wooden bridge. Here is a cathedral, and but one parish-church; the former of which is said to be more than a thousand years old, though it has not the appearance of so great antiquity. It is one of the noblest Gothic buildings that is any where to be seen. It is four hundred and seventy-nine foot long, and two hundred and three broad, in the transept, from north to south; the breadth of the nave and side-aisles is ninety-one foot. The west front, which is a hundred and fifty-six foot broad, is the most magnificent in England, being supported by three noble arches, with columns curiously adorned. The windows of the cloisters are beautifully painted with scripture history, the figures of the founders of the monastery, and its succession of abbots. Magnificent as this building still is, it appears not at present with all its ancient splendor, having been greatly defaced in the civil wars, and deprived of many considerable ornaments. Among other monuments, here is one of queen Catherine, that was divorced from Henry VIII. and another of Mary queen of Scots, who were both buried in this cathedral, though the body of the latter is said to have been removed to Westminster abbey by her son king James I.

The air here, by reason of the neighbouring fens, is not accounted very healthy, but the water of the river is fresh and good, and the highest spring tide never comes up within five miles of the town, which is also plentifully supplied with water by excellent springs. The streets are well-built, and here is a handsome market-house, over which are kept the affizes and sessions.

The river is navigable to this city by barges, in which coals and other commodities are imported; and hence, in some years, are exported six thousand quarters of malt, besides other goods, particularly cloth, stockings, and different woollen manufactures, in which the poor are constantly employed.

Caerdyke, or, as it is commonly called, Cordyke, near Peterborough, is a Roman trench; an useful work for draining the fens, and facilitating commerce in those parts, its dimensions being sufficient to render it navigable.

There is a Roman road, called, from its breadth, Forty-foot-way, which begins at Peterborough, and passes by Burleigh park wall, into Stamford in Lincolnshire.

Castor, about three miles from Peterborough, is supposed to have been part of the ancient city called by the Romans *Durobrivæ*, and by the Saxons *Dor-mancester*. It extended anciently along both sides of the river Nen, though the remains are now visible only on the north side of the river. Many Roman antiquities have been discovered here; and on a hill, upon which a church now stands, there was anciently a castle, the seat of the Roman governor.

Daventry, or Daintry, is distant from London seventy-three miles, and being a great thoroughfare,

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*Morning Habit of a Russian Lady, in 1764.*



*The above figure is taken from a Collection of Dresses,  
published in Paris in 1768. By J. B. Le Prince.*

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it has many good inns, which are its chief support. Roman coins have often been dug up here; and upon Borough-hill, about half a mile from this town, are yet to be seen the ruins of a Roman fortification, three miles in compass. The Roman military way, called Watling-street, runs through this town, in its course to Warwickshire.

Weedon-on-the-Street, south-east of Daventry, was the ancient Bannavenna mentioned by Antoninus; and a military way goes directly by it.

Lylborn, near Daventry, is supposed to have been a Roman station, by its situation on the Watling-street, and by Roman pavements, trenches, ruins of walls and houses, and military mounts of various dimensions, at or near this place; but especially from the traces of a fort, at a mount called the Round-hill.

At Chipping-Werden, not far from Daventry, are the remains of a rampart of earth, which, from its form, and the great number of coins dug up here, is supposed to have been a fence raised by the Romans.

In a field in the neighbourhood of Woodford, near Daventry, are vestiges of Roman buildings; and some years ago, a Roman urn was turned up here by the plough.

Brackley stands fifty-seven miles from London, near the head of the Ouse, with which it is pleasantly watered. This is supposed to be the third borough erected in England, and was once famous for tilts and tournaments. It was also formerly a great staple for wool, but at present the markets are for fat hogs, boots and shoes.

At Charlton, near Brackley, is a fortification called Rainborough, which is supposed to have been a Danish camp.

Towcester, or Toscester, is situated sixty-one miles from London, on a small stream called the Trove, and sometimes the Wedon, which almost surrounds it, and over which it has three bridges. Standing in the great road to Chester, it is furnished with good inns, and is a handsome, populous town. The inhabitants are almost all employed in the manufactures of lace and silk; and here are annual horse-races.

This place is supposed to have been the Tripontium of Antoninus. It has at this day three bridges over three streams, into which the little river it stands upon is here divided. Many Roman coins have been dug up at this town, and the military way, called Watling-street, runs through it.

Northampton is distant from London sixty-six miles, and is an elegant town. This appears to have been an obscure place till after the Conquest. It has, however, sent members to parliament since the reign of Edward I. and, as it lies in the heart of the kingdom, several parliaments have been held here. In this town the barons began their rebellion against Henry III. who took it by assault, Northampton was formerly surrounded with walls, which were two miles in compass. Within were seven churches, and two without; of which only four remain. The largest, called All-hallows, stands in the centre of the town, at the meeting of four spacious streets. It has a stately por-

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tico, supported by eight lofty Ionic columns, with a statue of king Charles II. on the balustrade. Here is a sessions and assize house, which is a beautiful building, in the Corinthian style; with a market-place, so regular and spacious, as to be accounted one of the finest in Europe. On the west side of the town are still to be seen the remains of an old castle. Here is a county-jail, and three hospitals; with two bridge over the Nen; and in and about the town are great numbers of cherry-gardens.

Northampton has the most considerable horse-market in England. This town is a great thoroughfare, both to the north and west counties, from London, which contributes much to its wealth and populousness. The principal manufactures here are shoes and stockings, of which great quantities are exported. On a neighbouring down, called Pye-leys, are frequent horse-races.

At Guilsborough, north-west of Northampton, are to be seen the vestiges of a Roman camp, the situation of which is the more remarkable, as lying between the Nen and the Avon, the only pass from the north to the south parts of England not intercepted by any river. This camp was secured only by a single intrenchment, which was, however, very broad and deep.

Within half a mile of Northampton, stands one of the crosses erected by Edward I. in memory of his queen Eleanor, whose corpse was rested here in its way to Westminster; and at a small distance northward of this cross, several Roman coins have been dug up.

At Althrop, about four miles from Northampton, is a noble seat belonging to the family of Spencer, built by Robert earl of Sunderland, in the middle of a noble park, on the skirts of a beautiful down. This house is particularly remarkable for a magnificent gallery, furnished with curious paintings by the best masters; and for a noble piece of water, on which is a fine Venetian gondola.

Rothwell, or Rowell, stands at the distance of sixty-nine miles from London, on the side of a rocky hill, whence it is plentifully supplied with springs of pure water. The town is well-built, and has a fine market-house, consisting of a square edifice of ashler stone, adorned with the arms of most of the nobility and gentry of the county, carved under the cornish on the outside.

Kettering stands upon a small river that runs into the Nen, at the distance of seventy-two miles from London. It is a handsome, populous town, with a sessions-house for the county, a small hospital, and a charity-school for twenty girls, employed in spinning jerseys. The trade of this place is very considerable, almost two thousand hands being constantly occupied in the manufacture of shalloons, tabbies, and ferges.

At Oxendon, near Kettering, is a remarkable echo, formed by the tower of a church, which will repeat twelve or thirteen syllables very distinctly; and at Boughton, not far distant, is a petrifying well.

Among the many noble seats in this county, is the magnificent house at Boughton, within two miles

of this town, built by the first duke of Montagu, after the model of the palace of Versailles, ornamented with noble paintings, statues, fountains, canals, terraces, and a fine cascade and river.

Rockingham is situated on the river Welland, at the distance of eighty-three miles from London. Here is a charity-school for twelve boys; and upon a hill at a little distance, there formerly stood a castle, built by William the Conqueror. Rockingham Forest, in the time of the ancient Britons, extended almost from the Welland to the Nen, and was famous for its iron works.

Oundle is situated sixty-five miles from London. It is a neat uniform town, and is almost surrounded by the river Nen, over which it has two good stone bridges. One of these, called the North Bridge, is remarkable for the number of its arches, and a fine causeway leading to it. Here is a handsome church, with a free-school, and an alms-house, both founded by Sir William Laxton, lord-mayor of London, and supported by the Grocers company of that city. Here is also another alms-house, with two charity-schools.

Fotheringay Castle, near Oundle, is a very ancient building, where Richard III. was born, and Mary queen of Scots was beheaded.

Thrapston stands at the distance of sixty-five miles from London, in a pleasant valley, upon the river Nen, over which it has a fine bridge. The Nen having been made navigable to this town by act of parliament, boats now come hither.

Higham Ferrers stands on the east side of the Nen, at the distance of fifty-nine miles from London. It is a small, but pleasant town; and is a royal manor, part of the duchy of Lancaster. Here is a handsome church, with a lofty spire, a free-school, and an alms-house.

At Mill-Cotton, not far hence, are the remains of a Roman encampment, and in the neighbouring fields Roman coins and urns have been frequently dug up.

Wellingborough stands sixty-five miles from London, on the south side of a hill, about a quarter of a mile from the river Nen. It is a large, populous, trading town, and has a handsome church, with a charity-school for forty children, who are maintained, clothed, and taught to read and write. The chief trade of the town is in corn, but it has also a considerable manufacture of lace. This place is celebrated for medicinal waters.

At Chester, near Wellingborough, are traces of a Roman camp, of almost twenty acres, inclosed with a large stone wall. In the area have been found Roman pavements, coins, and other antiquities.

At Burleigh, on the confines of this county, about a mile from Stamford in Lincolnshire, the earl of Exeter has a magnificent seat, called Burleigh-house. It has the appearance rather of a town than a house: its towers and pinnacles look like those of churches; and a large spire covered with lead, in the centre, rises like that of a cathedral. It commands an extensive prospect, and is furnished with many excellent paintings.

This county, in the time of the Romans, was part of the territory inhabited by the Coritani, and under the Saxons it belonged to the kingdom of Mercia. Its principal manufactures are serges, tammies, shal-loons, boots and shoes. It sends to parliament nine members, viz. two for the county, two for the city of Peterborough, the same number for each of the boroughs of Northampton and Brackley, and one for Higham Ferrers.

#### BEDFORDSHIRE.

Bedfordshire is bounded on the west by Buckinghamshire and Northamptonshire, on the north by the latter of these counties and Huntingdonshire; on the east by Cambridgeshire, and on the south by Hertfordshire. It extends in length about twenty-two miles, and in breadth fifteen.

The principal river of this county is the Ouse or Ufe, which enters it on the west side, and passes through it eastward, by many meanders; dividing the county into two parts, of which that on the south is most considerable. This river is navigable the whole way; and in its course is joined by a small stream, called the Ivel, which runs through part of the county from north to south.

The air here is pure and healthful, and the soil in general a deep clay. On the north side of the Ouse the land is fruitful and woody; but on the south it is less fertile. It produces wheat and barley in great abundance. Wood is also much cultivated here, and many parts afford plenty of Fuller's earth.

Bedfordshire is situated in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Lincoln, and contains a hundred and twenty-four parishes. It is divided into nine hundreds, and comprises ten market-towns, but no city. Those towns are Amphill, Bedford, Biggleswade, Dunstable, Leighton-Baudisart, Luton, Potton, Shefford, Tuddington, and Woburn.

Bedford stands forty-eight miles from London, and is a well-built town, the streets in general being broad, especially the High-street. Here are five parish-churches, one free-school, one charity-school, an alms-house, and two hospitals. The town is intersected by the river Ouse, in the direction of east and west; and over the river is a stone bridge with two gates.

Offa, a powerful prince of the Mercians, made choice of this place for his interment. It is said that his tomb was of lead, and that a chapel was built over it; but the Ouse some time afterwards overflowing its banks, swept away both the chapel and tomb.

Bedford, having been destroyed by the Danes, was repaired in the beginning of the tenth century, by Edward the Elder, who also built a little town on the south side of the river, which was then called Mikegate.

Amphill is pleasantly situated between two hills, and has a charity-school, and an alms-house, well endowed by a private benefaction. At this place the

countess

countess of Pembroke built a feat, after a model designed by Sir Philip Sidney in his *Arcadia*.

Woburn stands forty-four miles from London. The town has a good market-house, a free-school, and a charity-school, but what chiefly distinguishes it, is the magnificent seat of the duke of Bedford, called Woburn Abbey, which stands upon a spot where an abbey had been erected by Hugh Bolebec, in the year 1145, for monks of the Cistercian order.

Leighton-Beaufort, or Layton-Buzzard, is distant from London thirty-six miles, and remarkable only for a fair on Whitsun-Tuesday, at which there is always great choice of horses for coaches, carts, and other carriages. Near this place are the remains of a Roman camp.

Tuddington lies at the same distance from London, and contains nothing worthy of note.

Dunstable, situated thirty-four miles from London, is a populous town, built on the spot where the two Roman ways, called Wadding-street and Ikenild street, cross each other. It stands on a chalky eminence, at the end of a long ridge of hills called the Chiltern. In this place no springs have ever been found, though sought for at the depth of a hundred and fifty foot. On this account the neighbourhood is supplied with water from four public ponds, intended as reservoirs for the rain: This place is a great thoroughfare to the northern and western counties.

About a mile hence, on the descent of the Chiltern hills, is a round fortification, supposed to have been a tower of the ancient Britons. It includes about nine acres: the rampart is moderately high, but there is no appearance of any ditch. This place is called Madning-bowere, Madin-bowere, or Maiden-bower, and coins of the Roman emperors are frequently found here. Camden supposes it to have been the Roman station which Antoninus in his Itinerary Magioninium, Magiovinium, and Magintum.

After Magintum was destroyed by war or time, another town was built by Henry I. where Dunstable now stands. In the middle of it stood one of the crosses which Edward I. erected to the memory of Eleanor his queen. Those crosses consisted of pillars adorned with statues.

Luton is pleasantly situated between two hills, twenty-nine miles from London. Here is a large market-house, and a considerable manufacture of straw hats.

Shefford lies forty-miles from London, between two rivulets, over each of which there is a bridge. In this town the parish of Compton has a chapel of ease.

Biggleswade, distant from London forty-five miles, is situated on the Ivel, which is here navigable, and crossed by a stone bridge. This town has two charity-schools, and lying in the high road between London and York, it has many good Inns.

In the time of the Romans, Bedfordshire was inhabited by the Cartieuciani. Its principal manufac-

tures are bone lace, and straw wares, particularly hats. It sends four members to parliament, viz. two for the county, and two for the borough of Bedford.

### HUNTINGTONSHIRE.

Huntingtonshire is bounded on the west and north by Northamptonshire, on the east by Cambridgeshire, and on the south by Bedfordshire. It is one of the smallest counties in England, measuring in length from north to south only twenty-four miles, and in breadth eighteen.

The chief rivers that pass through this county are the Ouse and Nen, which have been formerly described. The Nen here forms several large bodies of water, called by the inhabitants Meers. One of those meers or lakes, named Wittlesley-meer, not far from Peterborough, is six miles long and three broad. Other considerable meers formed by the same river, are Ug-meer, Brick-meer, Ramsey-meer, and Benwich-meer, whence the river Nen, continuing its course through Cambridgeshire and Lincolnshire, falls into the German ocean not far from Wisbich, in the county of Cambridge.

The air of Huntingtonshire is rendered less pure than that of some other counties, by the great number of fens, meers, and other stagnant waters with which it abounds, especially in the north part. But the soil in general is fruitful. In the higher lands it yields great crops of corn, as well as excellent pasture for sheep. And in the lower grounds, the meadows are exceeding rich, affording abundance of fine cattle, not only for slaughter, but for the dairy. The cheese made at a village called Stilton, near Yaxley, is styled the Parmesan of England. The inhabitants of this county are well supplied with fish and water-fowl, by the rivers and meers, but have hardly any firing except turf.

Huntingtonshire lies in the province of Canterbury and diocese of Lincoln, and contains seventy-nine parishes. It has no city, and only six market-towns, which are, Huntington, St. Ives, Kimbolton, St. Neot's, Ramsey, and Yaxley.

Yaxley, which is the first town that we meet on entering the county from Northamptonshire, is situated in the fens, at the distance of seventy-two miles from London. It is a neat little town, the houses in general being well built, and has a church, with a handsome and lofty spire.

Dornford, a village upon the Nen, north-west of this place, was the city of Durobrivæ, mentioned by Antoninus. Here are many vestiges of its ruins, and of a Roman port-way, which, near Hill-Stilton, appears with a very high bank, and in an old Saxon charter is called Ermin-street. At the place last mentioned it passes through the middle of a square fort, defended on the north by a wall, and on the south by ramparts of earth, near which several stone coffins have been dug up. Some antiquaries are of opinion

opinion that *Durobrivm* stood on both sides the river *Nen*, and that the little village *Caster*, upon the other side of the river, was part of this city. A great number of Roman coins has been dug up at this place.

*Ramsfey*, or *Rams-Isle*, is distant sixty-seven miles from London. It is every where encompassed with fens, except upon the west side, where it joins the terra firma by a causey two miles long, inclosed with elders, reeds, and bulrushes. This was formerly a place of great note, having been commonly called *Ramsfey the Rich*, before the dissolution of a wealthy abbey that stood here, the abbots of which were mired, and sat in parliament. Here is a charity-school for poor girls. The meers in the neighbourhood of this town abound with water-fowl and fish, particularly eels, and large pikes, called *sheds*; on which account the market at this place is one of the cheapest and most plentiful in England for such commodities.

Among the ruins of the ancient abbey, some part of the gate-house, with the tomb of *Ailwin*, the founder, is still standing. The tomb is decorated with a statue of him, which is thought to be the most ancient piece of English sculpture extant, and has the following remarkable inscription: "Hic requiescit *Ailwinus* inclyti regis *Edgari* cognatus, totius Angliæ aldermannus, & hujus sacri conobli miraculosus fundator." *Ailwin* is represented holding in his hand two keys and a ragged staff, as the ensigns of his office. In the year 1721, a great quantity of Roman coins was found here, supposed to have been hidden by the monks on some incurfions of the Danes.

Between *Ramsfey* and *Witlefey-meer* there is a ditch, sometimes called *Swerdes Delf*, and sometimes *Routs' Delf*, but most commonly *Steed'a Dyke*. It separates this county from *Cambridgeshire*, and is said to have been occasioned by the following accident. As *Canute's* family and retinue were passing over *Witlefey-meer*, in their way from *Peterborough* to *Ramsfey*, their vessel was shipwrecked in one of the commotions that frequently happen in those meers, and several lives were lost: upon which the king, to prevent the like disasters, ordered his army to mark out a ditch with their swords and spears, which gave occasion to the name of *Swerdes Delf*; and he afterwards employed labourers to accomplish the work.

*Huntington*, or *Huntingdon*, is distant from London fifty-seven miles, and stands on an eminence on the north side of the river *Ouse*, over which it has a stone bridge. This town had once fifteen churches, which in *Camden's* time were reduced to four, and it has now but two. The town consists chiefly of one long street tolerably well-built, and has a handsome market-place. Here is a good grammar-school. This is still a populous trading place, and is a thoroughfare in the great north road. *Huntington* is remarkable for having given birth to *Oliver Cromwell*, the usurper. At *Bugden*, not far from hence,

is a handsome house, called *Bugden-palace*, belonging to the bishop of *Lincoln*.

Near *Huntington* bridge there is a mount, and the ground-plot of a castle, built by *Edward* the Elder, in 917, and greatly enlarged by *David* king of *Scotland*, to whom *Stephen* resigned the borough of *Huntington*. This castle was demolished by *Henry II.* to put an end to the frequent quarrels that arose from a competition for the earldom of *Huntington*, between the Scottish kings and the family of *St. Liz*.

*Kimbolton* is situated at the distance of sixty-two miles from London, and is chiefly noted for a large ancient castle belonging to the duke of *Manchester*. This place is the *Clinnibontum* of the Romans.

*St. Neot's*, commonly called *St. Need's*, stands fifty-six miles from London, and is a large, well-built populous town. It has a handsome church with a remarkably fine steeple, and an excellent stone bridge over the *Ouse*, by which river coals are brought to it, and sold through the county. Here is a charity-school for twenty-five poor children.

*St. Yves* is fifty-seven miles distant from London, and stands upon the river *Ouse*, over which it has a fine stone bridge. In the ninth century this place had a mint, as appears from a Saxon coin found here, and was a flourishing town not many years ago, when great part of it was burnt. It was however rebuilt, and here is still a good market for fatted cattle, brought from the North.

At *Somertham*, a village about three miles north-east of this town, is a house called *Somertham-Place*, which was formerly a palace belonging to the bishop of *Ely*, and was given to that diocese by earl *Brithnot*, in the year 991. It is now a gentleman's seat.

*Huntingtonshire* is part of the district anciently inhabited by the *Iceeni*, who extended their dominions also over the counties of *Suffolk*, *Norfolk*, and *Cambridgeshire*. Under the Saxons, however, this county was separated from the tract formerly possessed by the *Iceeni*, and became part of the kingdom of *Mercia*.

The town of *Godmanchester*, which is separated from *Huntington* by the river *Ouse*, is supposed to be the *Durosponte*, a name signifying a bridge over the *Ouse*, which *Antoninus* in his Itinerary calls *Durosliponte*, by the mistake of a single letter.

In the time of the Saxons this town lost the British or Roman name, and acquired that of *Gorman-cester*, from a castle built here by *Gorman*, the Dane, to whom those parts were ceded, by the peace with king *Alfred*. From the Saxon appellation *Gorman-cester* the present name is immediately derived. The inhabitants of this town are remarkable for having improved the art of husbandry, and are said to hold their lands by a tenure, which obliges them, when any king of England passes that way, to attend him with their ploughs and horses, adorned with rustic trophies. They have boasted that upon some occasions, they presented a train, consisting of no less than nine score of ploughs. When king *James I.* passed through this town, on his journey from *Scotland*, the farmers of *Godmanchester* met him with

a cavalcade of seventy new ploughs, each drawn by a team of horses which so pleased the king that he incorporated them.

Near this place, in the road from London to Huntington, is a tree well known to travellers by the name of Beggar's Bush. On what account it received this name is uncertain; but we are told that king James I. being on a progress this way with his chancellor, lord Bacon, and hearing that the latter had lavishly rewarded a man for some mean present, told him "he would soon come to Beggar's Bush, as he should himself too, if they continued both so very bountiful." It is now a proverb common in the county, that when a man is observed to squander his fortune, he is in the way to Beggar's Bush.

This county is not remarkable for any manufacture, so that its trade consists chiefly of such commodities as are its natural productions. It sends to parliament only four members, viz. two for the shire, and two for the borough of Huntington.

#### CAMBRIDGESHIRE.

Cambridgeshire is bounded on the west by Huntingdonshire and Bedfordshire, on the north by Lincolnshire, on the east by Norfolk and Suffolk, and on the south by Hertfordshire and Essex. It extends in length from north to south forty miles, and in breadth about twenty-five.

The principal rivers are, the Ouse, already mentioned, and the Cam, which running through the middle of the county from south to north, falls into the former at Streatham-meer, near Thetford, by Ely. Besides these rivers there are many channels and drains; for almost all the waters from the middle of England, except what is discharged from the Thames and the Trent, fall into part of this county. The names of those different water-courses are, the Glene, the Welland, the Neane, the Grant, the Mildenhall, the Brandon, and the Stooke; besides the water called Moreton's Leam, which is now navigable from Peterborough to Wisbich.

A considerable tract of land in this county is distinguished by the name of the Isle of Ely. It consists of fenny ground, divided by innumerable channels and drains, being part of a very spacious level, containing three hundred thousand acres of land, and extending from this county into Norfolk, Suffolk, Huntingdonshire, Northamptonshire, and Lincolnshire. The Isle of Ely is the northern division of the county, and stretches southward almost as far as Cambridge. The whole level, of which this is a part, is bounded on one side by the sea, and on the other by uplands, which form a kind of rude semicircle, resembling a horse-shoe.

At what time this level began to be overflowed, it is impossible to determine; but the inundation appears to have continued to a very late period. Many applications were made to the government for cutting rivers and drains, which were as often at-

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tempted without success. In the reign of Charles I. Francis, earl of Bedford, agreed with the inhabitants of the deluged tract to drain the whole level, in consideration of receiving for his own use, ninety-five thousand acres of the land. The Earl admitted several other persons to be sharers with him in this work, in which after a hundred thousand pounds had been expended, the ground was still under water. The execution of the project was then undertaken by the king, who engaged to complete the work for sixty-nine thousand acres, and proceeded in the attempt, till the breaking out of the civil war. During those commotions the work was totally suspended; but in the year 1649, William, earl of Bedford, and the other adventurers who had been associated with Francis, resumed the undertaking upon the original contract for ninety-five thousand acres; and after having expended three hundred thousand pounds more, the work was completed. But the expence being much greater than the value of ninety-five thousand acres, many of the adventurers were ruined by the project. The sanction of the legislature, besides, was necessary to confirm the agreement, and invest the contractors with such rights and powers as might enable them to secure the advantages which they had obtained. Upon application therefore to Charles II. he recommended the matter to parliament, and in the fifteenth year of his reign, an act was passed, entitled an Act for settling the drains of the great level called (from the first private contractor) Bedford Level. By this act the proprietors were incorporated by the name of the governor, bailiffs, and commonalty, of the company of the Conservators of the great level of the Fens. The corporation consists of one governor, six bailiffs, and twenty conservators. The governor and one bailiff, or two bailiffs without the governor, and three conservators, make a quorum. They are empowered to lay taxes on the ninety-five thousand acres, and to levy them with penalties for non-payment, by sale of a sufficient part of the land of which the tax and penalty are due. By this act the whole ninety-five thousand acres were not vested in the corporation. The king reserved twelve thousand acres to himself; ten thousand of which he assigned to his brother, the duké of York, and two thousand to the duke of Portland.

In the Isle of Ely the air is damp and unwholesome, but in the south-east parts of the county it is more salubrious. The soil is also very different: in the Isle of Ely it is hollow and spongy, yet affords excellent pasturage; in the uplands to the south-east, it produces great plenty of bread corn and barley. The dry and barren parts have been much improved by sowing the grass called *saint foïn*.

The principal commodities of Cambridgeshire are corn, malt, cattle, butter, saffron, coleseed, hemp, fish, and wild fowl. The wild fowl are taken in decoys, into which they are led by tame ducks that are trained for the purpose. In the Isle of Ely there is such plenty of those birds, that three thousand couples are said to be sent to London every week; and

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there

there is one decoy near Ely, which lets for five hundred pounds a year.

Cambridgeshire lies in the province of Canterbury and diocese of Ely, except a small part which is in the diocese of Norwich, and contains a hundred and sixty-three parishes. It is divided into seventeen hundreds, and includes one city, and eight market-towns, one of which, Cambridge, is a borough and university. The city is Ely; and the market-towns are Cambridge, Caxton, Lynton, Merst, Newmarket, Roydon, Soham, and Wisbich.

The city of Ely is situated in that part of the county called the Isle of Ely, and is sixty-nine miles distant from London. It is governed by the bishop, who has not only the ecclesiastical, but the civil jurisdiction, and though a city, it is not represented in parliament; two particulars in which it differs from every other city in the kingdom. It stands on a rising-ground, but being in the midst of fenny lands, and surrounded with water, is reckoned an unhealthy place. It is of great antiquity, but neither beautiful nor populous. The principal street, which is on the east side of the town, is full of springs, and at the distance of almost every hundred yards there are wells, which, though they are inclosed at the top with a wall about two feet high, yet generally overflow, and form a stream from one to the other, that is continually trickling down the hill. The principal buildings are the cathedral and the episcopal palace. The former is four hundred feet long, and has a tower at the west end about two hundred feet in height. It has also a stately cupola, which is seen at a great distance, and has a fine effect, though it seems to totter with every blast of wind. Here is a free-school for the maintenance and education of forty-two boys, besides two charity schools supported by voluntary subscription. The environs of the city are gardeners grounds, which produce so great a quantity of vegetables as supplies the whole county to Cambridge; and those commodities are sent even to St. Ives, in Huntingdonshire.

The sovereignty of Ely was settled upon the bishop by Henry I. who also made Cambridgeshire his diocese, which before was part of the diocese of Lincoln. From this time the bishop appointed a judge, to determine in all causes, whether civil or criminal, that should arise within his isle, till the time of Henry VIII. who abolished this privilege.

Cambridge, the county-town, is situated on the river Cam, at the distance of fifty-two miles from London. It is divided into two parts by the river, over which is a stone bridge. The town lying low, and the adjacent country being moist, the air is not reputed to be very healthful. The former is also dirty and ill built, but has fourteen parish-churches. In the market-place there is a public conduit which was built by Hobson the carrier, who in the reign of James I. acquired a great estate. A building called the shire-house was erected some years ago at the expence of the county. Here are two charity-

schools, in which three hundred children are taught, and fifty clothed.

The University of Cambridge consists of sixteen colleges, four of which are distinguished by the name of halls, though the privileges of both are in every respect equal. It is a corporation consisting of about fifteen hundred persons, and is governed by a chancellor, a high steward, two proctors, and two taxers, each of whom is chosen by the University. The chancellor is always a peer of the realm, and generally continues in his office for life, by the tacit consent of the University, though a new choice may be made every three years. He has not, however, the power of appointing his substitute, who is nominated by the University every year, and is always the head of some college. The high steward is chosen by the senate, and holds his place by patent from the University. The proctors and taxers are also chosen every year, from the several colleges and halls by turns.

The public schools, of which there is one for every college, are in a building of brick and rough stone, erected on the four sides of a quadrangular court. Every college has also its particular library, in which, except that of King's college, the scholars are not obliged to study, as in the libraries of Oxford, but may borrow the books and peruse them in their chambers. Besides the particular libraries of the several colleges, there is the University library, which contains the collections of the archbishops Parker, Grindal, and Bancroft; and of Dr. Thomas Moore, bishop of Ely, consisting of thirty thousand volumes, which was purchased for seven thousand pounds, and presented to the University by king George I. in the year 1715.

Each college has also its particular chapel, where the masters, fellows, and scholars meet every morning and evening, for public worship; though on Sundays and holidays, when there is a sermon, they attend at St. Mary's church.

The names of the colleges are Peter-house, Clare hall, Pembroke hall, Corpus-Christi or Benedict college, Trinity hall, Gonvil and Caius college, King's college, Queen's college, Catharine hall, Jesus college, Christ's college, St John's college, Magdalen college, Trinity college, Emanuel college, and Sidney-Sussex college.

Peter-house is a large quadrangular building, well contrived, and adorned with porticoes, and has a master, twenty-two fellows, and forty-two scholars.

Clare hall is one of the neatest and most uniform structures in the university. It is a square building three stories high, erected of free-stone, in the Doric order. The court is entered by a lofty gate-house, adorned with two rows of pillars. Contiguous to the college is another building, the upper story of which is the library, and the lower the chapel. To this college belongs a meadow on the other side of the river, which communicates with it by a bridge. It has a master, eighteen fellows, and sixty-three scholars.



Pembroke hall has nothing remarkable in its building. It has a master, five fellows, and thirteen scholars.

Corpus Christi, or Benedict college, is an oblong square of buildings, containing two courts, and two rows of lodgings. It has a chapel and library under the same roof; and maintains a master, twelve fellows, and forty scholars.

Trinity-hall is an irregular building, but has commodious lodgings for the master and fellows, with pleasant gardens inclosed by brick walls. It maintains twelve fellows, and fourteen scholars.

Gonvil and Calus college has twenty-six fellows, and seventy-four scholars.

King's college is an unfinished pile; yet the chapel, though built by parts, at different and distant times, is extremely superb. It is three hundred and four foot long, seventy-three broad, and ninety-four high on the outside. It has no pillar within to support the roof, which, as well as the sides, is of free-stone. The choir is adorned with excellent carving, and the windows are very curiously painted. This college maintains a master, fifty fellows, and twenty scholars.

Catharine hall maintains a master, six fellows, and thirty scholars.

Jesus college has a master, sixteen fellows, and thirty-one scholars.

Christ's college is adorned with a fine new building, and maintains a master, fifteen fellows, and fifty scholars.

St. John's college is a large edifice, consisting of three courts, and has a master, fifty-four fellows, and a hundred scholars.

Magdalen college stands opposite to the above-mentioned, on the other side of the river. It maintains a master, thirteen fellows, and thirty scholars.

Trinity college consists of two spacious courts, in one of which has lately been erected a library of free-stone, supported by two rows of pillars, and much admired for the elegance of its structure. This college has sixty-five fellows, and ninety-one scholars.

Emanuel college has a very neat chapel, built chiefly by the bounty of archbishop Sancroft; and maintains a master, fourteen fellows, and sixty scholars.

Sidney-Suffex college has a master, twelve fellows, and twenty-eight scholars.

The total number of fellows in this university is four hundred and six, and of scholars, six hundred and sixty; besides whom there are two hundred and thirty-six inferior officers and servants, who are maintained upon the foundation.

The scholars above mentioned, however, are not all the students in the university. There are two classes of students called pensioners, the greater and the less. The former generally consists of the young nobility, who are called fellow-commoners, because, though scholars; they dine with the fellows. The students of the other class diet with the scholars, but both live at their own expence. There is also a considerable number of poor scholars, called sizars, who

wait upon the fellows and scholars, as well as on the pensioners of both ranks, by whom they are in a great measure maintained; but the number of those pensioners and sizars, at different times, is extremely variable.

Though fabulous narratives ascribe the origin of this university to a very remote period, its authentic history ascends no higher than the reign of Henry I. who succeeded William Rufus in the year 1100. About this time the monastery of Crowland or Croyland, in Lincolnshire, being consumed by fire, Jostred or Geoffrey, the abbot, who was possessed of the manor of Catenham, near Cambridge, sent thither Gislebert, his professor of divinity, and three other monks. The latter being skilled in philosophy and the sciences, hired at Cambridge a barn, in which they daily read lectures. A number of scholars soon assembled, which in less than two years became so great, that no single house being large enough to contain them, inns and halls were built for their accommodation, and the students were distinguished into classes, to which different masters were appropriated. The society still increasing, it at length obtained the name of a university; but at what precise period this happened, appears to be uncertain. The first college, however, was founded in 1257, by Hugh Balfham, then prior of Ely, and afterwards bishop of that diocese; from which time other colleges were successively erected and endowed, till the university attained its present state of perfection.

Cambridge is supposed to have risen out of the ancient Camboritum, or Grantchester. It was a fortified town in the time of the Saxons; but afterwards being seized by the Danes, they kept here a garrison till the year 921, when they were expelled by Edward the Elder. Towards the end of the eleventh century William the Conqueror built at this place a castle, which is said to have been a strong and stately building. Some traces of it are still to be seen, and the gate, which remains entire, is at present the county jail. In the reign of William Rufus, the town was burnt by Roger de Montgomery, in revenge of a supposed injury he had received from the king; but it was rebuilt by Henry I. who made it a corporation. During the barons wars it was often ravaged by outlaws, who took refuge in the Isle of Ely. About the year 1219, however, Henry III. secured it against those incursions, by a deep trench, which was called in Camden's time the King's Ditch; but houses having been since built on both sides of it, that name has at length been forgotten.

At Arbury, or Arborough, about a mile north of Cambridge, are the remains of a Roman camp, of considerable extent, in which have been found many Roman coins, particularly one of silver, with the head of Rome on one side, and on the other, Castor and Pollux on horseback.

Over against Arborough, to the south-east of Cambridge, and at a small distance from it, are Gogmagog-hills, on the top of which is an intrenchment,

ment, of a rude circular figure, two hundred and forty-six paces in diameter. It is fortified with three rampires, and two intervening ditches. Some have imagined this camp to be Roman, some a retreat of the Danes, and others, a strong hold of the ancient Britons.

Caxton stands at the distance of fifty-five miles from London, and is a small town, remarkable for nothing else but being the birth-place of William Caxton, the first printer in England, who died in the year 1486.

Royston has been already mentioned in the account of Hertfordshire.

Linton is a little obscure place, situated fifty-six miles from London.

Newmarket is situated sixty miles from London, partly in Cambridgeshire, and partly in the county of Suffolk, the south side being in the former, and the north side in the latter. Notwithstanding its name, it is of considerable antiquity, and consists chiefly of one street, which is long and well built. Here are two churches, one on the Cambridge side, which is a chapel of ease to Ditton, a neighbouring parish, and one on the Suffolk side, which is parochial.

The air of this place is very healthy; and the heath which surrounds the town is remarkable for the finest course in England, where there are horse-races in April and October every year.

Soham is a small town, situated sixty-eight miles from London, on the east side of the river Cam, and near a fen which lies in the road to Ely. This was once a very dangerous pass, but a good causeway is now made through it. The town has a charity-school for almost a hundred children. Here are the ruins of a church, which the Danes burnt with the inhabitants, whom they forced into it before they set it on fire.

Merth lies sixty-seven miles from London, and has a church that belongs to the neighbouring parish of Dodington.

Wisbech is distant from London eighty-eight miles. It stands among the fens and rivers in the Isle of Ely, but is a populous, well-built town, and has a good public hall, with an episcopal palace, belonging to the bishop of Ely. It has a navigation by barges to London, with which it maintains a considerable trade, particularly in oats, oil, and butter.

In this county there are several wide, deep, and long ditches, which were cut by the East Angles, to keep out the Mercians. The first, called Flemish-dyke, begins at Hinkston, or Hinxtun, not far to the south-west of Linton, and runs eastward by Hilderham, to Horseheath, at the distance of above five miles. The second, called Brant-ditch, runs from Milbourne, on the north side of Royston, by Fulmer. The third, called Seven-mile-dyke, because it stands seven miles from Newmarket, is situated at the end of a causeway three miles long, which was thrown up by Henry Harvey, doctor of laws, master of Trinity-Hall, leading from Stourbridge-fair to Newmarket. This dyke begins on the east

side of the river Cam, and runs in a straight line as far as Balsam. Five miles to the east, and one mile and a half distant from Newmarket, is a fourth ditch, which being a stupendous work, has obtained the name of Devil's-dyke, the common people supposing it to be more adequate to the power of spirits than of men. It begins at Rech, and running many miles over Newmarket-heath, ends near Cowledge. Some have imagined the Seven-mile-dyke, or Devil's Dyke, to be the work of Canute the Dane; but the Devil's dyke is mentioned by Abbo Floriacensis, a historian who died in the tenth century, and Canute did not begin his reign till the commencement of the eleventh. In ancient times they were called St. Edmund's ditches, and were probably the work of St. Edmund, king of the East Angles.

Cambridgeshire is one of the counties anciently inhabited by the Iceni; and under the Saxon Heptarchy it was included in the kingdom of the East Angles. The principal manufactures of this county are paper, and wicker ware. It sends to parliament six members, viz. two knights of the shire, two representatives for Cambridge, and two for the university.

#### C H A P. X.

##### *Suffolk, Norfolk, and Rutlandshire.*

**S**UFFOLK is bounded on the west by Cambridgeshire, on the north by the rivers Ouse the Lefs, and Waveney, which separate it from Norfolk; on the east by the German ocean; and on the south by the river Stour, which divides it from Essex. It extends in length from east to west forty-eight miles, and in breadth twenty-four.

This county is well watered with several rivers, the principal of which are Ouse the Lefs, the Waveney, the Stour, the Deben, the Orwel, the Ald, and the Blith. The first of these rivers rises in this county, and separating it from Norfolk on the south-west, falls into the Greater Ouse, near Downham, a market-town in the latter. The Waveney rises also in Suffolk, and runs north-east, where, parting this county from Norfolk, it falls into the Yare near Yarmouth. The Deben rises near Mendlesham, a market-town, whence running south-east, and passing by Debenham and Woodbridge, it discharges itself into the German sea, eleven miles south of the latter. The river Orwel, or Gipping, has likewise its source not far from Mendlesham; running south-east, almost parallel to the Deben, it passes by Ipswich, to which it is navigable by great ships, whence at the distance of ten miles, it falls into the German ocean, with the Stour, both rivers forming one large mouth or Estuary. The Orwel does not flow much higher than Ipswich, but there the tide generally rises twelve foot, though at low water the harbour is almost dry. The river Ald rises near Framlingham,

ham, whence running south-east, and passing by Aldborough and Orford, it falls into the German sea a few miles from the latter. The Blith takes its source near Haleworth, and running almost directly east, discharges itself into the German ocean at Southwold.

Other less considerable rivers of this county are the Ore, the Berdon, and the Bourn or Lark.

The air of Suffolk is pure, pleasant, and healthy, and the soil is different in different parts of the county. Those that lie towards the sea are sandy and full of heaths, but yield abundance of rye, peas, and hemp, and feed vast flocks of sheep. The middle part of the county, which is called High Suffolk, or the Woodlands, consists chiefly of a rich, deep clay and marl, and produces wood and good pasture. The parts bordering on Essex and Cambridge likewise afford excellent pasture, and abound with corn, all except a small tract towards Newmarket, in Cambridgeshire, which is for the most part a green heath.

The milk of this county is reckoned the best in England; and its butter, of which great quantities are sent to all parts of the kingdom, is also much esteemed.

It is observed that more Turkeys are bred in Suffolk and that part of Norfolk which borders upon it, than in all the rest of England; London and the adjacent counties being chiefly supplied hence with this article.

Fuel is here in great plenty; High Suffolk affording wood in abundance, and Low Suffolk, or that part of the county which runs along the sea side, being constantly supplied with coals from Newcastle.

The most general division of this county is into two parts; the first called the Franchise, or Liberty of St. Edmund, comprehends the western part of the county; the second, called the Guildable Land, containing the eastern. Each part furnishes a distinct grand jury at the county assizes. There are two other general divisions of this county into High Suffolk and Low Suffolk, and it is farther divided into twenty-two hundreds. It lies in the province of Canterbury and diocese of Norwich, and contains five hundred and seventy-five parishes. It has no city, but comprises twenty-eight market-towns, which are, Aldborough, Beccles, Bileston, Buddesdale, Bungay, Bury St. Edmund's, Clare, Dabenhams, Dunwich, Eye, Framlingham, Madley, Haleworth, Haveril, Ipswich, Ixworth, Lavenham, Leostoff, Mendlesham, Mildenhall, Needham, Nayland, Orford, Saxmundham, Southwold, Stowmarket, Sudbury, and Woodbridge.

The first town on our route from Cambridge is Mildenhall, a large, populous place, situated on the river Lark, sixty-eight miles from London. The streets are spacious and well-built. Here is a handsome church, with a lofty steeple, and a good harbour for boats.

Clare stands upon the river Stour, at the distance of sixty-one miles from London, and is a little dirty town, with a fine church, and a manufacture of toys.

No. 35.

Bury St. Edmund's, commonly called Bury, was originally named St. Edmund's Burgh, from an abbey founded here in honour of St. Edmund, king of the East Angles, who was not only crowned, but buried in this place, after being martyred by the Danes about the year 1018. This town is situated seventy-five miles from London, upon the west side of the river Bourn or Lark, which, by an act of parliament in 1701, was made navigable from Lynnh in Norfolk, to Farnham, about a mile from this place. It is encompassed with walls, three miles in circumference, and has five gates. The streets, of which there is a great number, are spacious and well-paved, and generally intersect each other at right angles. Here are two good parish-churches in the same church-yard; one dedicated to St. Mary, and the other to St. James. The former was built in the year 1005, and rebuilt in 1430; the latter was begun in 1500, but was not quite finished till the Reformation. Both these churches are remarkable for their symmetry, beautiful large windows, neat columns, and noble roofs. Here is a guildhall, a woolhall, a shire-house, an assembly room, and an hospital, or workhouse, for thirty boys, which was a synagogue of the Jews; till they were expelled the kingdom in 1179. Here is also a grammar school, founded by Edward VI. and three charity-schools, one for forty boys, and the other two for fifty girls.

From its beautiful and healthy situation, this place is called the Montpellier of England. It is much frequented by the nobility and gentry of the county, and has annually three fairs, one of which is perhaps the greatest in England. It begins on St. Matthew's day, and lasts a fortnight; during which time all kinds of public diversions are exhibited. In the middle of the market-place is a fine cross, with a lantern and clock. Spinning is almost the only manufacture in this town.

St. Edmund's Bury is generally believed to have been the Villa Faustina mentioned by Antoninus. Here was a mint in the reigns of Edward I. and II. as well as in that of John; and this place has been famous for several parliaments or conventions of the states. Before the dissolution of the monasteries, this town had a magnificent abbey, of which the gate, that forms at present one of the entries to the town, is a noble monument.

Sudbury is situated fifty-four miles from London, upon the bank of the river Stour, by which it is almost surrounded. The buildings in general are good, but the streets not being paved, are dirty in winter. Here are three handsome large churches, with a good bridge over the river; and the town carries on a considerable trade in perpetuans, styes, and ferges.

Lavenham, or Lanham, is distant from London sixty-one miles, and is a large town, situated on a branch of the river Berdon. It consists of nine streets, and in the middle of the town is a church, reckoned the finest in the county. It was rebuilt in the time of Henry VI. and has a steeple a hundred

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dred, and thirty-seven foot high. The roof of the church is curiously carved, and the windows beautifully painted. Here are two pews, one belonging to the family of the earl of Oxford, and the other to that of the Springs, in this county, which are perhaps superior in workmanship to any of the pews in Henry VIII's chapel at Westminster; and here is a statue in brass of Mr. Thomas Spring, who gave two hundred pounds towards rebuilding the church. The town has a free-school, a bridewell, part of which is a workhouse, where the poor of the parish are employed in spinning hemp, flax, and yarn. Here is a woolhall, whence many hundred loads of wool are sent to London every year. This place was formerly famous for a trade in blue cloths; and here are still considerable manufactures of serges, shalloons, says, stuffs, and fine yarn. The tenure of land called Borough English, still obtains at this place.

Nayland is situated on the bank of the river Stour, at the distance of fifty-four miles from London. It had once a good trade in broad cloths for Russia, Turkey, and other parts; but this has declined for many years, and here are yet some considerable traders.

Hadley is distant from London sixty-four miles, and was formerly a corporation; but a writ of *quo warranto*, having been issued against its charter in the reign of James II. it has not been renewed. The houses in this town are not ill-built; but the situation being low, the streets are generally dirty. Here is a handsome church, with a spire. The place has a considerable manufacture of woollen cloths and trades much in corn. Bildeston, or Bilston, lies sixty-three miles from London. The streets are dirty, and the buildings mean; but here is a good church, and a large woollen manufactory. Brethenham, a little north of this place, is supposed by Camden to be the Combeconsum mentioned by Antoninus.

Ixworth is situated seventy-three miles from London, in the road to Yarmouth, but contains nothing worthy of note. Wulpit, which lies southward of it, is supposed to have been the ancient Sitomagus. Here are large deep trenches, which appear to have been the work of the Romans.

Stow-market stands upon the river Orwell, fourteen miles east of Bury St. Edmund's. It is a large town, and has a spacious beautiful church, with a fine steeple. Here are several good inns, with a charity-school, and a manufacture of stammies, and other Norwich stuffs.

Needham is also situated on the bank of the Orwell, at the distance of seventy-five miles from London. At once had a good trade in broad cloths for Russia, Turkey, and other parts; but this it has lost many years, though it still has some considerable dealers. South-west of this place is a village called Offton, which in the Saxon language, signified the town of Offa. And here are the ruins of an old castle, said to have been built by Offa, king of Mercia.

The manor of Hemington, south-east of Needham,

was held in serjeanty by Baldwin de Petteur, whose name, according to Camden, alludes to the tenure, which obliged him every Christmas-day, to exhibit in the royal presence a *faltus*, a *sufflatus*, and a *humulus*, or as it is called by other writers, a *faltur*, a *sufflus*, and a *pettus*; in plain English, to cut a caper, to puff with his cheeks, and to break wind. Such was the coarse and indelicate jollity of those times.

Mandleham is distant from London seventy-six miles, and is a mean dirty town, but has a handsome church.

Bottefdale, or Buddefdale, is situated on the borders of Norfolk, at the distance of eighty-one miles from London, in the road to Yarmouth. It is a fragging dirty town, with a free-school, founded in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, by Sir Nicholas Bacon, and endowed with several scholarships for students at Cambridge.

Eye is distant from London ninety-two miles, and is almost surrounded by a brook. The buildings are mean, and the streets dirty; but here is a large handsome church, and a charity-school. The chief manufactures of this town are bone-lee.

Debenham stands on the river Deben eighty-two miles from London. The houses in general are meanly built, but being situated on a rising ground, the streets are clean. Here is a good church, with a market-place, and a charity-school; but on account of the roads being extremely bad, the town is little frequented.

Ipswich is situated on the north bank of the river Orwell, or Gipping, at the distance of sixty-eight miles from London. It is a large populous town, and the houses in general are built after the ancient fashion. It formerly had twenty-one parish-churches, which are now reduced to twelve; but there are two chapels in the corporation liberty, besides meeting-houses. Here is a free-school, with a good library, and three charity-schools, in two of which are seventy boys, and in the third forty girls. Here is also a workhouse and two hospitals, one for lunatics, called Christ's Hospital, and the other for poor old men and women, exclusive of several alms-houses and a charitable foundation for the relief of the widows and orphans of poor clergymen. This town has a shive-hall for the county sessions. In one part of an ancient monastery are held the quarter-sessions for the Ipswich division; and another part of the same monastery is converted to a jail. Here is a town-hall, a council-chamber, and a large market-place, with a handsome cross in the centre. In this area are commodious shambles, built at the expense of cardinal Wolsey, who was a butcher's son in this town. The cardinal also began a college here, which, though he did not finish, still bears his name.

This town has a stone-bridge over the river, with a convenient quay, and a custom-house, but the harbour was formerly much more commodious than at present; on which account, the number of ships belonging to this place, as well as its trade by sea, has of late years much declined. A great quantity

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of corn, however, is exported hence to London, and Holland; and the town has also a considerable trade to Greenland. The principal manufactures are linen and woollen clot. Here is a greater number of gentry than in any other town in Suffolk, except that of Bury St. Edmund's; and Ipswich is reckoned one of the best places in England for families that have but small incomes, because of easy house-rent, good company, and plenty of all sorts of provisions.

Woodbridge stands upon the west bank of the Deban, at the distance of seventy-five miles from London. It is about a mile and a half in circumference; the chief streets are well-built and paved, but the others are dirty, and the houses old and low. It has a fine church, with a steeple, a good grammar-school, and an alms-house. Here is a market-place, in the middle of which stands a handsome shire-hall, where the quarter-sessions are held for a district of this county, called the Liberty of St. Ethelred and Audrey; and under the shire-hall is a corn cross. The river is navigable here by ships of considerable burden; and the town has four or five docks for building ships, with commodious quays and warehouses. It carries on a good trade to London, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, and Holland, in butter, cheese, salt, and plank; and the Woodbridge Pinks and Hoys go to and from London every week.

Randleham, north-east of Woodbridge, was a royal seat in the Saxon times; and here Redwald, king of the East Angles, is said to have kept his court.

Framlingham is situated at the distance of eighty-six miles from London. Though indifferently built, it is pleasantly situated upon a clay hill, in a fruitful soil and a healthy air. Here is a large stately church, built of black flint, with a steeple upwards of a hundred foot high, and a free-school, besides two hospitals. Here is also a very handsome and spacious market-place.

It is universally agreed that Framlingham is a town of British original; which was conquered by the Romans, after the defeat of Boadicea. Here are still to be seen noble remains of a castle, supposed to have been built by some king of the East Angles. It has been a large beautiful fabrick, and very strong. The walls are yet standing, and are forty-four foot high, and eight thick. They support thirteen towers, each of which is fourteen foot high above the walls; and two of them are watch towers. The area inclosed by the walls of this castle contains above an acre, and a rood of land.

Bungay is situated a hundred and one miles from London, upon the river Waveney, by which it is almost surrounded. It is a large, handsome town; the houses in general are well-built, but the streets, for the most part, unpaved. Here are two parish-churches, one of which is a good structure, with a beautiful steeple. Here is also a grammar-school, endowed with ten scholarships for Emanuel college in Cambridge. This town has a good market-place, with a bridge over the Waveney, and is much frequented by people from Norfolk.

Here are still to be seen the ruins of a very strong

castle, built by the family of the Bigods, earls of Norfolk, before the reign of king Stephen; and at Mettingham, not far distant, are the remains of a castle built by sir John de Norwich, who died about the beginning of the reign of Richard II.

Beeles stands upon the river Waveney, at the distance of a hundred and seven miles from London. It is a large, populous town, and the streets are well-paved, but the buildings are mean, and many of them thatched. Here is a good church, and two free-schools, well endowed, one of which is a grammar-school, with ten scholarships for Emanuel college in Cambridge. Belonging to this town is a common, which contains no less than a thousand acres of land.

Leostoff is distant from London a hundred and thirteen miles, and is a little straggling town, situated on a rock, which hangs over the sea. This place having been part of the ancient demesnes of the crown, has a charter, by which the inhabitants are exempted from serving on juries, either at sessions or assizes. About a mile westward is a church, and in the town a chapel, for the ease of the inhabitants, whose chief business is fishing for cod in the North Sea, and for herring, mackerel, and sprats at home.

Haleworth lies ninety-seven miles from London, and is an ancient, populous town, with a neat church; and a charity-school. Its market is famous for vast quantities of linen-yarn, which is spun in the town and neighbourhood.

Southwold is distant from London a hundred and five miles, and is situated upon a peninsula, formed by the river Blith upon the west, and the sea upon the east and south. It is a pleasant, populous town, strong by its situation, and fortified by a few pieces of cannon. It has a large, strong-built church, and a draw-bridge over the river. There is a great resort of mariners to this town, and it carries on a considerable trade in salt, old beer, herrings, and sprats. On the east side of the town is a bay, called Solebay, that affords good anchorage, and is sheltered by a promontory about two miles farther south, called Easton-Nefs. On the south side of Easton-Nefs is an excellent harbour, which, in the Dutch war, was the place of rendezvous for our fleets.

Dunwich is situated on the coast of the German ocean, at the distance of ninety-five miles from London, and is the oldest town in the county, having been an episcopal see in the year 630. Here are said to have been fifty-two churches and monasteries; but all the churches have been swallowed up by the sea, except one, dedicated to All Saints. At present this is a poor place, consisting only of a few wretched cottages. It has a charity-school, and an hospital, for a master and five poor persons. Sprats are cured here in the same manner as herrings at Yarmouth in Norfolk. From several coins that have been found at Dunwich, it is supposed to have been a Roman station.

Saxmundham, or Saxlingham, is distant from London eighty-six miles, and is an obscure dirty town, that contains nothing worthy of note.

Aidborough stands eighty-eight miles from London, on the bank of the Ald, and is pleasantly situated in a peninsula,

peninsula, called Slaughden Valley, formed by the river on the west side, and the sea on the east and south. It consists chiefly of two streets, near a mile long, running parallel to each other; the sea having some years since swallowed up a third street, which ran parallel to the other two. The streets are clean, but the buildings in general have the marks of poverty. There is, however, a handsome church, upon a hill westward of the town; and on the river Ald a good quay, with warehouses. The harbour is defended by several pieces of cannon, and a considerable trade is maintained in fish, particularly sprats, soles, and lobsters. There is hence a great export of corn, and a trade to Newcastle-upon-Tyne for coals.

Orford is situated eighty eight miles from London, and derives its name from a ford over the river Ore, near the mouth of which it stands. It was once a large, populous town, with a castle, of which there yet remain some towers, which serve as land-marks to vessels at sea. Here is a church; and on a promontory, called Orfordness, not far from the town, is a light-house, for the direction of seamen sailing near the coast. This promontory affords great shelter to ships, when a north-east wind blows hard upon the shore. Orford had formerly a good harbour, but the sea having withdrawn from it many years, the place has proportionably declined.

In the time of the Romans, this county was part of the territory inhabited by the Icenii; and from the similitude of the names of several villages in Suffolk to the name Icenii, Camden conjectures this to have been the district in which that people chiefly resided.

The villages which are supposed to retain the name of the Icenii are, Icklingham, south-west of Mildenhall; Ickworth, about two miles from Bury St. Edmunds; and Icking, near Newmarket, upon the borders of Cambridgeshire. The antiquity of Icklingham appears by many Roman coins that have been dug up in or near the place; and a large pot of Roman coins were found at Ickworth, not many years ago. Under the Saxons, this county became part of the kingdom of the East Angles.

Burgh castle, upon the Waveney, near Yarmouth in Norfolk, was a fortification erected by the Romans, to guard the coast against the Saxon pirates, and is supposed to have been the Garianonum, where the Steblarian horse had their station. Of this castle, or fort, there are yet very considerable remains. The eastern wall continues in its original length, which is six hundred and sixty foot, and at the height of seventeen or eighteen foot. On the outside of this wall are four round solid towers, each about fourteen foot diameter, and of equal height with the wall. They are joined to the wall, but in such a manner, that only a small part of the periphery is within it. The remains of the southern wall are three hundred and sixty foot in length, and those on the north side are about the same extent, but the western wall is totally demolished. The materials of those walls and towers are flints, with Roman and British bricks, each of which are a foot and a half long, and almost a foot broad.

The principal manufactures of Suffolk are woollen and linen cloths. It sends sixteen members to parliament, viz. two for the county, and two for each of the following towns, viz. Ipswich, Dunwich, Orford, Aldborough, Sudbury, Eye, and St. Edmund's Bury.

## N O R F O L K.

Norfolk is bounded on the south by Suffolk, on the west by Cambridgeshire, and on the north and east by the German Ocean; and it is fifty-seven miles in length from east to west, and about thirty-five in breadth.

The principal rivers of this county are the Greater and the Smaller Ouse, the Yare, and the Waveney. The first two, as well as the last of those rivers, have been already described. The Yare rises about the middle of this county, and running eastward, discharges itself into the German sea at Yarmouth.

The air of Norfolk, near the sea-coast, is equith, and otherwise unsalutary; but in the inland parts it is healthy and pleasant, though frequently piercing. The soil is remarkably various, comprehending arable, pasture, meadow, woodlands, light sandy-ground, deep clays, heaths, and fens. The work of those, however, are not unprofitable: the sandy heaths feed sheep and rabbits, and even the fens afford rich pasture for cattle.

The natural productions of this county are corn, cattle, wool, rabbits, honey, saffron, herrings, and other sea-fish in great abundance; and in the Yare is caught a delicious fish, called the ruffe, peculiar to this river. Jet and ambergris are sometimes found on the coasts of this county.

Norfolk lies in the province of Canterbury and diocese of Norwich, and includes six hundred and sixty parishes. It is divided into thirty-one hundreds, and contains one city and thirty-two market-towns. The city is Norwich, and the market-towns are, Alesham, Attleborough, Buchanam-New, Burnham, Castle-rising, Causton, Clay, Cromer, Dereham-East, Disse, Downham, Fakenham, Foulham, Harleston, Harling-East, Hickling, Hingham, Holt, Loddos, Lynn-Regis, Methwold, Raseham, Seoby, Snettisham, Swaffham, Thetford, Walsham, Walsingham, Watton, Wendham, Wursted, and Yarmouth.

Norwich is distant from London a hundred and eight miles. It stands upon the side of a hill, and is reckoned to be six miles in compass; but a great part of this extent is occupied by gardens, which are intermixed with the houses. The buildings are generally irregular, but neat and beautiful, and the town is populous. This city had a flint-stone wall, with forty towers, which was finished in 1309, and is now much decayed, but still contains twelve gates. Here were formerly fifty-eight parochial churches and chapels, which are now reduced to thirty-six churches besides the cathedral. This is a large, ancient structure, of excellent workmanship, founded by bishop Herbert, in 1096. The choir is spacious,

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*Habit of a Tartarian Woman of Schourvache, subject to Russia.*



*From a Collection of Habits of divers Nations, published at  
Paris, in 1768. By J. B. le Prince.*



spacious, and the steeple strong, and very high. The roof is adorned with carved work, representing historical passages in scripture, and well executed in wood. The bishop's palace, with the prebendaries houses, round the clove of the cathedral, make a very good appearance. The church of St. Peter of Mancroft is reckoned one of the finest parish churches in England. Others of the churches, however, are thatched, and they all are erected with flint stone, curiously cut, in the same way as those in Italy are crusted with marble. Here are two churches for the Dutch and French Flemings, who have obtained particular privileges, which are carefully preserved.

This city has a stately market-cross of free stone, adjoining to which is a beautiful town-house. Here is also a house of correction, or Bridewell, elegantly built with square flint stones, so nicely joined, that no mortar can be seen. There is a grammar-school, founded by Edward VI. the scholars of which are nominated by the mayor, with the consent of the majority of the aldermen; besides twelve charity-schools, in which two hundred and ten boys, and a hundred and fourteen girls, are taught, clothed, and supplied with books. Here are likewise four hospitals, one of which, named St. Helen's, founded for the entertainment of strangers, was, by Henry VIII. appropriated for the poor of the city, and maintains eighty poor men and women, who are all clothed in grey, and must be sixty years of age before they can be admitted. Another of the hospitals, called Doughy's, is for sixteen poor men, and eight women, clothed in purple. Of the other two hospitals, one for the teaching, maintenance, and apprenticing thirty boys, and the other for making the same provision for thirty girls; each founded by a mayor of this city.

On a hill near the cathedral, in the centre of the city, is a castle, surrounded by a deep ditch, over which is a strong bridge, with an arch of extraordinary size. This castle is supposed to have been built in the time of the Saxons, and is now the common jail for the county.

Here is an ancient palace belonging to the duke of Norfolk, which was formerly reckoned one of the largest houses in England; and also six bridges over the river Yare, which runs through the town, and is navigable to this distance from the sea.

Norwich was plundered and burnt by Sueno, king of Denmark, but recovered so soon, that in Edward the Confessor's time it had one thousand three hundred and twenty burghesses. It suffered very much by the insurrection of Ralph earl of the East Angles, against William the Conqueror, in whose time it was besieged, and reduced to famine. In the reign of Stephen it was in a manner rebuilt, and made a corporation.

The city of Norwich has long been famous for its manufactures, which are not, however, at present in so flourishing a state as formerly. Those for which it is most remarkable are baize, serges, shal-

loons, camblets, druggets, crapes, stockings, and woollen cloths.

The inhabitants of Norwich are generally so employed in their manufactures within doors, that the city has the appearance of being deserted, except on Sundays and holidays, when the streets swarm with people.

Castor, near Norwich, was the Venta Icenorum, or capital city of the Icenii, the broken walls of which contain a square of about thirty acres. In those walls may still be perceived the remains of four gates and a tower. Several Roman urns, coins, and other relics of antiquity, have been found at this place.

Proceeding into this county from the eastern part of Suffolk, the first town that we enter is Yarmouth. This place, called Great Yarmouth, is distinguished from a small village in its neighbourhood, took its name from its situation at the mouth of the river Yare. It is distant from London a hundred and twenty-two miles; and was anciently one of the cinque ports. This town is the neatest, the most compact, and regularly built, of any in England. The streets are straight, and parallel to each other; and there is a view across the town from the quay to the sea, the houses standing in a peninsula between the sea and the harbour. Yarmouth is walled; but the principal strength by land is the haven, or river, which lies on the west side, with a draw-bridge over it. The port of entrance secures the south, and the sea the east; but the north, which joins it to the main land, is open, and only covered with a single wall, and some old demolished works.

There is a small platform of guns on a slip of land, at the entrance of the harbour, which is all the security of this town; the great guns that were planted round the walls having been removed by Charles II.

Here are two churches, of which that of St. Nicholas, built in the reign of Henry I. has so high a steeple, that it serves as a sea mark. There is also a fine hospital, with two charity-schools for thirty-five boys and thirty-two girls, who are all clothed and taught, the boys to make nets, and the girls spinning, knitting, and plain work.

The market-place is the finest and best furnished of any in England for its extent; and the quay is perhaps the handfomest and largest in Europe, that of Seville in Spain only excepted. It is so commodious, that people may step directly from the shore into any of the ships, and walk from one to another, as over a bridge, sometimes for a quarter of a mile together. It is at the same time so spacious, that in some places it is near a hundred yards from the houses to the wharf. On the wharf is a custom-house and town-hall, with several magnificent houses belonging to merchants.

This town is bound by its charter, granted by Henry III. to send annually to the sheriffs of Norwich a hundred herrings, baked in twenty-four patties, which the sheriffs are to deliver to the lord

of the manor of the East Carlton, a village near New Buchenham. He gives the sheriffs his receipt for them, and, by his tenure, is obliged to present them, to the king.

The situation of Yarmouth is exceedingly commodious for trade, the Yare being navigable thence to Norwich. There is also a navigation from this town, by the Waveney, to the south parts of Norfolk, and the north of Suffolk; and by another river, Thyme, which falls here into the Yare, it trades to the north part of the county. Though Yarmouth is not so large as Norwich, it is generally superior in traffic and wealth. This is the chief rendezvous of the colliers between Newcastle and London. The roads on the east side of the town are so safe, that they are very much frequented by vessels which pass and repass, though there are some dangerous banks of sand in the neighbourhood; and it costs the inhabitants of Yarmouth between two and three thousand pounds a year to keep the harbour clean.

This town carries on a great trade to France, Holland, and the northern countries, and exports great quantities of corn and malt. It has the whole herring fishery of this coast, in which it employs a hundred and fifty vessels, and between forty and fifty sail in the exportation. Fifty thousand barrels of herrings, containing no less than forty millions of those fishes, are generally taken and cured here in a year.

The fishing fair here, or the season for catching herrings, begins at Michaelmas, and continues all the month of October, during which time, every vessel that comes to fish for the merchants, from any part of England, is allowed to catch, bring in, and sell their fish, free of all duty or toll.

In the spring, here is almost as great a fishing for mackerel; besides which, this town has a fishing trade to the north seas, for white fish, called the North Sea Cod. It has also a considerable trade to Norway and the Baltic, for deals, oak, pitch, tar, and all naval stores, which are mostly consumed in this port, where a great number of ships are built every year.

Yarmouth is thought by many to have risen out of the ruins of a Roman city, called Garianonum, where the Stableian horse lay in garrison against the ancient Britons; but the site of Garianonum is by others conjectured to have been at Burgh Castle, on the other side of the river Yare, about two miles from Yarmouth.

Laddon is distant from the British capital a hundred and five miles, and contains nothing worthy of any remark.

Worsted, or Wurstled, is situated a hundred and seventeen miles from London, and is remarkable for the invention or first twining of that sort of woollen yarn or thread, which has hence received the name of worsted. Here is a manufacture of worsted stuffs; and stockings are both knit and woven in this place, in great quantities.

Cromer lies a hundred and twenty-seven miles from London. It has a harbour, and was formerly

a much larger town than at present, having had two parish-churches, one of which, with many houses, was swallowed up by an inundation of the sea. The town, however, is yet not inconsiderable, and is chiefly inhabited by fishermen, employed in catching lobsters, which are taken here in great quantities, and carried to Norwich, and sometimes to London.

Holt is a small obscure town, a hundred and sixteen miles distant from London.

Aleham lies a hundred and nineteen miles from London, and is a populous, but poor town, inhabited chiefly by knitters of stockings. Here is a court kept for the duchy of Lancaster, the manor having been granted by Edward III. to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster.

Caston, or Cawston, is a small town, distant from London a hundred and twenty-eight miles, and remarkable only for a bridge over a little river called the Bure.

Disse is situated on the Waveney, at the distance of ninety-three miles from London, and has a charity school, the only thing worthy of notice.

Buchenham-New is distant from London seventy-nine miles, and is thus named by way of distinction from Old Buchenham, a village in its neighbourhood. Here was formerly a fine strong castle; and the lords of this manor claim the privilege of acting as butlers at the coronation of our kings.

Attleborough is ninety-three miles distant from London, and was anciently not only a city, but the chief town of the county, and had a palace, and a collegiate church. It is still a considerable town, and has a good market for fat bullocks, sheep, and other cattle.

Windham, or Wimundham, is situated ninety-nine miles from London. This is a small town, and the inhabitants are generally employed in making of spiggets and foffets, spindles, spoons, and other wooden ware. They enjoy their writ of privilege, as an ancient demesne, from serving at assizes or sessions. Here is a free-school, a charity-school, and a house of correction.

Rapeham is situated a hundred and eleven miles from London, and was formerly famous for having three fine churches in one churchyard, belonging to three several lordships. At present, however, there remains nothing more of those churches than the ruins of one. The chief trade of the town is in malt; of which great quantities are sold in its market.

Walsingham lies a hundred and sixteen miles from London, and is no inconsiderable town. Here are the ruins of an ancient monastery, where was a shrine of the virgin Mary, as much frequented at one time as that of Thomas Becket at Canterbury. The soil round this town is remarkable for producing good flax; and southernwood.

Fakenham is distant from London a hundred and ten miles, and had anciently salt pits, though six miles from the sea. On a hill in the neighbourhood of this town is kept the sheriffs term, and a court for the whole county.

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Dereham,

Dereham, Market-Dereham, or Dereham-East, lies ninety-seven miles from London, and is a fine large town with several hamlets belonging to it.

Hingham is situated ninety-four miles from London. About the beginning of this century it had the misfortune to be burnt down, but was soon rebuilt in a handsome manner; and the inhabitants were some years ago reckoned so fashionable, that in the neighbourhood this town was called Little London.

Harling-East is thus distinguished in respect of its situation to two villages lying westward of it, called West-Harling, and Middle-Harling. It is distant from London eighty eight miles, and has a market, chiefly for linen yarn, and cloth.

Watton stands eighty-nine miles from London. It has a church which is only twenty yards long, and eleven broad; and the steeple, which has three large bells, is round at bottom, and octangular at top. Great quantities of butter are sent from this place to Downham-bridge, whence it is conveyed by water to London.

Thetford stands in a pleasant open country, at the distance of eighty miles from London, and takes its name from being situated on a small river called the Thet. It is divided by the Little Ouse, which also separates this county from Suffolk. This appears to be a town of great antiquity. In 672, the archbishop of Canterbury held a synod here. The Saxon kings made it the metropolis of the kingdom of the East Angles; but it was three times destroyed by the Danes. At the time of the Conquest, the chief magistrate of this place was styled a consul, whence it is supposed to have been a Roman town. In the twelfth century it was the see of a bishop, and then a place of great note, but declined on the translation of the see to Norwich. Under Henry VIII. it was reckoned a place of so much consequence, as to be made a suffragan see to Norwich, but it retained this distinction only during that reign.

This town had formerly a mint, and was honoured with the presence of many of our sovereigns, particularly Henry I. and Henry II. Queen Elizabeth and James I. made it one of their hunting-seats; and the latter had a palace here, which is still called the king's house.

The Lent Assizes for Norfolk are commonly held in the guildhall of this town.

Thetford arose from the ruins of the ancient Sitomagus, a Roman city, which was destroyed by the Danes. Here are yet many marks of great antiquity, particularly a large mount called Castle-hill, thrown up to a great height, and fortified by a double rampart, supposed to have been a Danish camp.

Swaffham is distant from London ninety-four miles, and has a sumptuous church, the north side of which is said to have been built by a travelling pedlar. This town is famous for the manufacture of spurs, and in the neighbourhood are frequent horse-races.

Snettisham is situated ninety-nine miles from London, and was once a royal demesne, with many privileges.

Castle-Rising stands ninety-seven miles from

don, on a high eminence, and takes its name from an old castle near it. At present, it hardly contains ten families, but is a borough by prescription, and was formerly a considerable place, till its harbour was choaked up with sand. Here is, however, an hospital for twelve poor men, and an alms-house for twenty-four poor widows, both founded by the family of the Howards. In the neighbourhood of this town there is a park, and a large chace, with the privileges of a forest.

King's Lynn, or Lynn Regis, is situated ninety-eight miles from London, and is so named by way of distinction from three villages in this county, called West-Lynn, North-Lynn, and Old-Lynn. It was formerly called Bishop's-Lynn, because it belonged to the bishop of Norwich; but having come by exchange into the hands of Henry VIII. it assumed its present name.

Lynn is a large, well-built, and flourishing town. It has a spacious market-place, in which is a statue of William III. and a fine cross, with a dome and gallery round it, supported by sixteen columns. The market-house is a free-stone building, after the modern taste, seventy foot high, and adorned with statues, and other embellishments.

Here are two parish-churches, St. Margaret's, which has a fine library, and that of All-Saints. There is also a chapel of ease, dedicated to St. Nicholas, which is reckoned one of the handfomest of the kind in England. It has a ball tower of free-stone, and an octagon spire over it, which together are a hundred and twenty foot high; and there is in it a library erected by subscription. Here likewise is a presbyterian and a quaker meeting-house, with a bridewell, and several alms-houses, a free-school, a good custom-house, with a convenient quay and warehouses.

Here is a town-house, called Trinity-hall, which is a noble old fabric; and there is an exchange of free-stone, with two orders of columns, built at the expence of Sir John Turner.

Four rivulets run through this town; and the tide of the Ouse, which is about as broad as the Thames at London bridge, rises twenty foot perpendicular.

The situation of Lynn, near the mouth of the Ouse, enables it to extend its trade into eight different counties; so that it supplies many considerable cities and towns with heavy goods, not only of our own produce, but imported from abroad. It deals more largely in coals and wine than any other town in England, except London, Bristol, and Newcastle. In return for those commodities, Lynn receives for exportation all the corn produced in these counties; and of this single article it exports more than any other town in the kingdom, except Hull in Yorkshire. Its foreign trade is very considerable, especially to Holland, Norway, the Baltic, Spain, and Portugal. The harbour is safe when once ships get into it, but the passage having many flats and shoals, it is difficult to enter.

This town has had fifteen royal charters. Every first Monday of the month, the magistrates and the preachers meet to hear and determine all controversies between

between the inhabitants in an amicable manner, in order to prevent law-suits. This practice was first established in 1588, and is called the Feast of Reconciliation.

In the civil war, Lynn held out for king Charles I. and sustained a formal siege above three weeks, against upwards of eighteen thousand men; but was at length obliged to surrender, and pay ten shillings a head for every inhabitant, besides a month's pay to the soldiers, to prevent the town from being plundered.

Downham stands upon the Great Ouse, at the distance of eighty-nine miles from London. It has a bridge over the river, and a port for barges.

Mathwold stands ninety-seven miles from London, and is remarkable for breeding excellent rabbits, called Mewil rabbits.

Norfolk is part of the district anciently inhabited by the Icenæ. Brameaster, in the north-west part of this county, and near Burnham, was the Brannodunum of the Romans, and the station for a body of Dalmatian horse. The principal manufactures of this county are, worsted, woollens, and silks, in which all the inland parts are employed.

Norfolk sends twelve members to parliament; two for the county, two for the city of Norwich, and two for each of the following towns, viz. Lynn Regis, Yarmouth, Thetford, and Cattle-Rising.

#### RUTLANDSHIRE.

Rutlandshire is bounded on the south and south-east by Northamptonshire; on the west, north-west, and south-west, by Leicestershire; and on the north and north-east by Lincolnshire. It is the smallest county in England, measuring from north to south only fifty-six miles, and from east to west ten miles. It is watered by two rivers, the Welland and the Gwash. The Welland rises in Northamptonshire, and running across that county, enters Lincolnshire, whence passing by several market-towns, it discharges itself into a bay of the German ocean, called the Washes.

The Gwash, or Wash, as it is commonly called, rises near Okham, in a district of the county surrounded with hills, and called the Vale of Catmose; from which place running eastward, and dividing the county nearly into two equal parts, it falls into the Welland, not far from Stamford in Lincolnshire.

The air of Rutlandshire is esteemed as good as that of any county in England. The soil is fruitful, especially the Vale of Catmose, which is equal to any in the kingdom. This county produces cattle, particularly sheep, and the rivers yield abundance of fish. Here is also wood in great plenty for firing.

Rutlandshire is divided into five hundreds; it has no city, and contains only two market-towns. It lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Peterborough, and is divided into forty-eight parishes.

The market-towns are Okham and Uppingham.

Okham is pleasantly situated in the Vale of Catmose, ninety-five miles north of London; and has an

ancient castle, almost in ruins, which was built by Walkelin de Ferariss, in the reign of William the Conqueror. In this castle is a hall, called the Shire-hall; where the assizes are held, and the public business of the county transacted. The town is not ill-built, and has a church dedicated to All Saints, which is a fine structure, and with a lofty spire. Here are a free-school, a charity-school, and two hospitals.

In this town is preserved an ancient custom, which requires that every peer of the realm; the first time he comes within the precincts of this lordship, shall forfeit a shoe from the horse on which he rides, to the lord of the castle and manor, unless he agrees to redeem it with money. In the latter case, a shoe is made according to his directions, ornamented in proportion to the sum given by way of fine, and nailed on the door of the castle hall. Some of these shoes are of curious workmanship, and stamped with the names of the donors; some are made very large, and some gilt.

In this town was born, in 1619, a person named Jeffrey Hudson, who, when seven years old, was not more than fifteen inches high, though his parents, who had several other children of the usual size, were tall and lusty. At the age above mentioned he was taken into the family of the Duke of Buckingham; and to divert the court, which, in a progress through this county, was entertained at the duke's seat at Burley-on-the-Hill, he was served up to table in a cold pye. Between the seventh and the thirtieth years of his age, he advanced only a few inches in stature, but soon after this period he shot up to the height of three foot nine inches, which he never exceeded. He was given to Henrietta Maria, consort of king Charles I. who kept him about her person as a curiosity.

In the civil wars he was made a captain of horse in the king's service, and he accompanied the queen to France, from which kingdom he was banished for killing a brother of lord Crofts, in a duel on horse-back. He was afterwards taken at sea by a Turkish corsair, and was many years a slave in Barbary; but being redeemed, he came to England, and in 1678, upon suspicion of being concerned in Oates's plot, was committed prisoner to the Gatehouse in Westminster, where he lay a considerable time, but was at length discharged, and died in 1682, at the age of sixty-three.

At Ketton, a village south-east of Okham, there is a rent collected yearly from the inhabitants, by the sheriff of the county, of two shillings, *pro occris reginae*, or for the queen's boots. The occasion of this tax is unknown.

At Burley-on-the-Hill, a pleasant village near Okham, is a seat belonging to the earl of Winchelsea, which is reckoned one of the finest in England.

Market-Overton, a village three miles from Overton, is supposed to have been the Roman station, called Margidunum by Antoninus.

Uppingham is situated eighty-seven miles from London, on a rising-ground, and is a neat, well-built town, with a free-school and an hospital. Here the standard

for

for the weights and measures of the county is appointed to be kept, by a statute of Henry VII. This town is famous for horse-races.

In the time of the Romans, Rutlandshire was inhabited by the Coritani; and under the Saxons it formed a part of the kingdom of Mercia. It is not remarkable for any manufacture, and sends to parliament only two members, who are knights of the shire.

## C H A P. XI.

*Leicestershire, Staffordshire, Shropshire, and Cheshire.*

**L**EICESTERSHIRE is bounded on the east by Rutlandshire, and Lincolnshire, on the south by Northamptonshire, on the west by parts of Warwickshire and Staffordshire, and on the north by parts of Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire. It extends from east to west about thirty miles, and from north to south about twenty-five.

The principal rivers of this county are, the Welland, the Soar, and the Anker. The first of these has been mentioned in the account of Rutlandshire.

The Soar, or Soure, rises about half-way between Lutterworth and Hinkley, two market-towns of this county, and running north-east, by Leicester, receives the Eye, another river of this county; after which, directing its course north-north-west, it falls into the Trent, a few miles north of Ashby de la Zouche.

The Anker has its source near that of the Soar, and running north-west, and dividing Leicestershire from Warwickshire, falls into the Avon, a river of the latter county.

The air of this county is healthful, and the soil in general very good, affording plenty of corn, grass, and beans, the latter of which is excellent, even to a proverb. The north-east part, however, which borders upon Lincolnshire, is not remarkable for its fertility; but the defect is in great measure compensated by the abundance of pit-coal, and with the vast number of cattle that feed upon the mountains, particularly sheep, the wool of which is much esteemed. Leicestershire, in general, is well provided with corn, fish, fowl, and cattle, especially horses for the draught; but the south-west part, bordering upon Warwickshire, though it abounds with corn and pasture, is but indifferently supplied with fuel.

This county lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Lincoln, and has a hundred and ninety-two parishes. It is divided into six hundreds, and contains twelve market-towns. These are, Ashby de la Zouche, Billerden, Bofworth, Hallaton, Harborough, Hincley, Leicester, Loughborough, Lutterworth, Melton-Mowbray, Mountforel, and Waltham-on-the-Would.

Proceeding from Rutlandshire, the first town we meet is Hallaton, situated eighty miles from London. It has a charity-school, and is only remarkable for its poverty in the midst of a rich soil.

Billerden stands seventy-two miles from London,

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and is a little obscure town, in which there is nothing worthy of note.

Melton, called Melton-Mowbray, from a noble family of that name, to which it formerly belonged, is situated in a fertile soil, at the distance of a hundred and four miles from London, and is almost encompassed with the river Eye. It is a large, well-built town, has two fine bridges over the Eye, with a handsome church, and a free-school. Here are frequent races, and the most considerable market for cattle of any in this part of England.

Waltham-on-the-Would is situated near a hilly, heathy tract, called Wrekin-in-the-Would, at the distance of ninety-one miles from London. It is a mean, poor town, but has a charity-school.

Loughborough stands at the distance of a hundred and seven miles from London, upon the river Soar, and is a large well built town, but has been very much diminished by fires. It has a large church, and a free-school, besides a charity-school for eighty boys, and another for twenty girls.

Mountforel, properly Mount-Soar hill, lies a hundred and four miles from London. It is partly situated in the parish of Burrow, and partly in that of Radeley, and had formerly two chapels, though it has now only one. It has a bridge over the Soar, but is not remarkable for any other particular.

Leicester stands ninety-nine miles from London, and is washed on the west and north sides by the river Soure. Under the Saxon heptarchy this was the chief city of the Mercian kingdom, and was then the see of a bishop; but the see being removed after a succession of eight prelates, it fell to decay. In the year 914, however, it was repaired, and fortified with new walls, after which it became a wealthy town, and had thirty-two parish-churches; but rebelling against Henry II. it was besieged and taken, the castle demolished, and the walls thrown down. A parliament was held here in the reign of Henry V. In the civil war the army of king Charles I. took it by storm, and it was soon after retaken by Sir Thomas Fairfax.

This is still the largest, best-built, and most populous town in the county. Here are six parishes, though but five churches. One of the churches is dedicated to St. Margaret, and is a noble structure. It is said that Richard III. who was killed at the battle of Bosworth, was interred in it; and that his stone coffin has been converted into a trough for horses to drink at, belonging to the White-horse inn. In the High-street is a cross of excellent workmanship, in form of that on which our Saviour was crucified. An hospital, built for a hundred poor sick persons, by Henry the first duke of Lancaster, who was interred in it, continues still in a tolerable state, being supported by some revenues of the duchy of Lancaster. But the most stately edifice here of the kind, is an hospital built in the reign of Henry VIII. for twelve men and as many women. It has a chapel, and a library, for the use of the ministers and scholars of the town. Here is also an hospital for six widows, and a charity-school.

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The inhabitants of this town have greatly improved the manufacture of stockings, of which they weave vast quantities. The market here is one of the greatest in England for provisions, especially corn and cattle.

Almost adjoining to St. Nicholas church, is an old wall called Jewry Wall, composed of rag-stones and Roman bricks. In it are several niches, of an oval figure, which probably were the receptacles of Roman urns, though the inhabitants have an extravagant notion, that in these niches the ancient Britons offered up their children to idols.

Leicester stands on a branch of Watling-street, called the Fosh-way, and is supposed by Camden to be the *Rata* of Antoninus, and the *Raga* of Ptolemy. It appears to have been a place of no inconsiderable note in the time of the Romans; and from the multitude of bones of various animals, supposed to have been offered in sacrifice, and which have been dug up in a part of this town, still called Holy-bones, where are likewise some ruins of ancient brick-work, it is conjectured that here was anciently a temple dedicated to Janus; out of the ruins of which, it is farther supposed St. Nicholas's church was built.

Near the church of All Saints, upwards of half a century ago, was discovered a curious piece of Roman antiquity, supposed by some to be the fable of Diana and Acteon, wrought in little stones, some white, and others of a chestnut colour.

Near the town is a castle, which, though now dismantled, has been a building of great extent, and was the place where John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, held his court. He enlarged it with twenty-six acres of ground, inclosed it with a high wall, and called it *Novum opus*. It is now called Newark, a corruption of *New-work*, and is the site of some of the best houses in or near Leicester. These houses are extra-parochial, as being under castle-guard, by an old grant from the crown. The hall and kitchen of the castle are still entire. In the former of these, which is very lofty and spacious, are held the assizes and courts. One of the gateways of this castle has a very curious arch; and in the tower over it is kept the magazine for the county militia.

Nut far from Leicester has been discovered the remains of what is supposed to have been a hot bath in the time of the Romans. It is constructed of small stones, each about an inch long, half an inch broad, and half an inch thick. The roof is arched, and the building perforated by several pipes, through which, it is imagined, the water has been conveyed. The stones are finely cemented by a thin mortar, and the whole work, which was considerably below the surface of the ground, is said to have been about six yards long, and four broad. Of its height no account is delivered.

Harborough is distant from London eighty-four miles, in the road to Derby. It has a good free-school, and a handsome chapel of ease to Great Bowden, its parish. Here is a great market for horses and colts. It is observed of this town, that there are no lands belonging to it; which gave rise to a proverb among the inhabitants, "that a goose will eat up all the grass

in Harborough; and children are threatened with being "thrown into Harborough field."

Lutherworth is situated eighty-four miles from London. Here is a church, in which is still to be seen the pulpit of the famous reformer, John Wickliff, who was rector of the parish.

Hosworth is pleasantly situated, at the distance of a hundred and four miles from London. Here is a free-school, but nothing else worthy of note.

In a moor near this town was fought the famous battle of Bosworth-field, between Richard III. and Henry earl of Richmond, afterwards king Henry VII.

Leicestershire is part of the district which, in the time of the Romans, was inhabited by the Coritani; and under the heptarchy it formed part of the kingdom of Mercia. The principal business of this county is agriculture; having no manufacture but that of stockings, which, however, is considerable. Leicestershire sends four members to parliament, viz. two for the county, and two for the borough of Leicester.

#### STAFFORDSHIRE.

Staffordshire is bounded on the east by Leicestershire, on the south by Worcestershire, on the west by Shropshire, on the north-west by Cheshire, and on the north-east by Derbyshire. Its figure approaches that of a rhombus or lozenge. It extends from north to south forty miles, and from east to west twenty-six.

The principal rivers of this county are, the Trent, the Dove, the Thame, or Tame, and the Sow. The Trent is esteemed the third river in England, and rises from two or three springs in the north-west part of this county, near Leak, a market-town. It runs south-east, and dividing Staffordshire nearly into two equal parts, enters Derbyshire near Burton; whence proceeding north-east, through the counties of Derby, Nottingham, and Lincoln, it falls into the river Humber, north of Burton in Lincolnshire. The Dove rises in the Peak of Derby, and running south-east, divides Derbyshire from Staffordshire, falling afterwards into the Trent, a few miles north of Burton in this county.

The Thame rises in the south part of this county, not far from Wolverhampton, and runs south-east into Warwickshire, where directing its course northward, it again enters Staffordshire near Tamworth, a few miles north of which place it falls into the Trent. The Sow rises not far westward of Newcastle-under-Lime, whence running south-east, and passing by the town of Stafford, it falls into the Trent, about three miles east of that town.

Other less considerable rivers of this county are, Walsel-water, the Black Brook, the Penk, Eccleshall-water, the Charnet, and the Hamps.

The air of Staffordshire is in general pure and healthy, but in some parts sharp and cold, particularly in the mountainous places, north-west of a market-town called Stone.

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the mountainous parts, by good tillage, will yield great crops of corn; but they are remarkable for a short and sweet grass, which makes cattle very fat. On the banks of the Trent and the Dove, the meadows are as rich as any in England, and maintain great dairies, which supply the markets with vast quantities of butter and cheese. The rivers afford plenty of almost all sorts of fresh-water fish; and the county in general abounds with provisions of all kinds.

Besides abundance of turf and peat for firing, this county yields three sorts of coals, which are distinguished by the names of pit-coal, peacock-coal, and cannel-coal. The pit-coal is dug chiefly in the south part of the county, at Wednesbury, Dudley, and Sedgely, not far from Wolverhampton. The peacock-coal, so called from its reflecting various colours, like those of a peacock's tail, is found at Henley-green, near Newcastle-under-Line, and is better for the forge than for the kitchen. The cannel-coal yields a bright flame, and being so hard as to bear polishing, it is used in this county for paving churches, and other public buildings. It is also manufactured into snuff-boxes, and other toys.

Under the surface of the ground, in several parts of this county, are found red and yellow okers, tobacco-pipe clay, potters-clay, fullers-earth, and a sort of brick-earth, which burns blue, and is supposed to be the earth of which the Romans made their urns. Here also are found stones and minerals of various kinds.

Staffordshire lies in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Litchfield and Coventry, and includes a hundred and fifty parishes. It is divided into five hundreds, and contains one city, and eighteen market-towns. The city is Litchfield, and the market-towns are Betley, Brewood, Bromley-Abbots, Burton-upon-Trent, Cheadle, Eccleshall, Leek, Newcastle-under-Line, Penkridge, Rugeley, Stafford, Stone, Tamworth, Tutbury, Uttoxeter, Walsall, and Wolverhampton.

Litchfield is distant from London a hundred and eighteen miles. It stands in a valley, three miles south of the Trent, and is divided by a stream which runs into that river. The division of it on the south side of this stream is called the City, and the other the Close, from its being inclosed with a wall and a dry ditch on every side, except that next the city. Those parts are connected by two bridges; but the city is by much the largest. It is a long, straggling place, but has some handsome houses. The streets are well-paved, and kept clean; and this being a great thoroughfare from London to the north-west counties, here are several good inns.

This city has a cathedral, and three parish-churches. The cathedral, which stands in the Close, was founded in the year 1148. It suffered much in the civil wars under Charles I. but was so repaired soon after the Restoration, that it is now one of the noblest Gothic structures in England. It extends in length, within the walls, four hundred and forty foot, and in breadth eighty. Over the middle is a fine lofty steeple. The front is adorned with a handsome portico, over which

are two corresponding spires, with twenty-six statues of the prophets, apostles, and kings of Judah, as large as the life. The inside likewise is adorned with several statues. The choir is in great part paved with alabaster and cannel coal, in imitation of black and white marble; and behind the choir is a neat chapel. The prebendaries stalls are of excellent workmanship. In the Close are, a palace for the bishop, a house for the dean, and very handsome houses for the prebendaries. The see of Litchfield is united with that of Coventry in Warwickshire.

There is a good jail for felons and debtors apprehended within the liberties of the city, with a free-school, and a large and well-endowed hospital for the relief of the poor. Litchfield is famous for fine ale, and in the neighbourhood are frequent horse-races.

Ofway, king of Mercia, is said to have built a cathedral church here in the year 656, or 657; and about the year 789, king Offa, by the favour of pope Adrian, made it an archiepiscopal see; but ten years afterwards, Litchfield lost this honour, and its church and diocese were again subjected to the metropolitanical see of Canterbury. In the year 1075, this see was translated to Chester, and thence, in 1102, to Coventry; but in a short time after the bishops again settled here; and Roger de Clinton, about the year 1140, not only founded a new cathedral, dedicated to St. Mary and St. Chadd, but also restored and augmented the chapter.

At Peaufert park, about five miles from Litchfield, is a large fortification, supposed to have been cast up by Canutus the Dane.

Tamworth is distant from London a hundred and seven miles. It is equally divided by the river Tame; that half of it which stands upon the western side of this river is in Staffordshire, and the other half in Warwickshire; on which account each side chooses a representative in parliament. By some writers this borough is placed in Staffordshire, and by others in Warwickshire. This is the most ancient town in those parts, and was the seat of the Mercian kings. On the Staffordshire side of Tamworth is a collegiate church, a grammar-school founded by queen Elizabeth, and a fine hospital by Guy, the same person who founded the noble hospital in the borough of Southwark. This town has a considerable trade in narrow cloths, and other manufactures.

At Wigginton, north of Tamworth, are several Roman tumuli, called here lows, some of which having been dug up, discovered ash, charcoal, and pieces of burnt bones.

Burton-upon-Trent is distant from London a hundred and twenty-three miles, and is famous for its bridge over that river. This structure is one of the finest of the kind in England. It is built of squared free-stone, is about a quarter of a mile in length, and consists of thirty-seven arches. This place is celebrated for fine ale.

Tutbury, or Stutbury, stands upon the Dove, at the distance of a hundred and twenty miles from London. On a hill near the town is an old castle, walled round, except on one side, where the hill is very steep, and

and inclosed with a strong pale. This castle is a member of the duchy of Lancaster.

Bromley-Abbots was at first called Bromley, and received the epithet Abbots from an abbey of which it was formerly the site, to distinguish it from some other towns called Bromley, in this county. It is sometimes also called Bromley-Paget, from a lord Paget, to whom it was granted by the crown upon the dissolution of monasteries. It stands at the distance of a hundred and twenty-eight miles from London, but contains nothing worthy of note.

Utoxeter, or Utcafter, is situated on the western bank of the river Dove, a hundred and twenty-five miles from London. The town is of considerable extent, the streets broad and well-paved, but the houses in general are meanly built. Here is a spacious market-place, with a cross in the centre, and a good stone bridge over the Dove. The market is one of the greatest in those parts for cattle, sheep, swine, butter, cheese, corn, and all sorts of provisions. Some of the London cheesemongers have factors here, who, it is said, buy up cheese to the value of five hundred pounds every day. In this town and neighbourhood are many considerable iron manufactories.

At Checkley, north-east of this town, is a church, and in the church-yard three toll-stones, each in form of a pyramid, and engraved with a variety of figures. The inhabitants of this place have a tradition that there was an engagement in Naked Field in the neighbourhood, between two armies, one armed and the other unarmed; and that in one of the armies, were killed three bishops, in memory of whom those stones were erected.

Cheadle is distant from London a hundred and thirty-six miles, and has a charity-school. At Alton, about three miles from this place, are the ruins of a castle, which was built before the time of William the Conqueror.

Newcastle-under-Line was first called Newcastle from a castle now in ruins, built here in the reign of Henry III. and to distinguish it from an older castle, which stood at Chester-town, a village in the neighbourhood. It was afterwards called Newcastle-under-Line, or Lime, from its situation upon the east side of a branch of the Trent, called the Line, or the Lime, and to distinguish it from Newcastle-upon-Tyne, in the county of Northumberland. This town is distant from London a hundred and forty-nine miles. The streets are broad and well paved, but the buildings low and mostly thatched. Here were formerly four churches, which are now reduced to one. The chief manufactures of this place are woollen cloth and hats; and here is an incorporated company of felt-makers. A greater quantity of stone-ware is made near this town than in any other part in England; and there is also a manufacture of earthen-ware, in imitation of china.

Stone is situated on the north bank of the river Trent, a hundred and forty miles from London. It has a free-grammar school, with a charity-school; and being in the great road to Chester, it is well provided with good inns. This town is said to de-

rive its name from a heap of stones thrown up here, according to a custom of the Saxons, to perpetuate the memory of a murder committed by Wolphere, a king of Mercia, on his two sons, for embracing Christianity.

Eccleshall stands at the distance of a hundred and thirty-six miles from London. It is a neat town, with a good charity-school, and is famous for pedlars ware.

Stafford stands upon the bank of the Sow, a hundred and thirty-five miles from London. The streets of this town are well paved, and the houses which are generally built of stone, are covered with slate. Here are two handsome parish-churches, with a free-school, and an hospital; besides a spacious market-place, in which is a shire-hall, and a bridge over the Sow. This town has a manufacture of cloth, and, as well as some others of this county, is famous for good ale. The old custom of Borough English still subsists at this place.

Penkridge, or Penkrick, is situated on the river Penk, over which is here a stone bridge. This town is distant from London a hundred and twenty-one miles, and has one of the greatest fairs in England for horses, both for the saddle and draught.

Penkridge is supposed by Camden to be the Pennoerucium of Antoninus; but this town lying a mile or two north of the military way, and there being hardly any other grounds for the conjecture but the similitude of names, Dr. Plot places the Pennoerucium at Streeton, upon Iknild-street, near Tutbury.

Rugeley stands at the distance of a hundred and twenty-six miles from London, in the road to Lancashire and Cheshire. It is a well-built town, and in its neighbourhood is a paper-mill.

Brewood is situated a hundred miles from London, and is a pretty little town, with a free-school. At Fetherstone, near this place, was found a brass head of the bolt of that military engine of the ancients, called catapulta. One of the same kind was found at Busbury, in the neighbourhood, and two others in different parts of the county.

Wolverhampton is distant from London a hundred and seventeen miles, and is a well-built, populous town. Here is a collegiate church, with a tower, in which are seven bells. The pulpit, which is very ancient, is of stone; and in the church-yard is an ancient stone cross. Here are three charity-schools, two of which are supported by subscription. This town is ill supplied with water, but the air is remarkably healthy. The chief manufacturers are locksmiths, who are said to excel in that branch of business.

At Pottingham, west of Wolverhampton, was found in the year 1700, a large torquis or chain of fine gold, for the arm or neck. It was two foot long, and three pounds two ounces in weight. The links were curiously wreathed, and so flexible, that it would fit persons of various sizes. The torquis was worn by the ancient Britons as well as by the Romans.

Walsall stands upon a river of the same name, at



the distance of a hundred and thirteen miles from London. The principal manufactures of this place are spurs, bridle-bits, stirrups, and buckles. Here is an ancient custom of distributing, on the eve of Epiphany, a present of one penny to all persons then residing in the town, whether strangers or inhabitants.

Kinver, or Kinfare, lies a hundred and nine miles from London, but has nothing worthy of note.

Here is an ancient fortification of an oblong form, the longest side being about three hundred yards. In a piece of pasture ground adjoining, is a large stone, six foot high and twelve in circumference, which the people in the neighbourhood call Battle Stone, or Belt Stone. In the top of this stone are two notches, forming the resemblance of three heads. Some persons suppose the stone to have been a British deity, and others imagine that it was erected by the ancient Britons as a memorial of a battle fought near this place.

At Abbot's Castle, north-west of Kinver, is an ancient fortification, situated on a high promontory, and supposed to have been British. It has a steep ridge to half a mile, with hollows cut in the ground, over which the tents are supposed to have been pitched.

North-east of Kinver, upon Ashwood-heath, is a large entrenchment, supposed to have been Roman; and at Barrow-hill, in the neighbourhood, are two uniform Roman tumuli, or barrows, consisting of solid rock, which Dr. Plot conjectures to have been petrified by subterraneous heat.

Betley lies a hundred and fifty-two miles from London, and is a small inconsiderable place.

Staffordshire is a part of the county which in the time of the Romans was inhabited by the Cornavii, and under the Saxons it was included in the kingdom of Mercia.

Watling-street and Ikenild street, two of the four great military Roman ways in Britain, run through this county. The former crosses the river Tame out of Warwickshire into Staffordshire, at Falkesley-bridge, near Tamworth, and running westward, passes into Shropshire near Brewod. The latter enters Staffordshire at Treston, near Tutbury, and running south-west, crosses Watling-street about a mile south of Litchfield, and passes into Warwickshire at Handworth, near Birmingham. Upon those two roads have been discovered, in this county, considerable remains of Roman antiquities.

Upon Watling-street, near the place where that road is intersected by Ikenild-street, is a small village called Wall, from the remains of some walls which inclose about two acres of ground, known by the name of Castle-Crofts. Here have been found Roman coins, and two ancient pavements of Roman bricks. The inhabitants have a tradition that here had been a city, which was destroyed before the Norman Conquest; and it is generally supposed to have been the Etoecetum of Antoninus.

At Wrottesley are the ruins of an old city, which appears to have been three or four miles in circumference, and is supposed to be either British or Danish.

No. 36.

Dudley-Castle, now ruinous, is said to have been built by Dudo, or Dodo, a Saxon about the year 700. It stands upon a high mountain, and has a lofty tower, whence is a prospect of five English counties, and a part of Wales.

The principal manufactures of Staffordshire are cloth and iron utensils, all kinds of which are made here in great perfection. This county sends to parliament ten members, two knights of the shire, two representatives for the city of Litchfield, and the same number for each of the following boroughs, viz. Stafford, Tamworth, and Newcastle-under-Lime.

### SHROPSHIRE.

Shropshire is bounded on the east by Staffordshire; on the south by Worcestershire, Herefordshire, and part of Radnorshire in Wales; on the west by the counties of Denbigh and Montgomery, in Wales; and on the north by Cheshire, and part of Flintshire, in the principality of Wales. This is reckoned the largest inland county in England being forty miles in length from north to south, and thirty-three miles in breadth.

The chief rivers of this county are the Severn, the Temd, and the Colun or Clun. The Severn has already been described. The Temd rises in the north part of Radnorshire, where running eastward, and separating Shropshire from the counties of Radnor, Hereford, and Worcester, it falls into the Severn near Worcester. The Colun or Clun, rises near Bishops-Castle, a borough-town of this county, and running southward, discharges itself into the Temd, not far from Ludlow. Other less considerable streams are the Ony, the Warren, the Corve, the Ra, the Tern, and the Rodon.

The air of Shropshire is healthy, but the county being mountainous, it is in many parts sharp and piercing.

The soil here is of different qualities. The northern and eastern parts of the county yield abundance of wheat and barley, but the southern and western parts, which are hilly, are not so fertile, yet afford pasturage for sheep and cattle. Along the banks of the Severn are large rich meadows, that produce plenty of grass. Here are mines of copper, lead, and iron, with stone and lime-stone, and the county abounds with inexhaustible pits of coal. Between the surface of most of the coal-ground and the coal, there lies a stratum of a black, hard, but very porous substance, which being boiled in water, yields a bituminous matter, that by evaporation is brought to the consistence of pitch. From the same stratum is also produced an oil, which, mixed with the bituminous substance, dilutes it into a kind of tar. Both these substances are used for caulking of ships, and are reckoned better for that purpose than pitch or tar; as they are not liable to crack.

The rivers of this county yield abundance of trout, pike, lamprey, grailing, carp, eels, and other fresh-water fish.

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Shropshire lies in the province of Canterbury: that part of it which is situated south of the Severn, is under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Hereford, and that which lies north is under the bishop of Litchfield and Coventry, except Orweftry, a market-town, and a few other places, that belong to the bishop of St. Asaph. This county is divided into fifteen hundreds: it has no city, but contains thirteen market-towns, namely, Bishops-Castle, Church-Stratton, Clebury, Drayton, Ludlow, Newport, Orweftry, Shrewsbury, Wellington, Wem, Wenlock-Great, and Whitechurch.

Advancing from Staffordshire, the first town in our route is Drayton, a little obscure place, a hundred and forty-nine miles distant from London, and distinguished only by its market.

Newport is situated a hundred and thirty-three miles from London. Here is a free-grammar school, well endowed with a library, and two alms-houses.

Wellington stands at the distance of a hundred and fifty-one miles from London, but has nothing worthy of note.

Bridgenorth, also called Brugmorfe, or Bruges, is distant from London a hundred and thirty-five miles, and is a large populous town. The greater part of it stands upon a rock, on the western part of the Severn, and the rest on the opposite side of the river, which has here a very great fall. Those two parts are distinguished by the names of the Upper and Lower Towns, and are connected by a stone bridge of seven arches, upon which is a gate and gate-house, with several other houses. The whole consists chiefly of three streets, well-built and paved; one of which, in the upper town, lying parallel to the river, and called Mill-street, is adorned with stately houses, which have cellars dug out of the rock.

Here are two churches and a free school for the sons of the burgeses, with an hospital for ten poor widows. From the high part of the town, leading down to the bridge, is a hollow way, that is much admired by strangers, being hewn in the rock to the depth of twenty foot.

This is a place of great trade both by land and water. Its markets are stocked with all sorts of provisions, and people resort to its fairs from many parts of the kingdom, for cattle, sheep, butter, cheese, bacon, hops, linen cloth, and several other commodities.

Bridgenorth is a very ancient town, having been built in 582, by the widow of Ethelred, king of the Mercians. It was afterwards fortified with a wall and castle, both now in ruins; and had several great privileges granted it by charters from Henry II. and king John.

Ruibury, near this place, is from several circumstances supposed to be the Bramonium, or Bravonium of Antoninus.

Boscobol-house and grove, north-east of Bridgenorth, upon the borders of Staffordshire, are famous for having been the hiding-place of king Charles II. after his defeat at Worcester. The tree in the grove, which concealed his majesty, was afterwards called

the Royal Oak, and inclosed with a brick wall, but is now almost cut away through the curiosity of travellers.

Clebury stands on the north side of the river Temd, at the distance of a hundred and eighteen miles from London. It formerly had a castle, but has now nothing worthy of note.

Ludlow is situated a hundred and thirty-six miles from London, on the north side of the Temd, near its conflux with the Corve, on the borders of Worcestershire and Herefordshire. It is surrounded with a wall, in which are seven gates, and has an old castle, built by Roger de Montgomery, soon after the Conquest. Some apartments of this castle are yet entire, with their furniture; the battlements are very high and thick, and adorned with towers. The walls were originally a mile in compass. This castle was a palace belonging to the prince of Wales, in right of his principality. In an apartment of the outer gatehouse, the famous Butler, author of Hudibras, is said to have written the first part of that celebrated poem.

Ludlow is a neat well-built town, and has a large parochial church, with a handsome tower. This church was formerly collegiate, and in the choir is an inscription relating to prince Arthur, elder brother to Henry VIII. who died here, and whose bowels were deposited in this place. In the same choir is a closet, called the Godt-house, where the priests used to keep their consecrated utensils. Here is an alms-house for thirty poor persons, with two charity-schools, in which fifty boys and thirty girls are taught and clothed. This is a flourishing town, and has a good bridge over the Temd, which turns a great many mills in the neighbourhood. The inhabitants of Ludlow are reckoned a polite people, and horse races are annually kept on a course contiguous to the town.

On Brown-Clea-hill, north-east of Ludlow, are the remains of an ancient camp.

Shrewsbury is situated on the Severn, a hundred and sixty-three miles north-west of London. It stands on an eminence, surrounded by the river on every side but the north. It is inclosed with walls, and had on the north side a castle, built by Roger de Montgomery, soon after the Norman Conquest; but the walls and castle are in a ruinous condition. The streets are spacious, and the houses in general well-built. Here are two fine bridges over the Severn, one of which called the Welch bridge, has a noble gate, ornamented with a statue of Llewellyn, the last beloved prince of North Wales.

Besides meeting-houses, here are five churches, viz. St. Chad's, St. Mary's, St. Alkman's, St. Julian's, and Holy Crofs, or Abbey Foregate. Here is also one of the largest schools in England, founded and endowed by Edward the VIth. Queen Elizabeth rebuilt it from the ground, and farther endowed it. It is a fine fabric, with a good library and chapel, and convenient houses for the masters. Exclusive of hospitals, alms-houses, and an infirmary, there are several charity-schools, where a hundred and forty boys, and forty girls, are taught and partly clothed. There is

likewise

likewise a good town-house; and a piece of ground, called the Quarry, from stones having been formerly dug here, is now converted into one of the finest walks in England. The inhabitants of this town all speak English, though here are many Welch families; but the common language on a market-day is Welch. It is computed, that as much Welch cottons, frizes, and flannels, are sold at the market, as amounts on an average, to a thousand pounds a week; and the town has been many years famous for its delicate cakes and excellent brawn.

Shrewsbury had its origin from the ruins of an old Roman city, about four miles distant, called Uriconium, which is now reduced to a small village, known by the name of Wroxeter. Shrewsbury was a town of considerable note even under the Saxons, and now one of the most flourishing towns in England.

Wroxeter was doubtless the second, if not the first city of the ancient Cornavii, and fortified by the Romans to secure the ford of the Severn: the extent of the wall was about three miles; and, from some fragments of it that remain, the foundation appears to have been nine foot high. It had on the outside a vast trench, which even at this day is in some places very deep. Here are also other remains of Roman buildings, called the Old Works of Wroxeter. There are fragments of a stone wall, about a hundred foot long, and in the middle twenty foot high. Not many years ago here was discovered under-ground a square room, supported by four rows of small brick pillars, with a double floor of mortar, built in the manner of a sudatory or sweating-house, much in use among the Romans. In the channel of the Severn, near this place, when the water is low, may be seen the remains of a stone bridge; and in and about this town, Roman coins and other antiquities have frequently been dug up.

Renton, a small village west of Shrewsbury, and near the Severn, is supposed to have been the ancient Rentunium, a Roman station.

Wem is situated near the source of the Redan, at the distance of a hundred and forty-eight miles from London. It has a free-school, founded and liberally endowed by sir Thomas Adams, lord mayor of London, in 1645. This was the birth-place of Wycherly, the celebrated dramatic writer.

Whitchurch stands on the borders of Cheshire, a hundred and fifty miles from London. It is a large, populous town, with a handsome church, in which are several monuments of the Talbots, earls of Shrewsbury. In the civil wars, this town is said to have raised a whole regiment for the service of king Charles I.

Oswestry, or Oswaldstrey, is situated on the borders of Denbighshire, at the distance of a hundred and fifty-seven miles from London. It is surrounded with a wall and ditch, and fortified by a castle. It has a church, and a good grammar-school, with an excellent charity-school for forty boys, besides girls, who are not only taught but clothed. This place had formerly a great trade in Welch cottons and flannels,

but it is now so much decayed, that it hardly contains a house which can accommodate a traveller.

This town was originally called Maserfield, and derives its present name from Oswald, a king of Northumberland, who being defeated here, and slain in battle, by Penda, a prince of Mercia, was beheaded and quartered by order of the conqueror; and his head being fixed upon a pole in this place, the pole or tree was probably called Oswald's tree, whence the town, by corruption, was afterwards called Oswaldstrey, and Oswestry.

Church-Stretton stands a hundred and thirty miles from London, and is remarkable for a good corn-market.

Bishops-castle derives its name from having formerly belonged to the bishops of Hereford, who probably had a seat or castle here. It is situated a hundred and fifty miles from London, and is an old corporation. Its market is famous for cattle, as well as several other commodities, and is much frequented by the Welch.

Wenlock, called also Great Wenlock, to distinguish it from a village in its neighbourhood, known by the name of Little Wenlock, is a hundred and forty-three miles distant from London. This place is remarkable only for lime-stone and tobacco-pipe clay.

A little to the north-east of Wenlock, at Brofely, is a well that exhales a vapour, which, when contracted to a small vent, by an iron cover with an aperture, catches fire from any flame applied to it, and burns like a lamp, so that eggs, or even meat, may be boiled over it. On removing the cover, the flame goes out. It is remarkable, that a piece of meat broiled in it has not the least smell or taste of sulphur. The water is exceeding cold; and is as much so immediately after the flame is extinguished as before.

At Acton-Burnel, three miles from Great Wenlock, a parliament was held in the reign of Edward I. when the lords met in a castle, and the commons in a barn, both which are yet standing. In this session of parliament was enacted the famous statute, called the Statute-merchant, for the security of debts.

The division of Shropshire which lies north of the Severn, is part of the country that, in the time of the Romans, was inhabited by the Cornavii; but what lies on the south of the Severn belonged to the Ordovices, a people that occupied the most considerable territories in Wales. Shropshire, under the Saxons, constituted part of the kingdom of Mercia.

This being a frontier county between England and Wales, was defended by no less than thirty-two castles, besides fortified towns. The extremity of it, towards Wales, was governed by some of the nobility of the county, who were styled lords of the marches, and who exercised a kind of palatinate authority within the bounds of their jurisdiction.

The military way called Watling-street enters Shropshire out of Staffordshire at Boningale, a village north-east of Bridge-north. From Boningale it directs its course north-west to Wellington, and thence south-west

west through Wroxeter, where crossing the Severn at a place called Wroxeter-ford, it runs southward through the county into Herefordshire.

In the neighbourhood of Wroxeter, this road is almost entire, and being straight, and considerably raised above the level of the soil, may be seen hence, to the extent of ten or fifteen miles, both southward and northward.

At Caer-Caradoch, a hill near the conflux of the Clun and Temd, are yet to be seen some remains of a fortification, erected by the British king Caractacus, in the year 53, and gallantly defended against Ostorius and a Roman army. It is commonly called the Guir, and is situated on the east-side of the hill, which is accessible only on the west. The ramparts are walled, but now for the most part covered with earth; and though the soil of this hill is a hard rock, yet the trenches of the Roman camp are very deep. This fortification was, however, taken by Ostorius, and the British prince Caractacus and his family sent prisoners to Rome, but, on account of his noble behaviour, were set at liberty by the emperor Claudius.

Other traces, in this neighbourhood, of Roman camps, and British fortifications, said to be destroyed in the same expedition of Ostorius, are, a perfect Roman camp, called Brandon; a British camp, called Cowell; the ruins of a large fort, on the south point of hill, called Tongley; another great fort, called the Bishop's-mote, on the west side of a hill, within a mile of Bishops-castle; and, on the east-side of the same fort is an acre of ground, surrounded with an intrenchment.

The principal manufactures of Shropshire are, Welch cottons and flannels, with stockings, and iron implements of all kinds. It sends twelve members to parliament, two of whom are for the county, and two for each of the following towns, namely, Shrewsbury, Bridgenorth, Ludlow, Wenlock, and Bishops-castle.

#### C H E S H I R E.

Cheshire is bounded on the south by Shropshire, and part of Flintshire; on the west and north-west by Denbighshire, and the Irish sea; on the north by Lancashire; and on the east and south-east by Derbyshire and Staffordshire. The north-west corner of the county projects into the Irish sea, and forms a peninsula near sixteen miles long, and seven broad, called Wiral. The sea breaking on each side of this peninsula, forms two creeks, one between the north-east side of the peninsula and the south-west coast of Lancashire; and the other between the south-west side of it and the north-east coast of Flintshire. Those two creeks receive all the rivers of the county, which is about forty-five miles long, and twenty-five broad, in its greatest extent.

The principal rivers are, the Mersey, the Weaver, and the Dee. The Mersey runs from the north-east, westward, and dividing this county from Lancashire, falls into the northern creek of the peninsula. The Weaver rises in Shropshire, runs from south to north,

and discharges itself into the northern creek. The Dee issues from two springs near Bela, a market-town in Merionethshire, in Wales, whence running north-east, through that county and Derbyshire, and afterwards directing its course north, and separating Cheshire from North Wales, it falls into the southern creek of the peninsula. The Dee abounds with salmon; and though it always floods the neighbouring fields when the wind blows fresh at south-west, yet the longest and heaviest rains never cause it to overflow. Besides these rivers, there are several meres and lakes of considerable extent, which abound with carp, bream, perch, eels, and other fish.

The air of this county is serene and healthful, but proportionably colder than the more southern parts of the island. The country is in general flat and open, though it rises into hills on the borders of Staffordshire and Derbyshire, and contains several forests, two of which, called Delamere and Macclesfield, are of considerable extent. The soil in many parts is naturally fertile, and is much improved by a kind of marl, or fat clay, with which the peasants manure it. The pasture is said to be the sweetest of any in the kingdom. There are, however, several large tracts of land covered with heath and moss, which the inhabitants can use only for fuel.

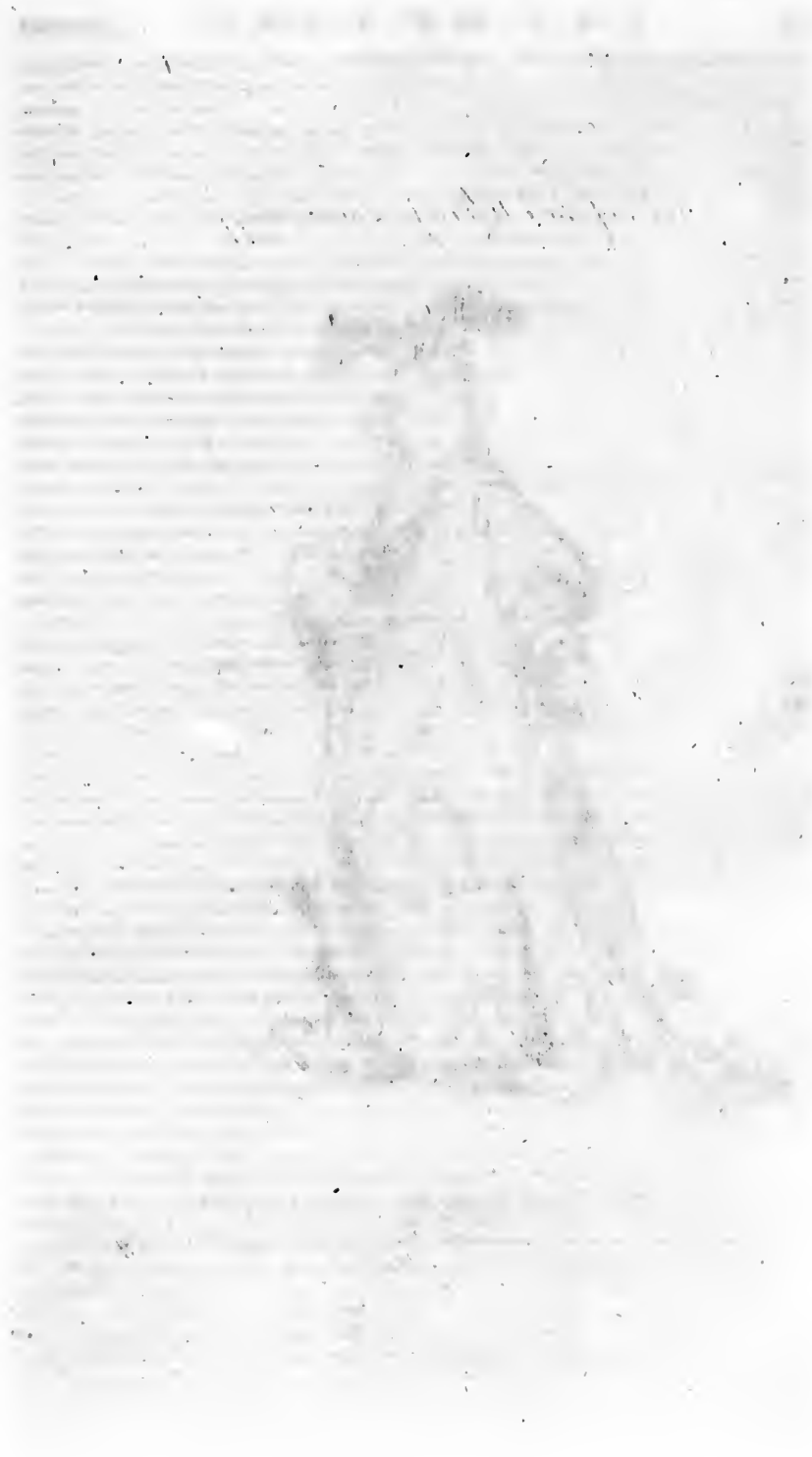
The chief commodities of this county are, cheese, salt, and mill-stones. The cheese is esteemed the best in England, and furnished in great plenty by the excellent pasturage. The salt is obtained, not from the water of the sea, but from salt springs, that rise in Northwich, Namptwich, and Middlewich, which are called the Salt Witches, and Dunbam, at the distance of about six miles from each other. The pits are seldom more than four yards deep, and never exceed seven. In two places in Namptwich, the spring breaks out in the meadows, so as to fret away the grass; and a salt liquor oozes through the earth which is swampy to a considerable distance. The salt springs at Namptwich are about thirty miles from the sea, and generally lie along the river Weaver; yet there is an appearance of the same vein at Middlewich, nearer a little stream called the Dane, or Dan, than the Weaver. All these springs lie near brooks, and in meadow-grounds. The water is so cold at the bottom of the pits, that the briners cannot remain in them above half an hour at a time, nor so long, without frequently drinking of spirituous liquors. Some of those springs afford much more water than others; but it is observed, that there is more salt in any given quantity of water drawn from the springs that yield little water, than in the same quantity drawn from those that yield much. It is also remarkable, that more salt is produced from the same quantity of brine in dry weather, than in wet. Whence the saline ingredient in those springs is supplied, is a question which has never yet been clearly ascertained. Some have supposed it to come from the sea; some from subterraneous rocks of salt, which were discovered in those parts about the middle of the last century; and others, from saline particles subsisting in the atmosphere, and deposited in a proper bed. It is

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*Habit of the Sultans Queen in 1772.*



*The Habit of the Woman as well as that of the Man, consists of a Kaday & Kafstan, but the Kafstan of the Woman, is of wrought Silk, and in some particulars different from the Kafstan of all other Women.*

not probable that this water comes from the sea, because a quart of sea-water will produce no more than an ounce and a half of salt, but a quart of water from those springs will often yield seven or eight ounces.

This county is situated in the province of York, and diocese of Chester, and includes a hundred and twenty-four parishes. It is divided into seven hundreds, and contains one city, with twelve market-towns. The city is Chester, and the market-towns are, Altrincham, Congleton; Frodsham, Halton, Knott'sford; Macclesfield, Malpas, Middlewich, Nantwich, Northwich, Sandbach, and Stockport.

Chester is distant from London a hundred and eighty-two miles. It is built in a square form, and surrounded by a wall, with battlements, which is two miles in compass. The two principal streets intersect each other at right angles; and at the intersection, which is nearly in the centre of the city, is a spacious area, called the Pentife, where stands the town-house, with the Exchange, a neat building, supported by columns thirteen foot high, of one stone each. Those four streets are excavated out of the earth, and sunk many feet below the surface. The carriages are driven far below the kitchens, on a line with ranges of shops; over which, on each side of the streets, run galleries, or rows open in front, and balustraded, for the convenience of foot-passengers. The city has four gates, one at each end of the two great streets; and those placed exactly to the four cardinal points. On a rising-ground, on the south-side, stands a castle, which is in part surrounded by the river Dee, and is a place of considerable strength, where a garrison is always kept. In this castle is a stately hall, resembling that at Westminster, where the palatine courts and assizes are held. There are also offices for the records, and a prison for the county. The walls of the city join the castle on the south side; and near this fort is a bridge of twelve arches over the Dee. At each end of the bridge is a gate, over one of which stands a tower, whence the city is well supplied with water, raised by mills from the river.

Chester is the see of a bishop, and has nine churches, one of which is the cathedral, which, with the bishop's palace, and the houses of the prebendaries, stands on the north side of the city. Here is a charity-school for forty boys, who are taught, clothed, and maintained, by a fund of five hundred and seventy pounds a-year, raised by subscription.

The city of Chester derives its name from *Castra*, the Latin appellation for a camp; the Roman legions having several times encamped near this place, and the twentieth legion, called *Vidrix*, being settled here by the emperor Galba, under Titus Vinius, to overawe the inhabitants of the neighbouring counties. This city is called *Deva* by Antoninus, and *Deunana* by Ptolemy.

One of the ancient Roman gates, the East-gate, remained till of late years, when it was pulled down, on account of its straitness and inconvenience. It consisted of two arches, formed of vast stones, fronting the East-gate street; the pillar between the arches dividing the street exactly in two.

No. 37.

The Roman bath, beneath the Feathers inn, in Bridge-street, is supposed to be entire; but the only part which can be seen, by reason of the more modern superstructures, is the hypocaust. This is of a rectangular figure, supported by thirty-two pillars, two foot ten inches and a half high, and about eighteen inches distant from each other. Upon each is a tile eighteen inches square, as if designed for a capital; and over them a perforated tile, two foot square. Such are continued over all the pillars. Above these are two layers, one of coarse mortar, mixed with small red gravel, about three inches thick; and the other of finer materials, between four and five inches thick. Those seem to have been the floor of the room above. The pillars stand on a mortar floor, spread over the rock. On the south-side, between the middle pillars, is the vent for the smoke, about six inches square, which is at present open to the height of sixteen inches. Here is also an antichamber, exactly of the same extent as the hypocaust, with an opening in the middle into it. It is sunk near two foot below the level of the former, and is of the same rectangular figure. This was the room allotted for the slaves who attended to heat the place, and the other was the receptacle of the fuel.

Without the gate, towards the bridge, is a large round arch, apparently of Roman workmanship. It is now filled with more modern masonry, and a passage left through a small arch, of a very eccentric form. On the left, within the passage, is another round arch, now also filled up. This postern is called the Ship-gate, or Hole-in-the-Wall. It seems to have been intended for the common passage over the Dee, into the country of the Ordovices, either by means of a boat at high-water, or by fording at low, the river here being remarkably shallow. What seems to confirm this conjecture is, that the rock on the Henbridge side is cut down, as if for the convenience of travellers; and immediately beyond, in a field called Edgar's, are the vestiges of a road pointing up the hill.

In the front of a rock in the same field, and facing this relic of the Roman road, is cut a rude figure of Minerva, with her bird and altar. This probably was a sepulchral monument.

The only pieces of detached antiquities remaining in this city are, a beautiful altar, and a copper statue of a Roman soldier; the former in the possession of Mr. Dyson, and the latter in the garden of Mr. Lawton.

The altar is of great elegance, and was erected in honour of the emperors Dioclesian and Maximilian, by Flavius Longus, tribune of the twentieth victorious legion, and his son Longinus, who were of Samosata, a city of Syria. On one side is the inscription, and over it a globe, overtopped with palm-leaves. On the opposite is a curtain, with a festoon above. On one of the narrower sides a genius, with a cornucopia; and on the other a pot, with a plant of the acanthus, the foliage of which is extremely elegant. On the summit is a head, included in a circular garland.

This piece of antiquity was found in digging for a cellar near the East-gate, on the ancient pavement,

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which

which consisted of great stones. Around it were found the marks of sacrifice, heads, horns, and bones of the ox, roe-buck, &c. with two coins, one of Vespasian, in brass, and the other of Constantius, in copper.

In a ruinous fabric, called the Chapter, there was discovered, about thirty years ago, a skeleton, supposed to be the remains of Hugh Lupus. The bones were very fresh, and in their natural position; they were wrapped in leather, and contained in a stone coffin; the legs were bound together at the ancles, and the string was entire. In the cathedral, among other ancient monuments, is the tomb of Henry IV. emperor of Germany, who, after abdicating his government, is said to have led the life of a hermit at Chester, altogether unknown, till he discovered himself to the prior, who confessed him, just before he expired.

Chester is supposed by some to have been a city before the time of the Romans, and to have been called Genuina, or Gunia; and by others, to have become a considerable place, by the gradual increase of buildings which were necessary to accommodate those that resorted thither on various occasions, while it was the station of the twentieth Roman legion, called Valeria Victrix, or Valens Victrix. The wall is supposed by some to have been built by Elfrida, and the castle and cathedral by Hugh Lupus, the earl of the county, soon after the Norman conquest. Several authors, however, mention the castle of Chester as existing in the Danish and Saxon times. It is therefore probable, that Lupus only repaired or rebuilt the castle, especially as there is a square tower belonging to it, which tradition has ascribed to Julius Cæsar; and though there should not appear sufficient authority to admit that this tower was the work of Cæsar, yet the tradition affords presumptive evidence that there was a castle here long before the Norman conquest.

Malpas is situated on a high hill, on the borders of Shropshire, not far from the Dee, a hundred and fifty-seven miles from London. It consists chiefly of three streets, well-paved. It has a stately church, which stands on the highest part of the town, and the benefice is so considerable, that it supports two rectors, who officiate alternately. In former times it had a castle, and has now a grammar-school and an hospital.

Frodsham stands on the river Weaver, near its conflux with the Mersey, at the distance of a hundred and sixty-two miles from London, and is a sea-port. It consists of one long street, at the west end of which is a castle, that for many ages was the seat of the earls of Rivers. The church is situated a little from the town, near a lofty hill, called Frodsham-hill, the highest in the county, on which there has been used to be a beacon. Here is a stone bridge over the river, and about a mile from the town another of brick.

Halton, or Haulton, i. e. High-town, is so called from its situation, which is on a hill, about two miles north of Frodsham, and a hundred and sixty-three from London. Here is a castle, said to have been built by Hugh Lupus, to whom the county was granted

by William the Conqueror, which, with the barony, belongs to the duchy of Lancaster, and maintains a large jurisdiction in the county round it, by the name of Halton-fee, or the Honour of Halton, having a court of record and a prison. The inhabitants claim a market by prescription, and here is a small market held on Saturday; but the town has not been generally considered as a market-town, nor registered as such.

Northwich is situated on the river Weaver, near its conflux with the Dan, a hundred and fifty-nine miles from London. This town stands so near the centre of the county, that it is generally the place of meeting to transact all public affairs. The houses are for the most part old, but it has a good church, and a charity-school. The salt made here is not so white as that which is manufactured at other places; but about sixty years ago, were discovered on the south side of the town several mines of rock-salt, which have ever since been wrought with great diligence, and the salt sent in large lumps to the sea-ports, where it is manufactured for use. Some of the quarries are now a hundred and fifty foot deep, and are supported by rows of pillars. From the innumerable candles that are constantly burning when the miners are at work, they make a splendid appearance.

Middlewich, so called because it stands between Namptwich and Northwich, is situated at the conflux of the Dan with the Croke, a hundred and fifty-six miles from London. The town is populous, and has a spacious church. The salt-springs here are said to produce more salt, in proportion to the brine, than those at any other place.

Namptwich stands on the river Weaver, in the Vale-Royal, at the distance of a hundred and sixty-four miles from London. It is the greatest and best-built town in the county, except Chester. The streets are regular, and many of the houses handsome, as well as the church, which is a large structure, built in the form of a cross, with a steeple in the middle. Here are two charity-schools, one for forty boys, and the other for thirty girls. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in cheese and salt, both which are made here in great perfection.

Sandbach is distant from London a hundred and fifty-three miles, and is pleasantly situated on the river Wheelock, which flows in three streams from Mowcop-Hill, and falls into the Dan a little above the town. It has a church, with a lofty steeple; and in the market-place are two stone crosses elevated on steps, and adorned with sculpture and images.

Knottesford, Nufford, or Canute's-ford, is situated a hundred and fifty-four miles from London, near the Mersey, and is divided by a small river into two parts, called the Upper and Lower Town. In the former stands the church, and in the latter a chapel of ease, the market, and town-house.

Alkineham, or Altringham, is situated near the borders of Lancashire, a hundred and fifty-two miles from London, and contains nothing worthy of note.

Stockport, sometimes called Stopford, is situated a hundred



hundred and sixty miles from London, on the south side of the river Mersey, and has also nothing remarkable.

Macclesfield, or Mansfield, is situated on the river Bollin, a hundred and fifty-one miles from London. This town stands in the parish of Prestbury, but here is a handsome chapel, with a high steeple, in form of a spire. Here is also a free-school, of an ancient foundation, and a college instituted by Thomas Savage, who was bishop of London, and afterwards archbishop of York. The chief manufacture of the place is buttons.

Congleton is distant from London a hundred and fifty-seven miles. The houses of this town are generally old, but well built. The middle of it is watered by the little brook Howtey, the east side by the Daning Schow, and the north by the Dan, over which it has a bridge. The number of inhabitants is considerable, and their principal manufacture that of gloves.

Cheshire was one of the counties which in ancient times were inhabited by the Cornavii; and under the heptarchy it was included in the kingdom of Mercia, to which after being annexed two hundred years, it fell into the hands of the Danes. About the year 877, Alfred the Great, having recovered it from the Danes, made it a province to the kingdom of the West Saxons, and appointed Etheldred; a descendant of the kings of Mercia, to be its governor. After the death of Etheldred, the government of this county devolved to his widow Edelfleda, at whose demise it descended to Etheldred's posterity, till with the rest of England, it fell once more into the hands of the Danes, under Canutus. Canutus committed it to the government of Leofric, who assumed the old title of earl or comes. From him it descended to his son Algar, and afterwards to Edwin, who were successive earls of Cheshire, till it was given by William the Conqueror, as a principality, first to Gosford, a nobleman of Flanders, who had assisted him in his enterprise against England, and then to Hugh Lupus, his nephew, to whom he gave a palatine or sovereign jurisdiction, by a grant of this county, "to hold to him and his heirs, as freely by the sword, as the king held the crown of England."

By this grant Cheshire became a county palatine, with sovereign jurisdiction within its own precincts, in so high a degree, that Lupus, and many of his successors, had parliaments, consisting of their own barons and tenants, who were not bound by the acts of the general parliament of the kingdom. The power of the earls of Chester, with which they had been invested for the more effectually restraining any insurrection of the neighbouring people, being no longer necessary for this purpose, and having at length become formidable even to the king, was abolished by Henry VIII. who rendered this county dependent upon the crown; though all pleas concerning property, whether real or personal, are still determined in the county.

An episcopal see, for part of the Mercian kingdom, was erected in the city of Chester before the end of

the seventh century. This was generally, though not always, under the same bishop as that of Litchfield, to which it was at length united. After the Conquest, bishop Peter quitted Litchfield, and fixed his residence at St. John's church, in Chester, where he was buried in 1102. Bishop Robert, his successor, conceiving a greater attachment to the rich monastery of Coventry, made that one of his cathedrals, and left Chester; though several bishops of Litchfield and Coventry, after this time, assumed the title of bishop of Chester.

The chief trade of Cheshire consists in cheese and salt, and it sends to parliament four members, two of whom represent the county, and two the city of Chester.

## C H A P. XII.

*Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, Lincolnshire, Yorkshire.*

**D**ERBYSHIRE is bounded on the west by Staffordshire, and part of Cheshire; on the north by Yorkshire; on the east by Nottinghamshire, and a part of Leicestershire; and on the south by another part of Leicestershire. It is of a triangular form, its length from south to west forty miles, and its breadth about thirty.

The principal rivers in this county are the Derwent, the Dove, and the Erwash. The Derwent rises in a rocky, mountainous and barren tract, in the north-west of this county, called the Peak of Derby, whence running south-east, and dividing the county nearly into equal parts, it falls into the Trent about eight miles south-east of the town of Derby.

The Dove, as has already been mentioned, also rises in the Peak of Derby, and running south-east divides this county from Staffordshire; falling into the Trent a few miles north of Burton-upon-Trent, a considerable market-town of Staffordshire.

The Erwash separates the counties of Derby and Nottingham, and falls into the Trent, four or five miles north-east of the place where the Derwent empties itself into that river.

The two parts into which the river Derwent divides this county are very different, as well with respect to the air as to the soil, except on the banks of the river, where the land is on both sides remarkably fertile. In the eastern division the air is healthy, and of an agreeable temperature: the soil is generally well cultivated, and produces grain of almost every kind in great abundance, particularly barley. But in the western division the air is for the most part sharper, and the weather more variable: the face of the country is rude and mountainous, and the soil, except in the valleys, is rocky and unfruitful. The hills, however, afford pasture for sheep, which in this county are very numerous. Along the banks of the river Dove the country is remarkably fertile, which is ascribed to the frequent inundations of this river, especially in the spring, when it impregnates the ground with a prolific substance, washed from the beds

beds of lime among which it rises. This river is famous for producing a fish called graylings, and for trout reckoned the best in England.

The western part of this county, notwithstanding its barrenness, is yet as profitable to the inhabitants as the eastern part; affording great quantities of the best lead, with antimony, mill-stones and grind-stones, besides marble, alabaster, a coarse sort of crystal spar, green and white vitriol, alum, pit-coal, and iron.

Derbyshire lies in the province of Canterbury, and dioceses of Litchfield and Coventry, and includes a hundred and six parishes. It is divided into six hundreds, and contains eleven market-towns, but no city. The market-towns are, Alfreton, Ashborn, Bakewell, Bolsover, Chapel-in-the-Frith, Chesterfield, Derby, Dronfield, Tideswell, Winstler, and Wirksworth.

The first town in our route from Cheshire, is Chapel-in-the-Frith, which is situated in a hundred called the High Peak, about a hundred and forty-nine miles north-west of London, but is an inconsiderable place.

Tideswell, or Tideswell, stands at the distance of a hundred and forty-six miles from London, at the bottom of a hill, near a well which constantly ebbs and flows with the tide of the sea. It is a town of little note, but has a free-school.

Dronfield is situated among the mountains at the edge of the Peak, in so wholesome an air, that the natives commonly live to a great age, and the neighbouring gentry resort much hither. It stands a hundred and twenty-four miles from London, and has many good buildings. Here is a free grammar-school, and a charity-school.

Bolsover is distant from London a hundred and four miles. It is a large well-built town, and noted for making fine tobacco pipes.

Chesterfield is pleasantly situated on the side of a hill, between two rivulets, called the Ibber and Rother. It lies a hundred and sixteen miles from London, and is the chief town of a hundred in the north-east part of this county, called Scarsdale Hundred. It is a well built and populous town. The church is a fine structure; but the spire, being built of timber, and covered with lead, has been bent by the winds from its perpendicular direction. Here is a free-school said to be the most considerable in the north of England, and which sends many students to the universities, especially to Cambridge. The market is well supplied with lead, grocery, mercery, malt, leather, stockings, blankets, and bedding; in which commodities the inhabitants maintain a considerable trade with all the adjacent counties, as well as with London.

About six miles south-west of Chesterfield, stands Chatworth, a magnificent house belonging to the duke of Devonshire. It is situated on the east bank of the Derwent, having on one side the river, and on the other a lofty mountain, the declivity of which is planted very thick with firs. The front towards the

gardens is a regular piece of architecture. Under the cornice of the frise is the family motto, "Cavendo Tutus," which, though consisting only of twelve letters, reaches the whole length of the pile. The sashes of the Attic story are seventeen foot high; the panes are of ground glass, two foot wide, and the frames double gilt. The hall and chapel are adorned with paintings by Vario; particularly a very fine representation of the death of Cæsar in the Capitol, and of the Resurrection of our Lord. The chambers, which are large and elegant, form a magnificent gallery, at the end of which is the duke's closet, finely beautified with Indian paintings. The west front which faces the Derwent, is adorned with a magnificent portal, before which there is a stone-bridge over the river, with a tower upon it, which was built by the countess of Shrewsbury. On an island in the river, is a building like a castle, which forms a noble object to the view. In a piece of water in the garden, are several statues, representing Neptune, with his Nereids, and sea-horses; and on the bank is a representation, in copper, of a willow-tree, from every leaf of which, by turning a cock, water may be caused to issue in the form of a shower. Here are many other beautiful objects, both of art and nature, which it would be tedious to enumerate. This place was built by William, the first duke of Devonshire, and is ranked among those curiosities commonly called the Seven Wonders of the Peak.

In the house that was first built upon this spot, by sir William Cavendish of Suffolk, Mary, queen of Scots, remained prisoner, seventeen years, under the care of Cavendish's widow, the countess of Shrewsbury; in memory of which, the new lodgings, that are built in place of the old, are still called the Queen of Scots apartment.

Bakewell stands on a small river, called the Wye; near its conflux with the Derwent, and is distant from London a hundred and twenty miles. It is a large town, and exempt from episcopal jurisdiction, having seven chapels, though only one church. Its chief trade, which is very considerable, is in lead.

Winstler is distant from London a hundred and thirty-three miles, and is situated south-west of Bakewell, near some rich mines of lead.

Alfreton, said to have been originally built by king Alfred, is distant from London a hundred and thirty-five miles, and is remarkable only for its ale, which is very strong, and of a fine flavour.

Wirksworth, or Worksworth, is situated a hundred and thirty miles from London, and is a large and much frequented town, the chief of a hundred of the same name in the Peak. The produce of the mines in this hundred is very considerable. The king claims the thirtieth penny as a duty, for which the proprietors compound at the rate of a thousand pounds a-year. It is said that the tythe of Wirksworth alone has been worth as much yearly to the rector of the parish. This town is the greatest market for lead in England, the melting furnaces being built on the hills in its neighbourhood. Here is kept a court called

called the Barmoot, consisting of a master and twenty-four jurors, who determine all controversies among the miners.

Adithora is situated a hundred and eight miles from London, on the east side of the river Dove, and on the borders of Staffordshire. It stands on a rich soil, and carries on a considerable trade in cheese, great quantities of which it sends both up and down the river Trent.

Derby, which is the county-town, is distant from London a hundred and twenty-two miles. It is situated on the west bank of the Derwent, and is watered on the south by a small stream, called Martin Brook, which falls into the Derwent a little way east of the town. Over this brook are nine bridges, and a fine stone bridge of five arches over the Derwent, upon which is a dwelling-house, that had formerly been a chapel, dedicated to St. Mary. This town was a royal borough in the reign of Edward the Confessor, and was incorporated by a charter from king Charles I. It is a large, well-built, and populous town, and contains five parishes, with as many churches. That of All-Saints is the most remarkable. It appears from an inscription to have been originally built by the contribution of the bachelors and maidens of the town, in the reign of queen Mary; but no part of the old building remains, except the tower, which is a beautiful Gothic structure, a hundred and seventy-eight foot high. Near this church is a hospital for eight poor men and four women, founded by a countess of Devonshire. The town-hall, in which the assizes and sessions are kept, is a large handsome building of free-stone, with a fine court-yard, neatly paved and planted with trees. Many gentlemen who have estates in the Peak, reside here; and on a piece of ground called the Row-Ditches, near the town, there are frequent horse-races.

While the Danes remained masters of England, they made Derby their principal resort, till Ethelfleda, a princess of the Mercians, took it by surprize, and put all the Danes she found in it to the sword.

In an island of the Derwent, facing the town, is a curious machine, the only one of the kind in Britain. It is a mill for the manufacture of silk, which was erected in 1734, by the late Sir Thomas Lombe, who brought the design of it from Italy, at the hazard of his life. This mill works the three capital engines for making organize or thrown silk, which was before made only in Italy, and thence imported into England.

This curious machine has twenty six thousand five hundred and eighty-six wheels, and ninety-seven thousand seven hundred and forty-six movements, which are all worked by one water-wheel, that turns round three times in a minute. By every turn of the water-wheel the machine twists seventy-three thousand seven hundred and twenty-six yards of silk thread, so that in twenty-four hours it will twist three hundred and eighteen millions four hundred and ninety-six thousand three hundred and twenty yards. Of this complicated machine, any single wheel or

movement may be stopt, without impeding the rest; and the whole is governed by one regulator.

The house which contains this mill is five or six stories high, and near a quarter of a mile in length; yet the whole is at once equally warmed by a fire engine, contrived for that purpose. The machine was thought of so much importance by the legislature, that on the expiration of the patent, which Sir Thomas Lombe had obtained for the sole use of it during fourteen years, the parliament granted him fourteen thousand pounds, as a farther recompence for the very great hazard he ran, and the expence he had incurred by introducing it, on condition that he should suffer a perfect model of it to be taken, in order to secure and perpetuate the invention; and a model of it being accordingly taken, is kept in the Record Office in the Tower of London.

The trade of this town is not very considerable; for though it is a staple, or settled mart for wool, it depends chiefly upon a retail trade in corn, which is bought and sold again to the inhabitants of the Peak, and upon malt and ale, of which great quantities are sent to London. For the benefit of the trade, the Derwent has been made navigable to the Trent; but every avenue to the town by land, is rendered almost impassible by dirt and mire.

Little Chester, now a small village upon the Derwent, near Derby, but upon the other side of the river, was anciently a city. It was also a Roman station, as appears by a great number of coins that have been found in it. When the water of the Derwent happens to be very clear, the foundation of a bridge which crossed it in this place may be seen.

In this county are some remarkable objects, commonly called the Seven Wonders of the Peak. One of those, and the only one that is artificial, is Chatsworth-house, which has been already mentioned.

The second wonder of the Peak is a mountain, situated about ten miles north-west of Chatsworth, called Mam-Tor, a name which is said to signify a Mother Tower. This mountain, though it is perpetually mouldering away, and the earth and stones are falling from the precipice above in such quantities, as to terrify the neighbouring inhabitants with the noise, is yet of so enormous a bulk, that the decrease cannot be perceived.

The third wonder is Eden-Hole, near Chapel-in-the-Frith. This is a vast chasm in the side of a mountain, twenty-one foot wide, and more than forty foot long. In it appears the mouth of a pit, the depth of which has never been fathomed. A plummet once drew after it a line that measured eight hundred and eighty-four yards, which is somewhat more than half a mile; the last eighty yards of it were wet, but no bottom was found. Several attempts to fathom it have since been made, and the plummet has sometimes stopped at half that depth, owing probably to its resting on some protuberance. In the reign of queen Elizabeth, the earl of Leicester hired a poor wretch to venture down in a basket, who, after he had descended two hundred ells,

was drawn up; but, to the great disappointment of the curious enquirer, he had lost his senses, and in a few days after died delirious.

The fourth wonder of the Peak is a medicinal water, which rises from nine springs, near Buxton, a little village, thirty-five miles north-west of Derby. The bed or soil from which the water issues, is a kind of marble; and it is remarkable, that within five feet of one of the hot springs, there is a cold one.

These waters contain a sulphureous and saline principle, but are not unpalatable. They are used in various disorders, and much company resorts hither in the summer for the benefit of them. It appears from Lucan, and other ancient writers, that they were eminent in the time of the Romans. Ten miles north-west of Derby, are other celebrated medicinal springs, called Matlock Wells.

The fifth curiosity ranked among the wonders, is the spring called Tideswell, situated near the market-town to which it has given name. The well is about three feet wide; and the water, in different and uncertain periods of time, sinks and rises with a gurgling noise, two thirds of the perpendicular depth of the well. Many conjectures have been formed to account for this phenomenon. Some have imagined that in the aqueduct a stone stands in equilibrio, and occasions the motion of the waters by vibrating backwards and forwards; but it is as difficult to conceive what should produce this vibration at uncertain periods, as what should cause the rise and fall of the waters. Others have thought that those irregular ebblings and flowings, as well as the gurgling noise, are occasioned by air, which agitates or presses the water from the subterraneous cavities; but this hypothesis is equally defective with the preceding, as no attempt is made to account for the supposed motion of the air. Others have imagined the spring to be occasionally supplied from the overflowings of some subterraneous body of water, lying upon a higher level.

The sixth wonder of the Peak is a cave, called Poole's Hole, said to have taken its name from one Poole, a notorious robber, who being outlawed, sequestered himself here from justice; but others allege that Poole was some hermit, who made choice of this dismal hole for his retreat. It is situated at the bottom of a high mountain, called Coitmos, near Buxton. The entrance is by a small arch, so very low, that such as venture into it are forced to creep upon their hands and knees; but it gradually opens into a vault more than a quarter of a mile long, and, as some have affirmed, of the same height. Not far from the entrance, it is very lofty, and resembles the inside of a Gothic cathedral. In a cavern to the right, called Poole's chamber, is a fine echo, that continually resounds to a current of water, which runs along the middle of the great vault. Water is perpetually distilling from the roof and sides of this vault in drops, which crystallize into various shapes, and have formed large masses, bear-

ing a rude resemblance to men, lions, dogs, and other animals.

In this cavity is a column, as clear as alabaster, called Mary queen of Scots' Pillar; who, it is pretended advanced thus far, to gratify her curiosity. Beyond it is a steep ascent for near a quarter of a mile, having at the extremity a hole in the roof, called the Needle's Eye; in which, when the guide places his candle, it looks like a star in the firmament. If a pistol be fired near the Queen's Pillar, the report will be as loud as that of a cannon. Not far from this place are two springs, one cold and the other hot, though their distance from each other is only three or four inches.

The seventh and last wonder of the Peak is a cavern, vulgarly called the Devil's Arse, and sometimes the Peak's Arse. It runs under a steep hill, about six miles north-west of Tideswell, by a horizontal entrance sixty feet wide, and somewhat more than thirty feet high. The top of this entrance resembles a regular arch, chequered with stones of different colours, from which petrifying water is continually dropping. Here are several huts, inhabited by people who seem in a great measure to subsist by guiding strangers into the cavern.

These curiosities are poetically described by the celebrated Mr. Hobbes, in Latin verse; and very particularly by Cotton, in English doggerel.

Besides the wonders of the Peak, there are other curiosities in this county. Near a village in the High Peak, called Birchover, north-west of Tideswell, is a large rock, with two stones upon it, called Rocking-stones. One of them is two feet high, and thirty-six in circumference; yet it rests upon a point, in such an equipolse, that it may be moved with a finger.

Near Brudewall, another village in the High Peak, was dug up a substance resembling a tooth, which, though one fourth of it was broken off, measured thirteen inches and a half round, and weighed almost four pounds. Among other substances resembling bones, which were here dug up, was a skull, that held seven pecks of corn. It is now, however, the general opinion of naturalists, that those substances are not bones, but are a kind of spars called the stalactites, formed by the dropping of water from the roofs of some subterranean caverns.

The ancient inhabitants of Derbyshire, in common with those of Northamptonshire, Leicestershire, Lincolnshire, and Nottinghamshire, were by the Romans named Coritani. Under the heptarchy all those counties were included in the kingdom of the Mercians; and the inhabitants of Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire, from their situation on the north side of the Trent, were called Mercii Aquilonis, or the Northern Mercians.

Great quantities of malt and ale are made in this county, with which the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade; but they have no manufactory of note. Derbyshire sends four members to parliament, viz. two for the county, and two for the town of Derby.

## NOTTINGHAMSHIRE.

Nottinghamshire is bounded on the west by Derbyshire, on the north by Yorkshire, on the east by Lincolnshire, and on the south by Leicestershire. It extends in length from north to south about forty-three miles, and from east to west about twenty-four.

The principal rivers in this county are, the Trent, the Erwash, and the Idle. The Trent has already been described in the account of Staffordshire, and the Erwash in that of Derbyshire. The Idle, or Iddle, rises near Mansfield, a market-town, and running north-east, falls into the Dun, a river of Lincolnshire, on the west side of the Isle of Axholm.

The air of Nottinghamshire is reckoned as healthful as that of any part of England; but the different qualities of the soil have divided the county under two denominations. The east side, which is very fruitful in corn and pasture, the Clay, which is subdivided into the North Clay, and the South Clay; and the west part of the county, which is generally woody or barren, has received the name of the Sand.

There is a large forest, called Sherwood Forest, which comprehends almost all the western parts of this county, and contains several towns, seats, and parks. Those parts, however, besides wood, yield some coal and lead. Here are also found marbles of different sorts, and a kind of stone, which, when burnt, makes a plaster harder than that of Paris, and is generally used by the inhabitants of the county for flooring their houses. Other productions of Nottinghamshire are liquorice, cattle, fowl, and fresh water fish.

This county lies in the province and diocese of York, and has a hundred and sixty-eight parishes. It is divided into eight hundreds, or rather six wapentakes, and two liberties, and contains nine market-towns, but no city. Those towns are, Bingham, Blith, Mansfield, Newark, Nottingham, Redford-East, Southwell, Tunford, and Worktop.

Nottingham stands on a small river called the Lind, near its conflux with the Trent, at the distance of a hundred and twenty-two miles from London. It is situated on the side of a hill, formerly known by the name of Doloron Hill, or Golgotha, from a great slaughter of the ancient Britons at this place, by a king of the North, called Humber. Nottingham is a large well-built town, and has in it more gentlemen's houses, than perhaps any other town of its extent in the kingdom. It formerly had a castle, supposed to have been built by William the Conqueror, or his natural son, William Peverel. This castle being demolished about the time of the Restoration, the duke of Newcastle, who bought the ground-plot, in 1674, erected upon it a most stately house, which is now not only the ornament of this town, but one of the finest seats in England.

Under the castle of Nottingham, and in the rock on which it stood, are several caves, cut out into different apartments, one of which is remarkable for

the history of Christ's passion, cut out by David II. king of Scotland, when prisoner here. A winding stair-case, which descends almost to the bottom of the rock, leads into another of those caves, called Mortimer's Hole, from a tradition, that Roger Mortimer, earl of March, hid himself in it, before he was seized by order of Edward III.

Here are three churches, one of which, St. Mary's, is built in the manner of a collegiate church; and there is a handsome town-hall, besides another building, called the King's Hall, where the assizes and sessions for the county are held. Near the latter is situated the town and county jail. There is also a spacious market-place, with two crosses in it, a free-school, besides three charity-schools, one of which is for thirty-five boys, and twenty girls, who are all clothed and taught. Here are likewise several alms-houses, and an hospital.

It has been usual with all nations to stigmatize the inhabitants of some particular spot as remarkable for stupidity. Among the Asiatics, the approbrious district was Phrygia; among the Thracians, Abdera; among the Greeks, Bœotia; and in England, it is Gotham, a village a little to the south of Nottingham. Of the Gothamites, ironically called the wise men of Gotham, many ridiculous fables are related; particularly, that having often heard the cuckoo, but never seen her, they hedged in a bush, whence her note seemed to proceed, that being confined within so small a compass, they might at length satisfy their curiosity. What gave rise to this story is not now remembered, but at a place named Court-hill, in this parish, there is a bush still called by the name of Cuckow-Bush.

Over the Trent, which is navigable to this town by barges, there is a stately bridge, consisting of nineteen arches; and as the river sometimes overflows the neighbouring meadows, there is a causey near a mile long, leading from the river to the town, with arches at proper distances. Here is also a very handsome stone bridge over the Lind, which is kept in repair at the common charge of the town and county.

The rock on which Nottingham stands being so soft as to yield easily to the pick-axe and spade, affords excellent cellaring, with two or three vaults, one under another.

As an inland town, the trade of Nottingham is very considerable, and consists chiefly in its manufactures of glass, earthenware, and stockings. The best malt in England is made here, and sent by land to the neighbouring counties. Great quantities of ale are also made here, and sent to most parts of England.

At the bottom of a steep rock under this town, are several caverns which have been cut into apartments, with chimnies, windows, and other conveniences, supposed to have been contrived by the ancient inhabitants for places of retreat.

Near Burton, south of Nottingham, is a camp, supposed to have been British, from several ancient coins which have been found in it.

Bingham stands at the distance of a hundred and eight miles from London, and is a small town, with a charity-

a charity-school, and a parsonage of great value. At East-Bridgford, north of this place, may be seen the remains of a Roman station, where a number of Roman coins and other relics of antiquity have been found.

Newark is situated a hundred and eighteen miles from London. Two miles south of this town, the Trent divides itself into two branches, which forms a small island by uniting at the distance of two miles north of it. The town stands upon the eastern branch of the Trent, and has a bridge over each.

Newark was formerly walled round; and from the appearance of the stones in the north-gate, this place is supposed to have been a Roman station. It is a well-built town, and a great thoroughfare from London to York. Here is a church built in the reign of Henry the Sixth, which has a lofty spire, and is reckoned one of the finest parish churches in England. The market-place is so spacious, that lord Bellarsye drew up in it ten thousand men, when he defended this town for Charles I. against the Scotch army. Here is a charity-school for thirty-five boys, supported by contributions, and a free-school founded by Thomas Magnus. This is a flourishing town, and has a considerable trade in corn, cattle, wool, and other commodities.

Southwell is situated a hundred and thirty-four miles from London, on a small stream called the Greet, which falls into the Trent about two miles south of the town. Here is a church called a minster, which is both parochial and collegiate. It is supposed to have been founded by Paulinus, the first archbishop of York, about the year 630, and is reputed the mother-church of the town and county of Nottingham. It was set on fire by lightning on the 5th of November 1711, when all the body of it, except the choir, was burnt to the ground. It has however, been repaired, and is a plain Gothic structure, built in the form of a cross, with a high tower in the middle, and two spires at the west end. Its length from east to west is three hundred and six feet, its breadth fifty-nine; and the length of the cross itself, from north to south, is a hundred and twenty-one feet. To this church belong sixteen prebendaries of canons, with other officers. The chapter has a peculiar jurisdiction over twenty-eight parishes, to most of which it has the right of presentation, as well as to other parishes in Lincolnshire and Yorkshire. This jurisdiction is exercised by a commissary or vicar-general, who is chosen by the chapter out of its own body, and holds visitations twice a year. Here are two annual synods, at which all the clergy of Nottingham attend, and where a certain number of the prebendaries of this church, and other clergymen, are appointed by the archbishop of York, to preside as commissioners.

Southwell is divided into two parts; one is called the Burgage, or Burridge, where the inhabitants hold their lands or tenements of the lord, at a certain yearly rent, and which comprehends all that part of the town between the market-place and the river Greet. The other part is called the Prebendage,

and consists of the liberties of the church. The civil government here is distinct from that of the county, and is called the *Soke* of Southwell with Scroby, a town near Blith. There are about twenty townships subject to this jurisdiction. The custos, coronator, and justices of the peace for it, are nominated by the archbishop of York, and constituted by a commission under the great seal.

Adjoining to the church is a free-school, under the care of the chapter. The master is chosen by the chapter, and approved by the archbishop of York. There are two fellowships and two scholarships in St. John's college, in Cambridge, to be presented by the master and fellows of that college to such persons as they shall think proper, who have been choirsisters of the church at Southwell.

Here are the ruins of a grand palace, demolished in the civil wars under Charles I. It belonged to the archbishop of York, and was supposed to have been built by archbishop Booth, from the remains of a chapel. The archbishop of York had formerly three parks at this place, and, though they have now no feat here, they have ever since the Conquest been lords of the manor, and enjoy great privileges, having the returns of writs on all the lands, tenements, and fees, in the neighbourhood. Besides the sessions of the peace, kept by turns at Southwell and at Scroby, by justices of their own nomination, they have a great lect, which they do, or may, hold over several townships.

Mansfield stands at the distance of a hundred and thirty-six miles from London, and was anciently a royal demesne. It is a large well-built town, with a charity-school for thirty-six boys, and a good market, well stocked with corn, malt, and cattle.

By the ancient custom of the manor of Mansfield, the tenants, both men and women were at liberty to marry. The heirs of estates were declared to be of full age as soon as they were born; and the lands were equally divided among the sons, or in default of such issue, among the daughters.

Tuxford is situated a hundred and thirty-one miles from London, on the post-road between London and York. It stands in a mirey clayish soil, and the buildings are mean; but here is a good free-school.

Warhoop is situated at the head of a small river called the Ryton, at the distance of a hundred and thirty-three miles from London. Its market is particularly well stocked with great quantities of liquorice and malt.

Redford-East is situated on the river Idle, a hundred and thirty-five miles from London, and is a royal demesne. Here is a free grammar-school, a good town-hall, in which are held the sessions for the town, and sometimes for the county; and under the town-hall are shambles, the best in Nottinghamshire. This town is connected with West-Redford by a good stone bridge over the Idle; it stands among large plantations of hops, in which, and barley for malting, it carries on a considerable trade.

At Tilney, north of Redford, was found not long ago a Druidical amulet, consisting of transparent stone of an aqueous colour, with streaks of yellow.

At the same time were discovered a Roman stylos, and several cornelians and agates, with engravings and Roman inscriptions.

Littleborough, upon the river Trent, about seven miles east of Redford, is thought to have been a Roman town, called Agelocum. Several Roman pavements and foundations of ancient buildings have been discovered on the east side of the town, part of which has been washed away by the river. Many coins and other remains of antiquity have also been dug up at this place. On the east side of the river, opposite to Littleborough, are still to be seen the traces of an ancient camp.

Blith stands upon the borders of Yorkshire, at the distance of a hundred and forty-four miles from London. It has a large church, and an hospital, called Blith Spittle, built by one of the Cressly family.

Nottinghamshire is part of the territory which, in the time of the Romans, was inhabited by the Coritani. A Roman military way, called the Fosseway, enters this county from Leicestershire, at a place called Willoughby-on-the-Would; whence it passes in a direction north-east, by Bingham and Newark, into Lincolnshire.

Near this military way, Willoughby-in-the-Would, several Roman coins have been dug up.

The principal manufactures of this county are stockings, glass, and earthenwares. The inhabitants also make great quantities of malt, and fine strong ale. Nottinghamshire sends eight members to parliament, two of whom are for the county, and two for each of the following boroughs, namely, Nottingham, East-Redford, and Newark.

### LINCOLNSHIRE.

Lincolnshire is bounded on the west by Nottinghamshire, Leicestershire, and parts of Yorkshire; on the north by Yorkshire, from which it is separated by the Estuary of the Humber; on the east by the German Ocean; and on the south by Northamptonshire. It is about sixty miles in length from north to south, and thirty-five miles in breadth.

The principal rivers that water this county are the Welland, the Witham, the Trent, the Dun, and the Ankam. The Welland rises in Northamptonshire, and running across that county, enters Lincolnshire, where passing by several market-towns, it discharges itself into a bay of the German Ocean, called by Ptolemy Metaris Estuarium, but now the Washes. The Witham rises near Grantham, a considerable town of this county, and running north-east, passes by Lincoln, whence directing its course south-east, it falls into the German Ocean near Boston. The Trent, as has already been observed, rises in Staffordshire, whence running north-east through the counties of Derby and Nottingham, and parting the latter from Lincolnshire, it falls into the mouth of the Humber. The Dun rises in Yorkshire, and enclosing with the Trent a considerable piece of ground in the north-west part of this county, known by the

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name of the Isle of Axholm, falls into the Trent near its conflux with the Humber. The Ankam rises not far north of Lincoln, and directing its course due north, falls into the Humber east of the river Trent.

The air of Lincolnshire is different in different parts: in the middle of this county, and in the western parts along the Trent, it is very healthy; but of an opposite quality on the sea coast, particularly in the south-east division, which is not only boggy, and full of fens, but great part of it is under water; whence it is distinguished by the name of Holland.

The soil of this county is in general rich; the inland parts producing corn in great plenty, and the fens affording excellent pasture. Lincolnshire is remarkable for fat cattle, and good horses; nor is it reputed less fortunate in its breed of dogs, as well greyhounds as mastiffs. It abounds in game of all kinds; and the rivers, with the sea, afford plenty of various kinds of fish. In the Witham is a sort of pike, of excellent quality, and peculiar to this river. So great is the number and variety of wild fowl in this county, that it has been called the aviary of England; and two fowls, called the knute and the dotterel, which are most delicious food, are said to be found no where else in England.

Lincolnshire lies in the province of Canterbury and diocese of Lincoln, and contains six hundred and thirty parishes. In respect of civil jurisdiction, it is divided into three provinces; first, Holland, comprehending the south-east part of the county, which is subdivided into three wapentakes or hundreds; secondly, Kesteven, comprehending the southern part of the county, and containing ten wapentakes or hundreds; thirdly, Lindsey, which comprises the north part of Lincolnshire, and is subdivided into seventeen wapentakes or hundreds. The whole county is divided into thirty hundreds or wapentakes, and contains one city and thirty-one market-towns.

The city is Lincoln, and the market-towns are Alford, Barton, Binbroke, Boston, Bourn, Bullingbrook, Burgh, Burton, Castor, Corby, Crowland, Deeping-Market, Dunnington, Fokingham, Ganesborough, Glandford-bridge, Grantham, Grimby, Holbeck, Horncastle, Kirkton, Louth, Rafen-market, Saltfleet, Slesford, Spalding, Spillsby, Stamford, Stanton, Tattershal, and Wainfleet.

The city of Lincoln is situated a hundred and thirty-five miles from London, on the declivity of a hill, with the river Witham running at the bottom in three small channels, over which are several bridges. This was formerly one of the greatest cities in England. It is said to have had fifty-two parish-churches, which, in the reign of Edward VI. were reduced by act of parliament to eighteen. There now remain only thirteen, which are meaner than those of any other city in England. Here is, however, a cathedral, which is a stately Gothic pile, and though not the most beautiful structure of the kind, is the principal ornament of the city. It was so much esteemed by the monks, that they used to say the devil could never look at it without frowns of discontent and malignity;

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nity; whence arose the proverb generally applied to malicious and envious persons, "He looks as the devil over Lincoln." This cathedral is one of the largest in England; and by its own height and the loftiness of its situation, may be seen over five or six counties, fifty miles to the north, and thirty to the south. In this church is a famous bell of an enormous size, called Tom of Lincoln: it is almost five tons in weight, and twenty-three foot in circumference, and will contain four hundred and twenty-four gallons of ale measure. Here are also some curious windows, called Catharine-wheel windows, a chapter-house, cloisters, and library, that are much admired. On the south side of the cathedral stands the bishop's palace, which has formerly been a grand structure, but was demolished in the civil wars in the reign of Charles I. and has never been rebuilt.

The buildings of this city are generally old, especially at the bottom of the hill, but towards the top, there are many good houses in the modern taste. Here is an old ruinous castle, erected by William the Conqueror, in the centre of which is a handsome modern structure for holding the assizes. In this city are four charity-schools, where a hundred and twenty poor children are taught by the widows of clergymen.

Lincoln is a county of itself, and has a viscountial jurisdiction for twenty miles round, a privilege enjoyed by no other city in England. It was once burnt, once besieged by king Stephen, who was here defeated and made prisoner, and once taken by Henry III. from his rebellious barons. The bishop's see had been at Dorchester during many years, but was removed hither in the eleventh century.

This city was the Lindum of the Romans. A gate called Newport-gate, of Roman work is still entire, and is the noblest remnant of the kind in England. It consists of a vast semicircle of stones, not cemented, but as it were wedged in together: and close to this gate is another piece of Roman workmanship, called the Mint wall, which consists of alternate layers of brick and stone, and is yet sixteen foot high, and forty long. There are various fragments of the old Roman wall which surrounded the city; besides many funeral monuments of the Normans. On the top of the hill on which the city stands, are yet visible traces of a rampart and ditches, supposed to be the remains of the ancient Lindum, which was demolished by the Saxons.

This city having abounded with monasteries, and other religious houses, the ruins of many still appear in barns, stables, out houses, and even in some hogstyes, which are observed to be built in the church-fashion, with stone-walls, and arched windows and doors.

Lincoln has a communication with the river Trent by a canal, called the Fosse-Dyke, cut by king Henry I. between the Trent and the Witham, for the convenience of carriage. On a course at a little distance there are horse-races every year.

Grantham is distant from London a hundred and four miles, and is a handsome, populous town, with good inns, and much frequented. Here is a fine

church, with a stone spire, one of the loftiest in England, being two hundred and eighty foot high; but it is so constructed as to appear declining from the perpendicular, on whatever side it be viewed. Here is also a good free-school, built and endowed by Richard Fox, bishop of Winchester, a native of this place, besides two charity-schools. On a neighbouring course there are frequent horse-races.

Paunton, a village south of Grantham, is supposed to have been the Ad Pontem of the Romans, not only from the distant similitude of the names, but from the distances assigned to other places in respect of this station. Chequered Roman pavements, and other antiquities, have often been dug up here. Near Hunnington, about five miles from Grantham, is a Roman camp, called Julius Cæsar's double trench; and here a great number of Roman coins was found in an urn, towards the end of the last century.

Stamford is situated on the river Welland, upon the borders of Northamptonshire and Rutlandshire, at the distance of eighty-three miles from London. It is one of the most considerable towns in the county, and has a fine stone bridge over the Welland into Northamptonshire. This town had anciently fourteen churches, which were reduced to half the number by an act of parliament in the time of Edward VI. One of those churches, St. Martin's, stands upon the east side of the river, in a part of the town called Stamford-Baron, which properly lies in Northamptonshire, but is rated within the jurisdiction of this corporation, and is therefore included in the name of Stamford. In this church, lord Burleigh, the favourite minister of queen Elizabeth, lies buried in a splendid tomb. Here are two inns, the George and the Bull, the former of which is reckoned the largest, and the latter the most magnificent in England. Here is also a fine town-hall, and a charity-school for eighty children, with two hospitals, one of which was built and endowed by lord Burleigh. The chief trade of this town is in malt, sea-coal, and free-stone. Here is a new course for horse-races.

The inhabitants of Grantham enjoy great privileges, particularly a freedom from the jurisdiction of the sheriff of the county, and from being impanelled on juries out of town. They are entitled to have the return of all writs, and are exempted from the government of all lord lieutenants.

The authority of an ancient manuscript has been produced, to prove that Stamford was a university long before the birth of Christ, and continued so till the year 300, when it was dissolved by the pope for adhering to the doctrines of Arius. It is generally admitted to have been a university before the reign of Edward III. and here are the remains of two colleges, one called Blackhall, and the other Brazen-nose. On the gate of the latter is yet a brass nose, with a ring through it, like that upon the gate of a college of the same name at Oxford, which was not built till the reign of Henry the VIIth, and therefore took its name, as well as this distinguishing mark, from Brazen-nose college of Stamford. It appears

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also, that several of the students of Oxford removed hither, upon some quarrel arising between the students of the north and those of the south, in the time of Edward III. when, it is probable, there were some colleges here to receive them, as they did not stay a sufficient time at Stamford to have any built.

By some remains of antiquity found here, it appears that this was no inconsiderable place in the time of the Romans; and there are the traces of a Roman highway from south to north, passing through this town; which affords reason to imagine that here once was a ferry over the Welland. In the reign of Stephen this place was furnished with a castle, the foundation plot of which is yet visible in the middle of the town. The custom of Borough English, by which the youngest son is heir to his father, still subsists in Stamford.

Deeping-Market is an ill-built town, situated among the fens, at the distance of eighty-seven miles from London.

Crowland is distant from London eighty-eight miles. It is so surrounded with bogs, that it is accessible only on the north and east sides, and even there not for carriages; which gave rise to the proverb, that all the carts which came to Crowland were shod with silver. The town, however, is well inhabited, and consists of three streets, separated by water courses, planted on each side with willows. They are built on piles, and have a communication with each other by a triangular bridge of curious contrivance, which stands at the conflux of the Welland, and a river called the Nine. This formed three segments of a circle, which meet in one point; and it is said, that the extremity of each segment, opposite to the point of contact, stands in a different county, one in Lincolnshire, another in Cambridge-shire, and the third in Rutlandshire.

Here is a church, which formerly belonged to a famous abbey at this place. The roof of this church fell in about a century ago, and was found to consist of Irish oak, finely carved and gilt. Over its west gate are the images of several kings and abbots, among which is that of St. Guthlac, to whom the abbey was dedicated. He bears in his hand a whip and knife, his usual symbols. At a little distance from the abbey is a little stone cottage, called Anchor Church-house, in which this saint is said to have lived as a hermit.

The greatest advantage derived by the inhabitants of this town is from fish and wild ducks. Of the latter, they sometimes drive three thousand into a net at once by dogs; and they are brought hither by decoy ducks bred for the purpose. For the liberty of fishing in the many pools in and near the town, they now pay to the king, as they formerly did to the abbot, three hundred pounds a year.

Spalding stands ninety-eight miles from London, upon the river Welland, by which it is almost surrounded. It is likewise surrounded at a greater distance with lakes, canals, and other bodies of water; and is a more neat and populous town than could be expected in such a situation. Here is a spacious mar-

ket place, with a free grammar school for the sons of the inhabitants, and a charity-school. The town has also a small port, and a bridge over the Welland, which is navigable hither for vessels of fifty or sixty tons. To this port belong several barges, that are chiefly employed in carrying coals and corn.

Holbeck stands ninety-eight miles from London, and is remarkable only on account of its fair for cattle, corn, and flax.

Dunnington is situated ninety-nine miles from London. Its market is famous for a large sale of hemp and hempsed; and it has a port for barges, by which goods are carried to and from Boston, and the Washes.

Fokingham stands on the declivity of a hill, a hundred and four miles from London, and enjoys a healthful air, but is a place of no trade.

Sleaford, called New Sleaford, to distinguish it from a neighbouring place, is situated at the distance of a hundred and ten miles from London, near the source of a little river, which runs with so great rapidity through the town, that it is never frozen, and within the compass of two miles, drives five corn-mills, two fulling-mills, and one paper-mill; after which it falls into the Witham. This town is populous, and the buildings are constantly improving. It has a large handsome church, with a free-school, and an hospital for twelve poor men.

Boston is situated a hundred and fourteen miles from London, upon the river Witham, which is navigable hence to Lincoln. Here is a church, reckoned the largest parochial church, without cross-aisles, in the world; being three hundred foot long within the walls, and a hundred foot wide. The ceiling is of English oak, supported by tall slender columns. This church contains three hundred and sixty five steps, fifty-two windows, and twelve pillars, answering to the days, weeks, and months of the year. Its tower, which was built in 1309, is two hundred and eighty-two foot high, and has at the top a beautiful octagon lantern, which serves as a beacon to mariners, when they enter the dangerous channels, called Lynn Deeps, and Boston Deeps in the Washes. It is the admiration of travellers, being seen at the distance of forty miles round. Here are two charity-schools, and a high wooden bridge over the Witham. The town has a commodious harbour, and carries on a good trade, both inland and foreign; yet many of the inhabitants apply themselves to grazing of cattle with great advantage. Here is an annual fair for cattle, and all sorts of merchandize, which lasts during nine days, and is called a mart by way of eminence. The country in the neighbourhood of this town is marsh lands, which are very rich, and feed vast numbers of large sheep and oxen.

Wainfleet is situated a hundred and twenty-four miles from London, upon the borders of the fenny country called Holland. It is neatly built, and remarkable only for a fine free-school, founded by William Patin, a bishop of Winchester, and a native of this place.

Tatterhal stands at the distance of a hundred and eighteen miles from London, in a marshy country.

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Most of the houses are of brick; and here is a castle famous for its ancient barons.

Bulingbrook, or Bollinbroke, lies a hundred miles from London, and is noticed only for its market.

Spilsby is situated a hundred and twenty-two miles from London, and has a good market, with a charity-school.

Burgh is distant from London a hundred and four miles, and has nothing worthy of notice but a charity-school.

Horncastle is distant from London a hundred and twenty two miles, and is a large well-built town, situated on a small river called the Bane, by which it is almost surrounded. At the village of Yarburgh, near this place, are the remains of a large Roman camp, where great quantities of Roman coins have been dug up.

Not far hence lies Scrivelby-hall, the manor of the Dimocks, who hold it upon condition that, at the coronation, the lord, either in person or by proxy, shall come into the royal presence well armed, on a war-horse, and make proclamation, that if any one shall say, that the sovereign has no right to the crown, he is ready to defend his right against all that shall oppose it.

Alford is situated a hundred and seven miles from London, and is a little obscure place, mentioned only for its having a market.

Louth stands a hundred and thirty-three miles from London, upon the bank of a small river called the Lud. It has a large church, with a fine steeple. Here is a free-school founded by Edward VI. and a charity-school for forty children.

Rafen, called Rafen-Market, to distinguish it from East, West, and Middle Rafen, is situated, like the others, near the source of the Anklam. It is distant a hundred and thirty-nine miles from London, but contains nothing worthy of note.

Ganeborough stands upon the Trent, at the distance of a hundred and thirty-seven miles from London. It is a well-built town, and has a flourishing trade by means of the river, which brings up vessels of considerable burden with the tide, though it be near forty miles from the Humber by water. The North Marsh, in the neighbourhood of this town, is remarkable for horse-races.

At Marton, near Ganeborough, are some remains of a Roman highway, leading from Doncaster in Yorkshire to Lincoln; and about a quarter of a mile from the town, are some considerable pieces of Roman pavement.

Stow, a village near Ganeborough, was formerly a city called Sidnacester, and is supposed to have been a Roman station.

On some hills between Ganeborough and a neighbouring village, called Lea, many Roman coins and pieces of urns have been dug up; and one of those hills, called Castle-hill, is surrounded with entrenchments, said to inclose above a hundred acres.

Littleborough, a small town about three miles from Ganeborough, is supposed to be the Angelocum or Legelocum of the Romans.

Kirkton stands at the distance of a hundred and thirty-six miles from London, and is famous for a sort of apple, called the Kirkton pippin. Here is a magnificent church, built in the form of a cathedral.

Castor, or Thong Castle, is situated a hundred and twenty miles from London, but has nothing worthy of note. This place is said to have derived its name from the following circumstance: Hengist, the Saxon, as a reward for having repelled the Scots and Picts, obtained from Vortigern a grant of as much ground here as he could encompass with the hide of an ox cut into small thongs. On this ground he built a castle, which was hence called Thong Castle.

Grimby is distant from London a hundred and fifty-eight miles, and in point of antiquity, is said to be the second, if not the first corporation in England. The town is well-built, and contains several streets, with a church that has the appearance of a cathedral. It was formerly a place of great trade, but its harbour has been long choaked up. The road before it, however, is a good station for ships that wait for a wind to get to sea; and it has a trade in corn and salt, by the navigation of the Humber.

Glandford Bridge stands a hundred and fifty-three miles from London, and is remarkable only for a bridge over the river Anklam.

Barton is situated a hundred and sixty-three miles from London, and has a horse-ferry to Hull, across the river Humber, which is here six miles over.

Burton, called likewise Burton-Stather, stands a hundred and forty-nine miles from London. The houses are pleasantly intermixed with trees, and it has two churches, one of which it so low, in respect of the precipice over it, that a person may almost leap from the precipice on the steeple. This place is well situated for trade on the east bank of the Trent, on which it has several mills.

Lincolnshire is part of the country which, in the time of the Romans, was inhabited by the Coritani. The great Sir Isaac Newton was a native of this district, and was taught the first rudiments of learning at the free grammar-school of Grantham. This county is not remarkable for any manufacture, and sends to parliament twelve members, viz. two knights of the shire, two members for the city of Lincoln, and two for each of the following boroughs, namely, Stamford, Grantham, Boston, and Grimby.

## YORKSHIRE.

Yorkshire is bounded on the south by Lincolnshire, Nottinghamshire, and Derbyshire; on the west, by Cheshire and Lancashire; on the north, by the counties of Durham and Westmoreland; and on the east, by the German Ocean. It is by much the largest county in England, extending in length a hundred and fourteen miles, and in breadth eighty.

This county is watered by many rivers, the chief of which are the Don, the Calder, the Aire, the Wharfe, the Lidd, the Ure, the Swale, the Ouse, the

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*Summer Habit of a Russian Woman  
with her Cloak on in 1765.*



*This Figure was taken from a celebrated collection of Dresses among  
the People of the North, engraved and published by J. B. Le Prieux.*

the Derwent, the Hull, the Humber, the Ribble, and the Tees.

The river Don rises near the borders of Cheshire, not far from Barneley, and running south-east to Sheffield, it thence directs its course north-east, and falls into the Aire at Sneth, a market-town of this county. The Calder rises in Lancashire, and running eastward, falls into the Aire about five miles north-east of Wakefield. The Aire issues from the bottom of a high hill, called Pennigent, near Settle, upon the borders of Lancashire, whence running eastward, and being joined by the Don and the Calder, it falls into the Ouse not far from Sneth. The Wharfe rises in a wild stony tract, called Craven-hills, north of Pennigent-hill, whence running almost parallel to the river Aire, it falls into the Ouse south-east of Tadcaster. The Nidd rises also among the Craven-hills, and running nearly parallel to the Wharfe, falls into the Swale, a few miles east of Knaresborough. The Ure, Eure, Yore, or York, rises in a mountainous tract on the borders of Westmoreland, and running south-east, joins the Swale near Burrow-bridge. The Swale rises near the spring of the Ure, and runs with a rapid stream south-east, through a tract of country to which it gives the name of Swaledale. Near Richmond it forms a cataract, whence continuing its course south-east, and being joined by the Ure, and other rivers, the united stream is called the Ure, till it arrives at the city of York, where receiving a small stream called the Ouse, it assumes this name, and, running eastward falls into the Humber, not far from Howden. The Derwent rises at a little distance from Whitby, and, running southward, falls into the Ouse near Howden. The Hull has its source in a wild part of the county, called York-Woulds, near Kilham, and, running south by Beverley, falls into the Humber at Kingston-upon-Hull. The Humber is an æstuary of many rivers, and the largest in Britain. It is called Humber, from the conflux of the Ouse and Trent, to its mouth, where it falls into the German Ocean. Being properly an arm of the sea, it regularly ebbs and flows, the former of which motions it performs with prodigious rapidity, and a roaring noise. This reflux is called the Hygre, and is dangerous to those sailors who are not acquainted with it. The Ribble rises among the Craven-hills, whence, running south by Settle and Gisbourn, it passes into Lancashire, not far from the latter of those towns. The Tees rises on the borders of Cumberland, whence running south-east, and receiving less considerable streams, it afterwards directs its course north-north-east, and separating Yorkshire from the county of Durham, discharges itself into the German Ocean.

The less considerable rivers of this county are the Washbrook, the Cock, the Rother, the Iddle, the Wen, the Hebden, the Hyde, the Rabuk, the Dont, the Revel, the Gret, and the Foulness.

The air, soil and productions of this extensive county being different in different parts, it is necessary to anticipate its general division into three parts, called Ridings. This name, which expresses the third part

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of a county, was common to other counties in the north of England, before the Conquest, but is now peculiar to Yorkshire. The Ridings of this county, each of which is as large as most others, are distinguished by the names of the West-Riding, the East-Riding, and the North-Riding. The first of these is bounded on the east by the river Ouse, which separates it from the East-Riding, and on the north by the Ure, which divides it from the North-Riding: the East and North Ridings are separated by the Derwent.

The air in the West-Riding is sharper, but more healthful, than in either of the other two. The ground on the western side of this division is hilly and stony, and therefore not very fruitful; but the intermediate valleys afford plenty of good meadow and pasture land. On the side of this Riding, next the river Ouse, the soil is rich, producing wheat and barley, though not in so great abundance as oats, which are cultivated with success in the most barren parts of this district. The West-Riding is famous for fine horses, goats, and other cattle; and here are some trees, which are seldom found wild in any other part of England, particularly the fir, the yew, and the chestnut. This Riding abounds with parks and chafes, and contains many mines of pit-coal and jet. In several parts are also mines of stone, which by a peculiar process is made into alum. The chief manufactures of this Riding are cloth and iron wares; and it is remarkable for curing legs of pork into hams, like those of Westphalia.

The East-Riding is the smallest of the three, and the air here, on account of the neighbourhood of the German Ocean, or the great æstuary of the Humber, is less pure and healthy; yet on the hilly parts, towards the north-west, in a large tract called York-Woulds, the air is little affected by those causes. The soil, however, in general, is dry, sandy, and barren; but the Woulds produce some corn, and feed great numbers of black cattle, horses, and sheep, the wool of which is equal to any in England. The sea-coast and vallies in this division are fruitful; and it yields plenty of wood, pit-coal, turf, jet, and alum-stones; and the inhabitants are well supplied with sea and river fish. The principal manufacture of this Riding is cloth.

The North-Riding is the northern boundary of the other two, and the air here is colder and purer than in those abovementioned. The eastern part of this Riding, which is called Blackmoor, is a mountainous and woody country; and the north-west, called Richmondshire, consists of one continued eminence, or ridge of rocks and vast mountains, the sides of which yield good grass, and the vallies at the bottom are very fruitful. The hills afford goats, with deer of a very large size, and contain mines of lead, copper, alum-stone, and coal; but of those, the coal and alum mines only are wrought. Swaledale abounds with fine pasture; and Wantefdale, watered by the Ure, is a rich, fruitful valley, supplying great quantities of wood, and stocked with large herds of cattle. Towards the sea-coast are found great quantities of jet,

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and at Eggleston, north-west of Richmond, there is a fine marble quarry. The sea near this coast swarms with herrings in the season, and affords great plenty of other fish, as well as the rivers; among which the Ure is remarkable for cray-fish. The principal manufactures of this Riding are cloth, stockings and alum.

Yorkshire lies in the province and diocese of York, except Richmondshire, which belongs to the diocese of Chester; and it contains five hundred and sixty-three parishes. The Ridings of this county are subdivided into twenty-six wapentakes or hundreds, of which the West-Riding contains ten, the East-Riding four, and the North-Riding twelve. Yorkshire has only one city, but contains fifty-four market-towns. The city is York; and the market-towns are, Aberforth, Aldborough, Barnesley, Bante, Bradforth, Burrowbridge, Doncaster, Gisborn, Halifax, Hatherfield, Knarlesborough, Leeds, Otley, Pontefract, Ripley, Rippon, Rotheram, Selby, Settle, Sheffield, Sherborn, Skipton, Sneth, Tadcaster, Thorn, Tickhall, Wakefield, and Wetherby, all in the West-Riding. In the East-Riding are Beverly, Bridlington, Headon, Hornsey, Howden, Kilham, Kingstun-upon Hull, Pettrington, Pocklington, and Wighton. In the North-Riding are Northallerton, Afsrig, Bedall, Gisborough, Helmsley, Kirby-morside, Malton, Matham, Midlam, Pickering, Richmond, Scarborough, Stokefley, Thirsk, Whitby, and Yarum.

The city of York stands on a point where the boundaries of the three Ridings meet, and being also a county of itself, it belongs properly to none of the Ridings. It is pleasantly situated on the river Ouse, a hundred and ninety-eight miles north-by-west of London. This is the see of an archbishop, and has been generally reckoned, next to London, the chief city in England: but though it exceeds Bristol in extent, yet the latter is greatly superior in the number of inhabitants, as well as in trade and riches. York is encompassed with walls, in which are four large well-built gates, and five posterns. The houses are for the most part old, and built of timber. It had formerly forty-one parish-churches, and seventeen chapels, besides a cathedral; but the parishes are now reduced to twenty-eight, and the parish-churches in use are no more than seventeen.

The cathedral having been burnt down in the reign of Stephen, the present fabric was begun in the reign of Edward I. and is by some reckoned the finest Gothic building in England. It extends in length five hundred and twenty-five foot, in breadth a hundred and ten foot, and in height ninety-nine. The length of the cross-aisles is two hundred and twenty-two foot; the nave, the largest of any, except that of St. Peter's church at Rome, is four foot and a half wider, and eleven foot higher, than that of St. Paul's cathedral in 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. In the south tower, on the west side, is a deep peal of twelve bells, the tenor weigh-

ing fifty-nine hundred weight. At the south end of the church is a circular window, called the Marigold Window, from the glass being stained of the same colour as the flowers of that name. At the north end is a very large painted window, said to have been erected at the expence of five maiden sisters. The other windows are beautifully painted with scripture history. The front of the choir is adorned with statues of all the kings of England, from William the Conqueror to Henry the VIth; and here are thirty-two stalls, all of fine marble, with pillars, each consisting of one piece of alabafter.

This cathedral has a chapter-house, which is esteemed one of the neatest Gothic structures in England. It is of an octagonal form, sixty-three foot in diameter, without any pillar to support the roof, which rests upon one pin placed in the centre. The windows are finely painted and finished, with an arch at the top; and within is the following barbarous verse, in gilt letters, which shews the high opinion that was entertained of this edifice.

*Ut resas storum, sic est domus ista domorum.*

Of the parish-churches three only are remarkable. Alhallow's church, a Gothic structure, has the most insignificant steeple of any in England; St. Mary's has a steeple in the form of a pyramid, which is much admired; and St. Margaret's has a steeple like that of St. Mary's, with a magnificent porch, on the top of which is a crucifixion cut in stone.

Here are two market-houses, one of which is a curious piece of architecture, supported by twelve columns of the Tuscan order. Near the cathedral is an assembly room for the nobility and gentry, which was designed by the late earl of Burlington, and erected by subscription. The hall of this building is a hundred and twenty-three foot long, forty broad, and upwards of forty foot high. It communicates with the ball-room, which is sixty-six foot long, twenty-two foot broad, and as many high. The archiepiscopal palace, which stands near the cathedral, with the houses of the dean and prebendaries, makes a noble appearance; and the city is also adorned with a handsome mansion-house for the chief magistrate, which was erected in 1728.

A castle was built here by William the Conqueror, which was repaired in the beginning of the present century, and is now the place where the assizes are held: part of it is also used for a prison. It has a handsome chapel, with a good stipend for a preacher; and a large loaf of fine bread is given to every debtor that attends the service. The wards are all kept clean; the very felons are allowed beds; and there is an infirmary separated from the common prison, where the sick are properly attended.

Here is a stone bridge, with five arches over the river Ouse: the centre arch is eighty-one foot wide, and fifty one foot high; and the bridge is so crowded with buildings, that it looks like a street. Among those buildings are a guild-hall, a record office, an exchequer, an apartment in which the sheriff's courts are held, and two city prisons for debtors and felons.

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Some years ago a manufacture of cotton was established here, which is now brought to perfection, and proves to be very advantageous.

The chief magistrate of this city has the title of lord-mayor. York is divided into four wards; and the lord-mayor and aldermen have the conservancy of the rivers Ouse, Humber, Wharfe, Derwent, Aire, and Don, within certain limits. The representatives of this city in parliament have a right to sit upon the privy counsellors bench, next to the citizens of London; a privilege which the representatives of both cities claim on the first day of the meeting of every new parliament.

The city of York is by Ptolemy called Brigantium, but more generally known among the Roman writers by the name Eboracum. It was a Roman colony, as appears not only from the testimony of Ptolemy and Antoninus, but from many inscriptions which have been found here. The emperor Severus resided a considerable time in this city, and dying here, his ashes were carried hence in a golden urn to Rome. Constantius Chlorus also died at this place; and here his son Constantine the Great, was, upon his father's decease, declared emperor by the Roman soldiers.

It is said, that in a vault belonging to a little chapel here, in which Constantius was thought to have been buried, a lamp was found burning, about the time of the dissolution of monasteries.

No less than three Roman ways passed through this city; and here was a temple dedicated to Belona. There are still to be seen some remains of Roman buildings, particularly an arch at a place called Micklegate-Bar, several parts of the city walls, and a polygonal tower, near a place called the Mint-yard.

Adjoining to Botham-Bat, in this city, was the burying-place of the Romans, after the practice of interring the dead, instead of burning them, had been introduced. Many pieces of antiquity have here been discovered, such as urns, lachrymatories, and a variety of funeral implements.

Hull, or Kingston-upon-Hull, is situated a hundred and sixty-nine miles from London, at the conflux of the river Hull and the Humber, and near the place where the latter opens into the German Ocean. It lies low, that by cutting the banks of the Humber, the country may be laid under water for five miles round. Towards the land it is defended by a wall and a ditch, with the farther fortification of a castle, a citadel, and a block-house. The town is large and populous, containing two churches, several meeting-houses, a free-school, a charity-school, and some hospitals. Among the latter is one called Trinity-house, in which are maintained many distressed seamen, both of Hull and other places, that are members of its port. Here is also an exchange, and a custom-house, and over the Hull, a stone bridge consisting of fourteen arches. A good harbour was made here by Edward I. or Richard II.

This town has not only the most considerable inland traffic of any port in the north of England, but

a foreign trade superior to any in the kingdom, excepting the ports of London, Bristol and Yarmouth. By means of the many large rivers that fall into the Humber, it trades to almost every part of Yorkshire, as well as to Lincolnshire, Nottinghamshire, Staffordshire, Derbyshire, and Cheshire; the commodities of which counties are brought hither, and exported to Holland, Hamburg, France, Spain, the Baltic, and other parts of Europe. In return for those, are imported iron, copper, hemp, flax, canvas, Russia linnen and yarn, besides wine, oil, fruit, and other articles. Such quantities of corn are also brought hither by the navigable rivers, that Hull exports more of this commodity than London. The trade of Hull with London, particularly for corn, lead, and butter; and with Holland and France in times of peace; for those commodities, as well as for cloth, kerseys, and other manufactures of Yorkshire, is so considerable as to employ not only single vessels, but fleets: the Hull fleets to London being generally from fifty to sixty sail; and in time of war frequently a hundred sail or upwards. It is computed that more business is done in this port, in proportion to its extent, than in any other of Europe; and the customs here have been estimated at between thirty and forty thousand pounds a year.

Headon, Hedon, or Heydon, is distant from London a hundred and seventy-two miles, and is a well-built little town, pleasantly situated on a small stream near the Humber. It had formerly three churches, which are now reduced to one; and its harbour, which was once a port of considerable trade, has been many years choaked up by the estuary of the Humber.

Bridlington, or Burlington, stands two hundred and five miles from London, upon a bay or creek of the sea, and is reckoned a safe harbour in storms from the north-north-west, and north east. It is a place of considerable length, and chiefly inhabited by sea-faring people; having a good trade, and a key which lies almost two miles from the town.

Scarborough is distant from London two hundred and four miles, and stands on a high steep rock, surrounded by the sea, except on the west side, where it is connected with the continent by a narrow slip of land. The houses are well-built, and range in the form of a half-moon, fronting the main ocean, and extending irregularly on the declining side of the rock. This town was formerly defended by a strong castle, erected by Henry II, but now in ruins. Here is a commodious quay, and the best harbour between Newcastle and the Humber, for receiving ships in streets of weather; on which account the pier here is maintained at the public charge, by a duty upon coals from Newcastle and Sunderland. The mariners of this town have erected an hospital for the widows of poor seamen, which is supported by a rate on the vessels of this port, and by deductions out of the seamen's wages. The town has a good trade, and a great number of ships, chiefly employed in carrying coals from Newcastle to London. Herrings are taken here in great quantities, from the middle of August

August to November; with which this town supplies the city of York, as it does also with cod, mackarel, turbot, and variety of other fish.

The flourishing state of Scarborough, however, is in great measure owing to the numerous company that resorts hither in the hot months to drink its medicinal waters. The place where these issue is at the bottom of an exceeding high cliff, about a quarter of a mile south of the town; in a sandy soil, near the level of the spring tides, by which the source is overflowed. The water of this spring is very transparent, of an inky smell, but no disagreeable taste, and is impregnated with iron, vitriol, alum, nitre, and salt. It is purgative and diuretic; recommended for removing obstructions, and such disorders as proceed from a viscid state, or too slow a motion of the blood. This place is also frequented for sea-bathing.

Whitby is situated on the German Ocean, at the mouth of a small river called the Esk, two hundred and twenty-seven miles from London. It is a well-built town, and has a custom-house, with a good harbour, much frequented by the colliers. The best and strongest vessels used in England for the coal trade, are built in this port. Upwards of a hundred vessels, of eighty tons or more, belong to it; and vast quantities of corn and butter are sent hence to London, and sometimes to Holland.

Kilham stands in York-Woulds, at the distance of a hundred and ninety-eight miles from London, but contains nothing remarkable.

Beverley is distant from London a hundred and seventy-nine miles. It extends above a mile in length, and the streets are spacious and well-paved. Here were formerly four parish-churches, which are now reduced to two; but these are reckoned the finest and largest parochial churches in England. St. John's was a collegiate church, founded by king Athelstan: it was repaired in the reign of George I. and sir Michael Wharton left by will four thousand five hundred pounds to keep it in perpetual repair. The length of this building is three hundred and thirty-four foot, the breadth of the transept a hundred and sixty-eight foot, and that of the nave and side aisles, sixty-four foot. It is remarkable, that the north wall of the great-cross aisle, which declined about three foot and a half from the perpendicular, was restored by an engine contrived by Mr. Thornton, of York. Over the altar of this church is a magnificent wooden arch, curiously cut, and supported by eight fluted columns of the Corinthian order. The screen between the choir and the nave has been lately rebuilt in the Gothic manner, and is one of the principal ornaments of the church.

In former times this church had the privilege of a sanctuary for persons suspected of capital crimes; and at the upper end of the choir is still to be seen the chair of refuge, called Freed-Stool, consisting of one stone, with a well of water behind. It is said to have been brought from Dunbar in Scotland, and has the following inscription: "Hæ sedes lapidea Freed-Stool dicitur, i. e. pacis cathedra ad quam reus fugiendo perveniens omnimodam habet securitatem."

Here is a free-school, which is improved by two fellowships, six scholarships, and three exhibitions to St. John's college in Cambridge; besides a charity-school, a workhouse, and seven almshouses.

Near St. John's church is a spacious building, called Hall-Garth, in which the sessions and provost's court are held. A common jail was lately rebuilt; and here is a market-place, containing four acres of ground. It is adorned with a beautiful cross, supported by eight columns, each of one stone, erected at the charge of sir Charles Hotham and sir Michael Wharton.

The sessions for the East-Riding are always held here, and a court of record is kept, called the Provost's court, in which may be tried all causes that arise within the liberties of the town, except titles to land. The corporation is said to have a jurisdiction in criminal matters, but at present it is not exerted.

From the river Hull to this town runs a channel, anciently cut, and improved about forty years ago, by which there is a conveyance for ships of considerable burden.

Here was formerly a cloth manufacture; but the principal manufactures at present are malt, tanned leather, and bone-lace, in which the town carries on a considerable trade.

Pocklington is distant from London a hundred and eighty-three miles, and contains nothing worthy of note.

Pickering is situated two hundred and twenty-six miles from London, on a hill, among the mountains of Blackmoor. It is a town of considerable extent, belonging to the duchy of Lancaster, and has a jurisdiction over several neighbouring villages, with a court for all actions under forty shillings arising within the honour of Pickering.

Gilborough is pleasantly situated on a rising ground, four miles south-east of the mouth of the river Tees, and two hundred and fourteen miles from London. It is a well-built town, having in its neighbourhood a harbour for ships; and the inhabitants are distinguished for their civility and neatness.

Stokesly stands upon the banks of the river Wiske, at the distance of two hundred and seventeen miles from London. It consists of one well-built street, about half a mile long, with a very good market, and a fair for cattle, reckoned the greatest in England.

Kirby-Morefield was originally called Kirkby, but received the epithet Morefield, to distinguish it from many other towns in the north of England, called Kirkby. It stands on the side of Blackmoor, a hundred and ninety-eight miles from London, and contains nothing worthy of notice.

Walton is distant from London a hundred and ninety-nine miles, and is a borough by prescription. It is divided by the river Derwent into the old and new towns, which communicate with each other by a good stone bridge over the river. It is a populous place, with three handsome parish-churches, and good inns; and has the best market in the county for hofes, black cattle, and tools for husbandry.

Howden is situated a hundred and seventy-three miles from London, near the north bank of the river

Qufe,



Ouse, which sometimes lays the town under water. Here is a church, which was formerly collegiate, with a very tall steeple, erected by Walter Skirlaw, bishop of Durham, who lived in the fourteenth century, for a place of security to the inhabitants against inundations. Near the church is a palace belonging to the bishop of Durham, who is possessed of several estates, with a temporal jurisdiction in and about this town. An annual fair is held here, to which the London traders greatly resort.

At Metham, not far from Howden, upon the bank of the Ouse, which appears to have been the Abus of Ptolemy, has been discovered a Roman pottery, where their urns, and other earthen vessels, were made.

Elmestrey is distant from London a hundred and ninety-seven miles, and is a small obscure place.

Yarum is situated two hundred and twelve miles from London, on the south bank of the river Tees, over which it has a fine stone bridge, and by the navigation of which it carries on a good trade to London in lead, corn, and butter.

Thirsk, or Thrusk, is distant from London a hundred and ninety-nine miles, and is a borough by prescription.

Aldborough, or Oldborough, is situated on the bank of the Ure, a hundred and sixty-eight miles from London. It is an ancient borough, as its name imports, and has a good church. This town was the Ifurum Brigantum of the Romans, and, except the remains of antiquity found in it, contains nothing worthy of note. In the time of that people it was a considerable city, and a place of great strength. By the ruins of the ancient walls, it appears that they were four yards thick, and built upon a foundation of large pebble-stones, about five yards deep. They formed a complete square, and included sixty acres of ground. It is generally supposed that this city was destroyed by the Danes; and from the soil it seems to have been burnt. Here have been discovered the fragments of aqueducts cut in great stones, and covered with Roman tiles. A vault, leading, as is imagined to the river, and supposed to have been a repository for the dead, was discovered here in the time of Charles I. Vast quantities of Roman coins, mostly of brass, with signets, variously engraved, have been found at this place; besides pavements, urns, and other vessels.

Rippon is situated between the Ure and a small stream called the Skell, at the distance of a hundred and ninety miles from London. It is a well-built, populous town, and of great antiquity. Here is a venerable, old Gothic church, which is both parochial and collegiate, and has three steeples, with spires. The market place is esteemed the finest square of the kind in England, and is adorned with an obelisk. Here are also two stone bridges over the Ure, one of which consists of thirteen or fourteen arches. This town had formerly a considerable trade in the woollen manufacture, which it has lost, though it continues a staple for wool. At present it is noted for a manufacture of the best spurs in England. In

the neighbourhood it is a common, which is much used for horse-races.

In 1695, a considerable number of Saxon coins was found at this place; and near the church there is a large mound, called Hillshaw, supposed to have been cast up by the Danes. In the times of popery the church of Rippon was famous for a piece of priestcraft practised in it, by which the canons got much money. Between the church and a close vaulted room, ran a strait passage, which was so contrived, that none could pass through it but such as were favoured with particular directions or assistance. The passage was called St. Wilfrid's needle, and was used to prove the chastity of any woman suspected of incontinence. If she bribed the priest she passed through it, and was reputed chaste; but if the ghostly father was not satisfied, she stuck in the passage.

Burrowbridge, or Boroughbridge, is distant from London two hundred and nine miles. Here is a stone bridge over the river Ure; and the chief support of the place is a manufacture of hardware. Near this town are three huge stones, in the form of pyramids called the Devil's Bolts, and generally supposed to have been a Roman trophy; but some antiquaries are of opinion that they were British altars. The number of them is four, which stood in a straight line; but one was displaced about the beginning of this century, in hopes of finding money under it.

Knareborough stands a hundred and seventy-five miles from London, is a borough by prescription, and almost surrounded by the river Nidd. At this place are four medicinal springs, which were formerly much frequented. Though situated not far from each other, they are of very different qualities. One of them, distinguished by the name of the Sweet Spaw, or Vitioline Well, has its source in Knareborough forest, about three miles from the town: it was discovered in 1620, and reckoned of great efficacy in several disorders. Another of those springs is called the Stinking Spaw, or the Sulphur Well, from its strong sulphureous fetid smell: it is generally used by bathing, in rheumatic and paralytic cases; and is drank in dropsical, scorbutic, and arthritic complaints. A third spring is called St. Mongah's, or Mongo's Well, from Mungo, a Scottish saint, once greatly revered in those parts: it is above four miles from the town, and used as a cold bath. The fourth is in the town, and is called the Dropping Well, because the water drops out of a spongy porous rock, into a stone basin. This spring is endowed with a remarkable petrifying quality.

Wetherby stands a hundred and seventy-eight miles from London, and is a good trading town, with a charity-school. At Halesford, near this town, are remains of a Roman military way.

Tadcaster is situated a hundred and eighty-two miles from London. This town has a fine stone bridge over the Wharfe, with a free-school, and an hospital for twelve poor persons. Tadcaster is generally supposed to have been the Calcaria of the Romans: several Roman coins have been dug up here, the remains of a trench are yet visible round the town,

and here is the platform of an old castle or fort. Some, however, are of opinion, that Newton-Kyme, near Tadcaster, was the Roman Calcaria. It stands upon the military way that runs through Klansford; and many Roman coins, urns, and other antiquities, have been dug up at this place.

Aberforth, or Aberford, is a small inconsiderable town, near the river Cock, at the distance of two hundred and ten miles from London.

Sherborn is distant from London a hundred and seventy-six miles, and is a small town, but has an hospital for twenty-four orphans.

Selby stands on the river Ouse, a hundred and seventy-two miles from London. Here is a handsome church, with a charity-school; and the town has a considerable trade.

Snath is situated near the conflux of the rivers Aire and Don, a hundred and seventy-five miles from London, and is a small town of good trade, by means of the navigation of those rivers.

Doncaster is distant from London a hundred and fifty-five miles, and stands on the river Don, over which there are two fine stone bridges. Here is a ruinous castle, and a neat church, with an admirable steeple, besides a town-hall and an hospital. This place was a Roman town called Danum, both in the Itinerary and the Notitia; and here the lieutenant of the Crispinian horse, under the governor of Britain, was quartered.

In the church of this town is a tomb-stone, with the following remarkable inscription:

“Howe. Howe. Who is here, I Robin of Doncaster, and Margaret my feare; that I spent that I had, that I gave that I have, that I left that I lost. A. D. 1579. Quoth Robertus Byrkes, who in this world did reign threecore years and seven, and yet lived not one.”

Bautree is situated a hundred and forty-seven miles from London, upon the bank of the river Idle. It has a great trade in mill-stones, grind-stones, lead, and iron, which are conveyed hither by the navigation from Derbyshire.

Rotheram is situated near the bank of the Rother, at its confluence with the Don, and is distant from London a hundred and sixty-one miles. It is a neat town, with a church built in the form of a cathedral, a charity-school, and an alms-house, with a fine stone bridge over the Don. This place was formerly much noted for an iron manufactory.

Pontefract, or Pomfret, is distant from London a hundred and sixty-nine miles, and is a neat well-built town, about a mile in length. It had formerly two churches, but at present only one church and a chapel, with a town-hall, and a charity-school. Here is also a spacious market-place, with a ruinous castle. Adjoining to the town is a course for horse-races; and the country around abounds in lime-stone, as well as in liquorice and stirrups.

Castleford, near Pontefract, appears to have been the *Legedolium*, or *Legetuum* of the Romans, and stands upon a Roman military way, that runs from Doncaster to Aberforth. Vast quantities of Roman

coins have been dug up here, and are called by the inhabitants of the neighbourhood, *Saracens heads*.

Wakefield is distant from London a hundred and seventy-two miles, and stands on the river Calder, over which it has a stone bridge. It is a large, well-built town, which, though not a corporation, is said to contain more inhabitants than the city of York. It consists chiefly of three great streets, and has only one church, which is a large Gothic structure, with a charity-school for sixty-three children, supported by the inhabitants. In the market-place is a beautiful cross, consisting of an open colonade of the Doric order, supporting a dome, and a lantern at the top, under which is a room for transacting the public business of the town. This place has been long famous for the woollen manufacture, and carries on a considerable trade in cloth and coals, by the navigation of the Calder.

Leeds is situated on the river Aire, a hundred and eighty-one miles from London, and is one of the largest and most flourishing towns in the county. It has two churches, one of which only, dedicated to St. Peter, is parochial. This is a venerable old pile, built of free stone, in the manner of a cathedral; and on the inside it is finely painted in fresco, by *Parmentier*. Here are several presbyterian meeting-houses, among which one, called the *New Chapel*, is the best in the north of England. Here is also a free-school, with a library, a work-house, an hospital, and three alms-houses. Other public buildings are, a guild-hall, with a marble statue of queen Anne, a magnificent hall for the sale of white cloth, and a house called *Red-hall*, because it was the first brick building in the town. In this edifice Charles I. had an apartment, still known by the name of the *King's Chamber*. Here is likewise a market-cross, and a good stone bridge over the Aire.

Leeds has been long famous for the woollen manufacture, which its merchants, with those of York and Hull, ship off for Holland, Hamburg, and the North. After ringing the market-bell, about six or seven o'clock in the morning, the chapmen repair to the part of the town allotted for the mart, and treat for the cloth, of which twenty thousand pounds worth is frequently been bought up in an hour's time. At half an hour past eight o'clock the bell rings a second time, upon which the clothiers and their chapmen retire with their tressels, and make way for the linen-draper, hardware-men, shoe-makers, and other traders. At the same time the shambles are well provided with all sorts of fish and flesh. Five hundred horse-loads of apples have been bought up here in a day. This place not only trades in those commodities to York, Hull, and Wakefield, by the river Aire, but supplies the city of York with coals.

Here are some medicinal springs, one of which, called *St. Peter's Well*, is remarkably cold, and has proved very beneficial in the rickets, rheumatism, and other complaints. Another, called *Eyebright-well*, has been found useful in disorders of the eyes.

Otley stands at the distance of a hundred and seventy-five

ty-five miles from London, and is pleasantly situated under a cliff called Clievin, on the south side of the river Wharfe. At Cockridge, near this place, several Roman coins have been dug up; and upon a moor in the neighbourhood, near a village called Addle, were discovered, in 1702, the ruins of a Roman town, consisting of a large stone aqueduct, several urns, statues, and sepulchral monuments. Almost contiguous is a Roman camp, entire, with a single rampart.

Ripley is situated a hundred and eighty-three miles from London, and consists of one street, about three furlongs in length. Here is a charity-school, with a bridge over the Nidd; and the neighbourhood is remarkable for the production of liquorice.

Mafham is distant from London two hundred and seven miles, and has a cloth manufactory, with a corn-mill upon the river Ure.

Midlam is situated two hundred and fifty-two miles from London, and has a woollen manufactory, with frequent horse-races in the neighbourhood.

Richmond is pleasantly situated on an eminence, on the north bank of the river Swale, two hundred and sixty-two miles from London. It is encompassed with walls, in which are three gates, leading to as many suburbs. It is a large, populous place, equally well-built and paved; and many of the houses are of free-stone. Here are two churches, and a good stone bridge over the river Swale. This town was built by Allan, one of William the Conqueror's generals, and first earl of Richmond, and has been annexed to the duchy of Lancaster ever since the reign of Richard II. The chief manufactures of this place are yarn stockings, and woollen knit caps for seamen. In the neighbourhood of the town are annual horse-races.

Cattarick, a village upon the bank of the Swale, near Richmond, was the Catusactonion and Cataracton of Ptolemy and Antoninus, and was probably so named from the cataract formed by the river Swale near this place. In the time of the Romans this was a great city, through which Ptolemy, in an astronomical work, called *Magna Constructio*, describes the twenty-fourth parallel of north latitude, and makes it distant from the equator fifty-seven degrees. Cattarick stands upon a Roman highway, that crosses the river at this place, and by the ruins yet visible in and around it, appears to have been a city of great extent, and strongly fortified. On the east-side, near the river, is a huge mound, secured by four smaller works; and upon the bank of the river, the foundations of very strong walls may yet be seen. In the reign of Charles I. a large pot, consisting of an uncommon mixture of metals, and capable of containing twenty-four gallons, was found here, almost full of Roman coins, the greater part of which was copper.

Upon a hill in the neighbourhood of this town, adjoining to a farm-house, called Thornburgh, have been found many Roman coins. Here have also been dug up bases of old columns, and a brick floor, with a leaden pipe passing perpendicularly down into the earth. It is imagined that this was a place for performing sacrifices to the infernal gods, that the blood of the victims descended by this pipe, and that Thorn-

burgh was the *Vicus juxta Cataractam*, mentioned by Antoninus.

Askrig is distant from London a hundred and seventy-five miles, and is a small town, of little note. At Saint-brig, near this place, are yet to be seen the ground-works of a Roman fortification, containing about five acres, in which may be traced the foundations of ancient buildings. From some inscriptions that have been found, it is conjectured that this fort was called *Bracchium*, and that the sixth cohort of the *Nervii* was in garrison here.

Skipton stands near the bank of the river Aire, in the middle of the mountainous track of country called Craven, at the distance of two hundred and twenty-one miles from London. It is a large, well-built town, and has a handsome church, with a good library, and a grammar-school.

Bradforth, or Bradford, is distant from London a hundred and eighty-three miles, and has a manufactory of cloth.

Halifax is situated on a gentle declivity near the river Calder, a hundred and ninety-nine miles from London. This is reckoned the most populous, if not the largest parish in England, containing, besides a venerable old church, twelve chapels, and sixteen meeting-houses, most of which have bells and burying-grounds. Here is a free-school, called *Queen Elizabeth's School*, with a good hospital, and a work-house for twenty children.

The extraordinary industry of the inhabitants, in the manufacture of cloth, particularly kerseys and shalloons, has rendered this town very flourishing. It has been computed, that in Halifax alone, a hundred thousand pieces of shalloon are made in a year; and that one dealer has traded by commission for sixty thousand pounds worth per annum, in the article of kerseys.

Thefts, particularly the practice of stealing cloth in the night from the tenters, were formerly so common in and about Halifax, that in the reign of Henry VII. a bye-law, called the *Halifax-law*, was made to prevent them. By this law, the magistrates of Halifax were empowered to pass and execute sentence of death on all such criminals as were convicted of theft within a certain district round Halifax, called the *Liberties of the Forest of Hardwick*, providing that the value of the thing stolen amounted to more than thirteen pence half-penny. On such a charge, the person was carried before the bailiff of Halifax, who summoned the frith burghers of the several towns within the liberties of the Forest of Hardwick. If by these he was condemned, his execution soon followed, which was performed by severing his head from his body, in the manner hereafter related. Near the town was an engine, in the form of a very high gallows: in the two perpendicular posts were grooves, where a heavy piece of timber, with a sharp ax fixed in it, was made to slide up and down by means of a pulley and cord. To this gallows the convict was carried, and his neck laid upon a block directly under the ax, which was fixed at the top of the engine, by fastening one end of the rope on which it was suspended to either of the perpendicular

pendicular posts. Upon the signal for execution, the pin being removed, the ax fell down with great force, and cut off the criminal's head.

The Halifax-law partly gave occasion to a common litaney of the beggars and vagrants of these parts, where they frequently say,

From Hell, Hull, and Halifax,  
Good Lord deliver us.

The reason ascribed for Hull's being so tremendous to beggars, is the rigid discipline they meet within that town, where all foreign poor are whipped out, and the poor of the town set to work.

Barneley, called also Black Barneley, is distant from London a hundred and seventy-five miles. It is well-built of stone, and has a considerable trade in steel and iron ware.

Sheffield stands upon the borders of Derbyshire, at the distance of a hundred and forty miles from London, and is the chief town of a district called Hallamshire, containing about six hundred cutlers, incorporated by the style of the Cutlers of Hallamshire, who, it is computed, amount to no less than forty thousand men in the iron manufactures, particularly files and knives, for which this place has been famous during several hundred years. It is a large populous town, but the streets are narrow, and the houses black, occasioned by the smoke of the forges.

Here is a church, which was built in the reign of Henry I. and upon a petition of the inhabitants to queen Mary, representing that the parish was too large and populous for the vicar to serve it, without assistants, she incorporated twelve of the principal inhabitants, and their successors for ever, by the style of the Twelve capital Burgeses of Sheffield, empowering them to elect three priests to assist the vicar; and for that purpose endowed them with certain lands and rents belonging to the crown. A chapel was built here lately, and consecrated by the name of St. Paul; besides which, there is a chapel at Attercliffe, and another at Ecclesfall, two hamlets in this parish. Here is a free grammar-school, founded by king James I. and two charity-schools, one for thirty boys, and the other for thirty girls. In 1673, an hospital was erected in this town, and endowed with two hundred pounds a-year, by Gilbert earl of Shrewsbury; and another earl of Shrewsbury left two hundred pounds a-year for ever to the poor of the parish.

The lord of the manor has a prison here, and holds a court every three weeks. At this place there is a fine stone bridge over the Don; and in the neighbourhood are some mines of alum.

Giborn is situated on the borders of Lancashire, at the distance of a hundred and eighty-nine miles from London, and contains nothing worthy of note.

Settle stands in the road from York to Lancaster, at the distance of two hundred miles from London, and is a handsome little town. About half a mile hence, at a village called Giggleswick, is a spring, which frequently ebbs and flows three times in an hour, when the water sinks and rises two foot.

Hotherfield, or Hutherfield, stands at the distance of a hundred and sixty-five miles from London, upon the bank of the river Calder, and is famous for a manufacture of woollen cloth. At Almonbury, near this place, are the ruins of a Roman work, consisting of some remains of a stone castle and ramparts, with a triple fortification, and generally supposed to be the Cambodunum of the Romans.

At Kirklees, about three miles from Hutherfield, is a funeral monument of the famous outlaw, Robin Hood, who lived in the reign of Richard I. with the following inscription:

Here undernead dis laid stean  
Lais Robert earl of Huntingtun.  
Ne aarier az hie fa geud  
An pipl kauld im Robin Heud.  
Sick utlawz hi an his men  
Vil England never si agen.

Ob. 24. Kal. Decembris, 1247.

In York-Would, after very rainy seasons, water often gushes out of the earth, and rises to a considerable height. These jets the inhabitants of the country call vipsies, or gipsies, and believe them to be the fore-runners of a famine, or some other public calamity. To account for these phenomena, it is supposed that the rain-water being collected in large caverns of the hills, in this mountainous tract, finds a vent towards the bottom of the hills; but that this vent not being large enough for the immediate discharge of the water, the latter is forced up into jets or spouts, upon the principle of artificial fountains. After springs and summers so wet as to produce these spouts, a scarcity of corn has frequently happened through the kingdom; so that the notion of these spouts being prognostics of famine, may not be destitute of foundation.

Under the Romans, Yorkshire was inhabited by the Brigantes. This name is thought by some to have been given them, upon a supposition that they came originally from the city of Brigantia in Spain. Others imagine, that Brigantes is formed of a Belgic word, which signifies *Free Hands*; and Camden remarks, that in his time it was common to say of a resolute, intruding fellow, that *he played the Brigand*. *Brigand* is at this day French for *robber*; and from this characteristic epithet, it is probable the name of the Brigantes was derived.

In the division of Britain by the emperor Constantine, the northern part was called *Maxima Caucanias*, of which this county was a considerable part, and the city of York the metropolis. Under the heptarchy, Yorkshire belonged to the kingdom of the Northumbrians, and was known by the name of the province of Deira.

Yorkshire sends thirty members to parliament, viz. two for the county, two for the city of York, and two for each of the following boroughs; Aldborough, North-Allerton, Burrowbridge, Beverley, Headon, Knaresborough, Melton, Pontefract, Richmond, Scarborough, Thirsk, and Kingston-upon-Hull.

## C H A P. XIII.

*Lancashire, Westmorland, Cumberland.*

**L**ANCASHIRE is bounded on the east by Yorkshire, on the south by Cheshire, on the west by the Irish sea, and on the north by parts of Cumberland and Westmoreland. It extends in length from north to south fifty-seven miles, and in breadth thirty-two.

The principal rivers of this county are the Mersey, the Ribble, the Wine, and the Lon. The Mersey rises in the mountains of Derbyshire, and running south-west, divides that county from Lancashire; after which, being joined by a considerable stream called the Gout, which parts Derbyshire and Cheshire, it continues its course along the borders of Lancashire and Cheshire; and receiving the Taume, the Irwell, the Bollen, and several other small rivers, it passes to Warrington, whence running westward, it falls into the Irish sea near Liverpool.

In the year 1759, an act of parliament passed, empowering the duke of Bridgewater to make a canal from Salford, on the river Irwell, to a place called Hollen Ferry, navigable for boats and barges. The following year another act of parliament passed, enabling the same duke to extend the navigation by a like canal from Salford over the river Irwell, to the town of Manchester, and thence to Longford bridge. This canal being completed in the year 1762, the duke of Bridgewater obtained a third act of parliament, empowering him to extend the navigation from Longfordbridge, over the river Mersey into Cheshire, through the towns of Altrincham and Dunham-Massey, and thence westward through Lyme and Thelwell, all in the county of Chester, to a place called the Hempstones, below Warrington, where the canal joins with the river Mersey. By this navigation, the conveyance of coals, stone, timber, and other goods, to and from the trading towns of Manchester and Liverpool, and the adjacent country, is greatly facilitated.

The Ribble rises in Yorkshire, and running south-west, enters this county at Clithero. In its course, this river is augmented by the great Calder, the Hodder, the Derwent, and the Savock; and dividing Lancashire nearly into two equal parts, falls into the Irish sea not far from Preston. In its mouth, or æstuary, it receives a large river, formed by the conflux of the streams Taud, Dowgles, and Charnock. The Wire is formed by the Little Calder, the Broke, and other small streams, and running westward, falls into the Irish sea about twelve miles north of the mouth of the Ribble. The Lon rises near Kirkby-Lonsdale, a market-town of Westmoreland, whence running south-west, and being augmented by several streams, it falls into the Irish sea at a wide channel, which also receives the rivers Coker and Condor.

The air of this county in general is more healthy than that of any other maritime county in England, except near the fens and sea-shore, where sulphureous and saline effluvia, which, on the approach of

storms, are extremely fetid, produce fevers and a variety of chronic diseases. In the inland parts of the county there are also some tracts, called by the inhabitants mosses; which are moist and unwholesome.

The soil of this county on the west side generally yields great crops of wheat and barley; and though the hilly tracts on the east side are for the most part stony and barren, yet the bottoms of those hills afford excellent oats. In some places the land bears very good hemp, and the pasture is so rich, that oxen and cows are of a larger size here than in any other county in England: Here are mines of lead, iron, copper, antimony, black lead, and lapis calaminaris; besides quarries of stone for building. Here is likewise great plenty of coal, and a particular kind called *canmel* or *candle coal*, which is chiefly found in the manor of Haigh, near Wigan. This coal will not only make a much clearer fire than pit-coal, but will bear a good polish, and when polished, looks like black marble; so that candlesticks, cups, snuff-boxes, and other toys, are made of it. In some of the coal pits are found alum, brimstone, and green vitriol.

The mosses or morasses of this county are generally distinguished into three kinds, the white, the grey, and the black, all which, being drained, bear good corn. They also yield turf for fuel, and marle to manure the ground.

This county abounds with great variety of fish, both of the sea and fresh water. Among the former, muscles are so numerous, that the husbandmen near the sea-coast manure their ground with them. The river Wine is famous for a large sort of muscle, called Hambleton hookings, because they are dragged from their beds with hooks. In those muscles pearls of a considerable size are very often found.

There are also several lakes in this county, that abound with fish, particularly Kennington meer, which has very fine charrs and other fish.

Lancashire was made a county palatine by Edward III. in favour of his son John of Gaunt. It has a court which sits in the Duchy Chamber at Westminster, for the revenues of the Duchy of Lancaster; besides a chancery court at Preston. The seal of the county palatine is different from that of the duchy; for there are lands in the latter that are not comprehended in the former.

This county lies in the province of York and diocese of Chester, and contains sixty parishes, which being much larger than those of any other county of England, are very populous. Here is a great number of chapels, several of which are as large as parish-churches.

Lancashire is divided into six hundreds, and has no city; but contains twenty-seven market-towns. Those are Blackburn, Bolton, Burnley, Bury, Cartmel, Charley, Clithero, Colne, Dolton, Eccleston, Garstang, Haslingdon, Hawkehead, Hornby, Kirkham, Lancaster, Liverpool, Manchester, Newton, Ormskirk, Poulton, Prefect, Preston, Rochdale, Ulverston, Wappington, and Wigan.

Manchester is situated near the conflux of the rivers Irk and Irwell, about three miles from the Mersey, and

a hundred and sixty-five miles from London. This is reckoned the finest market-town in England; and its inhabitants, including those of the suburbs, are computed at fifty thousand.

Here are an exchange, a spacious market-place, and two churches, viz. St. Mary's, and St. Anne's. St. Mary's is a collegiate church, built in 1422, and is a beautiful and stately edifice, with a chair remarkable for its curious carved work. The three most considerable foundations here are, a college, an hospital, and a free-school, besides three charity-schools, two of which are for forty boys each. Here is a strong old stone bridge over the Irwell, which is built exceeding high, because as the river comes from the mountainous part of the county, it sometimes rises four or five yards in one night. For three miles above the town there are no less than sixty mills upon this river.

The suttan manufacture, called Manchester cottons, for which this place has been famous since the beginning of the last century, has been much improved of late by some inventions of dying and printing, which, with the great variety of other manufactures, such as ticking, tapes, filleting, and linen cloth, employs a great number of hands, and renders the place extremely flourishing.

Manchester was a Roman fortress, called Mancunium; and there are still many monuments of antiquity to be seen in and about the town. In a neighbouring park, at the confluence of the Meldock and Irwell, are the vestiges of an old square fort, called Mancastle. From the name, some have supposed this to be the ancient Mancunium; but the compass of it being too small for a town, it was more probably a Roman station.

Manchester had formerly the privilege of a sanctuary, which, by an act of parliament in the reign of Henry VIII. was transferred to Chester.

Warrington is distant from London a hundred and eighty-two miles, and is a large, old built, but neat town, both populous and rich. Here is a fine stone bridge over the Mersey, and a charity-school well endowed. This town is full of good tradesmen; and in its neighbourhood is a flourishing linen manufacture, called huckaback, of which, it is said, five hundred pounds worth, or more, is sold at a weekly market, kept here for that purpose. The market for provisions is supplied with great plenty of all sorts of fish, fesh, corn, and cattle, and the malt here is remarkably good.

Winwich, not far north of Warrington, is thought to have been the Cairguntin of the ancient Britons, and appears to have been the favourite residence of Oswald, king of Northumberland, by the following lines in old barbarous characters, in the church of this place.

*Hic locus, Oswalde, quondam placuit tibi valde,  
Northanbryrorum fueras rex, nuncque Polorum  
Regna tenes, loco passus Marcelde vocato.*

Rochdale stands at the distance of two hundred and five miles from London, on a small river called the Roch, that falls into the Irwell. The valley in which

the town is situated, lies at the bottom of a ridge of hills, called Blackstone-edge; so high that they are sometimes covered with snow in the month of August. This town is considerably large and populous, and is of late very much improved in the woollen manufacture.

Newton is distant from London a hundred and eighty-seven miles, and is a borough by prescription. It once had a market, which is now dissolved, and is at present distinguished only for a charity-school well endowed.

Liverpool, or Leverpool, is situated on a bay of the Irish channel, a hundred and eighty-three miles from London. It is a large well-built populous town, containing three handsome parish-churches, with several meeting-houses. One of those churches, which has been lately built, is reckoned amongst the finest in England. The streets are spacious, and there is a handsome town-house, erected upon twelve stone pillars. The free-school is likewise a large beautiful structure, and had formerly been a chapel. Here is a charity-school for fifty boys and twelve girls, with several alma-houses for sailors widows, and a work-house for employing the poor.

Though this town be not of great antiquity, it is now the most flourishing in those parts, and is a rival even to Bristol, the second port in England. Within the last sixty years its customs are increased upwards of ten fold. Most of the inhabitants are merchants, and trade to all foreign parts, except Turkey, Greenland, and the East Indies. It shares with Bristol the trade of Ireland and Wales. As that city trades chiefly to the south and west parts of Ireland, this town has all the traffic on the east and north shores; and as Bristol maintains a commercial intercourse with the south-west counties of England, Liverpool enjoys that of all the northern counties; besides its trade to Cheshire and Staffordshire, by the navigation of the Mersey, the Weaver, and the Dan. The merchants of Liverpool are also concerned with those of Londonderry in the fishery on the north coast of Ireland; and Liverpool is the most convenient and most frequented passage from London to that kingdom.

The breadth of the Mersey, at high water, is here upwards of twelve hundred yards, and the river is crossed by a ferry; but when the boat comes to the side of the town, the passengers are brought to shore on the shoulders of men, who wade horse deep in the water for that purpose. Ships of any burden may come up with their full loading, and ride before the town, which is quite open and unfortified; but the harbour is defended by a castle founded by king John, and on the west by a strong tower.

At the west end of the town is a wet dock, with iron flood-gates, that will contain eighty or a hundred sail of ships. A pier runs along the north and south sides of the harbour; and the custom-house, which joins to the dock, is not only a commodious, but an elegant structure.

Liverpool is supplied with water brought in pipes, from springs about four miles from the town; and in the neighbourhood are frequent horse-races, on a course

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Ormskirk stands at the distance of a hundred and ninety miles from London, and is a handsome town, with a good inland trade.

Wigan, or Wiggin, is pleasantly situated near the source of the Dowgles, a hundred and ninety-five miles from London, in the post road to Lancaster. It is a well-built town, and has a handsome church, the rector of which is lord of the manor. This place is famous for the manufacture of coverlets, rugs, blankets, and other kinds of bedding, as well as for its pit-coal and iron work.

Bolton is distant from London two hundred and thirty-seven miles. It is remarkable for its mineral water, and for being the staple of various kinds of cotton cloths, called fustians, especially the Augs-burg and Milan fustians, which are brought to its market and fairs from different parts of the country.

Bury stands upon the river Irwell, at the distance of a hundred and eighty-three miles from London. It carries on a considerable trade in the fustian manufacture, and the coarse goods called halfticks and kerseys.

Charley stands at the distance of a hundred and fifty-four miles from London, and is a little obscure town.

Preston, or Priest-town, was so called from its having been inhabited by a great number of religious. It is situated on a delightful eminence on the banks of the Ribble, at the distance of two hundred and eleven miles from London. This is a large handsome town, and being the residence of many genteel families, is a gay place. Here is a stone bridge over the Ribble, with a charity-school for twenty-eight boys, and another for as many girls. The market of this town is one of the most considerable north of Trent, for corn, fowl, and all sorts of provisions; and on the neighbouring common there are frequent horse-races.

Blackburn, or Blackbourn, is so named from its situation upon the bank of the Bourn, or river Darwen, which is remarkable for the blackness of its waters. This town stands at the distance of a hundred and fifty-four miles from London, and has nothing particular to distinguish it.

Hastingsdon is situated at the bottom of a mountainous tract, about a hundred and seventy-eight miles from London, but contains nothing remarkable.

Kirkham stands on the north side of the estuary of the Ribble, at the distance of a hundred and ninety-one miles from London. Here is a free grammar-school, well endowed, with three masters, one of whom must be in holy orders, and preach a lecture once a month in the church, or in some chapel of the parish.

Poulton is situated near the mouth of the river Wire, at the distance of two hundred and twelve miles from London, and is noted for a good pearl fishery.

Garstang lies in the post road between Preston and Lancaster, two hundred and twenty-two miles from London, and has nothing remarkable.

Clithero is situated near the source of the Ribble,

at the bottom of a very high hill, called Pendle-Hill, and at the distance of two hundred and seven miles from London. It is a borough by prescription; and on an adjacent moor are frequent horse-races.

Colne stands also not far from Pendle-Hill, but on the opposite side to Clithero, and is distant from London a hundred and ninety-nine miles.

Lancaster is situated upon the south bank of the river Lon, or Lun, at the distance of two hundred and thirty-two miles from London. On a hill close to the town, is a fine strong castle, but not ancient; where the county assizes are held, and where also is the county jail. On the top of the castle is a square tower, called John of Gaunt's chair, whence there is a beautiful and extensive prospect of the adjacent county and the sea. Here is only one church, which is a handsome structure, and stands on the summit of the castle-hill. Here is also a custom-house, with a stone bridge of five arches over the river; but the port is so choked up with sand, as not to admit vessels of any considerable burden. The town, however, is flourishing; and before the present disturbances in America, carried on a considerable trade with that country in hardware and woollen manufactures, in vessels of about seventy tons.

Lancaster is the ancient Langovium, mentioned in the Itinerary of Antoninus, where the Roman lieutenant of Britain kept a company in garrison, called the Longovici. Several utensils employed in sacrifice, and a variety of Roman coins, have been dug up here; and near the church, on the steepest side of the hill, hangs a piece of an old Roman wall, now called Wery-wall. The ancient town was not exactly on the same spot where Lancaster now stands; for the old Longovicum, in the year 1322, being destroyed by the Scots, the town was built more close to the river.

Hornby stands on the river Lon, at the distance of about two hundred and thirty miles from London; but contains nothing worthy of note, except the remains of an ancient castle, beautifully situated on a hill, round the bottom of which runs a river called the Winning.

Cartmel is situated among the hills called Cartmel Fells, at the distance of a hundred and ninety-two miles from London. It has a good church, built in the form of a cathedral, a convenient market-place for corn, sheep, and fish, and a harbour for boats.

This town lying between two bays of the sea, one formed by the estuary of the river Ken, from Westmoreland, and the other by the conflux of several small rivers from Westmoreland and Cumberland, into the Irish sea, there are near it three sands, named Ken Sand, Dudden Sand, and Leven Sand, from the rivers to which they are contiguous. These sands are very dangerous to travellers, who take this course for the more speedy accomplishment of their journey; not only on account of the uncertainty of the tides, which are quicker or slower according as the winds blow more or less from the sea, but of many quicksands, chiefly occasioned by rainy weather,

weather. A guide on horseback is therefore appointed to each Sand, at the charge of government, for the direction of such persons as may pass this way.

Dolton stands at the distance of two hundred miles from London, and contains nothing remarkable.

Ulverstone is situated on the west side of the large bay that runs up this county, two hundred and thirty-nine miles from London, and has likewise nothing worthy of notice.

Hawkeshead stands at the distance of two hundred and fifty-six miles from London, on the west side of Minander meer, in a woody promontory, called Furness. Here is a free grammar-school, with a good market for provisions and other commodities.

In the promontory of Furness anciently stood the royal abbey of St. Mary, the ruins of which are yet visible. At its southern extremity lies a long island, called the Isle of Welney, formed by a small arm of the sea. This island was formerly defended by a castle, named the Peele, or Pile Castle, and sometimes the Pile of Fouldrey; the shell of which is yet standing upon a rock near the south-end of the island.

Except the promontory of Furness, which was possessed by the *Setuntii*, Lancashire, in the time of the Romans, was part of the large tract inhabited by the *Brigantes*; and under the Saxon heptarchy, was included in the kingdom of Northumberland. Not long after the Roman Conquest, it obtained the privileges of a county palatine.

Ribchester, or Ribbleshester, in this county, was a large Roman town, generally supposed to have been the *Coecium*, or *Goccium*, of Antoninus, and the *Rigodunum* or *Ribodunum* of others. From its ruins, and the many remains of antiquity, it appears to have been once a place of great splendor. There are still visible traces of Roman military ways leading to it, one from the north, another from the north-east, and a third from the mouth of the Ribble, through Preston. Pieces of military engines and weapons, and a variety of coins, statues, columns, altars, &c. have been frequently discovered here.

A remarkable piece of antiquity in this neighbourhood is an ancient fortification, which, because anchors, nails, rings, and other parts of vessels have been often dug up near it, has received the name of Anchor-Hill. This hill lying a considerable distance from the sea, is supposed to have been a rampart of the fortress of *Coecium*. The broad and deep fosse under it that leads towards the river, probably served as a canal for the boats that were employed in the service of the garrison.

In this hill have been often dug up Roman patera, or bowls, formed of a substance resembling China, and adorned with flowers and other figures. Near Anchor-Hill was also discovered a common sewer, and a floor laid with Roman tiles.

Not many years ago, in draining Morton-lake, which was several miles in circumference, and situated on the south side of the mouth of the Ribble, were found sunk at the bottom of it eighty canoes, resembling those used by the Indians in America, in which,

it is supposed, the ancient Britons were wont to fish upon this lake.

The principal manufactures of this county are woollen cloth, cotton, and tickens. It sends fourteen members to parliament; two for the county, and two for each of the boroughs of Lancaster, Preston, Newton, Wigan, Clithero, and Liverpool.

## WESTMORELAND.

Westmoreland is bounded on the south by Lancashire, on the west and north-west, by Cumberland, on the north-east by the bishoprick of Durham, and on the east by Yorkshire. It extends in length from north to south thirty miles, and in breadth twenty-four miles.

This county is well-watered with several rivers, and some lakes or large bodies of water, generally called Meers in the north of England. The principal rivers are the Eden, the Eimot, the Loder, the Can, and the Lon. The Eden rises at Mervel-Hill, near Askrig in Yorkshire, where running north-west across the counties of Westmoreland and Cumberland, upwards of thirty miles, and being joined by several other rivers, it turns directly west, and passing by the city of Carlisle, falls into that part of the Irish sea called the Solway Frith. The Eimot issues from a lake called Ullefwater, upon the borders of Cumberland, a few miles south of Penrith. This lake is supplied by six small streams, four of which are distinguished by the names of Glenhorn river, Glenkwidon river, Glenkridon river, and Hawswater; but the other two have no names. From Ullefwater the Eimot runs north by Penrith, and falls into the Eden, about two or three miles north of that town. The Loder issues from a lake called Broadwater, south-east of Ullefwater, and running north, falls into the Eimot, near Penrith. The river Can, Ken, or Kent, derives its origin and name from a lake called Kentmeer, near Ambleside, and running south-east, passes by Kendal, where forming an angle, it runs south-west, and falls into the Irish sea a few miles west of Burton. The Lon has been described in the account of Lancashire.

Other less considerable rivers of Westmoreland are the Winster, the Lavennet-Beck, the Swindale-Beck, and the Blackern-Beck.

The principal lake in this county, and indeed the greatest in England, is Winander-meer. It lies south of Ambleside, upon the borders of Cumberland, is ten miles in length from north to south, and two miles in breadth. The water is very clear: there are in it several islands; and the bottom, which is one continued rock, is said to be in some places very deep.

The air of Westmoreland is pleasant and healthy, but in the mountainous parts sharp and piercing.

The county consists of two divisions, namely, the Barony of Westmoreland, sometimes called the Bottom, and the Barony of Kendal. The former, which comprehends



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*Summer Habit of a Russian Woman with her Cloak off in 1765.*



*Though the heats of the Summer in Russia are excessive, the Women often cover themselves with their Cloaks, & when they become heat less, they carry them under their Arms.*

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comprehends the north part of the county, is an open champain tract, twenty miles long and fourteen broad, consisting of arable land, and producing great plenty of corn and grass. The Barony of Kendal, comprehending the south part of the county, is very mountainous; but the vallies are fruitful, and even the mountains yield pasture for sheep and cattle. Here are several forests and parks, and both baronies afford plenty of wood.

The western mountains of this county are supposed to contain vast quantities of copper ore, and some veins of gold; but as the expence of winning the ores, on account of their depth, and some other inconveniences, would render the labour unprofitable, the mines are not worked.

In the mountains towards the north-east part of the county is a remarkable phenomenon, called a Helm wind. A rolling cloud hovers over the mountain-tops, sometimes for three or four days together, while the sky is clear in other parts. It is not dissipated, but retains its station, against the force of the strongest hurricane, which terminating suddenly in a profound calm, frequently returns with great violence, and often for several times. This tempest seldom extends into the country above a mile or two from the bottom of the mountain. A phenomenon of the same kind is observed about Ingleton and other places bordering upon the mountains of Ingleborow, Hendle, and Penigent, in the confines of the counties of York and Lancaster.

Westmoreland is well supplied with fish; and the char, a delicate sort of trout, is peculiar to the river Eden, Winander-meer, and Ulleswater.

Each of the baronies abovementioned is subdivided into two wards, and each ward into constabularies. Westmoreland never was divided into hundreds, rapes, or wapentakes, like other counties; on account, as is supposed, that the inhabitants anciently paid no subsidies, having been thought sufficiently encumbered with the border service against the Scots. This county lies in the province of York: that part of it, called the Barony of Westmoreland, is comprehended in the diocese of Carlisle; and the other part, called the Barony of Kendal, in the diocese of Chester; both baronies containing thirty-two parishes. Westmoreland has no city, but contains eight market-towns, which are Ambleside, Appleby, Brough, Burton, Kendal, Kirkby, Lonsdale, Kirkby, Steven, and Orton.

Burton stands on the borders of Lancashire, at the distance of two hundred and forty-four miles from London, but contains nothing remarkable.

Kirkby Lonsdale is distant from London two hundred and thirty-two miles. It is a town of considerable extent, and has a handsome church, with a good stone-bridge over the Lon, and a manufacture of woollen-cloth. Here was anciently a hospital of lepers, dedicated to St. Leonard.

Kendal, or Candale, is so named from its situation in the dale or valley of the river Can. It is also called Kirkby-Kendal, or Candale, from its church of kirk. This town is the largest in the county, and is distant from London two hundred and fifty-seven

miles. It consists chiefly of two good streets, and has a large beautiful church, with twelve chapels of ease. Near the church is a free-school, well endowed with exhibitions for some scholars to Queen's college in Oxford; and there is also a charity-school for sixteen boys and ten girls, who are all clothed and taught. Here are two bridges over the river Can; one of stone, and the other of wood.

This town is famous for the manufacture of cottons, druggets, ferges, hats, and worsted and yarn-stockings; and it has enjoyed a considerable trade in the woollen manufacture ever since the reign of Edward III.

At Water-Crook, near Kendal, is a square Roman fort, the banks and ditches of which are still visible; and here have been found Roman coins, altars, and other remains of antiquity. Some are of opinion that this was the Roman station named Concangil, and others, that it was the ancient Brovoniacum.

At Levens, south of Kendal, on the bank of the river Can, over which is a handsome stone bridge, are to be seen the ruins of an ancient round building, which is called Kirkhead, and is said to have been a temple dedicated to Diana.

Ambleside is two hundred and fifty miles distant from London, and has a considerable manufacture of cloth. This place is supposed to have been the Amboglana mentioned in the Notitia. Here are vast ruins of an ancient city, with some remains of a fort, six hundred and sixty foot in length, four hundred in breadth, and secured by a ditch and rampart. That this was a work of the Romans, appears from a variety of circumstances, such as paved ways leading thither, and round stones, like mill-stones, used by the Romans for erecting large pillars. Here have also been found several small urns, glass vials, with Roman coins, and medals of gold, silver, and copper.

Orton is situated two hundred and seventy-one miles from the capital, and contains nothing worthy of note. Near Shap, north-west of this place, are several large stones, in the form of pyramids, some of which are fourteen foot diameter at the base, and nine foot high. They stand almost in a direct line, a mile in length, at equal distances from each other. It is supposed that they were designed to perpetuate the memory of some action which history has not recorded.

Appleby is pleasantly situated on the bank of the river Eden, by which it is almost surrounded, at the distance of two hundred and seventy-six miles from London. This, though neither the richest nor handsomest in Westmoreland, is the county-town. It consists chiefly of one broad street, which runs with an easy ascent from north to south; at one end of which is an ancient castle, fortified by the river, and by large trenches, where the river does not surround it. Here are two churches, a free-school, and an hospital, with a town-hall, where the assizes are held, a county-jail, a bridge over the river Eden, and the best corn-market in these northern parts.

Appleby was the station of the Mauri Aureliani, a band of soldiers so called, on account of their being sent hither

by the emperor Aurelian. At Crakenthorp, in the neighbourhood, are several large camps, where have been found many remains of Roman and other antiquities.

Kirkby-Steven, or Stephen's Church, lies two hundred and thirty miles from London, and has a free-school, with a manufacture of yarn stockings. Near it are the ruins of a castle, called Hartley castle, which was built before the reign of Edward II.

Westmoreland is one of those counties which, in the time of the Romans, were inhabited by the Brigantes; and under the heptarchy it constituted part of the kingdom of Northumberland. In this county are still visible the traces of two military Roman ways, one of which have been discovered several relics of remote antiquity. It runs forth-east, from Carlisle in Cumberland, to Penrith, near which it passes the river Eimot, into Westmoreland; and crossing the county nearly in the same direction, crossing Appleby, enters Yorkshire at Rear-crofs, north-east of Brough-under-Stanmore. The other Roman high-road is commonly called the Maiden-way, and runs from Caer Vorrâu, a Roman station, near the Picts wall in Cumberland, to Kirkby-Thore, on the bank of the Eden, north-west of Appleby.

Kirkby-Thore stands also upon the military way that leads from Carlisle; and adjoining to it, upon the same causeway, in the place where the Maiden-way terminates, are the ruins of an ancient town, now called Whelp Castle, and supposed to have been the Gallagum, or Gallatum of the Romans. Here Roman coins and urns have been frequently dug up, and a stone with the following inscription: DEO BELLA-TUCADRO LIB VOTU M. FECIT JOLUS.

At Crawdendale-Waith, near Whelp-Castle, are several works, supposed to have been thrown up by the Romans; and upon a rough rock were found two imperfect inscriptions, one above the other. The first is read as follows: *Varronius Præfctus legionis vicifimæ Valentis Viftriciis*; and the second, *Aelius Lucanus Præfctus legionis secundæ Augusta Castramatai sunt*. These inscriptions are very different as to the form of the letters; and therefore a considerable time is supposed to have intervened between the two incidents that gave occasion to them. Upon the same rock was found a third inscription, intimating that the second Augustan legion encamped at this place.

Brougham, upon the military way to Carlisle, where that way crosses the river Eimot, was the Brovonia cum, or Brovocom of the Romans, where the company of the Defensores was stationed. Here have been found several coins, altars, and other antiquities, that testify its ancient splendor.

Brough-under-Stanmore, which is also situated upon the military way to Carlisle, was the Vortera of the Romans, where a præfect was stationed with a band of the Directores.

Other antiquities, situated on this causeway, before it enters Yorkshire, are the ruins of a noble round tower, at Cowplandbeckbrig, near Brough-under-Stanmore; some ancient-tumuli at Brough-Fairhill; the remains of a square fort at Maiden Castle, not far from

Brough; and a large camp at Rear-Crofs, upon the borders of Yorkshire.

Opposite to Penrith, on the other side of the Eimot, and near the conflux of the Eimot and Luder, is a large round intrenchment, inclosing a level area. It has two passages opposite to each other, and is called King Arthur's Round Table. The trenches being on the inside, it is conjectured not to have been designed for a place of strength, but rather a sort of amphitheatre for jousts and tournaments. At a little distance is a stone fort, in the form of a horse-shoe, opening towards the table, and called by some king Arthur's Castle. It is also called Mayburgh, or Maybrough, a name which in the Saxon language is said to signify *a fort of union or alliance*, and is supposed to have been derived from a peace concluded here in the year 926, between Æthelstan, king of England, Constantine, king of Scotland, Haegal, king of Wales, and other princes.

The chief manufactures of Westmoreland are stockings and woollen-cloth. It sends to parliament four members, two of whom are for the county, and two for the borough of Appleby.

#### C U M B E R L A N D.

Cumberland is bounded on the east by Westmoreland, Durham, and Northumberland, on the south by Lancashire and the Irish sea, on the west by the same sea, and on the north by part of Scotland. It extends in length from south to north fifty-five miles, and in breadth thirty-eight.

This county abounds with rivers, and large bodies of water, which the inhabitants call meers. Of the former, the principal is the Derwent. It rises in Borredale, a large valley south of Reswick, and running along the hills, called Derwent-Fells, forms a large lake, containing three small islands, whence it runs through the middle of the county, and passing by Cocker-mouth, falls into the Irish sea near Workington. The Eden, another considerable river, rises at Marvel-Hill, near Askrig, in Yorkshire, and running north-west, across the counties of Westmoreland and Cumberland, falls into that part of the Irish sea called Solway-Frith.

Besides those two rivers, here are also the Eln, the Esk, the Leven, the Irthing, the South Tyne, and several other less considerable rivers and brooks, which supply the inhabitants with plenty of fish.

This county being sheltered by lofty mountains on the north, the air, though cold, is consequently less piercing than might be expected. The face of the county is pleasantly diversified with lofty hills, valleys, and water; but wood is defective. In general, the soil is fruitful, producing corn in great abundance, and the mountains yielding pasture to numerous flocks of sheep. The Derwent affords salmon in great plenty, as the Eden does char, a small kind of trout not found in any waters of England, except this river, Winander-meer, and Ullewater. Several mountains here contain metals and minerals; and

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in the fourth part of the county, which is called Copeland, the mountains abound with rich veins of copper, as they do also at Derwent-Fells, particularly at Newland, a village near Kefwick, where it is said, there was once found a mixture of gold and silver. In this county are likewise mines of coal, lead, lapis calaminaris, and black lead, called by the inhabitants wadd.

Cumberland lies in the province of York, partly in the diocese of Chester, and partly in that of Carlisle, and contains, according to some computations, fifty-eight parishes, but according to others, ninety. It is divided into five parts, called wards, and includes one city, with eleven market-towns. The city is Carlisle, and the market-towns are Brampton, Cockermouth, Egremont, Jerby, Kefwick, Kirk-Oswald, Longtown, Penrith, Ravenglass, Whitehaven, and Wigton.

The city of Carlisle is distant from London three hundred and one miles, and is situated near the confluence of three rivers, two of which are considerable, the Eden on the north, over which it has a bridge, the Peterhill on the east, and the Cauda, a smaller stream on the west. It is an episcopal see, and is strongly fortified, being surrounded by a wall, which is about a mile in compass, and broad enough on the top for three men to walk abreast. It has also a castle, in which a garrison is kept. In this wall are three gates; the Caldre, or Irish gate, on the south; the Richard, or the Scotch gate, on the north; and the Bother, or English gate, on the west. The houses in general are well-built; and here is a cathedral, with two parish-churches, St. Cuthbert's and St. Mary's. The cathedral stands in the middle of the city, and is enclosed with a wall. The east, or upper part of this structure, is a curious piece of workmanship, and, except the choir, was built in the reign of Henry VIII. At what time the west, or lower part, was erected, we are not told, but it suffered much during the civil war in 1641. This cathedral is a hundred and thirty-seven foot long, and seventy-one broad, and has a stately window forty-eight foot high, and thirty broad, adorned with pillars of excellent workmanship. The roof is elegantly vaulted with wood, and embellished with the arms of France and England, besides the Piercys, Luciar, Mowbrays, and many others. The tower is a hundred and twenty-three foot high.

St. Mary's church has the peculiarity of being situated in the body of the cathedral. Carlisle is a seaport, and its principal manufacture is fustian.

This city was by the Romans called Lugubellium, Lugubalia, or Lugucullum, and Carleolum; and from many antiquities, it appears to have been a flourishing city in the time of that people. We are informed by William of Malmshury, that in the reign of William II, a Roman triclinium, or dining-room, was discovered in this place, built of stone, and arched in such a manner, that it could not be destroyed even by fire. On the front of it was this inscription: **MARI VICTORIÆ**, or as Camden believes, **MARTI VICTORI**. A large altar of red stone was dug up

here not long ago, with the following inscription in fair characters: **DEO MARTI BELATUCADRO**.

In a rock near Wetherell, a village upon the Eden, three miles east of Carlisle, have been dug several dwellings, or hiding-places, consisting of two rooms, one within the other, each about six yards square. Camden supposes them to have been places of refuge; but as there was formerly a little monastery at Wetherell, belonging to the abbey of St. Mary, in York, Dr. Gibson thinks it more probable that they were cells for hermits. Their difficulty of access, however, favours the opinion of Camden, rather than that of his commentator.

Ravenglass is distant from London two hundred and seventy-two miles, and is situated between the Esk and a smaller stream called the Mute, not far from the river Irt. The Esk and Mute falling into the sea at this place forms a good harbour for ships, and the inhabitants have a considerable fishery.

Egremont is situated on the bank of a little river named Broadwater, that falls into the sea near a promontory called St. Bees, about two miles south of Whitehaven. This town is distant from the capital two hundred and eighty-seven miles, and has two bridges over the river Broadwater. It had formerly a castle, but at present contains nothing worthy of note.

Kefwick stands on the north side of the lake formed by the Derwent, at the distance of two hundred and eighty-three miles from London. It is situated in a fruitful plain, almost untraversed with mountains, called Derwent-Fells, against which the vapours that rise from below are perpetually condensed into water. It is sheltered from the north winds by a very lofty mountain called Skiddaw. This place has long been considerable for the mines of black-lead; and the miners, who are its chief inhabitants, have water-works by the river Derwent, for melting the lead and sawing boards.

North of Kefwick, stands Skiddaw-hill, which, at a prodigious height, divides like Parnassus into two heads, whence is a view of Scroffel-hill, in the shire of Annandale, in Scotland, where the people prognosticate a change of weather, by the mists that rise or fall upon the top of the mountain, according to the following distich:

“ If Skiddaw have a cap,  
Scroffel wots full well of that.”

Whitehaven, thus called from the white cliffs which shelter it from tempests, is distant from London, two hundred and fifty miles, and is a populous and rich town. Its trade consists chiefly in furnishing Ireland and part of Scotland with salt and coal; two hundred sail of colliers being often seen to go off at once, for Dublin, in time of war, or after contrary winds. The harbour has been lately much improved: and as there is no navigable river falls into the sea at this place, the ships take in their coals in the road, which has also been rendered very commodious. If it happens to overflow, they run into the haven with the

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flood, or stand away to St. Bees, where they have very found anchorage, and safe riding.

Moresby, a sea-port town, near Whitehaven, is remarkable for many remains of antiquity. This place is supposed to be the ancient Morbium, where the Equætes Cataphractarii were quartered. From the ruins which remain, the adjacent shores appear to have been fortified by the Romans in all places convenient for landing. Many inscribed stones have been found here; and in the last century an altar was dug up, with a little horned image of Silvanus. Here are also many vaults, four datations of ancient buildings, and caverns, called Piels Holes.

Cockermouth, or Cockermoth, so called from its situation at the mouth of the Cocker, a small river which here falls into the Derwent, is distant from London two hundred and sixty-seven miles. It is situated in a valley, between two hills, and is almost surrounded by the rivers that meet near it; being also divided by the Cocker into two parts, which communicate with each other by good stone bridges. It consists principally of two streets, the houses of which are well-built of stone, and slated. It has a harbour for vessels of considerable burden, and had a castle, now mostly in ruins, situated on the hill west of the Cocker. The walls of the castle are six hundred yards in compass, and on the gates are the arms of the Moltons, Humframvilles, Lucies, and Percies. On the other hill, east of the Cocker, stands the church, which was anciently a chapel of ease to Bridgeham, a village about a mile distant; but is now parochial, and has two chapels of its own. In one division of the town is the guild, or moot-hall, where the corn-market is kept; and in the other a market for cattle.

About two miles from Cockermouth, on the other side of the river Derwent, stands Pap-Castle, which appears by several monuments to be a Roman antiquity, though it also bears the marks of later ages. Here is a large open vessel of green stone like a font, with several little images curiously engraven on it, particularly that of a priest dipping a child in water, which was the primitive mode of baptism. An inscription in Runic characters, expresses that Ekerd, a Dane of high rank, was baptized here, whose example was followed by the rest of his countrymen. This stone is at present used as a font in the neighbouring church of Bridkirk.

Penrith, commonly called Perith, is distant from London two hundred and eighty-two miles, and stands on a hill called Penrith-Fell, not far from the conflux of the rivers Eimot and Loder. The town is large, well-built, and populous, and has a handsome spacious church, with a charity-school for twenty boys, and another for thirty girls. In the market-place is a town-house of wood, about which is some carved work, representing bears climbing up a ragged staff; a device of the earls of Warwick, alluding to the exploits of sir Owen Cæfarius, by whom the bears that once infested this country were destroyed. Here are the remains of a Danish chapel, and on the west part of the town, the ruins of a royal castle.

This town carries on a very considerable trade in corn and cattle, and though neither a borough nor corporation, yet the county sessions are sometimes removed hither from Carlisle.

Upon the banks of the little river Dacer, near its confluence with the Eimot, and on the south side of Penrith, is a castle called Dacer-Castle, which appears to have been once a magnificent building.

At a little distance from Penrith are the ruins of a city, now called Old Penrith, and supposed to be the Petrianæ, where the Ala Petriana was quartered.

Likewise near Penrith, on the bank of the Eden, half a mile beyond its confluence with the Eimot, is a grotto of two rooms, dug out of the solid rock, and called Isis Parlisk. The passage to this grotto is difficult and dangerous, and was formerly secured by iron gates, which were standing not many years ago. It was a place of great strength, and is thought to have been used as an asylum in time of war.

A little to the northward of Iris Parlisk, on the banks of the Eden, are two inconsiderable villages, called Salkeld, and Little Salkeld. At the latter is a circle, formed of seventy-seven stones, each of which is ten foot high. Two of these stones, standing at a greater distance from each other than the rest, seem to form an entrance, before which is a single stone, fifteen foot high. This stone the common people call Long Meg, and the rest her daughters. Within the circle are two heaps of stones, under which it is imagined that dead bodies have been buried. This circle is supposed to have been a monument of some victory, or of the investiture of some Danish king.

Kirk-Oswald is distant from London two hundred and forty-eight miles, and is remarkable for a considerable castle, built before the reign of king John.

Jerby, called Market-Jerby, to distinguish it from another town, is situated at the head of the river Eln, two hundred and ninety miles from London. Camden is of opinion that this place was the ancient Arbeia, where the Barcarii Tigrienses were garrisoned. Wigton is situated in a forest, called Allerdale, two hundred and eighty-eight miles from London, and contains nothing remarkable.

Brampton is distant from London two hundred and eighty-seven miles, and stands on the river Irthing, near its confluence with the Gelt, north-east of Carlisle. Here is an hospital for six poor men, and the same number of women, founded by a countess dowager of Carlisle. This place is thought to be the ancient Bruncturacum, when the first cohort of the Tungri from Germany, and in the decline of the Roman empire, the Cuneus Armaturarum, under the governor of Britain, were quartered. Here is a high hill called the Mole, ditched round at the top, whence is an extensive prospect of the adjacent country. In this neighbourhood are several Roman monuments, with imperfect inscriptions.

Near Netherby, a little village on the Esk, north-west of Brampton, are the remains of a considerable city, supposed to be the ancient Ærica, where the tribune of the first cohort of the Astures kept garrison.

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Picts Wall passed the river Irthing by an arched bridge. At this place, which was the station of the first Ællan cohort of the Daci, are several altars erected by that cohort, and inscribed to Jupiter Optimus Maximus.

Longtown is distant from the capital three hundred and sixteen miles. It stands near the conflux of the Esk, and a small river called the Kirhoop, on the borders of Scotland; being distinguished only by an hospital, and a charity-school for sixty children.

The ancient inhabitants of Cumberland called themselves Cumbri, or Kumbri, but were in common with those of Yorkshire, Lancashire, Durham, and Westmoreland, called by Ptolemy the Brigantes. In the time of the Romans, Cumberland was constantly the residence of several of their legions, which not only kept the inhabitants from revolting, and prevented the incursions of the Scots, but greatly improved the country. Upon the declension of the Roman power in Britain, when this district was subdued by the Saxons, it became a part of the kingdom of Northumberland; but from the time that the strength of that people was reduced by the Danes, till the year 946, this county had petty kings of its own choofing. About this period, however, Edmund, brother to king Athelstan, having, with the assistance of Leontine, king of South Wales, conquered the county, it was granted to Malcolm, king of Scotland, upon condition that he should defend the northern part of England against all invaders; and in virtue of this grant, the eldest sons of the kings of Scotland were styled governors of Cumberland. The Saxons, sometime afterwards, reduced it again under their government; but at the time of the Norman Conquest it was so much impoverished, that William remitted all its taxations, and for that reason it is not rated in Domesday Book, as other counties are.

At Workington, a town on the coast, where the Derwent and Cocker run in one channel to the sea, are the ruins of a wall, stretching thence to the river Eln, about five miles northward, which some think was built by the Roman general Stilico, to prevent the landing of the Scots from Ireland. This opinion is founded on the following passage in Claudian:

*Me quoque vicinis pereuntem gentibus, inquit,  
Munivit Stilico, totam cum Scotis Iernam  
Movit, & infesto spumavit remige Thetis.*

Elnborough, or Elenborough, a small village situated near the mouth of the Eln, was anciently called Volantem, and was a Roman garrison, the station of the first cohort of the Dalmatians. Near this place there was also a town called Olenacum, where the first Herculean wing was garrisoned, in the reign of Theodosius the Younger.

North of Elnborough, not far from an abbey called Holm-Abbey, or Holm-Cultrum, but nearer the sea, stands Wulsty, a fortress said to have been built by the abbots of Holm-Cultrum, for the security of their books and charters against the incursions of the

Scots. Certain books of magic, supposed to have been written by Michael Scot, anciently a monk of this house, are said to have been kept here till they were mouldering into dust.

Below the monastery the bay receives the little river Waver, increased by the Wiza, another rivulet, at the head of which appear the ruins of an ancient city, called by the neighbouring inhabitants Old Carlisle, and thought to have been the Roman garrison, called by Antoninus *Castra Exploratorum*. The wing of the Roman army, named *Ala Augusta*, and *Ala Augusta Gordiana*, was quartered here in the reign of Gordianus, as appears from several inscriptions which have been found in and near this place.

Boulness, or Bulness, near the west end of the Picts wall, is the place at which Antoninus begins his Itinerary, being then the utmost limits of Britain, as a Roman province. It was called by the Romans *Blatum-Bulgium*, and is now a small village, with a fort. Many vestiges of streets and walls are often discovered in ploughing the adjacent grounds; and here has been found a great number of coins, inscriptions, and other antiquities. There are also some remains of a causeway, which is said to have been carried along the shore from this place quite to Elnborough.

Drumbough Castle, situated on the Picts Wall, six miles from Carlisle, was formerly a Roman station; and some suppose this place, and not Old Carlisle, to have been the *Castra Exploratorum*; but the distances assigned to the *Castra Exploratorum* from other places well known, do not coincide with this opinion.

A little hence is a village called Burgh-upon-Sands, where the Romans had another station; and king Edward I. on his march in his last expedition to Scotland, died at this place. On the spot in his camp where he expired, which has always been distinguished by some great stones rudely heaped upon it, has been lately erected a square pillar, nine yards and a half high, with inscriptions in large Roman letters. On the west side: "*Memoria aeternae Eduardii Regis Angliæ longe clarissimi, qui in belli apparatu contra Scotos occupatus, hic in castris obiit, 7 Julii, A. D. 1307.*" On the south side: "*Nobilissimus Princeps, Henricus Howard, dux Norfolkiae, comes mareschal, Angliæ, comes Arund. &c.*—*Ab Eduardo I. Rege Angliæ oriundus P. 1685.*" On the north side: "*Johannes Aglionby, I. C. F. C. i. e. Juris consultus furi fuit.*"

Of the famous Picts Wall, which runs across this county, a description will be given in the next chapter.

Cumberland sends to parliament six members, viz. two for the county, two for the city of Carlisle, and two for Cockermouth. The town of Egremont formerly sent likewise a representative, till the inhabitants becoming unable, or unwilling, to pay him the wages then usual, petitioned the parliament that they might be exempt from that charge.

## C H A P. XIV.

*Durham, Northumberland.*

## D U R H A M.

**T**HIS county is sometimes called the Bishoprick, and sometimes the County Palatine of Durham, having in former times been a kind of royalty, under the jurisdiction of a bishop, subordinate to the crown. It is bounded on the west by parts of Westmoreland, Cumberland, and Northumberland; on the north by the latter of those counties; on the east by the German ocean; and on the south by the river Tees, which separates it from Yorkshire.

In this county are sixteen rivers, the chief of which are the Tees and the Were. The former rises on the borders of Cumberland, and running east-south-east, receives, besides several less considerable streams, the Laden, the Hude, the Lune, the Bauder, and the Skern; after which, directing its course north-east, it falls into the German ocean. The Were is composed of three small streams, called the Kellop, the Wellop, and the Burdop, bourns rising near one another in the west part of this county, and within three miles of the head of the Tees. The Were, thus formed, runs eastward, and receives the Gaunlefs, with several smaller streams: it then, by many windings, directs its course north-east, and passing by the city of Durham, falls into the German ocean at Sunderland.

The air of this district is healthy, and though sharp in the western parts, is yet mild and pleasant towards the sea. The soil is also different, the western parts being mountainous and barren, but the rest of the county fruitful, and beautifully diversified with meadows, pastures, corn-fields, and woods. It abounds with inexhaustible mines of lead and iron, and particularly coal, called Newcastle coal, from the port where it is shipped to supply the city of London, and the greater part of England. The rivers abound with fish, especially salmon, which, with the coal, includes the whole traffic of the county. It is computed that the ports of this county supply the royal navy with more men than any other in the kingdom.

Durham lies in the province of York, and is a diocese of itself, containing fifty-two parishes. It is divided, not into hundreds, but, like the county of Cumberland, into wards or wakes, of which it contains four; and has one city, with seven market-towns. The city is Durham; and the market-towns are Auckland-Bishop's, Bernard-Castle, Darlington, Hartlepool, Marwood, Stockton, and Sunderland.

The city of Durham is distant from London two hundred and fifty-six miles, and is pleasantly situated on a hill, almost surrounded by the river Were. It is encompassed with a fortified wall, and stretches about a mile in each direction. It is an episcopal see; and the principal building is the cathedral, which is dedicated to Christ and the Virgin Mary. This is

a magnificent pile, four hundred and eleven foot long, and eighty broad, with three spacious aisles, one in the middle, and one at each end. That in the middle is a hundred and seventy foot long; the eastern aisle is a hundred and thirty-two foot wide; and the western a hundred foot. In the latter there was a chapel of the Virgin Mary, called Galilee; the outside of it was adorned with two handsome spires, covered with lead, the towers of which are yet standing. The eastern aisle was formerly called the Nine Altars, from the number it contained of those parts. The middle aisle, which was dedicated to St. Cuthbert, the patron of the church, was the most beautiful; and near it was a rich shrine of that saint. The building is strongly arched, and supported by large pillars. At the entrance to the choir is a handsome screen, a hundred and seventeen foot long, and thirty-three broad. Many of the windows are very curious, particularly the middle window, to the east, which is called the Catharine's wheel, or St. Catharine's window. It comprehends all the breadth of the choir, and is composed of twenty four lights. In the south end of the church was a window called St. Cuthbert's, on which was painted the history of the life and miracles of that saint. On the north side was a third window, on which was painted the history of Joseph, by whose name it was therefore distinguished. The chapter-house, in which sixteen bishops are interred, is a spacious apartment, seventy-five foot long, and thirty-three broad, with an arched roof of stone, and a beautiful seat at the upper end, for the instalment of the bishops. The decorations of this church are said to be richer than those of any other in England, it having suffered less by the alienation of its revenues than any other cathedral.

Besides the cathedral, there are six parish-churches, three of which stand in the principal or middle part of the town, and the other three in the suburbs. South of the cathedral is the college, a quadrangular pile of building, inclosing a spacious court. It consists at present of houses for the prebendaries; and the greater part of it has been either new built, or very much improved since the Restoration. Opposite to the college-gate, upon the east side, is the exchequer; at the west end was the Guest-hall, for the entertainment of strangers; and near it the granary, and other offices of the convent. On the north side of the cathedral, is the college-school, with a house for the master; and between the church-yard, and what is called the castle, or the bishop's palace, is an area named the Palace-Green; at the west end of which is the shire-hall, where the assizes and sessions are held for the county, and near it a fine library. On the east side of the cathedral is an hospital, with two schools. North of the cathedral stands the castle, which afterwards became the bishop's palace. It was built by William the Conqueror, and the outer gate of it is at present the county jail.

The other public buildings in this city are the custom-house, the cross, and a conduit, with two stone bridges over the river Were.

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The city of Durham owes its origin to the monks of Lindisfern, a monastery in a small island south-east of Berwick-upon-Tweed, who being with Eadulfus their bishop, expelled their habitation by the Danes, retired first to Chester-in-the-Street, a small town north of Durham, about the year 883, carrying with them the relics of their bishop St. Cuthbert. In 995 they removed hither, and deposited the relics under a small oratory, which they erected of sticks and twigs, wattled together. This oratory, Aldwin, the bishop, who then transferred the episcopal see from Chester-in-the-Street to Durham, afterwards improved into a cathedral; but William de Careleph, who was bishop of Durham about the year 1083, pulled it down, and began a more stately edifice, which was finished by his successors.

Darlington is situated upon the river Skern, at the distance of two hundred and forty-three miles from London. This is one of the four ward-towns in the county, and consists of several streets. It has a spacious market-place, a handsome church, with a tall spire, and a free-school. It is one of the most considerable places in the North of England for the manufacture of linen, particularly the sort called huckabacks, of which great quantities are sent to London and other parts. Other fine linen cloth is also made here; and the water of the Skern is in great reputation for bleaching.

Stockton is situated on the river Tees, about two miles from its mouth, at the distance of two hundred and twenty miles from London. It is a well-built town, and a place of great business. The river here is capable of bearing ships of considerable burden, but the current is often dangerous. This is a member of the port of Newcastle, and carries on a very considerable trade to London in lead, butter, and bacon.

Hartlepool is distant from London two hundred and thirty-six miles, and stands on a promontory, encompassed by the sea on every side but the west. It depends chiefly on the fishing trade, and its harbour is much frequented by colliers passing to and from Newcastle.

Bishop's-Aukland was formerly called North-Aukland, to distinguish it from another town in the county, and received its present name from a palace which belongs to the bishops of this see. It stands near the conflux of the rivers Were and Gaunlefs, at the distance of a hundred and eighty-four miles from London. It is reckoned one of the best towns in the county, and has a stone bridge over the Were.

Barnard-Castle derives its name from Barnard Baliol, great grandfather to John Baliol, king of Scotland, who erected a castle here, and also built the town. It stands on the north side of the river Tees, at the distance of two hundred and fifty-three miles from London, and consists chiefly of one handsome street, with lanes branching from it. The manufactures of this town are stockings, bridles, reins, and belts, and it is famous for the best white bread in the county. At Winston, a village upon the Tees,

about four miles east of Barnard Castle, are seen the remains of a Roman highway.

Marwood stands likewise upon the Tees, at the distance of two hundred and fifty-five miles from London. It has nothing of note but a stocking manufactory, and a park, which reaches to Barnard-Castle.

Sunderland stands at the distance of two hundred and sixty-three miles from London, and is a seaport. It is a well-built populous town, with a very handsome church, and has a great coal trade, from which it derives considerable profit. The port, however, is so shallow, that the ships are obliged to take in their loading in the open road, which is sometimes very dangerous to the keelmen or lightermen that bring the coals from the shore. The vessels, therefore, which load here, are generally smaller than those in the neighbouring ports; but as they ride in the open sea, they are ready to fall as soon as they get in their loading, which is a considerable advantage, by which means they have been known to fall from this port to London, and, after delivering their coals, return hither, before the ships at Shields, a considerable port at the mouth of the Tees, which had been loaded before them, were able to get over the bar.

The bishoprick of Durham was anciently a part of the country inhabited by the Brigantes; but upon the establishment of the heptarchy, it became a part of the kingdom of Northumberland; and was one of the counties which, being on the south side of the Tyne, were called Deira, to distinguish them from the northern division of the kingdom of the Northumbrians, known by the name of Bernicia. Soon after the Saxons were converted to Christianity, this county was given by their kings to St. Cuthbert, bishop of Lindisfern, an island in the county of Northumberland, now known by the name of Holy-Island, and to his successors for ever. The Danes and Normans confirmed this grant of the Saxon kings, and added several privileges to the church of St. Cuthbert. In the reign of William the Conqueror, a person named Welcher, a native of Lorraine, being bishop of Durham, purchased of the crown the earldom of Northumberland, and thence assuming the authority of a secular judge, sat in court, and determined all causes at his pleasure. This is supposed to have been the origin of the temporal power of the bishops of Durham; and upon this purchase it is supposed that the district was made a county palatine.

The bishops of Durham, as counts palatine, have borne on their seals a knight armed, on horseback, brandishing a sword with one hand, and with the other holding out the arms of the bishoprick. The common people, insisting on their privileges, have refused to march into Scotland in time of war, pretending that they were Halworkmen, that is, men bound to do nothing but holy works; that they held their lands to defend the body of St. Cuthbert, and that they were not obliged to serve without the limits of the diocese, either for the king or the bishop. King Edward I. abolished many of the privileges

leges of the fee, but some of them were recovered by succeeding bishops.

The bishop of Durham had power to call a parliament, and create barons. He was also vested with the power of coining money, and imposing taxes: all courts were kept in his name; and he had the appointment of all judges and justices of the peace, with the unlimited prerogative of granting a pardon for any crime. He had several forests, chaces, parks, and woods in the county, besides a great part of the palatinate, which was held of the fee in capite. The lands, goods, and chattels of all such as were convicted of treason, fell to the bishop; and he still claims all forfeitures upon outlawries and felonies.

Such were the privileges of the bishops of Durham, before they were abridged by a statute in the twenty-seventh year of Henry VIII. which in effect stripped them of their palatinate power, particularly that of creating judges, making out judicial writs and indictments, and granting pardons; but the bishops, and their temporal chancellors, were still permitted to act as justices of the peace.

In the reign of Edward VI. this bishoprick was dissolved, and all its revenues and immunities were by the parliament vested in the crown; but queen Mary repealing this act, the fee was restored to the state in which it was left by Henry the VIIIth.

As this district was a kind of principality, distinct from the rest of the kingdom, it never sent representatives to parliament till the reign of Charles II. since which time it has constantly sent four members, viz. two for the county, and two for the city of Durham.

#### N O R T H U M B E R L A N D .

Northumberland, as now circumscribed, is bounded on the south by Durham; on the south-west by part of Cumberland; on the west and north by Scotland, from which it is separated by the river Tweed, the Cheviot-hills, and other mountains; and on the east by the German ocean. It measures from north to south about fifty miles, and from east to west forty.

This county is well watered with fine rivers, the chief of which are the two Tynes, the Tweed, and the Coquet. The south Tyne rises near Aln-moor, in the north-east part of Cumberland, and running north-west, to Fetherston-Haugh, near Heltwefel, a market-town of this county, forms an angle at that place; whence directing its course eastward, and being joined by two small rivers, called the East and West Alon, then joins the north Tyne near Hexham. The latter rises in a mountain called Tynehead, upon the borders of Scotland, and running south-east, receives a small river called the Skele; after which, continuing in the same direction, it is joined by a considerable stream called the Read, not far from Ellsdon, and uniting with the south Tyne, they flow in one full stream to the German ocean,

into which they fall at Tinmouth, nine miles from Newcastle.

The Tweed rises in Scotland, and running north-east, is joined by the Bowbant, the Bramish, the Till, the Teviot, and other less considerable streams; in its progress eastward it separates England from Scotland, and falls into the German ocean at Berwick.

The Coquet rises upon the borders of Scotland, at a small distance north of the spring of the Read, running eastward, and being joined by several streams, it passes by Rothbury, and falls into the German ocean about fifteen miles east of that town.

The air of this county is not so cold as might be expected from its northern situation; and the soil is different in different parts. On the sea-coast, the sand, if properly cultivated, yields great abundance of good wheat and other grain; and along the banks of the river, particularly the Tyne, there are large and rich meadows; but the western parts are generally barren, consisting chiefly of a heathy and mountainous country, which however affords good pasture for sheep.

On the top of some of the mountains in this county, especially those tracts in the western parts of it, called Tyndale and Readfdale, from their situation on the courses of the rivers Tyne and Read, there are some bogs, impassible without the help of horses, which the inhabitants train up for that purpose, and are therefore called bog-trotters.

The rivers here afford great plenty of fish, particularly salmon and trout. In some places there are lead mines; timber is a frequent commodity; and coal is so abundant, that it forms a considerable branch of trade with London, and other parts.

This county lies in the province of York, and diocese of Durham. It is, like Cumberland, divided into wards, of which there are six, and contains eleven market-towns, viz. Alnwick, Belford, Berwick, Ellsdon, Heltwefel, Hexham, Learmouth, Morpeth, Newcastle, Rothbury, and Wooller.

Proceeding from the county of Durham, the first town at which we arrive is Newcastle, which stands on the north bank of the river Tyne, at the distance of two hundred and seventy-six miles from London. In the time of the Saxons it was called Moncester, or Monckchester, and, before the Norman Conquest, was in possession of the Scots, whose kings sometimes resided here. It received its present name from a castle built here by Robert, the eldest son of William the Conqueror. Next to the city of York, this is the handsomest and largest town in the North of England. The upper, or north part of it, which is inhabited by the genteeler sort of people, has three level, well-built, and spacious streets; but the lower part, towards the river, is situated on uneven ground, and here the houses are very close together. The town is encompassed with a strong wall, in which are seven gates, and as many turrets, with a number of casemates, bomb-proof. The castle, which is ruinous, overlooks the town. Here is a magnificent exchange, and a handsome mansion-house for the mayor, besides six churches or chapels, and several

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meeting-houses. St. Nicholas, the mother-church, is a curious fabric, built in the manner of a cathedral, by David king of Scotland, with a fine steeple of uncommon architecture. Here is a charity-school for three hundred children, a free hall for the surgeons, an infirmary, with some hospitals, and a large prison called Newgate. A handsome collection of books was left to the corporation, by Dr. Thomlin, prebendary of St. Paul's in London, who settled a rent-charge of five pounds a year for ever, for purchasing new publications; and the late sir Walter Blacket built a repository for them, with twenty-five pounds a year for ever, as a salary to the librarian.

Here is a noble custom-house, and the finest key in England, except that at Yarmouth. A stately bridge, consisting of seven arches, over the Tyne, was lately destroyed by an inundation of the river, but is now rebuilding.

Here is a considerable manufacture of hardware and wrought iron, besides many glass-houses and ship-yards, where vessels for the coal-trade are built in great perfection. The trade of this place in coal, exclusive of other traffic, is so great, that it employs above six thousand keel-men, or coal-lightermen, who have, by their own contributions, built an hospital for such of their fraternity as are disabled by accident or age. The revenue of this town is computed at no less than eight thousand pounds a year.

The port of Newcastle is at Shields, about nine miles below the town, at the mouth of the river, which is defended by a castle, called Tinmouth-castle, situated on a high rock, inaccessible on the sea side, and well mounted with cannon. Here the river Tyne is not above seven foot deep at low-water, and across the mouth of the river lies a sand bank, called the Bar, with dangerous rocks about it, named the Black Middins; but to prevent vessels from running on them by night, light-houses are erected, and maintained by the Trinity-house at Newcastle. Here is also another fort, called Clifford's Fort, which was built in 1672, and commands the mouth of the river. Tinmouth was the Tunocellum of the Romans; and Seghill, a place adjoining, was the ancient Segedunum.

Gatehead, a suburb of Newcastle, through which the Pic's wall passed, was the Gabrofontum mentioned in the Itinerary of Antoninus; and Wall's End, about three miles east of Newcastle, thus named from its situation at the extremity of the Pic's wall, was the place called Vindobala, in the Notitia, and Vindomora in the Itinerary of Antoninus.

Hexham is situated two hundred and seventy-six miles from London, and was the chief town of a division of this county, formerly called Hexamshire, which was a long time subject to the bishoprick of York, and claimed the rights of a county palatine.

In the reign of Egfrid king of Northumberland, A. D. 674, it was made an episcopal see, by St. Wilfrid, then archbishop of York, who erected here a cathedral, which, according to the account delivered by the historians of those times, was a mag-

nificent structure. The town, however, having suffered greatly by the Danes, it is probable that nothing of the ancient church now remains. After a long succession of bishops; the see of Hexham was united to that of Durham; but this junction was dissolved by Henry I. who gave the territories of Hexham to the archbishop of York, by whom the present church of Hexham is supposed to have been erected.

In the time of Henry VIII. Hexham became a part of the crown lands, and was by act of parliament, in the reign of Elizabeth, annexed to the county of Northumberland; from which, however, it continues distinct in point of ecclesiastical jurisdiction, being still a peculiar belonging to the archbishop of York.

This church anciently afforded sanctuary to criminals, till the privilege was taken away by Henry VIII. in 1534; and here is still kept the famous Tridstol, or Stool of Peace, of which, whoever took possession, was entirely absolved from the penal laws. Nor was this enormous privilege confined to the church alone, but extended a mile four ways, where the limits were marked by a cross. The remains of the cathedral bear evident marks of magnificence. Among many ancient tombs is said to be that of Richard, an historian of the twelfth century. The interior architecture of this church is highly finished in the mixed Gothic order: the pillars are clustered, supporting Gothic arches; and the members of the archings, and the pilasters are finely proportioned. The choir is roofed with wood, covered with lead; and the side aisles are arched with stone. The whole is surrounded by a double gallery, opening with Saxon arches: each opening consists of three arches, the center one circular, and the two other pointed; but the workmanship of all exceeding fine. In general, however, the principal pillars of this edifice are disproportioned and heavy; a fault that is common to most of the Saxon churches. At the west end of the church are the remains of the priory, which appears to have been also a spacious building.

Hexham is supposed by Camden to be the Alexodunum of the Romans; but Horsley is of opinion that it was Epicaum.

Hexham is a town of considerable extent, but the streets are narrow, and ill-built. Here is a spacious market-place, in the form of a square, with a school founded by queen Elizabeth.

Leading to the priory is a gateway of very ancient architecture: the arches form a semicircle, and are moulded in a style which denotes their antiquity to be much greater than any part of the priory or cathedral. The roof consists of ribbed arches, that meet in the middle; and the interstices are filled with thin stones or bricks, such as are seen in Roman works.

In the town are two ancient towers, one of which, formerly an exploratory tower, belonging to the bishops and priors, is now used as a sessions-house. The other, which stands on the top of the hill to-

wards the Tyne, is of remarkable architecture. It is of a square form, containing very small apertures to admit the light, and has a course of corbets projecting a long way from the top, which seem to have supported a hanging gallery, and bespeak the tower, at present, not near its original height.

In the levels beneath Hexham, was fought the decisive battle in 1463, when John Nevil, lord Montacute, afterwards created earl of Northumberland, general of the army of the house of York, forced the intrenchments of the Lancastrian party, when a dreadful slaughter ensued.

Haltwessel is situated on the fourth Tyne, at the distance of two hundred and fifty-seven miles from London. Here is an infant manufactory of coarse baize, which promises to prove successful. At the east end of the town is an eminence, of an oval figure, called Castle Banks, in the center of which is a fine spring. On the east and west end are cut four terraces, one rising above another. The summit of the hill is defended by a breast-work of earth, towards the town; and on the south by an inaccessible precipice, at the bottom of which the river runs. To what people this fortification belonged is not known, no memorable action having made it remarkable in history. It is the opinion of Mr. Wallis, that the eminences thus terraced, were occupied by the militia when an enemy had penetrated the country, as they could thence fight with great advantage, if an attack was made upon them.

Morpeth stands at the distance of two hundred and ninety-two miles from London, upon a small river called the Wentbeck, over which it has a bridge. This being a great thoroughfare to the north, here are several good inns; and likewise an elegant town-house, built by the late earl of Carlisle. Here is great plenty of all sorts of fish, and the most considerable market in England for cattle, except Smithfield in London. This town had once a castle, which now lies in ruins.

Rothbury is distant from London two hundred and eighty-one miles, and is remarkable only for a charity-school, erected for teaching a hundred and twenty children.

Alnewick, commonly called Alnwick, stands upon a small river called the Alne, at the distance of three hundred and ten miles from London. Here is a good old castle, where the assizes are sometimes held; with another ancient and magnificent edifice, the seat of the duke of Northumberland.

On a moor, a few miles hence, stands a stone pillar, called Percy's Cross, and erected to the memory of sir Ralph Percy, who was slain here by lord Montacute, in the year 1463, before the battle of Hexham Levels. He died fighting bravely for Henry VI. whose cause he espoused. On the pillar are the arms of Percy and Lucy.

Wooller is situated on the banks of the river Till, at the distance of three hundred and twenty-seven miles from London, and begins to be a more considerable town than formerly. In the neighbourhood may be seen several intrenchments and cairns; one at a

place called Cattle Well, which has the name of Maiden Castle; and another, which is very considerable, at Trodden Gores. By Humbledon Burn, on an easy inclination, is an entrenchment called Green Castle; and on Humbledon Hugh, about a mile to the northward of Wooller, is a circular intrenchment, with a large cairn. The side of the hill is cut in various terraces, rising one above another. This seems to have been designed for a temporary fort, and has been executed according to the mode generally practised in ancient times in this part of the country. Many of those terraces are formed with great exactness, about twenty feet broad. In some places there are three of those flights or terraces, in others five, placed in regular gradations. Those were outworks of an important nature, to defend a body of chiefs, or a valuable booty, that occupied the summit of the hill.

In the plain beneath is a stone pillar, denoting the scene of an engagement between the English and Scots, in 1402; when the latter were commanded by lord Percy and the earl of March, and the former by earl Douglas.

In the hall of Chillingham Castle, the seat of the earl of Tankerville, in this neighbourhood, is a marble chimney-piece, in which it is said a toad was found alive at the fawing of the stone. The other part of the stone, which contains a portion of the receptacle, answering the figure of the toad, is a chimney-piece in Horton Castle, north of Wooller.

Not far from Wooller is Yevinger, now a mean village, but once a manor of the Saxon kings, and the residence of king Edwin and his queen Ethelburga, after his conversion by Paulinus. Here, however, are no remains of antiquity, nor any thing to show that a royal palace ever existed on the spot. After the death of Edwin the residence of those kings was at Milford, now a little village.

Near Yevinger is a place known by the name of Yevinger-Bell, one of the north-west Cheviots, and a lofty mountain, being upwards of two thousand feet in perpendicular height from the plain at Yevinger. The hill is of steep ascent, and its summit almost level, containing an arch of a thousand paces in circumference, surrounded with the remains of a wall, which has been of considerable strength, though built without mortar. The breadth of the ruins of the wall, on a medium, is eight yards; and by the quantity of stones it may be computed that there are about four fethers to the yard. Admitting therefore that the whole should amount to four thousand fethers, we are astonished how such a quantity could be carried by human hands, to a place totally inaccessible to carriages or beasts of burthen; for it does not appear from the soil on the summit of the mountain, that it has afforded such stones. The works on this hill are doubtless of great antiquity, though for what purpose they were intended is a matter of difficulty to determine. It has however been conjectured by an ingenious gentleman, that this place was consecrated to the adoration of the sun, in the times of paganism.

Belford

Belford is distant from London three hundred and twenty-seven miles, and is a small obscure town, that contains nothing worthy of note.

Berwick is situated on the north bank of the Tweed, and is distant from London three hundred and thirty-nine miles. It formerly belonged to Scotland, and was one of the four towns where the royal boroughs of that kingdom held their convention. It was first obtained from the Scots by Edward I. and has been several times taken and retaken by both nations; but it has continued in the possession of the English ever since the reign of Edward IV. Its language and laws, however, are a mixture of Scotch and English; but the established church is that of the latter.

Berwick was fortified with a castle, which is now in ruins; and a wall, built by order of queen Elizabeth, encompassed it, except on the east and south-east sides, where it is washed by the sea, and on the south-west by the river Tweed. It is a large well built, populous place, and has a fine church, a good town-house, an exchange, and a beautiful bridge over the Tweed, three hundred yards in length, consisting of sixteen arches, built by queen Elizabeth.

The harbour here is but mean, and navigable only to the bridge, which is within a mile and a half of the bar at the mouth of the river, though the tide flows about four miles above the town. Berwick has a considerable manufacture for stockings, and a great salmon-fishery.

Learnmouth stands upon the river Tweed, twelve miles south-west of Berwick, but contains nothing worthy of note. Not far hence is the village of Cornhill, which is considerably frequented on account of its spa.

The principal remains of antiquity in this county, and indeed in all Britain, is a wall built by the Romans, as a barrier against the incursions of the northern Britons. By the Romans it was called Vallum Barbaricum, Præentura, and Clausura, and by the English, the Picts Wall. It runs across the whole breadth of Great Britain at this place, through the counties of Cumberland and Northumberland, extending from that part of the Irish sea, called the Solway-Frith, on the west, to the German ocean, on the east, in a course of above sixty-eight miles. This wall or fence was constructed by the emperor Hadrian, about the year 123, in the manner of a mural hedge, with large sticks driven deep into the ground, and wreathed together with wattles. It was faced with earth and turf, and fortified on the north with a deep ditch. About the year 210, it was repaired by the emperor Severus, who strengthened it with several stone fortresses and turrets, at a distance from each other convenient enough to communicate an alarm, by sound of trumpet.

The Romans being called from Britain, for the defence of Gaul, the North Britons repeatedly broke in upon this barrier, and put all they met to the sword. The South Britons applying to Rome for assistance, a legion was sent over to them, which drove the enemy back into their own country. But as the Romans

had at this time full employment for their troops, and it became necessary for the South Britons to defend themselves for the future; the latter were assisted by their allies in building a wall of stone, eight foot broad, and twelve foot high, of equal extent with the mural hedge, and nearly upon the same ground. This wall was completed under the direction of Ætius, the Roman general, about the year 430; and the tracks of it, with the foundations of the towers or little castles, now called Castle-Steeds, placed at the distance of a mile one from another, and the little fortified towns on the inside, called Chesters, are still visible.

The highest part of the wall now standing, is at Car-Voran, where it runs along the brink of a cliff, to the summit of some eminences. It is here almost nine foot high, and the outer facing of free-stone not totally removed. Where the foundation was not good, or the wall had to be carried over a morass, it is built on piles of ash. The space between the two facings is filled up with broad thin stones, placed obliquely, and cemented with run lime. A military way seems to have accompanied this mural defence along the whole of its extent.

Whitley Castle, on the borders of Cumberland, is the remains of the Roman station called Altona by Antoninus. It stands on the brook of Gildendale, on an irregular descent, inclining to the east, and forms an obtuse angled parallelogram, a hundred and forty paces from east to west, and from north to south a hundred and ten. The ground falls suddenly from the eastern side of this station, but to the westward it is overlooked by hills, whence it might easily be assailed. To fortify it on this weak quarter, it is flanked on the north-west and south-west angles, with several trenches and breast-works of earth; and on the west with seven of the same kind, running out in a semicircular form. The entrance is on the south side. The Notitia places here the third cohort of the Nervii.

The Roman station of Car-Voran is situated on a declivity which descends swiftly towards the south-west, about a hundred yards distant from the Picts-Wall. It is of a square figure, with obtuse angles, each side measuring about a hundred and twenty paces. The prætorium is very distinguishable, about seven paces from the southern side, commanding a very extensive prospect. The ramparts round this fort are very conspicuous, and the whole ditch remains distinguishable. The buildings without the fort have been on the east and west sides, on the descent towards the river Tippal. The military way, called Maiden-way, passes through this place; and here terminates another military way, which comes from Welwich Chester. Car-Voran is supposed to be the ancient Magna, where the second cohort of the Dalmatæ was quartered; and many Roman antiquities have been found at this place.

At Great Chesters, another Roman station, the ramparts are yet extremely visible. Some part of the wall is standing a good height; and the ditch likewise may be seen on all sides, except towards the

east, where it is become flat. On the west is a doubleagger and ditch. The ruins of the rampart on this side are very high, and among them several courses of stones. The prætorium, which is very visible, measures fifty yards from east to west, and forty from north to south. To this is joined another parallelogram at the east end, of the same breadth with the prætorium, and twenty-six yards from east to west, supposed to have been the questorium. On the north side of the prætorium are large ruins of some considerable building, which probably was a temple. On the south side of the fort has been a regular entry, whence proceeds a paved military way to Hadrian's Vallum, which is distant about fifteen chains.

Little Chesters is a small Roman station, distant from the preceding near four miles, and situated on the western side of Bardou Burn: it is now called the Bowers, on account of the trees that cover it. The enclosure at this place contains not more than three acres of ground, but the Vallum is very distinguishable, and forms an oblong square with obtuse angles. The Via Vicinalis from Car-Voran to Walwick Chesters, passes close by its northern side, near which stands a Roman military guide-stone. This place was the Vindolana of the Romans, where the Legio Sexta Victrix kept garrison; and here also many antiquities have been found.

The Roman station called Borcovicus, now Housesteads, consists of a heap of ruins, lying on an easy descent. It appears by several inscriptions, that the first cohort of Tungians, had their station at this place. On Chapel-hill, not far distant, several Doric capitals and columns have been found, supposed to be part of a Roman temple.

At Shewing Sheels, between the military road and the wall, near the twenty-eighth mile-stone, are the remains of a Roman station, about sixty yards square.

Near the twenty-sixth mile-stone lies Carraen-Brough, the Roman station called Procolitia, which was garrisoned by the first cohort of the Batavi. A great part of the rampart remains entire, especially on the east side; and Severus's wall, which forms the north rampart, is in good preservation. The ditch is most visible on the west. Here it may plainly be seen, that the corners of the forts were not strictly angular, but turned off in the segment of a circle. Severus's military way appears to enter the east gate of the fort, and go out of the west.

According to Mr. Horsley, the buildings without this fort have been chiefly on the west side, where, some years ago, a well was discovered with a good spring. The receptacle for the water is about seven foot square within, and built on all sides with hewn stone; but it is now almost filled up with rubbish. There has also been a wall about it, or a house built over it.

About half a mile south-west of Carraw, upon a high ground is a square fort, now called Broom-dykes, almost as large as that of Carraw-brough,

supposed to have been either for exploration, or the æstiva of this fort.

Walwick Chesters is situated on an inclined plain, near the bank of the north Tyne. This station also forms an oblong square with obtuse angles. It measures in length from east to west a hundred and seventy paces, and in breadth a hundred and thirty. The site of the prætorium at the eastern end is very distinguishable, with two entrances through the Vallum, and a road leading down to the river. The ground within the Vallum is crowded with ruins of stone buildings, which appear to have stood in straight lines, forming streets, two on the south side and two on the north, intersected in the middle by a cross street from north to south. On the south side without the Vallum and fosse, many ruins of buildings appear, and some on the north. This place was the Silurnum of the Romans, where, as some authors assert, the first cohort of the Vangiones was stationed; but according to Mr. Horsley, it was garrisoned by the second wing of the Afi.

Below the Chesters, the foundations of a bridge are apparent at low water, supposed to be of Roman construction; and it is said that cramps of iron have been observed in the work.

The Roman station at Rutchester appears to have been very considerable. On the north side there were six turrets, but the number on the others cannot be determined. The ramparts, however, are still very visible. Severus's wall runs upon the middle of the east rampart, but is not continued through the station; and Hadrian's wall passes above the distance of a chain to the south of it. According to Horsley, this place was the Vindobala of the Romans, where the first cohort of the Frisii kept garrison. Camden calls it Vindolana; and by some writers it is said to be the frontier station of the fourth cohort of the Gauls.

Halton Chesters is situated on an easy descent, but the rampart cannot perfectly be traced. Hadrian's Vallum seems to have fallen in with the fourth rampart of this fort, and Severus's wall with the north line of the inner part. The ruins of the outbuildings are to the south and south-east of the fort. This is generally supposed to be the Hunnum of the Romans, though Camden places that station at Shewing Sheels.

Not far from Halton Chesters is Ayden-Castle, now greatly in decay. It stands on the west side of a deep gill, on the brink of a precipice, at the bottom of which runs a little brook. From what remains of this edifice, it appears to have been of considerable extent and strength, encompassed by a wall. Here is a stable with an arched roof of stone, without any wood in its structure, even the mangers being formed of stone troughs. It seems to have been intended for the preservation of cattle at the time of an assault. The precipice here is said to have been famous for a lover's leap.

Corbridge is supposed by Camden to be the Curia Othodorum of the Romans, noted by Ptolemy, and

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*A Russian Bear who sells live Fish.*



*From the Engravings of J. B. Le Prince in 1768.*

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and the Corfopitum of Antoninus. Near this place, in 1734, was found a piece of Roman plate, now in the possession of the duke of Northumberland. It weighs a hundred and forty-eight ounces, is twenty inches long, and fifteen broad. Most of the work is in bas-relief, with a flat brim, an inch and a quarter broad, elegantly ornamented with flowers, &c. This curious piece of antiquity represents the figure of Apollo, with the bow in his left hand, and a physical herb in his right, under a canopy supported by two Corinthian pillars. Near his left leg is a *Tyre*, under it an *Heliotrope*, and at his feet a *Python*. Near the right-hand column is another, of a different form, with a sun for its capital; against which, on a tripod, sits a priestess, who looks over her shoulder at Apollo: under her feet is another, near which lies a stag upon his back.—The figure next to the priestess is that of another female, her head unveiled, holding in her left hand a spear or wand, on the top of which is a ball. Near her is *Minerva*, pointing her right hand to a man (supposed a hunter) on the other side of a large tree. Her head is covered with a helmet; on her breast is a *Medusa's* head; under her feet an altar, near which is a wolf, looking up to a man who has a bow in his left, and an arrow in his right hand. Below him, at a corner of the plate, is a rock, having in the midst of it an urn, from which flows a stream.

It is uncertain whether this piece of plate was intended for sacred uses, or was a *lanx*, for the service of the emperor's table on high festivals, and expressive of some great achievement to the glory of the Roman power.

At a little distance from Corbridge, stands *Corchester*, once a Roman station, but which seems to have been abandoned before the *Notitia* was drawn up, as no mention is made of it in that work. This station is situated on a tongue of land, formed by the stream of *Cor*, at its conflux with the *Tyne*. The *Prætorium* is yet visible, and at low water may be seen the remains of a bridge, supposed to be of Roman construction. *Dr. Todd*, in the *Philosophical Transactions*, supposes the name to have been originally *Herculcester*; to which opinion he was led by an altar found here, with a Greek inscription, dedicated to the *Tyrian Hercules*.

*Rifingham* stands upon *Watling-Street*, and is supposed to have been the *Habitaculum* of the Romans. Like the preceding, it is not mentioned in the *Itinerary*; but from some inscriptions and coins which have been found, there is reason to think that it was a Roman station in the time of *Aurelius Antoninus*. It is situated on the bank of the *Read*, and contains within the *Vallum* three acres, three roods, and twenty-six perches of land.

Near this place is the remarkable effigy of *Robin Rifingham*, as it is called by the country people. It is cut upon the face of a huge piece of rock, and both the sculpture and stone are very coarse. *Mr. Horsley* imagines it to be Roman work, and intended to represent the emperor *Commodus*; but from the mode in which the figure is habited, there is reason

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for supposing it to have been cut at a much later period.

*Elsden* is a small town, supposed to have its date from the time of *Marcus Aurelius Antoninus*, inscribed to which emperor were found two Roman altars, in a mount called the *Mote-Hill*. This eminence is intrenched round, and the mote yet remains of a great depth. Towards the north, which is the weakest part, a breast-work is cast up. Here have been discovered the bones of animals, apparently the remains of sacrifice, with urns, ashes of the dead, and broken inscriptions.

On the banks of the *Read* are still discernible the intrenchments which were cast up at the battle of *Otterburn*; and many tumuli or barrows, scattered over the adjoining ground, afford evidence of the slaughter which was then made.

*Riechester*, anciently called *Bremoricum*, was esteemed the strongest station the Romans had in the north. It is situated on the brow of a steep and rocky hill, commanding the pass of *Reeddale*, and is defended by a wall of ashler-work, seven foot thick, moats and treble rampiers, as out-works. Besides several Roman antiquities, here have lately been discovered the remains of a hypocaust, or warm bath.

A little above *Riechester*, near *Bridhope-Crag*, are two large square entrenchments, with two openings on every side, each defended by an outer mote, of an oblong form, at the distance of six yards from the aperture.

In the time of the Romans, *Northumberland* was inhabited by the *Ottodini* or *Ottotini*, and the *Meotæ*, the latter of whom were the Britons that dwelt near the *Fosse Wall*, and who in that memorable revolt against the Romans, in which the *Caledonians* were brought into the confederacy, first took up arms.

This county is not remarkable for any particular manufacture. It sends to parliament eight members, viz. two knights for the shire, and two burgesses for each of the following towns; namely, *Newcastle*, *Morpeth*, and *Berwick-upon-Tweed*.

On the coast of *Northumberland*, about six miles south-east of *Berwick*, is situated *Holy Island*, anciently called *Landisfern*. It is about five miles in circumference, and contains an old fort, which is now in decay. This island was once a bishop's see, and part of the cathedral yet remains. It has a communication with *Northumberland* at low water, and, during summer, much company resort to it for sea-bathing.

## C H A P. XV.

### Wales.

WALES is bounded on the east by *Monmouthshire*, *Herefordshire*, *Shropshire* and *Cheshire*; and on all other sides by the sea. It is distinguished into provinces, viz. the South and the North. South-Wales comprehends *Glamorganshire*, *Carmarthenshire*, *Pembrokeshire*, *Brecknockshire*, and *Cardiganshire*; and North-Wales comprehends *Montgomeryshire*, *Merionethshire*, *Carnarvonshire*, *Denbysire*, *Flintshire*, and *Anglesey*.

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## GLAMORGANSHIRE.

Glamorganshire is bounded on the east by Monmouthshire, on the south by the Bristol-Channel, on the west by Carmarthenshire, and on the north by Brecknockshire. It extends in length, from east to west, forty-eight miles, and from north to south twenty-seven.

The principal rivers of this county are the Rhymny, the Taff, the Ogmore, the Avon, the Cladaugh, and the Tavye. The Rhymny, or Remney, rises upon the borders of Brecknockshire, whence running south-south-east, and separating Glamorganshire from Monmouthshire, it falls into the mouth of the Severn, east of Cardiff. The Taff rises in Brecknockshire, south of the town of Brecknock, and running south-south-east, by the city of Llandaff, and the town of Cardiff, falls into the mouth of the Severn, about a mile or two south-west of the mouth of the Rhymny. The Ogmore rises upon the borders of Brecknockshire, and running south, falls into the Severn, some miles south-west of Cowbridge. The Avon rises in the north part of the county, not far from the source of the Ogmore, and running south, falls likewise into the Severn, near Aberavon, south-east of Neath. The Cladaugh rises also in the north part of the county, and running south, falls into the Bristol-Channel, south of Neath. The Tavye rises at the foot of the Black-mountain in Brecknockshire, and running south, falls into the channel at Swansey.

The less considerable rivers of this county are the Ely, the Ervenny, the Neath, the Hefsey, the Malta, the Traugath, the Dulistie, and the Turch.

In the north part of this county, which is mountainous, the air is cold and piercing; but on the south side, towards the sea, where the country is more level, it is mild and pleasant. The soil, on the north-side, though generally barren, is interspersed with valleys which afford good pasture; while the south part, admitting of cultivation, produces large crops of corn and remarkable sweet grass. The latter subdivision is so fruitful, pleasant, and populous, that it is often called the Garden of Wales. The county in general abounds with sheep and other cattle, butter, and fish; and the mountains yield coals and lead ore.

This county lies in the province of Canterbury, partly in the diocese of St. David's, and partly in that of Llandaff, and has a hundred and eighteen parishes. It is divided into ten hundreds, and contains one city, with five market-towns. The city is Llandaff; and the market-towns are Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, Penrife, and Swansey.

Llandaff is distant from London a hundred and forty-seven miles, and is a mean place that contains nothing worthy of notice, except a cathedral, which, though built in 1107, is still a fine structure, and in very good condition. The length of this church is two hundred and sixty-three foot, the breadth sixty-five, and the height is of the same dimensions with the latter. There is in this church no cross-aisle, nor any middle steeple, as in common in other cathedrals; but in the west front are two towers, though not of

equal height, nor uniform structure. The north-west of those, which is the handsomest, is a hundred and five foot high, and the other only eighty-five foot.

At Caerphilly, north of Llandaff, is a ruinous castle, esteemed the noblest remains of ancient architecture in Britain. It stands in a moorish bottom, near the river Rhymney, and appears to have been larger than any castle in England, except that of Windsor. Some conjecture it to have been originally a work of the Romans, and the place which they called Bullæum Siturum; but for this opinion there is no other reason than the magnificence of the structure, the ruins of which evince that it has been at least rebuilt since the time of the Romans. Amidst the many stupendous pieces which compose this pile of ruins, is a large tower towards the east end, between seventy and eighty foot high, with a fissure from the top almost to the middle, so wide that the lineal projection of the tower at the top, on the outer side, is ten foot and a half. The hall, or as some think, the chapel of this castle, is about seventy foot long, thirty-four broad, and seventeen high. On the south side the room is ascended by a stair-case, about eight foot wide, the roof of which is vaulted, and supported by twenty arches, which rise gradually one above another. Opposite the stair-case, on the north side of the room, is a chimney about ten foot wide, having on each side two windows like those of a cathedral, which are adorned with sculptures of leaves and fruit. On the walls on either side, are seven triangular pillars, placed at equal distances. Each pillar is supported by three busts, alternately representing persons of different ages and sexes; and from the floor to the bottom of the pillars, the height is about twelve foot.

Not far from Caerphilly Castle stands another ruinous building, called Llandblythian Castle, which was erected before the Roman conquest.

On a mountain called Kevn Gelhi Gaer, near Caerphilly, is a monument, consisting of a rough stone pillar, of a quadrangular form, about eight foot high. It stands close to a small entrenchment, in the middle of which is a square area, supposed, from a rude inscription on the pillar, to contain the corpse of one Tefroiti.

Cardiff, or Caordiff, stands on the river Taff, at the distance of a hundred and eighty-three miles from London. It is a well built town, of considerable extent, and reckoned the handsomest in South Wales. Soon after the Norman conquest it was fortified with walls and a castle, by Robert Fitz Haimon, a Norman knight. The castle, which yet remains, is a large, strong, and stately edifice; and the constable of it is always the principal magistrate of the town. Here are two parishes, but only one church, the other having been demolished in the civil wars under Charles I. Here is also a fine bridge over the river Taff, a commodious harbour, and a good trade to Bristol and some other places.

Cowbridge is situated upon the banks of the Eweny, a hundred and seventy-five miles from London. Here is a good stone bridge over the river, and a harbour for boats. Beverton, about three miles from

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Neath stands on a river of its own name, near the Bristol Channel, thirty-two miles north-west of Llandaff. Here is a bridge over the river, with a haven for small vessels; and the town carries on a good trade in coals, which are dug up in great plenty in the neighbourhood. This place is supposed to be the Nidum of Antoninus. At an adjacent village, called Llanlyted, are still to be seen the foundations of ancient buildings, and some stone monuments, with ancient British sculpture and inscriptions.

Swansey, or Swan-sea, derives its name from the porpoises or sea-hogs, which are found here in great numbers. It is distant from London two hundred and two miles, and is a large, well built town, with a good harbour, where sometimes a hundred vessels at a time come in for coals and culm. The latter is the dust of the former, and when mixt with a third part of mud or slime, makes a durable fire, which yields very little smoak. This town carries on the greatest trade of any in the county, particularly in coals, of which there are several excellent pits in the neighbourhood.

On a mountain called Keyn-burn, not far from Swansey, is a monument, consisting of a vast rude stone, called Arthur's Stone, supposed to weigh upwards of twenty tons, and supported by six or seven other stones, each about four foot high.

Penrice is situated fifteen miles south-west of Swansey, near the sea-coast, and has a harbour for ships.

Near this place is a promontory, the most westerly point of Glamorganshire, and called Warmhead-point: it stretches about a mile into the sea, and at half flood, the isthmus, which joins it to the main land, is so overflowed that it becomes an island. Towards the extremity of this point is a crevice, into which if dust or sand be thrown, it will immediately ascend; and if a person apply his ear to the crevice, he will hear distinctly a deep noise, like that of a pair of bellows. These phenomena are ascribed to the undulatory motion of the sea in the caverns of the promontory.

Glamorganshire in the time of the Romans was part of the district inhabited by the Silures. It has no manufacture, and sends two members to parliament, viz. one for the county, and one for the borough of Cardiff.

C A E R M A R T H E N S H I R E.

Caermarthenshire is bounded on the east by Glamorganshire and Brecknockshire, on the south by St. George's Channel, on the west by Pembrokeshire, and on the north by Cardiganshire. It extends in length from north to south thirty-five miles, and in breadth about twenty.

The principal rivers are the Towy, the Cothy, and the Tave. The Towy rises in Cardiganshire, north-east of Tregaron, whence running fourth and south-west through the county, it falls into St. George's Channel about eight miles south of Caermarthen.

This is a fine large river, but on account of a sand-bed at the mouth of it, is navigable only by ships of small burden.

The Cothy rises upon the borders of Cardiganshire, south-east of Tregaron, and running south-west, falls into the Towy about five miles east of Caermarthen. The Tave, or Teivy, rises in Cardiganshire, near the spring of the Towy, where directing its course south-west, and separating Cardiganshire from Caermarthenshire and Pembrokeshire, it falls into the Irish-sea near Cardigan.

Other rivers of this county are the Dulas, the Brone, the Guendrathvrwa, the Cowen, the Towa, the Tave, and the Amond.

The air of this county is reckoned more mild and healthy than that of the neighbouring counties; and the soil not being so mountainous and rocky as in other parts of Wales, is more fruitful in corn and pasture. Vast numbers of cattle are fed in this county, which also abounds with fowl and fish, particularly salmon, for which the rivers here are famous. It is likewise well stocked with wood, and contains many mines of pit-coal.

Caermarthenshire lies in the province of Canterbury and diocese of St. David's, and comprehends eighty-seven parishes. It is divided into six hundreds, and includes six market-towns, viz. Caermarthen, Kedwally, Llandilowawr, Llanelthy, Llangharn, and Llanidoverly.

Caermarthen stands at the distance of two hundred and six miles from London, in the best air, and the most fertile soil in the county. It is a well built populous town, with a fine stone-bridge over the Towy, and a convenient key, to which vessels of a hundred tons come up. Of late years this place has carried on a considerable trade. It was formerly reckoned the capital of Wales; and here the ancient Britons held their parliaments or assemblies of wise men. This borough is the Maridunum of Ptolemy.

At Rilman Lhwyd, west of Caermarthen, about the beginning of the last century, was discovered a considerable quantity of Roman coins of base silver, and of all the Roman emperors from Commodus, to the fifth tribuneship of Gordian III. A. D. 243; and not far hence, at a place called Bronys-kowen, in the parish of Lhan-Boyd, is a large camp called the Gaer, in the entrance of which, in the year 1692, were discovered two rude leaden-boxes, buried very near the surface of the ground, containing two hundred Roman coins, all of silver, and some of the most ancient found in Britain. The camp in which these coins were found, is of an oval form, and upwards of three hundred paces in circumference. The entrance is four yards wide, and near it the bank or rampart is about three yards high, but in other places generally much lower. On each side of the camp is a barrow or tumulus, one near it, and the other, which is much larger, at the distance of three hundred yards.

Near Trelech, north-west of Caermarthen, is a remarkable barrow called Krig y Dyn, supposed to signify

signify the *king's barrow*. It consists of a heap of stones covered with turf, about eighteen foot high, and a hundred and fifty in circumference. It rises with an easy ascent, and is hollow on the top, gently inclining from the circumference to the center, where is a rude flat stone of an oval form, about nine foot long, five foot broad, and a foot high, covering a kind of chest, consisting of six other stones. This barrow is supposed to be the burying-place of some British prince of great antiquity.

Llanethly, or Llanelly, stands on a creek of the sea, at the distance of two hundred and fourteen miles from London, and carries on a considerable trade in coal.

Kidwelly is distant from London two hundred and twenty-two miles, and is situated between two small rivers, on a large bay of the Severn-sea, called Tewby. It is chiefly inhabited by fishermen, and has a harbour, which, being choaked up with sand, is at present almost useless.

Llandilovawr is situated a hundred and seventy-two miles from London, on the river Towy, over which it has a stone-bridge. Its parish is the largest in the county, being thirteen miles long and seven or eight broad.

Llanidoverly is distant from London a hundred and eighty-two miles. Upon a hill, a little from the town, is the parish-church, near the east end of which have been dug up Roman bricks, and other remains of antiquity. A fine Roman way leads from this church to Lhan Brân, which lies a few miles to the northward.

Llanharn, Llanhern, or Taloharn, stands near the mouth of the Tave, a hundred and ninety-four miles from London. Here is an ancient castle now in ruins. The town is not inconsiderable, and has a few ships, which carry on a small trade by sea.

Under the Romans Caermarthenshire, Cardiganshire, and Pembrokehire, were inhabited by a tribe of Britons called by Ptolemy the Dimetæ and Demetæ; but Pliny, by mistake, has allotted this district to the Silures. This county has no manufacture, and sends only two members to parliament, viz. a knight of the shire, and a member for the borough of Caermarthen.

#### P E M B R O K E S H I R E.

Pembrokehire forms the south-west extremity of Wales; it is bounded on the east by Caermarthenshire, on the north-east by Cardiganshire, and on all other sides by the Irish sea. It extends in length from north to south twenty-six miles, and in breadth twenty.

The principal rivers of this county are the Teivy, the Clethy, and the Dougledy. The Teivy has been described among the rivers of Caermarthenshire. The Clethy rises at the foot of a hill called Vrennyvawr, some miles east of Newport, and running south, falls into the mouth of the Dorigludye, at its conflux with Milford Haven, a bay of the sea near Pembroke. The Dougledye rises some miles north-east of

St. David's, whence running south-east, it falls with the river Clethy into Milford Haven, as has been mentioned.

The less considerable rivers of this county are the Gwaine and the Nevern.

The air of Pembrokehire is more healthy than is common to places so much exposed to the sea. The few mountains which lie in the north-east part, yield good pasture; and towards the sea-coast there is plenty of corn and rich meadows. The county abounds with cattle, sheep, goats, and wild-fowl of various kinds, some of which are seldom seen in any other part of Britain. Among those are the falcons called peregrins, the pussins, and the harry-birds. It is well supplied with fish of all sorts; and here is also great plenty of pit-coal, and culm.

This county lies in the province of Canterbury and diocese of St. David's, and has a hundred and forty-five parishes. It is divided into seven hundreds, and contains one city, with seven market-towns. The city is St. David's, and the market-towns are Fishgard, Haverford-West, Kilgarring, Newport, Pembroke, Tenby, and Whiston.

St. David's derives its name from a cathedral built here, and dedicated to St. David and St. Andrew. It is said to have been erected into an episcopal see in the reign of king Arthur, when St. David, its first bishop, had its diocese. This city is distant from London two hundred and sixty-eight miles, and is situated about a mile from the extremity of a naked tongue of land, called St. David's Head, which projects with a high front into the Irish sea, and is the most westerly point in Wales. St. David's appears to have been anciently a considerable city, but from its wild, barren, and unhealthy situation, it is so deserted, that there is no market; but it continues to be the see of a bishop, who has a palace in it, much out of repair. Here is also a cathedral, which is a venerable old structure, having been built in the reign of king John. It is three hundred foot in length; the distance from the west door to the entrance of the choir, is a hundred and twenty-four foot, and from the choir to the altar is eighty foot: the breadth of the body of the side-aisles is seventy-two foot; that of the west-front is seventy-six foot; and the length of the great cross-aisle, from north to south, is a hundred and thirty foot. The height of the middle-aisle, to the vaulting, is fifty-four foot; and over the middle of the church is a tower a hundred and twenty-seven foot high. The west end of this church is in tolerable good repair; but the east end has suffered much from time and neglect, the roof being quite fallen in.

St. David, the tutelary saint of Wales, who died in 642, and is supposed to be buried in the cathedral, is said to have lived to the age of a hundred and forty-six years, sixty five of which he was bishop of Menevia, afterwards called St. David's. He is thought to have been uncle to king Arthur.

St. David's Head is the Octopitarum mentioned by Ptolemy. On a cliff which hangs over the sea, about half a mile from the city, is a stone so large that it is supposed to exceed the draught of a hundred oxen.

It is called *the rocking-stone*, from its having been mounted about three foot high upon other stones, in such an equilibrium, that a slight touch would rock it from one side to the other. But the parliament soldiers, in the civil-wars under Charles I. regarding this stone as the object of a superstitious tradition, destroyed its equipoise, so that it is at present immovable.

Tenby, or Tenbeigh, is distant from London two hundred and eight miles. It was formerly fortified with walls and a castle, which are now decayed; but it is still a neat town, and, except Pembroke, the most agreeable on all the coast of South-Wales. It has a good road for fishing, a commodious bay, a great fishery of herring in the season, and carries on a considerable trade to Ireland, particularly in coals. Near this place stands a ruinous castle, called Manobar Castle, which was built soon after the Norman conquest.

Pembroke, or Penbroke, is situated two hundred and fifty-four miles from London, upon the eastern creek of Milford Haven, which dividing here into two branches, one of them runs up upon the north, and the other upon the south side of the town, like two small rivers, over each of which is a handsome bridge. In former times this town likewise was fortified with a castle and walls. The castle was built by Arnulphi de Montgomery, brother to the earl of Shrewsbury, in the reign of Henry I. but is now much decayed. Part of the walls is yet standing; they have three gates, and were originally fortified with several towers. Here are many good houses, and a custom-house. Among the inhabitants are several merchants, who employ near two hundred vessels on their own account; so that Pembroke, next to Caermarthen, is the largest and richest town in South Wales. Under Pembroke castle is a vault called the Wogan, remarkable for a fine echo.

Milford Haven is by much the best harbour in Britain; and one of the safest as well as the most spacious in Europe. It has sixteen creeks, five bays, and thirteen roads, distinguished by their respective names, in which, it is said, a thousand sail of ships may ride in perfect security. The spring-tide rises in this harbour thirty-six foot, and the neap-tide above twenty-six foot, so that ships may be laid ashore at any time. But the great advantage of this harbour is, that in an hour's time a ship may be in or out of it, and in the fair way between the Land's-end and Ireland. As it lies near the mouth of the Severn, a ship in eight or ten hours may be over on the coast of Ireland, or off the Land's-end in the English Channel; and a vessel may get out of this place to the west much sooner than from Plymouth or Falmouth.

The entrance to this harbour is easily known by three islands, which lie to the north-west, all in sight, called Scockham, Scawmore, and Gresholme; and also by an island to the south-east, call Lundy. Here is likewise a small island, called the Sheep Island; just at the entrance, on the east side; and another within the entrance, called Rat-Island. The harbour is farther known by an old light-house tower upon

the west side of the entrance, and by two old block-houses, or forts, on cliffs, one on each side.

Haverford, or Haverford-West, is distant from London two hundred and fifty-six miles, and is situated on the side of a hill, which forms part of the west bank of the river Dougledye. It is a well-built populous town; containing three parish-churches, besides one in the suburbs. The church of St. Mary's is a very neat building, with a curious spire. Here is a good free-school, a charity-school, and an almshouse, with the county jail, a commodious quay for ships of burden, a custom-house, and a fine stone bridge over the Dougledye. This place was anciently fortified with a rampart, and a strong castle; but they were destroyed in the civil wars under Charles I. It is a rich trading town, and contains much genteel company.

Whiston, or Wiston, is distant from London a hundred and ninety-one miles, and contains nothing worthy of note.

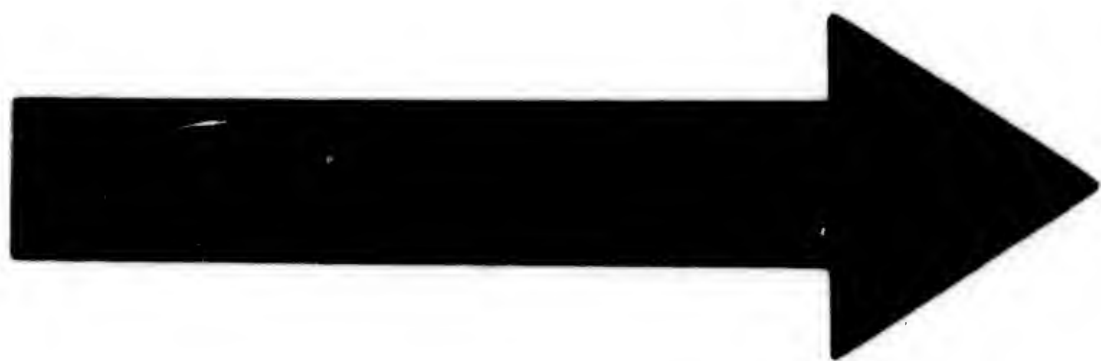
Fishgard, or Fishcard, is situated a hundred and ninety-nine miles from London, at the foot of a hill or cliff, near the influx of the river Gwaine to the sea. It has a good harbour, and a considerable trade in herrings.

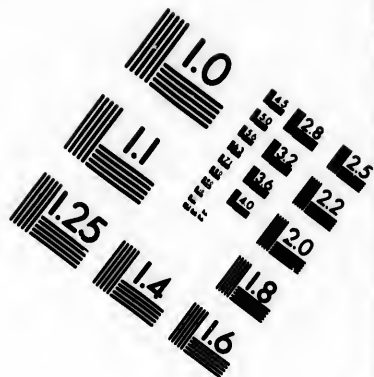
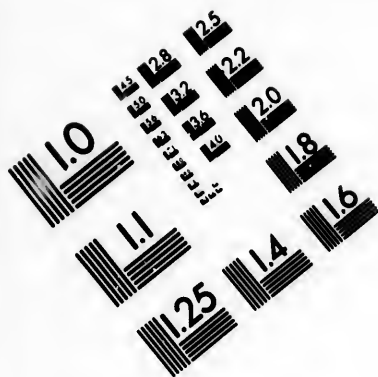
Newport is distant from London two hundred miles, and stands at the mouth of the Nevern. It is a large town, but the buildings are generally mean. Here is, however, a handsome church, and a good harbour. Though the town carries on some trade with Ireland, it is a poor place, and is chiefly supported by passengers to and from that country.

Kilgarring, or Kilgarran, is situated on the north bank of the Teivy, a hundred and eighty-nine miles from London. It is a long town, consisting chiefly of one street and has a harbour for boats, with a salmon fishery. Here was formerly a castle, which is now in ruins.

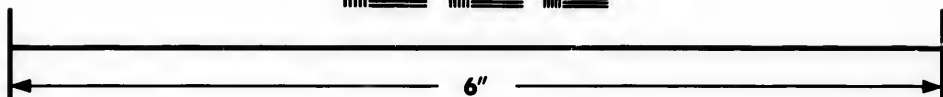
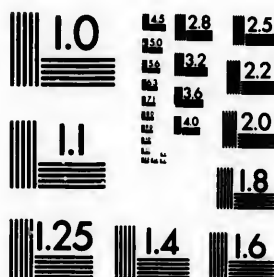
At this place is a steep cataract of the river Teivy, called the Salmon Leap, from the admirable dexterity discovered by that fish in surmounting it. When a salmon, in its way from the sea arrives at this cataract, it forms itself into a curve by bending its tail to its mouth, and sometimes, in order to mount with the greater velocity, by holding its tail between its teeth; then disengaging itself suddenly, like an elastic spiral violently reflected, it springs up the precipice.

Pembrokeshire, under the Romans, was part of the territories of the Dimetæ. In this county are still to be seen several ancient tumuli or barrows, with a variety of rude stone monuments. Among the latter the most remarkable is one called y Gromleck, in the parish of Nevern. It consists of a circle of rough stones, about a hundred and fifty foot in circumference, pitched on one end. In the centre is a large rude stone, about a foot long, nine broad, and three thick, supported by eight stone pillars, about eight foot high. A portion of this stone, about ten foot in length and five broad, is broken off, and lies by the side of it; and under it the ground is neatly paved with flag-stones. This county has no manufacture, and sends to parliament three members, viz.





**IMAGE EVALUATION  
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a knight of the shire, a burgess for Pembroke, and another for Haverford-Weſt.

### CARDIGANSHIRE.

Cardiganshire is bounded on the ſouth by Caermarthenſhire and a part of Pembrokeſhire, on the weſt by the Irifh ſea, on the north by part of Merionethſhire and Montgomeryſhire, and on the eaſt by part of Radnorſhire and Brecknockſhire. It extends in length from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt about forty miles, and in breadth eighteen miles.

The principal rivers of this county are the Teivy, the Rydal, and the Iſtwyth. The Teivy, or Tave, is a river of Caermarthenſhire, and has been already deſcribed among thoſe of that county. The Rydal has its origin on the ſouth-weſt ſide of Plyn-Lymmon mountain, upon the borders of Montgomeryſhire, and running weſt-ſouth-weſt, falls into the Irifh ſea at Aberiſtwyth, a market-town. The Iſtwyth iſſues not far from the ſpring, of the Rydal, and running nearly in the ſame direction, falls with it into the Irifh ſea at Aberiſtwyth.

The leſs conſiderable rivers are the Kerry, the Debot, the Aynan, the Arth, the Weray, and the Sabak.

The temperature of this county is correſpondent with the nature of the ſoil: the ſouthern and weſtern parts being more level than is common in the principality, enjoy a mild and pleaſant air, and a fruitful ſoil; but the northern and eaſtern parts being one continued ridge of mountains, are comparatively barren and bleak. Yet in the weſt parts of the county there is paſture for vaſt herds of cattle, with which Cardiganshire ſo much abounds, that it has been called the nurſery of cattle for all England ſouth of Trent. Here are likewiſe vaſt flocks of ſheep, with plenty of river and ſea-fiſh of all kinds, and the Teivy is famous for excellent ſalmon. Coals and other fuel are ſcarce; but in the northern parts of the county, particularly about Aberiſtwyth, are ſeveral rich lead mines, the ore of which appears often above ground.

Cardiganshire lies in the province of Canterbury and dioceſe of St. David's, and contains ſeventy-ſeven pariſhes. It is divided into five hundreds, and includes five market-towns, namely, Aberiſtwyth, Cardigan, Llanbadarnvawr, Llanbedor St. Peter, and Tregaron.

Cardigan is pleaſantly ſituated on the Teivy, at the diſtance of two hundred and four miles from London. It is a large populous place, with a handſome church, and a town-hall, in which the county buſineſs is tranſacted. Here is alſo a county jail, and a fine ſtone bridge over the river. This town was formerly defended by a caſtle and walls, which are now in ruins.

At Neuodh, in the neighbourhood of Cardigan, is a monument conſiſting of nineteen ſtones, which are diſpoſed in ſuch a manner as renders it difficult to count them. Here is alſo another monument, called

the Stone of the gigantic woman, which is ſupported by four large ſtone pillars.

At Penbryn, north of Cardigan, near the ſea-ſide, is a large rough ſtone, lying on the ground, with an inſcription, cut very deep, but unintelligible; and about the end of the laſt century, a Britiſh gold coin was found here, weighing near a guinea, and ſuppoſed to be of an earlier time than the arrival of the Romans in this iſland.

Aberiſtwyth is diſtant from London a hundred and ninety-nine miles. It is a populous rich town, but has no pariſh-church, being only part of the pariſh of Llanbadarnvawr, in its neighbourhood. It has, however, a great trade in lead, and a conſiderable fiſhery of whiting, cod, and herring. It was anciently fortified with a caſtle and walls, which are now decayed.

Not far from this place is a monument called Gwely Talieſin, the grave of Talieſin. This perſon was a celebrated Britiſh bard, who lived about the year 540. The monument conſiſts of four ſtones placed in the form of a ſquare. Thoſe on the ſides are five foot long, the other two, three foot long, and the whole is about a foot above ground. Notwithſtanding the name of this monument, and a tradition in the neighbourhood that the poet Talieſin was buried here, it is believed to be of much greater antiquity.

Llanbadarnvawr, is a well-built town, with a ſmall harbour, ſituated at the diſtance of a hundred and ninety-ſeven miles from London. It has a handſome church, that was formerly the cathedral of a biſhop.

Llanbedor St. Peter, or Pont-Steffan, ſtands a hundred and ſeventy-five miles from London, on the bank of the Teivy, over which it has a bridge. Here is a church, and ſeveral good inns, for the accommodation of travellers.

Tregaron is diſtant from London a hundred and ſeventy-one miles. It is likewiſe ſituated on the bank of the Teivy, and has a handſome church.

Under the Romans this county was part of the diſtrict inhabited by the Dimetæ. It has no manuſacture, and ſends to parliament two members, viz. a knight of the ſhire, and a burgess for the town of Cardigan; the latter of whom is elected by the burgeſſes of Cardigan, and the four other towns that have been mentioned.

### BRECKNOCKSHIRE.

Brecknockſhire is bounded on the weſt by Cardiganshire and Caermarthenſhire, on the north by Radnorſhire, on the eaſt by Herefordſhire and Monmouthſhire, and on the ſouth by Glamorganſhire. It extends in length from north to ſouth thirty-five miles, and from eaſt to weſt thirty-three.

The principal rivers are the Wye, the Uſk, and the Yrvon.

The Wye riſes near the foot of Plyn-Lymmon, a vaſt mountain

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mountain in the south-west part of Montgomeryshire, whence running south-east, it separates Radnorshire and Brecknockshire from each other; after which, passing through Herefordshire, and parting Monmouthshire from Gloucestershire, it falls into the Severn near Chepstow. The Usk rises at the bottom of a hill south-west of Brecknock, on the borders of Caermarthenshire, whence running south-east through the town of Brecknock, and being joined by several less considerable rivers, it passes into Monmouthshire, near the town of Abergavenny. The Yrvon, or Irvon, rises among some hills upon the borders of Cardiganshire, north-west of Bealt, a market-town; whence running south-east, and being joined by several small streams, it falls into the river Wye near Bealt.

Other smaller streams are the Whedefrey, the Dules, the Honthy, and the Brane.

The air of this county is remarkably mild every where, except on the hills, which is attributed to its being surrounded with high mountains. The soil, particularly on the hills, is very stony; but the valleys, on account of the many streams with which they are watered, are fruitful both in corn and pasture. Brecknockshire produces not only black cattle, goats, and deer, but great abundance of fowl and fresh-water fish; and on the east side of the town of Brecknock, is a lake about two miles long, and nearly as broad, called Brecknock-meer, which abounds with otters, and such quantities of perch, tench, and eel, that it is commonly said to be two thirds water, and one third fish.

Brecknockshire lies in the province of Canterbury and diocese of St. David's, and has sixty-one parishes. It is divided into six hundreds, and contains three market-towns, which are Bealt, Brecknock and Kay.

Brecknock, or Brecon, is distant from the capital a hundred and sixty-three miles, and stands on the river Usk, over which it is has a good stone bridge. The town is well-built, of an oval form, and fortified with walls; having also a ruinous castle, and three churches. It is well inhabited and has a considerable share in the woollen manufacture. From several coins dug up here, this town appears to have been a station of the Romans. In the neighbourhood is a square camp, where have been found several Roman bricks, with this inscription, LÆG. II. AVG.

On the top of a mountain near Llan-Hammwlch, a village not far from Brecknock, is an ancient monument, called Ty-iltud, or St. Ilktud's hermitage. It consists of four large flat and unpolished stones, three of which are pitched in the ground, and the fourth laid on the top for a cover. The form is an oblong square cell, open at one end, about eight foot long, four foot wide, and four high. On the inside it is inscribed with crosses and other figures: it is supposed to have been surrounded by a circle of large stones, and erected in the times of paganism.

Bealt, Buclht, or Buiht, is distant from London a hundred and fifty-seven miles, and is a pleasant, well-built town, situated in a woody country, on the south bank of the river Wye, over which it has a large wooden bridge. It is fortified with a castle,

and has a considerable manufacture in stockings. This place is supposed by some to be the Bullæm Silurum mentioned by Ptolemy; but as the conjecture seems to be entirely founded upon a similitude of names, others are of opinion that Kaeren, where the ruins of a Roman fortification are yet visible, not far from Bealt, is more likely to have been the Bullæm Silurum, if that fort stood in this county.

Hay is situated on the south side of the Wye, near the borders of Herefordshire, at the distance of a hundred and thirty-five miles from London. From several coins found here, and part of a wall yet standing, this place appears to have been a Roman station.

Brecknockshire, in the time of the Romans, was part of the territory of the Silures. Its principal manufactures are cloth and stockings; and it sends to parliament two members, one for the county, and one for the borough of Brecknock.

#### RADNORSHIRE.

Radnorshire is bounded on the south by Brecknockshire, on the west by Cardiganhire, on the north by Montgomeryshire, and on the east by Shropshire and Herefordshire. It extends in length from east to west twenty-four miles, and from north to south twenty-two miles.

The chief rivers are the Wye, the Temd, and the Ithen. The Wye has been described in the preceding article. The Temd rises in the north part of Radnorshire, whence running eastward, and separating Shropshire from the counties of Radnor, Hereford, and Worcester, it falls into the Severn near Worcester. The Ithen, or Ythen, rises in a chain of vast mountains on the northern extremity of the county, and running south and south-west, falls into the Wye a few miles north of Bealt in Brecknockshire.

The less considerable rivers are the Dules, the Clowdok, and the Cameran, which are all discharged into the Ithen.

The air of this county is cold and piercing, and the soil in general but indifferent, the northern and western parts being so rocky and mountainous, that they are fit only to feed cattle and sheep. The eastern and southern however, are well cultivated and produce corn. The mountainous parts afford plenty of wood, and are watered with rivulets and some standing lakes, the former of which yield abundance of salmon and other fish.

Radnorshire lies in the province of Canterbury, partly in the diocese of St. David's, and partly in that of Hereford, and contains fifty-two parishes. It is divided into six hundreds, and comprehends three market-towns, which are Knighton, Prestein, and Radnor.

Radnor, or New-Radnor, is distant from London a hundred and sixty-one miles, and stands at the bottom of a hill, upon the bank of a small river called the Somergil. It is a well-built town for this part of the country, and is a borough by prescription. By a charter from queen Elizabeth, its jurisdiction

dition extends ten or twelve miles, and it has a court of pleas for all actions without limitation to any particular sum. This place is supposed to have been the *Magos*, or *Magnos*, mentioned by Antoninus.

Knighton is situated a hundred and forty-seven miles from London, in a valley on the bank of the *Temd*, over which it has a bridge. It is a well-built town, and has a considerable trade in the iron-ware, hops, salt, linen and woollen cloth, and other commodities.

Preſtein stands upon the bank of the river *Lug*, a hundred and forty-eight miles from London. It is a large well-built populous town, and has a good market for grain, particularly barley, of which vast quantities of malt are made here. It is the place where the assizes for the county are held, and here is the county jail.

Radnorshire, in the time of the Romans, was inhabited by the *Silures*. One of the most celebrated remains of antiquity in this district, is part of a work called by the Welch *Klawdh Offa*, or *Offa's dyke*, from having been cut by *Offa*, king of *Mercia*, as a boundary between the English Saxons and the ancient Britons. This dyke may be traced through the whole extent of the county, from the mouth of the river *Wye*, to that of the river *Dee*.

Near the precipice of the *Wye* called *Rhaiadr Gwy*, are several tumuli or barrows; and on the top of a hill in the neighbourhood, are three large heaps of stones, supposed to have been funeral monuments.

Radnorshire has hardly any manufacture, but sends to parliament two members, one for the county, and one for the borough of *New Radnor*.

#### MONTGOMERYSHIRE.

Quitting South Wales, we arrive in *Montgomeryshire*, which is bounded on the south by *Cardigan-shire* and *Radnorshire*, on the west by *Merioneth-shire*, on the north by *Denbighshire*, and on the east by *Shropshire*. It extends in length from east to west thirty miles, and from north to south twenty-five miles.

The principal rivers are the *Severn*, the *Tanat*, and the *Turgh*. The *Severn*, which has been already described, becomes navigable at *Welch-pool*, a market-town of this county, after having been joined by twelve rivers, in a passage of twenty miles from its source. The *Tanat*, or *Tanet*, rises in the north-west part of the county, and running eastward, falls into the *Severn* near the place where it enters the county of *Salop*. The *Turgh* rises in the western part of the county, whence running north-east, and being joined by the *Warway*, it falls into the *Tanat* north-east of *Llanvilling*.

The less considerable rivers are the *Riadar*, the *Vurnovey*, the *Rue*, the *Becchan*, the *Haves*, the *Carno*, and the *Dungum*.

The air of this county is sharp and cold in the mountains, but pleasant and healthy in the vallies.

The northern and western parts being mountainous, the soil is stony and barren, except in the intermediate valleys which yield corn, and abound in pasture: but the southern and eastern parts, consisting chiefly of a pleasant vale along the banks of the *Severn*, are exceeding fruitful. The breed of black cattle and horses here is remarkably larger than that in the neighbouring Welch counties; and the horses of this county are much valued all over England. *Montgomeryshire* abounds with fish and fowl; and here are some mines of lead and copper, particularly in the neighbourhood of *Llanidlos*.

This county lies in the province of *Cantorbury*, the dioceses partly of *St. Asaph*, *Bangor*, and *Hereford*, and contains forty-seven parishes. It is divided into seven hundreds, and includes five market-towns, namely, *Llanidlos*, *Llanvilling*, *Mackynleth*, *Montgomery* and *Welch-pool*.

*Montgomery* is situated a hundred and sixty-one miles north-west of London, on the declivity of a rocky hill, near the bank of the *Severn*. It is a large handsome town, and was formerly walled round. This place derives its name from *Roger de Montgomery*, earl of *Shrewsbury*, who, soon after the Conquest, built a castle here, which is now ruinous, having been in great measure demolished in the civil wars of *Charles I.* In this town is the county jail.

*Welch-pool* is distant from London a hundred and fifty-three miles. It stands in a fruitful vale, on the side of a lake, and is a large well-built town, with a good manufacture of flannel.

*Llanidlos* stands upon the eastern bank of the *Severn*, not far from its source, at the distance of a hundred and fifty-eight miles from London, and contains nothing worthy of note. *Caerſws*, not far hence, on the bank of the *Severn*, was anciently a town of considerable extent, and is supposed to have been of Roman foundation. The traces of streets, lanes and fortifications, are still visible. Hewn stones, and Roman bricks are frequently dug up; and in the neighbourhood are three entrenchments, with a very large mount or barrow.

*Llanvilling* is distant from London a hundred and fifty-six miles, and stands in a dirty flat; but is tolerably well-built, and has a good market for cattle, corn, and wool. *Meivod*, a small village South of this place, is generally supposed to have been the *Mediolanum*, celebrated by *Antoninus* and *Ptolemy*; and many undoubted marks of its antiquity have been discovered in the village and adjacent fields. But some authors, overlooking *Meivod*, have endeavoured to fix the ancient *Mediolanum* at *Llanvilling*, where many Roman coins have been found.

*Mathraval*, a hamlet at present consisting of no more than a single farm-house, near *Meivod*, was formerly the seat of the princes of *Powis-land*, an ancient division of this county.

*Mackynleth* stands a hundred and eighty-three miles from London, on the eastern bank of the *Dyſſi*, over which it has a good stone bridge. This place is supposed to have been the *Maglona* of the Romans, where, in the time of the emperor *Honorius*, the band

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band of the Solenses was stationed, to check the mountaineers. At Kevn Kaer, in the neighbourhood, are considerable ruins of a large fortification, with the foundations of many houses. A variety of Roman coins has been dug up here, among which are many of silver, of the emperors Augustus and Tiberius.

Montgomeryshire, with some other neighbouring counties, was anciently inhabited by the Ordovices, a warlike race of men, who were the last of the British tribes that were conquered, first by the Romans, and afterwards by the Saxons. It sends to parliament two members, one for the county, and one for Montgomery, jointly with the other boroughs.

#### MERIONYTHSHIRE.

Merionythshire is bounded on the east by Montgomeryshire and part of Denbighshire, on the south by Cardiganshire, on the west by the Irish sea, and on the north by Caernarvonshire and part of Denbighshire. It extends in length from north to south thirty-five miles, and from east to west twenty-five.

The principal rivers of this county are the Dyff, the Avon, the Drwrydh, and the Dee. The Dyff rises among some very high mountains, which form a chain on the eastern borders of this county, and are called by some writers the Alps of Wales. Running southward into Montgomeryshire, it afterwards directs its course south-west, where, leaving that county at Machynieth, it separates the counties of Merionyth and Cardigan, and falls into the Irish sea some miles north. Aberistwyth in Cardiganshire. The Avon rises on the east side of a large forest, called Benrofe-wood, south-west of Bala, a market-town, whence running south-west, and passing by Dalgelhe, it falls into the Irish sea some miles west of that town. The Drwrydh issues from a lake in the northern extremity of the county, near the source of the river Conway in Caernarvonshire, and running south-west, falls into an arm of the Irish sea, called Traeth Bychan, about four miles north of Harlech, the county town. The Dee rises from two springs near Bala in this county, and running south-east through Merionythshire and Denbighshire, directs its course north, and separating Cheshire from North Wales, falls into the south creek of the peninsula. The Dee, near its source, runs through a considerable lake on the south side of Bala, called Llyn Tigid, or Pimble Meer; and, as is said, without mixing with it; the fish at least of both waters seem not to mingle; for though the Dee abounds with salmon, none are ever taken in the lake out of the stream of the river; neither does the Dee carry off the gwyniads, a fish peculiar to this lake, which looks like a whiting, but has the taste of a trout. The waters of Pimble Meer are said to cover a hundred and sixty acres of ground.

The less considerable rivers of this county are the Deffny, the Shethye, the Atro, the Cayne, the Angel, and the Kefilalum.

This being a rocky mountainous country, the air is cold and bleak, and the soil the most barren of

No. 40.

any in Wales. It yields very little corn, and the inhabitants live chiefly on butter, cheese, and other preparations of milk; applying themselves almost entirely to grazing of cattle, for which the vallies in this county afford excellent pasture. The number of sheep that feed upon the mountains is incredible. This county is also well stocked with deer, goats, fowl, and all sorts of fish, particularly herrings; which are taken on the coast in great plenty.

Merionythshire lies in the province of Canterbury; and diocese of Bangor, and has thirty-seven parishes. It is divided into six hundreds, and contains three market-towns, which are Bala, Dolgelhe, and Harlech.

Bala is distant from London a hundred and eighty-four miles, and is a corporation that enjoys many immunities, but is a mean inconsiderable place. Here are three mounds, which are generally mistaken for sepulchral monuments, but in reality were raised for watch-stations, when this country was the seat of war; at the beginning of the Roman conquests. Not far hence are the ruins of an ancient castle, called Castell Corndochen, supposed to have been a Roman work.

Dolgelhe is distant from London a hundred and eighty-seven miles, and stands upon the south bank of the Avon, at the bottom of a mountain called Idris, which is supposed to be one of the highest in Britain. The town is well provided with inns for the accommodation of travellers, and has a considerable manufacture of Welsh cottons. From some Roman coins that have been dug up in the neighbourhood, this place is supposed to have been a Roman station.

Harlech is situated two hundred and ten miles from London, and has an old decayed castle, with a governor and a garrison, for the security of the coast. The governor is by patent appointed mayor of the town. The houses are mean, and the inhabitants few; but here is a good harbour for ships, though almost totally unemploy'd. This place also is supposed to have been a Roman station.

At Festineog, a village north of Harlech, in the north-west extremity of this county, is a stone causeway, called Sarn Helen, or Hellen's Way, and supposed to have been made by Hellena, the mother of Constantine the Great. It is likewise discernible in several other places, particularly at Kraig Verwyn, and in different parts of Cardiganshire and Glamorganshire.

Near Sarn Helen are the remains of a fortification called Kaer Gai, or Caius's Castle, which was built by one Caius a Roman, of whom the people in those parts give very romantic accounts.

About two miles from Harlech is a remarkable monument called Koedon Arthur, consisting of a large oval stone table, about nine foot long and seven broad; it lies sloping on three stone supporters, two of which are near eight foot high, and the third about three foot.

Merionythshire in the times of the Romans was part of the territory inhabited by the Ordovices. The

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only manufacture here is Welch cotton; and the county sends only one member to parliament, who is a knight of the shire.

#### CAERNARVONSHIRE.

Caernarvonshire is bounded on the east by the counties of Merioneth and Denbigh, on the south-west, and north sides by the Irish sea, and on the north-west it is separated from the island of Anglesea by the straits of Meneu. It extends in length from north to south forty miles, and from east to west about twenty.

The principal rivers of this county are the Conway, and the Scient. The former rises in a lake called Llyn Conway, where the counties of Caernarvon, Denbigh, and Merioneth meet, and running northward, falls into the Irish sea at Aberconway. Considering its length, which is but twelve miles from the lake to the sea, this is one of the most extraordinary rivers in Europe. It receives so many small rivers and brooks, that it is navigable for ships of considerable burden within four miles of its spring. The Scient rises in a lake, Plyn Peris, and running westward a few miles, falls into the straits of Meneu at the town of Caernarvon.

Besides several nameless rivers, there are in this county many lakes.

The air of Caernarvonshire is rendered cold and piercing, not only by the great number of lakes, but by the very high mountains, which, towards the middle of the county, swell one above another, so as to have acquired the name of the British Alps. The tops of many of those mountains are covered with snow during eight or nine months in the year, and on some of them the snow is perpetual, whence they are called Snowdon-hills.

The extremities of the county, however, particularly those bordering on the sea, are as fruitful and populous as any part of North Wales; yielding great abundance of fine barley, and feeding vast numbers of cattle and sheep. This county affords great plenty of wood, as the lakes and rivers fresh-water fish; and the coast is well supplied with sea-fish of all sorts. The river Conway is famous for a large black muscle, in which are frequently found pearls.

Caernarvonshire is situated in the province of Canterbury, and diocese of Bangor, and contains sixty-eight parishes. It is divided into seven hundreds, and includes one city, with three market-towns. The city is Bangor, and the market-towns are Aberconway, Caernarvon, and Pulkeli.

Bangor is situated at the north end of the straits of Meneu, between two steep hills, two hundred and thirty-six miles from London. This place was formerly so large as to be called Bangor the Great, but it is now a small city, though a bishop's see, and has a harbour for boats. Here is a cathedral, which is thought by some to have been built in 516, and consequently to be the most ancient in Britain. At present, however, it is but a mean building. The other public edifices are the bishop's palace and a free-school.

Caernarvon is distant two hundred and fifty-miles from London, and is situated at the south end of the straits of Meneu. It was built by Edward I. who fortified it with walls and a strong castle, which is yet standing. It was formerly a place of considerable note, and is at present a neat small town, with a tolerable good harbour. Here is a ferry to Anglesea, called Abermenai Ferry; and in a bay before the town, there is good anchorage.

At the mouth of the river Scient, near Caernarvon, stood the town called by Antoninus Legontium. Some ruins of the wall were visible in the beginning of the last century. Later writers have called this the ancient city of the emperor Constantine. In the year 1283, here was discovered the body of an eminent Roman, thought by some to have been Constantius, father of Constantine the Great. By order of Edward I. it was re-interred in the church of Caernarvon.

Aberconway, called likewise Conway, is distant from London two hundred and twenty-nine miles, and is a handsome town, pleasantly situated on the side of a hill; but notwithstanding its conveniences for trade, it is the poorest town in the county. This place was also built by Edward I. and had not only walls, but a strong castle, which is now in ruins.

At this place is a tomb stone with the following extraordinary inscription: "Here lieth the body of Nicholas Hooks of Conway, Gent. who was the one and fortieth child of his father, William Hooks, esq. by Alice his wife, and the father of seven and twenty children. He died the 20th day of March 1637."

Caerhen, upon the river Conway, about five miles south of Aberconway, was the Roman town called by Antoninus Conovium; and about the beginning of the last century here was discovered a Roman hypocaust, built by the tenth legion, as appears from several tiles found at this place.

Oposite to Conovium, on the other side the river, stood the ancient city Diganwy, which was destroyed by lightning some centuries ago, and is supposed to have been the Roman city Dictum, where, under the later emperors, the commander of the Nervii Dientenses kept guard.

In this neighbourhood were discovered, about the beginning of the present century, several brass axes, swords, and other implements, supposed to be the military weapons of the ancient Britons, before they understood the manufacture of iron and steel.

Pulheli is distant from London two hundred and fifty-miles, and is a small place, not ill built, with a good harbour, and some trade by sea.

This county is remarkable for its vast mountains, rocks, and precipices. Klogwyn Karned y Wydhva, a mountain east of Caernarvon, is by some reckoned the highest in the British dominions, being the summit of a cluster of very lofty mountains, the tops of which rise one above another.

Pen-mean-mawr, near Aberconway, is a vast mountain or rock, that rises perpendicularly on the sea-shore to an astonishing height. About the middle of the rock, on that side of it next the sea, is a road se-

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ven foot wide for passengers, at the perpendicular height of two hundred and forty foot above the level of the sea, and as much below the top of the rock. On the side of the road next the sea, is a wall breast high, erected not many years ago, towards the building of which the city of Dublin, in Ireland, greatly contributed. On the other side of the hill is a narrow foot way, over which the top of the rock projects, so as to form a very extraordinary and frightful appearance to the traveller below.

On the top of this hill are still visible the ruins of three walls, one within another, each of which was six or seven foot thick, and fortified with towers of equal dimensions; but when or by whom this great work was erected, is totally unknown.

About a mile from this fortification is a hill, on the top of which stands the most remarkable monument in the county. It is called Y Meineu Hirion, and consists of a circular entrenchment, about eighty foot diameter, on the outside of which stand twelve rough stone pillars, from five to six foot high, which are enclosed by a stone-wall. Without the wall are three other pillars of the same kind, ranged in a triangular form. This work is supposed to have been an ancient British temple; and near it are several monuments, consisting of vast heaps of stones, which, according to tradition, are sepulchral monuments of ancient Britons, who fell in a battle fought here against the Romans.

Not far from Pen-mean-mawr is Glyder, another very high mountain on the sea-side. On its summit is a prodigious heap of stones, of an irregular shape, many of which are as large as those of Stonehenge. They lie in such confusion as to resemble the ruins of a building, some of them reclining, and some lying across one another.

On the west side of this mountain there is, among many others, one very steep and naked precipice, adorned with a vast number of pillars at equal distances. The spaces between them are supposed to be the effects of a continual dropping of water down the cliff, which is exposed to a westerly sea-wind.

Under the Romans Caernarvonshire was part of the territory of the Ordovices. It was afterwards called Arvonja; and before the division of Wales into counties, the English called it Snowdon Forest, from the mountains named Snowdon Hills. This county has no manufacture, and sends to parliament two members, one of whom is knight of the shire, and the other represents the borough of Caernarvon.

#### DENBIGHSHIRE.

Denbighshire is bounded on the west by Caernarvonshire and Merionethshire, on the north by the Irish sea and port of Flintshire, on the east by Cheshire and Shropshire, and on the south by Montgomeryshire. It extends in length from north-west to south-west forty miles, and from north to south about twenty.

The principal rivers of this county are the Clwyd, the Elwy, the Dee, and the Conway. The Clwyd

rises at the bottom of a hill south-west of Ruthin, a market-town which it passes, and afterwards directing its course nearly north-west, by St. Asaph, a city in Flintshire, it falls into the Irish sea a few miles from that place. The Elwy rises in the south-west part of the county, whence running south and north-east, it falls into the Clwyd near St. Asaph. The Dee rises near Bala in Merionethshire, and runs north-east through Denbighshire into Cheshire; after which, directing its course northward, and separating this county from North Wales, it falls into the southern creek of the peninsula. The Conway separates Denbighshire from Caernarvonshire, and has been mentioned in the description of the latter.

The less considerable streams of this county are the Alwen, the Aled, the Clawedob, the Neag, and the Gyrow.

The air of Denbighshire is reckoned very healthy, but is rendered sharp and piercing by a vast chain of mountains, which almost surrounds the country, and the tops of which are during the greatest part of the year covered with snow. The soil is various, and almost in the extremes of good and bad. The west part is heathy, barren, and but thinly inhabited, except the sea-coast, and the bank of the Conway. The east part is likewise barren, except where it borders on the river Dee; but the middle part of the county, consisting of a level tract seventeen miles long from north to south, and about five miles broad, is one of the most delightful spots in Britain, being extremely fruitful and well inhabited. It is surrounded by high hills, except towards the north, where it lies open to the sea, and is called the Vale of Clwyd, from its being watered by the river of that name. The inhabitants of this county in general are long lived; but those of the Vale of Clwyd are remarkable for their vivacity.

The hills and heaths of Denbighshire feed vast numbers of goats and sheep, and when manured with turf-ashes, produce plenty of rye. The vallies abound with black cattle and corn; fish and fowl are in great abundance, and some parts of the county contain lead-mines.

Denbighshire lies in the province of Canterbury, partly in the diocese of St. Asaph, partly in that of Bangor, and contains fifty-seven parishes. It is divided into twelve hundreds, and includes three market-towns, viz. Denbigh, Ruthin, and Wrexham.

Denbigh is situated on the river Clwyd, two hundred and ten miles north-west of London, and is a large, handsome, and populous town. It is chiefly inhabited by tanners and glovers, and has a good market for corn, cattle, and other provisions. Here is a castle much decayed, and two churches. The ground on which this town is built abounding with lime-stone, the water is reckoned unhealthy, and the inhabitants seldom live to a great age.

At Llanfannan, south-west of Denbigh, is a cave cut in the side of a great rock, which contains twenty-four seats of different dimensions, and is known by the name of Arthur's Round Table.

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Wrexham is distant from London a hundred and sixty-seven miles, and is situated on a small stream that falls into the Dee. It is a well-built, handsome town; with a large church, remarkable for a steeple, thought by some to be one of the finest in Britain. Here are also two large meeting-houses, and a great market for flannel, of which there is a considerable manufacture that affords employment to the poor in the neighbourhood.

Holt Castle, upon the river Dee, near Wrexham, is the Leonis Castrum of ancient writers; near which, on the other side of the Dee, a garrison was kept by the Legio Vicesima Victrix.

Ruthin stands near the centre of the county, at the distance of a hundred and eighty-four miles from London. It is a populous town, but has no parish-church, being itself part of the parish of Llan-Rudd in its neighbourhood. Here are, however, a good free-school, and an hospital.

Among the hills south-west of Ruthin is a place called Kerig y Drudion, the Druids Stones; and here are yet to be seen two stone monuments, supposed to have been erected by the ancient druids. They stand south and north, at the distance of a furlong one from another. They are in the form of a chest, and consist each of seven stones. The four composing the top, bottom, and two sides, are above six foot long, and three broad; a fifth stone forms the south end; and at the north end is the entrance, secured by a sixth stone, which served as the door, and was removed occasionally. These apartments are called by the Welsh *Kistlic Mann*, or Stone Chests, and one of them is distinguished by the name of Kynrik Rwth's prison. For what use they were intended it is not easy to discover; but it is not probable that they were designed for prisons by the druids who erected them, though Kynrik Rwth, who was a petty tyrant in the neighbourhood, of much later times than the Druids, may have used one of them for that purpose.

In the neighbourhood of those stones is a fortification of an oval figure, called Kaer y Dhyndod. It stands upon the bank of the river Alwen, and has a rampart, consisting of stones rudely heaped together, to the perpendicular height of three hundred foot on the river side, but scarce half that height on the other. There seems great reason to believe that this was the camp of Caractacus when he fought Ostorius the Roman general, as it agrees in almost every particular with the description given by Tacitus of that prince's camp.

About a mile from this place is a circular ditch and rampart, upwards of a hundred paces in diameter, called Pen y Gaer Vaner; and almost opposite, on the other side of the river, is a steep hill, between five and six hundred foot high, on the top of which is a circular entrenchment, called the Maiden Fort.

Denbighshire, under the Romans, was part of the country of the Ordovices. The manufactures of this county are that of gloves at Denbigh, and of flannels at Wrexham. It sends to parliament two members, one of whom is knight of the shire, and the other the representative for the borough of Denbigh.

## FLINTSHIRE.

Flintshire is bounded on the south by part of Denbighshire and Shropshire, on the west by another part of Denbighshire and the Irish sea; on the south by an arm of the Irish sea, which forms the great estuary of the river Dee, and on the east by Cheshire. It is the least of all the Welsh counties, its length being about thirty miles, and its breadth only eight.

The rivers in this county are the Dee, the Clwyd, the Wheeler, the Sevon, and the Allen. The Dee and the Clwyd have been already described. The Wheeler rises not far from Caerwys, and running westward falls into the Clwyd almost opposite to Denbigh. The Sevon rises on the north side of Caerwys, and running also to the westward, falls into the Clwyd a few miles north-west of the city of St. Asaph. The Allen runs some miles south of Ruthin, in Denbighshire; and having run north a few miles, directs its course eastward, after which it falls into the river Dee, north of Wrexham in Denbighshire.

The air of Flintshire is cold, but healthy. The ground, not being so mountainous as in most of the other counties in Wales, is more fruitful, yielding some wheat, with great plenty of rye, oats, and barley. The vallies afford pasture for black cattle, which, though very small, are excellent beef. Great quantities of butter and cheese are made in this county, which also produces much honey, whence is made a liquor called metheglin, frequently drank in this and some other counties in Wales. Flintshire abounds with all sorts of fish and fowl, but has little or no wood: it has, however, great plenty of pit-coal, and the mountains afford mill-stones and lead ore in abundance.

This county lies in the province of Canterbury, partly in the diocese of St. Asaph, partly in that of Chester, and contains twenty-eight parishes. It is divided into five hundreds, and comprehends one city, with two market-towns. The city is St. Asaph, and the market-towns are Caerwys, and Flint.

St. Asaph derives its name from its patron saint, who was the second bishop of the see, and is situated on the river Clwyd, at the distance of two hundred and twelve miles from London. It is a poor city, with a mean cathedral, and only a few good houses. Here are two bridges over the river Clwyd, and one over the Elwy, which joins the former at this place.

Bod Fenni, upon the Clwyd, south-east of St. Asaph, is supposed to be the Veris mentioned by Antoninus: and on the top of a small hill, near this place, is a circular fortification, about a hundred and sixty paces in diameter. The earth is raised round it in the manner of a parapet, and almost opposite to the avenue is a kind of tumulus or artificial mount.

North-east of St. Asaph, on the river Clwyd, are the ruins of a castle built by Llewelyn ap Idrilth, prince of Wales, called Rhudlan Castle. At this place, though now a mean village, Edward II, with all his court frequently spent the Christmas holidays; and some traces yet remain of its having once been a considerable place.

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Flint is distant from London a hundred and ninety-four miles, and is situated on the estuary of the Dee, where it has a small harbour. Here is a ruinous castle built by Edward I. where the county assizes are annually held, and in which there is a jail.

Near Hope, south-east of Flint, about the beginning of the last century, was discovered a Roman hypocaust or hot bath, hewn out of a solid rock. It was floored with brick set in mortar, and roofed with polished tiles, perforated in many places. The roof was supported by pillars of brick; and it was furnished with brick tubes for carrying off the force of the heat. The length of this hypocaust was eighteen feet, the breadth about fourteen, and the height about two. By an inscription upon some of the tiles, it appeared to have been built by the twentieth legion, furnished with Victrix, which lay in garrison at Chester, near this place.

Caerwys stands a hundred and ninety-two miles from London, and is a good market-town, but contains nothing worthy of note.

Upon Mostyn-Mountain, not far from Caerwys, is a stone pillar or monument, which has much excited the speculation of antiquaries. It is set in a pedestal about five feet long, four feet and a half broad, and one foot and a half thick. The pillar is about thirteen feet high, of a rectangular shape, about two feet four inches by eleven inches, and is engraved with various figures and characters, which have not yet been deciphered. It is supposed to have been erected on account of some signal victory, because at y Garfedheu, in the neighbourhood, are several barrows or burying places, where vast quantities of human bones have been dug up. This pillar is known in the Welch language by the name of Maen y Chwyvan, the Stone of Lamentation.

Contiguous to Broughton-house in this county, lies the noted common of Threapwood, from time immemorial a place of refuge for females, who discovering themselves to be pregnant by an illicit amour, resorted thither with a view of being privately delivered. Numbers of houses are scattered over the common for their reception. This tract, till of late years, was extra-parochial. At first, either on account of its remote situation, or because it was occupied by licentious persons, it never was united to any parish. The inhabitants therefore considered themselves as beyond the reach of law, resisted all government, and even opposed the excise laws, till they were forced to submit; but not without bloodshed on the occasion. This common is situated between the parishes of Malpas, Hanmer, and Worthenbury; but belonged to none, till it was, by the late militia acts, decreed to pertain to the last. Doubts however still arise respecting the execution of several laws within the precinct; an inconvenience which it is hoped the legislature will remedy.

Under the Romans, Flintshire likewise constituted part of the territory of the Ordovices. It has no manufacture; and sends to parliament two members, one of whom is for the county, and the other for the borough of Flint.

No. 41.

## ANGLESEA.

Anglesea is an island in the Irish sea; but as it forms one of the counties of Wales, a description of it may here be given along with the other divisions of the principality. This county is separated on the south-east from Caernarvonshire, and the continent of Britain, by a narrow strait or strait called Menai, or Meneu, which in some places is fordable at low water. It is of an irregular figure, extending in length from east to west twenty-four miles, and from south to north seventeen. Holyhead, a small peninsula, situated on the south-west part of this district, is reckoned about eighteen leagues east of the city of Dublin in Ireland.

The principal rivers of Anglesea are the Brant and the Kaveny. The former rises about three or four miles westward of Beaumaris, and running south-west, falls into the Meneu, east of Newburgh. The Kaveny issues from a hill, near a village called Coydana, about ten miles north-west of Beaumaris, whence running south-west, and being joined by a small river called the Gynt, it falls into the Irish sea, west of Newburgh.

The less considerable streams of this island are the Alow, the Dudas, and the Geweger.

The air of Anglesea is reckoned healthy, except in autumn, when it is often foggy and apt to produce agues and other complaints. The country, though stony and mountainous, affords so much corn and cattle, that the Welch call it in their language, Mam Cymry, the Mother or Nurse of Wales. This island abounds with fish and fowl; and in several parts of it are found excellent mill-stones and grind-stones.

Anglesea lies in the province of Canterbury and diocese of Bangor, and includes seventy-four parishes. It is divided into six hundreds, and contains only two market-towns, which are Beaumaris and Newburgh.

Beaumaris is a well-built town, consisting chiefly of two good streets, two hundred and forty-two miles from London. Here is a handsome church, with a county jail, and a good harbour for ships. It is the usual place for the reception of passengers from London to Ireland, who embark at Holyhead. This town was built by Edward I. and fortified with a castle, now in ruins.

Newburgh stands at the distance of two hundred and twenty-seven miles from London, between two bays, one formed by the river Kaveny, and the other by the Brant. It is a small town, and contains nothing worthy of note.

Aber-Fraw, a village north-west of this place, is remarkable for having been the seat of the kings of North Wales, who are sometimes styled kings of Aber-Fraw.

This island was known to the Romans by the name of Mona, and was, in common with the rest of North-Wales, inhabited by the Ordovices. In the time of the ancient Britons, it was celebrated for being more particularly the seat of the druids. The

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first attempt made by the Romans to bring it under their subjection, was in the reign of the emperor Nero, when Suetonius-Paulinus, the Roman general, invaded it; but being obliged to march to the eastern parts of Britain, to quell an insurrection of the Iceni, he left the command in Anglesea to Julius Agricola who subdued it after an obstinate engagement, in which the natives were animated by the presence of the druids, as well as that of their wives and daughters, who incessantly called upon them to maintain their ancient liberties against the tyranny of their invaders.

Not far from the city of Bangor, in Caernarvonshire, is Gaer, where it is thought the Romans passed the Meneu into the island of Anglesea, the horse at a ford, and the foot in flat-bottomed boats, as mentioned by Tacitus. Opposite to this supposed passage, on the north side of Newburgh, is Gwydryn-hill, remarkable for two lofty summits, on one of which are the ruins of an ancient fort, conjectured to have been built by the Romans. On the other summit is a very deep pit in the rock, about twenty-seven feet in circumference, and filled with fine sand.

Near Gwydryn-hill is a village called Tre'r Druw, which signifies the Druids Town, and which probably was the residence of the British druids belonging to this island. South of Tre'r Druw, and on the east side of Newburgh, is a village called Tre'r Baird, or the Bard's Town. Between those two ancient towns is a square fortification, generally supposed to have been a Roman camp, and the first which that people formed after their arrival in Anglesea. On the west side of this camp are twelve stones, each of which is about twelve feet high, and near eight broad. These stones are conjectured to have been set up as sepulchral monuments of some of the most eminent druids, or other ancient Britons, who died here fighting for their liberties against the Romans.

In this island are several monuments, called Cromleches, consisting of three, four, or more rude stones, pitched upon one end, and serving for pillars or supporters to a vast stone of several tons weight, laid over them transversely, in the manner of those mentioned among the antiquities of Cornwall. Those are generally believed to be sepulchral monuments, though some suppose them to have been erected in confirmation of political treaties.

Anglesea has no manufacture, but sends to parliament two members, one for the county, and the other for the borough of Beaumaris.

Wales is the country to which the Britons fled for refuge, when this island was invaded by the Saxons. It appears to have been anciently governed by a number of petty independent princes: but about the year 870, we find the whole country under the dominion of one sovereign, named Roderic, who divided his dominions among his three sons; a measure which in time proved fatal to the independency of Wales.

In 1237, its old and infirm prince Llewellyn, to obtain safety from the persecution of his undutiful

son Griffyn, put himself under the protection of Henry the third of England, to whom, with the view of facilitating his purpose, he agreed to perform homage. This concession was afterwards used by Edward I. as a total renunciation of the liberties of Wales to the English crown: and young Llewellyn, son of the former prince, disdaining the terms to which his father had submitted, Edward raised a numerous army, with which penetrating the county of Flint, and taking possession of the isle of Anglesea, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and imposed upon them a tribute. Llewellyn, however, continued to exert his utmost efforts for supporting the independency of his country; but in 1285, was killed in battle. He was succeeded by his brother David, the last independent prince of Wales, who being treacherously surrendered to Edward, was put to death by his order. Ever since this time, Wales has been annexed to the crown of England, and has given the title of prince to the eldest sons of the kings of England; but it did not send members to parliament till the reign of Henry VIII.

Some years ago the land-tax of Wales produced about forty-four thousand pounds a year, and the crown has a certain share in the product of the silver and lead mines; but the annual revenue accruing to the prince of Wales from his principality, is said not to exceed eight thousand pounds.

Several circuits are appointed for the administration of justice in this country, under its own peculiar judges. The language of the Welch is a dialect of the Celtic: but the English is likewise generally known, except by the common people.

## C H A P. XVI.

### *The Islands on the Coast of England.*

#### ISLE of WIGHT.

THE Isle of Wight lies upon the coast of Hampshire, from which it is separated by a small arm of the sea, called anciently the Solent, which is in some places twelve, in others seven, but in most about four miles broad, except at the Strait between Sharpnor and Hurst Castles, where it is not quite two. This island is in length from east to west about twenty-three miles, and in breadth twelve. Standing high above the level of the sea, it is in most places naturally fortified with steep cliffs; and a ridge of hills extends from the eastern towards the western extremity. The country on the south side is extremely fertile, producing vast quantities of excellent corn. The middle and mountainous part of this island has some wood, and abundance of fine grass, which feeds a vast number of sheep, the fleece of which is reckoned not inferior to any in Britain, except those of Cotswold and Lempster. Cattle, fowl, and fish, are equally good, and in great plenty. The air here is mild and healthful, except towards the eastern extremity, where agues are very common.

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This island is extremely well-watered with springs, brooks, and rivers. On the north-east side of it is the famous road of St. Helen's, where the shore is indented into a bay. About the middle of the island, on the north-side, where the river Cowes falls into the sea, is another opening which affords a harbour, defended formerly by two strong castles called the East and West Cowes, of which only the latter is now standing. About four miles up this river stands Newport, the capital of the island, containing at present between three and four thousand inhabitants. It is a neat town, built with stone, and vessels of a small burden come up to it. About a mile hence stands Carebrook castle, upon a high rock. Westward of Newport haven lies that of Newton, where was formerly a good town, though now inconsiderable. Farther westward lies the castle and town of South Yarmouth, where the sea entering the land, penetrates within a mile of the south coast.

This island is included in Hampshire.

The Isle of Wight was not subdued by the Romans, till the reign of the emperor Claudius, when Vespasian reduced it. It is said to have revolted after this period, and to have been again reduced by the emperor Hadrian. The next that conquered it was Cerdic, king of the West Saxons. This prince bestowed it on his two nephews, Steufo and Wiktgar, who peopled it with Jutes. It was afterwards seized by Wolpher, king of the Mercians, by whom it was conferred on his godson Edelwach, king of the South-Saxons, in expectation that he should convert the inhabitants to Christianity, which, however, he was not able to effect. Cedwall, the great monarch of the West-Saxons, next reduced this island; and was on the point of exterminating the inhabitants, had he not been restrained by the intreaties of Wlfrid, who had been bishop of York, and was then of Selsey, to whom he gave one fourth part of the conquest. Toffi, the brother, but inveterate enemy of king Harold, in the short reign of this prince, plundered the isle with a piratical squadron.

Under William the Norman, Fitzosborne, earl-marshal and earl of Hertford, conquered it, and was styled lord of the Isle of Wight. His son having forfeited for treason, Henry I. granted it to Ricardus de Riparii, Redvears, or Rivers; and, in succeeding times, king John retired thither to avoid the barons. In the reign of Edward I. Isabella de Fortibus, widow of the earl of Albemarle, and he-ress of the family of Rivers, earls of the Isle of Wight, sold or exchanged it, though very unwillingly, with the crown.

Edward II. granted Carebrook-Castle, with all the lands he possessed in the island, which were then of the value of three thousand marks a year, to Piers Gaveston and Margaret his wife, and to their heirs. But upon the decease of Gaveston it returned to the crown. Richard II. however, granted the island to Edward earl of Rutland, whom he afterwards created duke of Albemarle; but the latter being slain at the battle of Agincourt, the grant vested in his widow Philippa, after whose death it probably reverted to the crown; for Henry VI. alienated the

island in favour of Henry de Beauchamp, whom he created duke of Warwick, and afterwards, with his own hands, crowned him king of the Isle of Wight; but dying without heirs, this title became extinct. The same monarch granted it to Henry Beaufort, son to Edmund duke of Somerset, in whom likewise, dying without issue, the title again became extinct. Edward IV. granted the title of lord of the Isle of Wight to Anthony Woodville, lord Scales, afterwards earl Rivers, who died on a scaffold at Pontefract, without issue.

The lords of the Isle of Wight were frequently in different circumstances. Some held it in fee, others in tail, and others for life only. When it was in the crown, the person presiding there had the title of constable, the custody of Carebrook, and the profits thence arising, which were very considerable; but the rest of the manors belonging to the lordship, of which he was only steward, were accounted for in the exchequer. At all times the king received the same aids from this island as from the rest of Hampshire; and the inhabitants were amenable to the king's justices when they came into that county, and incurred a penalty if they did not attend.

This island is under the direction of a governor. It contains thirty-six parish-churches, and several good towns, of which the principal, Newport, sends two members to parliament.

## J E R S E Y;

Jersey is situated in the English channel, twenty-five leagues south from Portland in Dorsetshire, and five leagues west from Cape Carteret in Normandy. It is of an oblong figure, measuring twelve miles from west to east, and six from north to south. On the south it is almost level with the sea, but rises towards the north, where the cliffs on the coast are between forty and fifty fathom in height. The country is beautifully diversified with little hills, warm vallies, and towards the sea, with pleasant plains. The climate is pleasant and healthy. In some places the soil is gravelly, and in others sandy; but the greater part is deep rich mould. It abounds with springs, rills, and rivulets, so that there are between thirty and forty corn-mills driven by water, besides seven fulling-mills, and a number of wind-mills. The pasture is so sweet that no country in Europe can boast of richer milk, or finer butter. Here is grain of all kinds, particularly a sort of wheat called froment-tremais, from its being sown the latter end of May, and reaped in the beginning of August. But what chiefly distinguishes this island at present is its orchards, which are well fenced, regularly planted, and yield, for the most part, immense quantities of fruit. On the south of this island is a bay almost three miles in extent; in the east corner of which stands the town of St. Helier, finely situated. The streets are open and well-built, with a handsome square in the centre. The inhabitants

are computed at about two thousand. The principal haven, however, is in the west corner of the bay, and is called St. Aubin's. This town is about half the size of St. Hellier, chiefly occupied by merchants and masters of ships. Most of the buildings being new, the town makes a neat and elegant figure. A little to the eastward, upon a rock in the sea, stands the fort of St. Aubin; to which the inhabitants having joined a strong well-built pier, their haven is now equally secured against the fury of the winds, and the insults of an enemy. Within the pier, a sixth rate just floats at a neap tide, and a vessel of two hundred tons at all times; but ships of greater size must lie without, in the road, where there is good anchoring. Besides these, there are several other havens of less note; as St. Brelade's Bay, at the back of St. Aubin's; the Bay of St. Owen, which extends along the greater part of the west side of the island; with the havens of Greve de Lecq, and St. John. On the east is the bay of St. Katharine, and the harbour of Rosel; to the south of which, on a rock, stands the famous Mount Orgueil Castle, formerly Castle-Gourray, once the glory of this island, and still majestic, though in decay. To the south-west lies the Haven de la Chauffee; and a little eastward of St. Aubin's, the Port de Pas. All these are covered with breast-works, well defended by cannon.

It is computed, that, in a good year, the inhabitants of this island make between twenty and thirty thousand hogheads of cyder. Their great manufacture is the working up of their wool, besides the quantity of four thousand tods which they are permitted to import from England. It has been said that ten thousand pairs of stockings, of all sorts and sizes, are brought weekly to the market of St. Hellier.

The inhabitants send annually thirty stout ships to the Newfoundland fishery; and in times of peace great quantities of tobacco are smuggled thence into France.

The military establishment of the island generally consists of two troops of horse, five regiments of infantry, and a fine train of artillery, exclusive of what is in the several castles, and on the redoubts and breast works upon the coast. There are always regular troops in Elizabeth-Castle, and in Fort St. Aubin; and in time of war, they have commonly a body of forces from England. The whole number of inhabitants is computed at about twenty-five thousand.

The affairs of this island are superintended by a governor who is nominated by the king; and its laws are different from those of England. Appeals, however, lie from the judicatures of the island to the king in council. The lands and estates descend in gavelkind. The inhabitants do not estimate their rents by money, but by quarters of wheat. Their ports were formerly esteemed neutral, even in time of war; a circumstance which gave them great advantage in point of trade; but their zeal for the British interest having prompted them to fit out privateers, this singular privilege has been lost, and con-

sequently the advantage which arose from it. No sheep or lamb can be exported from this island into foreign countries, nor any India goods imported, but under very severe penalties, except from England. All goods and manufactures of the island, however, may be imported into England duty-free, unless such as are exciseable. Ships built here are within the navigation act, and may, if registered, trade to the plantations. Duties upon foreign salt are drawn back, if exported into this island; but salt made in it, and imported to Britain, pays duty as if it were foreign salt.

#### G U E R N S E Y.

Guernsey is situated twenty leagues south-west of Weymouth in Dorsetshire, between eight and nine leagues west of the coast of Normandy, and seven north-west from Jersey. Its length from north-east to south-west is about twelve miles, and its breadth nine. The climate is mild and healthy, not subject to excessive heats, much less to severe cold, but is somewhat exposed to winds. This island hangs in a declination opposite to that of Jersey, being low and flat on the north-side, and rising gradually towards the south, where the cliffs are of a prodigious height. The face of the country is variegated with eminences, and tolerably well-watered. Here was formerly a fine lake, about half a league in extent, now filled up, and turned into a meadow; but many gentlemen have still very beautiful and convenient fishponds. The soil in general is rich, and affords variety of produce, which is the same as in Jersey. Here was formerly a singular breed of sheep, of which the ewes had four horns, and the rams six; but these are now become very scarce. In this, no less than in the forementioned island, black cattle are in such abundance as not only to supply the inhabitants, but to furnish a considerable exportation. To all its numerous advantages may be added that of being free from all venomous creatures.

In this island are ten parishes, each of which is divided into several vintons, for the more easy management of affairs. Though the country is fully peopled, there is, properly speaking, but one town in the island; and this is likewise the only haven of any resort.

The town of St. Peter is seated on the east-side of the island, upon a capacious bay, and consists of about eight hundred houses. This harbour is called Port St. Pierre, or Port de la Chauffee. Ships pass into it from a good road, directly under the guns of the castle, and moor close to the town. The piers are composed of vast stones, piled up to the height of thirty-five foot.

The principal manufacture here, as in Jersey, is that of wool, of which they are allowed to import annually, two thousand tods from England; and this they work up chiefly in stockings, waistcoats and breeches. Our French and Portugal merchants have large stocks of wine here, which they import thence as they have occasion. By depositing their wine in this island, they are enabled to keep it to

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a proper age, before they pay the duty, and can therefore afford both to buy and sell it at a cheaper rate. By a moderate computation, the inhabitants of this island, at present, amount to upwards of fifteen thousand souls.

The several islets, and vast chains of rocks that surround this country on every side, and cause so great a variety of tides and currents, add much to the security of the place, by rendering the navigation equally difficult and dangerous for ships, unless they have pilots on board extremely well acquainted with the coast. On the south-side, as has been observed, the cliffs are prodigiously high; on the west side lie the Hanoy's, which cover that coast so effectually that a descent there is little to be feared. At the north-west extremity lies a little island called the Howe, and at the north-east extremity we meet with St. Michael in the Vale, a peninsula some miles in extent, connected with Guernsey by a very narrow isthmus. South-east from the Vale is situated the isle of Harnet, or Arne, about a league in compass, formerly desert but now cultivated. About a league to the southward of this lies Brickoe, of less extent; and between them the little island of Gythan, or Jethau, which serves the governor for a kind of park, or rather paddock.

#### A L D E R N E Y.

Alderney is situated about five leagues north-west from Guernsey, and nine leagues north from Jersey. It rises high out of the sea, and, like the rest, is in a manner entirely surrounded with rocks. It is between four and five miles in length, and in some places one, in others two in breadth. The climate is temperate and agreeable, and the soil exceeding fertile both in corn and grass. The island is well-stocked with cattle, sheep, fowl, and horses. The inhabitants amount nearly to fifteen hundred, and many of them live in the centre of the island, at a place called La Ville, i. e. the town, where they have a good church. The port called la Crabbie is on the south-side, secured by a rough stone pier, and is capable of admitting only small vessels. The people of this island are allowed to import four hundred tons of wool annually from England, besides what they raise of their own, which they manufacture and sell in Guernsey.

#### S A R K E.

Sarke lies two leagues east from Guernsey, six west from Cape Rosel in Normandy, three leagues northward of Jersey. It is of an oval form, having a smaller island annexed to it by a narrow isthmus. They are not together, above three miles in length, and the largest very little more than one in breadth. This island likewise rises high above the sea, and seems as if regularly fortified by a rampart of steep impenetrable cliffs, having only one access, which, however, is easy and commodious. In point of climate, this island yields not to any of the rest, and it

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is also extremely fertile both in corn and grass. The number of inhabitants are about five hundred, who are allowed to import from Britain two hundred tons of wool. This island, with that of Alderney, is included in the government of Guernsey.

The islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Sarke, and their adjacent islets, making part of ancient Gaul, fell under the dominion of the Romans; and upon the conquests made by the Franks, this became a portion of what was called West France, or Neustria. In the beginning of the tenth century, Charles the Simple, to save the rest of his dominions from the ravages of the Romans, erected, in favour of their captain, Rollo, the duchy of Normandy, to which these islands were annexed. His descendant, William, having acquired the kingdom of England in the tenth century, enjoyed it with his duchy and its dependencies; but though Normandy was afterwards relinquished to France, those valuable islands have ever since been retained by the English crown.

#### T H E S C I L L Y I S L A N D S.

The Scilly Islands are a cluster of islands and rocks, situated in the Atlantic Ocean, about seventeen leagues due west from the Lizard. Five of them are inhabited, exclusive of Samson, in which there is only one family. The largest of these is St. Mary's, which lies in forty-nine degrees fifty-five minutes of north latitude, and in the longitude of six degrees, forty minutes west from Greenwich. It is two miles and a half in length, and about one and a half in breadth. On the west side is an isthmus, and beyond it a peninsula, very high, upon which stands Star-Castle, with some outworks and batteries. Here are upwards of three-score pieces of cannon mounted, and a garrison of an entire company, with a master gunner and six others. In the magazine are arms for three hundred islanders, who are bound to march into the fortress, when summoned. Below the castle stands Hugh-Town, and a mile within land, Church-Town, so denominated from their place of worship. It consists only of a few houses, with a court-house. About two furlongs eastward lies Old-Town, where is a greater number of houses, and those more convenient. The inhabitants of this island amount to about six or seven hundred; and it produces to the proprietor three hundred pounds a year.

Trefcaw lies north of St. Mary's, at the distance of two miles. It was formerly called Nicholas's Island, and was at least as large as St. Mary's, though at present no more than half its size. Here are the remains of an abbey, with a fine basin of fresh-water before it, half a mile long and a furlong wide, which is separated from the sea by a high bank. Here are about a dozen of houses, with a church, which are called Dolphin Town, and defended by a block-house lately built. This island is particularly noted for producing plenty of the finest sapphire; and here are the only tin-works visible at present in those islands. It contains about forty families, which are very industrious, and spin more wool than in St.

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Mary's.

Mary's. The value of the island is computed at eighty pounds a year.

A mile to the eastward of Trefcaw, and about two miles from the most northern part of St. Mary's, lies the isle of St. Martin, not much inferior in size to that of Trefcaw. There are evident marks of its having been formerly well cultivated; but it had been deserted for many ages, till about a century ago, when Mr. Thomas Ekins, a considerable merchant, engaged some people to settle here. He likewise caused to be erected a hollow tower, twenty foot high, with a spire of equal altitude, which serves as a mark for directing ships crossing the channel, or coming into Scilly. St. Martin's produces some corn, and affords the best pasture in those islands. The inhabitants consist of seventeen families, who pretend to have the secret of burning the best kelp, and are extremely attached to their own island.

St. Agnes, called also the Light-house Island, lies near three miles south-west of St. Mary's, and, though very small, is exceeding fruitful in corn and grass; but is not well supplied with good water. The principal ornament, as well as the support of the island, is the light-house, which stands on the most elevated ground. It is built with stone from the foundation to the lantern, which stands at the height of fifty-one foot: the height of the gallery is four foot, the sash-light is eleven foot and a half high, and three foot two inches wide; of these there are sixteen. The floor of the lantern is of brick, upon which stands a substantial iron gate, square, barred on every side, with one great chimney in the canopy roof, besides smaller ones to let out the smoke; and a large pair of smith's bellows is so fixed, as to be easily used when there is occasion. The keeper of the light-house has a salary from the Trinity-house at Deptford, of forty pounds a year, with a dwelling-house, and ground for a garden; and he is allowed an assistant, who has twenty pounds a year. It is supplied by an annual ship with coals, the carriage of which from the sea-side is a considerable benefit to the poor inhabitants. Here is a neat little church built by the Godolphin family. At present, there are in the island fifty families, which yield the proprietor forty pounds a year.

Brehar, or Bryar Island, lies north-west of St. Mary's, and westward of Trefcaw, to which, when the sea is very low, people sometimes pass thence over the sand. This island, which is mountainous, abounds with sea and land fowls, excellent samphire, and a great variety of medicinal herbs. The inhabitants, who consist of thirteen families, have a good church, and pay thirty pounds a year to the proprietor.

Southward of the preceding, and westward of Trefcaw, lies the island of Samson, containing only one family, which subsists by the making of kelp.

To the westward of these lie four islands, which contain, in the whole, three hundred and sixty acres of meadow and arable land. The Eastern Isles, so denominated from their situation in respect of St. Mary's, contain one hundred and twenty-three acres. Besides seven other rocky islands, that have each a

little land for some use, there are innumerable rocks on every side, among which must be reckoned Scilly, at present nothing more than a large, ill-shaped, craggy, inaccessible island, lying; the farthest north-west of all the cluster, and consequently the nearest to the continent.

The air of those islands is equally pure and temperate; and their winters are seldom subject to frost or snow. When the former happens, it proves of short duration; and the latter never lies upon the ground. The heat of their summer is much abated by the sea breezes. Fogs indeed are frequent, but they are not unwholesome. Agues rarely appear among the inhabitants, and fevers yet more seldom. The most fatal distemper is the small-pox. Temperate people here are remarkably free from diseases, and commonly live to a great age. The soil of the islands is very good, and produces abundance of grain of all sorts, except wheat, of which they had anciently great plenty. They still grow a little, but the bread made of it is unpleasant. For this purpose, therefore, they chiefly use barley, of which they have more than suffices for their own consumption. Potatoes have been lately introduced, and they thrive to such a degree, that in some places there are two crops of them in a year. Roots of all sorts, pulse, and fallads grow well, as likewise dwarf fruit-trees, gooseberries, currants, and raspberries; but at present there are no timber trees, though they anciently grew in these islands. Here is wild fowl of all sorts, from the swan to the snipe; with a particular kind called the hedge-chicken, which is not inferior to the ortolan. Tame fowl, puffsins, and rabbits, are in great numbers. The black cattle are generally small, but their flesh is well tasted, though they feed upon ore weed. The horses are also little, but strong and lively. Here are large flocks of fine sheep, the wool of which is good, and their flesh excellent. These islands are remarkable for producing no venomous creatures.

We now pass to the sea, which is of more consequence to those islands than the small portion of land that is distributed among them. St. Mary's harbour is very safe and capacious, having that island on the south, the Eastern islands, with that of St. Martin on the east, Trefcaw, Brehar, and Samson to the north, and St. Agnes, with several small islands, to the west. Ships ride here in three to five fathom water, with good anchorage. This harbour has four inlets, viz. Broad Sound, Smith's Sound, St. Mary's Sound, and Crow Sound; so that hardly any wind can blow with which a ship of a hundred and fifty tons cannot safely sail through one or other of them, Crow Sound only excepted, where they cannot pass at low water; but at high there is from sixteen to twenty-four foot in this passage. Besides these there are two other harbours, one called New Grynsey, which lies between Brahar and Trefcaw, where ships of three hundred tons may ride securely. The other is called Old Grynsey, and lies between Trefcaw, St. Helen's, and Theon, for smaller ships. The former is guarded by the batteries of Oliver's Castle, the latter by the block-

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block-house called Dover, on the eastern side of Trefcaw. Small coasters bound to the northward, have more convenient outlets from these little harbours than from St. Mary's, where at the west end of Hugh-Town there is a fine pier, built by the present earl of Godolphin, four hundred and thirty foot long, twenty broad in the narrowest part, and twenty-three foot in height, with sixteen foot of water at a spring, and ten at a neap tide, so that under the shelter of this pier, vessels of a hundred and fifty tons may lie securely, not only close to the quay, but all along the strand of the town.

In this harbour, and in all the little coves of the several isles, prodigious quantities of mackarel may be caught in their season; with foal, turbot, and plaice, ling, &c. remarkably good in their kind.

The inhabitants of the Scilly Islands are in general robust, handsome, industrious, and good-natured. They are bred from their infancy to the management of their boats, in which they excel: they are good fishermen and excellent pilots. Their women spin wool, which they weave into coarse cloth, and knit stockings.

Though they have no timber of their own growth, and not much from England, yet here are many joiners and cabinet-makers, who, out of the fine woods which they obtain from captains of ships who put in here, make all kinds of household furniture in a very neat manner. The inhabitants are free from the land-tax, malt-tax, and excise. The small quantity of fish which they cure, and the provisions they furnish to ships that resort thither in their passage, constitutes the best part of their trade, if we except their kelp, which has been a growing manufacture from the end of the last century, and produces at present about five hundred pounds a year.

The earl of Godolphin is styled proprietor of Scilly, in virtue of letters patent, dated the 25th of July, 1698, for the term of eighty-nine years, to be computed from the expiration of a term of fifty years, granted to Francis Godolphin, Esq. by king Charles I. that is, from the year 1709, to 1798, when this lease determines. In virtue of this royal grant, his lordship is the sole owner of all lands, houses, and tenements, claim: all the tythes, not only of the fruits of the earth, but of fish taken at sea, and landed upon those premises; with harbour-duties paid by ships, and one moiety of the wrecks, the other belonging to the admiralty. There is only one ecclesiastical person upon the islands, who resides at St. Mary's, and visits the other inhabited islands once a year. But divine service is performed, and sermons preached, or rather read, every Sunday in the churches of those islands, by an honest layman appointed for that purpose; and there are likewise church-wardens and overseers regularly chosen in every parish. In respect of the civil government it is administered by what is called the Court of Twelve; in which the proprietors agent and chaplain have their seats in virtue of their offices; the other nine are chosen by the people. These decide, or rather compromise all differences; and punish small offences by fines, whip-

pings, and the ducking-stool. There is no prison in the islands, but in case of capital offences, which are exceeding rare, the criminals may be transported, and brought to justice in the county of Cornwall.

The great importance of those islands arises from their advantageous situation, as looking equally into St. George's Channel, which divides Great Britain from Ireland, and the English Channel, which separates Britain from France. For this reason, most ships bound from the southward endeavour to make the Scilly Islands, in order to steer their course with greater certainty. It is also very convenient for vessels to take shelter among them, which prevents their being driven to Milford-Haven, nay, occasionally into some port in Ireland, if the wind be strong at east; or, if it blow hard at north-west, from being forced into some of the Cornish harbours, or even on the French coasts. The intercourse between the two channels abovementioned, is another reason why ships come in here, as choosing rather to wait in safety for a wind, than to run the hazard of being blown out of their course. A strong gale at east, therefore, seldom fails of bringing thirty or forty vessels, and frequently a larger number, into Scilly. Ships homeward bound from America often touch here, from the desire of making the first land in their power, and for the sake of refreshment. Some or other of these reasons have an influence on foreign ships, as well as our own, and afford the natives opportunity of shewing their admirable address, in conducting them safely into St. Mary's harbour, and when the wind serves, through their sounds. Upon firing a gun, and making a waft, a boat immediately puts off from the nearest island, with several pilots on board; and having with amazing activity dropped one of them into every ship, till only two men are left in the boat, these return to land, as the wind and other circumstances direct, in one of their little coves. In time of war, the importance of these islands is yet more conspicuous.

The Scilly Islands were anciently called Cassiterides, or the Tin Isles, from their being rich in that metal; and the Phœnicians carried on a traffic with them at a very remote period. The Romans were exceedingly desirous of having a share in this commerce, which they at length obtained; and in process of time these islands became subject to their power. In the Itinerary of Antoninus, we find them called Sigdeles; by Sulpitius, Sillinæ; and by Solinus they are termed Silures. All we know of them during this period is, their tin trade continued, and that sometimes state prisoners were exiled thither, as well as to other islands. When the legions were withdrawn, and Britain with its dependencies left in the power of the natives, those islands doubtless shared the same fate with the rest. As to the appellation which henceforward prevailed, the common way of writing it is Scilly; but we are told that the old British name was Sulek, or Syllek, which signifies rocks consecrated to the sun. No mention is made of any thing concerning them from the fifth to the tenth century. It is however conjectured, with much appearance of truth, that some time within this space they



they were in a great measure destroyed by an earthquake, attended with a sinking of their elevation, by which most of the lowlands containing those rich mines of tin, which had rendered them so famous, were covered by the sea. A tradition prevails in Cornwall, that a very extensive tract of country, called the Lioness, in the old Cornish, Lethoulow, supposed to lie between that country and Scilly, was lost in this manner; and there are many concurring circumstances which render this probable. In regard to these islands the case is still stronger, for at low ebbs, stone inclosures are still visible from almost all the isles.

It is generally supposed, that king Athelstan, after having overcome a very powerful confederacy formed against him, and having reduced Exeter, and driven the Britons beyond the river Tamar, which he made the boundary of their Cornish dominions, passed over into these islands, then surely in a better state than at present, or they would not have been the objects of his vengeance, and reduced them likewise. Some are of opinion, that either at this time, or a little later, they were given to the abbey of Tavistock, of which, however, there is no certain evidence. History does not inform us that the Danes ever fixed in these islands; but as their method of fortifying is very well known, it is conjectured that the Giant's-castle in the isle of St. Mary's was erected by them; and if we consider the convenient situation of the islands, and the trade of piracy which that nation carried on, there seems nothing improbable in this conjecture. It is more certain that churches were erected in these isles, and that there were in them also monks and hermits, before the Conquest. We have unquestionable evidence that those isles were soon afterwards granted to the Benedictine monastery of Tavistock, and that they had a cell there dedicated to St. Nicholas. But notwithstanding this, and other subsequent grants, in consequence of which the monks of Tavistock were styled lords of Scilly, our kings sent thither governors, granted lands, and had fortresses in them; so that here were estates at all times, independent of the abbey of Tavistock, or the cell of St. Nicholas in Scilly.

#### ISLE OF MAN.

The Isle of Man is situated about seven leagues north from Anglesea, an equal distance west from Lancashire, nearly the same south east from Galloway in Scotland, and nine leagues east from Ireland. It is in length about thirty miles, and in breadth from nine to five; but in most places eight.

The most considerable streams here are the Neb, and the Clanmay: the former of these, rising in the southern part of this island, runs north-west, and falls into the sea at Peel; the latter runs nearly parallel.

The air is sharp, as may be expected from the northern situation, and the openness of the country; but the winters are not severe. Frosts are not frequent, or of great continuance, nor does snow lie long

upon the ground. At some seasons, however, high winds are usual, and at others, mists; but the latter, though a little offensive, are found not to be unwholesome. The soil towards the north is dry and sandy, but not unimprovable. The mountains, which include near two thirds of this island, are bleak and barren; but besides good peat for fuel, they afford several kinds of metal, and maintain a peculiar breed of swine, called purre, which are esteemed excellent pork. In the valleys there is as good pasture, hay, and corn, as in any of the northern counties; and in respect of the southern part of this island, it is extremely fertile. Some of the mountains are remarkably high, such as the two Barrows, and Skeyall, but particularly Scrafel, Sweafield, or Snawieldt, from the summit of which may be plainly discerned the coasts of England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales.

The black cattle of this island are generally less than those of England. Here are, however, some good draught and saddle-horses: in the mountains is a breed of small horses little more than three foot high. A small breed of swine has already been mentioned; and there is also one of sheep, which run wild upon the mountains. They are accounted excellent meat, and several of them distinguished by the name of loughton, are remarkable for very fine wool, of a buff colour. The inhabitants are well supplied with fish, particularly herrings, which are the staple commodity of the island, of which there is so considerable a fishery, that more than twenty thousand barrels have frequently been exported in a year to France and other countries. No coal mines have hitherto been discovered upon this island; but here is plenty of peat for fuel; good quarries of black-marble, and other stones for building; with mines of lead, copper, and iron; which, though at present neglected, have been formerly wrought to great advantage.

The principal manufactures of this island are linen and woollen cloths, in which a considerable foreign trade is carried on; but the greater part of the traffic has long consisted in smuggling, for which the situation of the island renders it particularly commodious. Foreign vessels landing here their goods, the custom has been to export the latter in prodigious quantities, in barks and boats, into Wales, England, Scotland, and Ireland, to the immense detriment of the revenue, and of the fair trader.

This island is the see of a bishop, and lies in the province of York. It contains seventeen parishes, and four market-towns; the latter of which are Castle-town, Douglas, Peel, and Ramsay.

Castle-town, called also Castle-Ruffin, stands on the southern coast of the island, near Derby-haven, a fine harbour, at the mouth of which is a strong fort. The houses in this town are the most regular of any in the island. The castle, which is built of marble, is surrounded with two broad walls and a moat, over which is a draw-bridge. In this castle the courts of justice are held; and within the walls is a small tower where state prisoners were formerly confined.

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confined. On a spot of ground adjoining stands the governor's house, which is a commodious and spacious structure, with a fine chapel, and several offices.

Douglas is situated on the eastern coast, and is by much the most populous and richest place in the island, the harbour being one of the best in the British dominions.

About half a mile hence are yet standing some noble remains of a magnificent nunnery, in which are several fine monuments, with fragments of inscriptions. One of those inscriptions is as follows: *Illustissima Matilda filia—Rex. Mercie.*—This Matilda is supposed to have been the daughter of Ethelbert, one of the Saxon kings of Mercia, who is related by historians to have died a recluse. On another monument is the following imperfect inscription: *Cartismunda virgo immaculata—A. D. 1230.* It is conjectured that this tomb was erected to the memory of Cartismunda, the beautiful nun of Winchester, who fled from the violence threatened her by king John, and who, it is probable, from this inscription, took refuge in the monastery of Douglas, where she was buried.

Peel is situated on the west coast, and being also a place of considerable trade, here are several good houses. Upon a small island, close to the town, is an ancient castle, called Peel-Castle, one of the strongest by its situation of any in the world. The island upon which it stands, is a huge rock of a stupendous height above the level of the sea, inaccessible from all quarters but the town, from which it is separated by a small strait, fordable at low water. The ascent to the castle consists of near a hundred steps. It is guarded by three walls of immense thickness, planted with cannon: on the outside of the exterior wall are four watch-towers; and within the interior wall, round the castle, are the remains of four churches, three of which are so decayed, that little remains of them but the walls, with a few tombs, which seem to have been erected with more than ordinary care. The fourth church, which is the cathedral of the island, and dedicated to St. Germain, the first bishop of Man, is kept in some better repair. Appropriated to the use of the bishop, within it is a chapel, under which is a horrible prison, or dungeon, for such offenders as are confined in virtue of a sentence of the ecclesiastical courts. This castle is celebrated, no less on account of its situation, than of its own magnificence. The largeness and loftiness of the apartments, the fine echoes resounding through them, the many winding galleries, the prospect of the sea, and the ships, which, by reason of the vast height, appear like buoys floating on the waves, are said to fill the mind of the spectator with pleasure and astonishment.

The ancient churches round this castle are supposed to have been originally pagan temples; and in one of them stands a large stone, in the manner and form of a tripod. Upon several of the tombs in these churches, are fragments of letters still intelligible, and leave no doubt that there were different inscriptions in the different characters of the Hebrew,

No. 41.

Greek, Latin, Arabian, Saxon, Scotch, and Irish languages. In no country perhaps are more Runic inscriptions to be met with than in this island: they are generally found upon funeral monuments, consisting of long, flat, rugged stones, having crosses cut upon one or both sides, with figures of men, horses, stags, dogs, birds, and other devices. The inscriptions are generally upon one edge of the stone, and are to be read from the bottom upwards. One of the most perfect is upon a stone cross laid for a lintel, over a window in Kirk Michael church. Upon another stone cross in the same church, is another fair Runic inscription; and in the high-way, near the church, is a large monumental stone, which, from a Runic inscription upon it, appears to have been erected in memory of one Thurulf, or Thulf.

Ramsay is situated on the east coast, towards the north part of the island: it is remarkable only for a good fort, and an excellent harbour, north of which is a spacious bay, where the greatest fleets may ride at anchor with safety.

Many sepulchral tumuli, or barrows, are yet remaining in different parts of this island, particularly in the neighbourhood of the bishop's seat. In several of those barrows have been found urns, so ill burnt, and of so bad a clay, that most of them broke in taking them out. They were, however, each full of burnt bones, white and fresh as when interred. In the last century here were found several brass daggers, with other military instruments of brass, well polished; besides a target studded with nails of gold, and rivetted with pieces of the same metal.

The Isle of Man appears to have been inhabited by the Britons at a very early period, and to have been the principal residence of the druids, on their expulsion from Anglesea by Julius Agricola, till the people of the island was converted to christianity; an event which is by some ascribed to Crathlent, king of Scotland, about the year 360, and by others to St. Patrick, in the year 447. When the Britons were dispossessed of the greater part of their territories by the Saxons, Picts, and Scots, the Isle of Man fell to the share of the latter; but, with most of the western isles of Scotland, it was afterwards conquered by the Norwegians, and became part of the territories of a prince whom they stiled king of the Isles, and who chose the Isle of Man for his residence. In the year 1266, in consequence of a treaty between Magnus IV. king of Norway; and Alexander III. of Scotland, the western isles, and among them that of Man, were ceded to the Scots; but this island falling into the hands of Henry IV. of England, he gave it in 1405, to John lord Stanley, in whose family it continued, till the last Stanley, earl of Derby, dying without issue, it devolved on his sister's son, the duke of Athol.

After the close of the last war, when the British administration turned its thoughts towards the improvements of the public revenue, the removal of the inconveniences so long experienced from the clandestine commerce of the Isle of Man, produced a treaty between the lords of the treasury and the duke

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and dutcheſs of Athol, as proprietors, which being concluded, was ſoon after confirmed by an act of parliament. According to this treaty, in conſideration of the ſum of ſeventy thouſand pounds, a ſurrender was made to his majeſty of the ſuperiority of the Iſle of Man; reſerving, however, to the proprietors the patronage of the biſhoprick, and of all the eccleſiaſtical preferments, with the right to the landed property in the iſland, henceforth to be held of the crown. Another act was ſpeedily paſſed for effectually preventing any illicit trade from the Iſle of Man, the abolishing which had been the principal object in the purchaſe.

Before the tranſaction abovementioned, the Iſle of Man, though held of the Britiſh crown, was governed by its own laws and cuſtoms, under the hereditary dominion of a lord, who had formerly the title of king, which, though he had long ago waved, he was ſtill inveſted with regal rights and prerogatives. He appointed a governor or lieutenant general of the iſland, who conſtantly reſided at Caſtle-town, the metropolis, and ſuperintended all civil and military offices.

The biſhop is ſtyled biſhop of Sodor and Man, and ſometimes Sodor de Man. Whence he derived the title of Sodor is uncertain, and is variously accounted for: but the moſt probable opinion appears to be, that it was from a church at Peef, dedicated to *Σωτήρ*, our Saviour, thence originally called Eccleſia Sodorensis, and now corrupted into Soderensis. He is named to the ſee by the lord of the Iſle, who preſents him to the king for his royal aſſent, and then to the archbiſhop of York, to be conſecrated. He has a court for his temporalities, but, though a baron of the iſland, is entitled to no ſeat in the Britiſh parliament.

The inhabitants of this iſland ſpeak a dialect of the Celtic, and before the late ceſſion to the crown of Great Britain, were computed at about twenty thouſand; but ſince that time they are ſaid to be conſiderably diminiſhed.

#### C H A P. XVII.

*Character of the Engliſh—religion—eccleſiaſtical government—civil government—courts of juſtice—punishments.*

THE general character of the Engliſh is that of a humane, liberal, brave, and undeſigning people, but more reſerved and blunt in their behaviour than moſt of the nations on the continent. The plainneſs and ſimplicity of manners, however, which formerly diſtinguiſhed them, has begun to give place, eſpecially in the capital, to extravagance in dreſs and equipage, as well as expenſive amuſements; and with the advancement of diſſipation their ancient hoſpitality has declined. Hardly any where has polite learning been more ſucceſsfully cultivated than in this country; and ſince the acceſſion of his preſent Maſteſty, the fine arts have made extraordinary progreſs towards perfection.

The eſtabliſhed religion in England is Lutheraniſm, and the church is governed by biſhops, whoſe benefices were converted at the Norman Conqueſt into temporal baronies, in right of which every biſhop has a ſeat and vote in the houſe of peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy are now freehold, but in many places their tithes are impropriated in favour of the laity. Ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII, the ſovereigns of England have been ſtyled the ſupreme head of the church; but this authority is only nominal, the kings being ſatiſfied with giving their ſanction to the legal rights of the clergy, and leaving the government of the church to the two archbiſhops and twenty-four biſhops. The two archbiſhops are thoſe of Canterbury and York; the former of whom is the firſt peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the Engliſh church. He is enabled to hold eccleſiaſtical courts upor. all affairs that were formerly cognizable in the court of Rome, and are not repugnant to the king's prerogative. He enjoys the privilege of granting, in certain caſes, licences and diſpenſations, as well as the probate of wills, when the party dying is worth upwards of five hundred pounds. Beſides his own diocēſe, he has under him the biſhops of London, Bath, Briſtol, Bangor, Chicheſter, Coventry, Exeter, Glouceſter, Hereford, Llandaff, Norwich, Oxford, Peterborough, Saluſbury, St. David's, St. Aſaph, and Wells.

The archbiſhop of Canterbury takes precedence next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of ſtate; and the archbiſhop of York takes place of all dukes not of the blood royal, and of all officers of ſtate, the lord-chancellor excepted. The latter, beſides his own diocēſe, has in his province the biſhops of Carlisle, Cheſter, Durham, and Sodor and Man. In Northumberland he has the power of a palatine, and exerciſes juuriſdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The biſhops take the precedence of all temporal barons, and are addreſſed "Your lordſhip," as the archbiſhops are "Your grace." The office of the biſhops is to examine and ordain prieſts and deacons, to conſecrate churches and burying-places, and to adminiſter the rite of confirmation. Their juuriſdiction relates to the probaton of wills; to grant adminiſtration of goods of ſuch as die inteſtate; to take care of perihable goods when no perion will adminiſter; to collate to benefices; to grant inſtitutions to livings; to defend the privileges of the church; and to viſit their reſpective diocēſes once in three years.

The eccleſiaſtical government in England is, properly ſpeaking, lodged in the convocation, which is a national aſſembly of the clergy. They are convoked at the ſame time with every parliament, and their buſineſs is to conſider of the ſtate of the church, and to take cognizance of thoſe who have advanced any new opinions inconſiſtent with the doctrines of the eſtabliſhed church. But from the dangerous powers which were aſſumed by this aſſembly, during the reign of queen Anne, and in the beginning of that of George I. it has not ſince been permitted to ſit ſo long a time as to enter upon buſineſs.

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The court of arches is the most ancient consistory of the province of Canterbury; and thither are directed all appeals in church-matters, from the sentence of inferior courts. The processes are carried on in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches; and none can plead in this court but those who are doctors in the civil law. The court of audience is another tribunal of equal authority. The prerogative court is that in which wills are proved and administrations taken out. The court of peculiars relates to certain parishes, in which it has a jurisdiction of the probate of wills, independent of the bishop's courts. In the see of Canterbury there are 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 only a temporary court. Every bishop has likewise a court of his own, called the consistory court. Every archdeacon, of whom there are in England about sixty, has also his court; as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The supreme executive power of Great Britain is vested in the king, but the legislature in the king, lords, and commons, in parliament assembled. The person of the sovereign is sacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treason so much as to imagine or intend his death. He is also exempted from the imputation of any crime, the law authorizing no cognizance of his actions, except in the persons of his ministers, if they violate the constitution of the country. The king can make either war or peace; send and receive ambassadors; make treaties of league and commerce, levy armies, equip fleets, and employ them as he thinks proper. All offices of the state, the church, the army, and the navy, are in his disposal; and he is the source of honour, whence all degrees of nobility and knight-hood are derived. He summons the parliament to meet, and dissolves it at his pleasure; and he may refuse his assent to any bill, though it has passed both houses. With all these prerogatives he possesses the right of choosing his own council.

The house of lords consists of the lords spiritual and temporal, or the two archbishops and bishops, and all the nobility (not Roman catholics) who were created in England before the union, or have been made peers of Great Britain since that time; with the sixteen representatives of the nobility of Scotland. The speaker of the house is usually the lord chancellor, or lord keeper of the great seal, which dignities are commonly vested in the same person. The house of lords has a right to be attended on any occasion, by the judges of the court of king's bench, and common pleas, with such of the barons of the exchequer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made sergeants at law; as likewise by the masters of the court of chancery; for their advice in points of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings. Every peer, as being his own representative, has a right, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to enter his dissent on the journals of the house,

with his reasons for acting in such a manner; and this is usually styled his protest.

The house of commons consists of all the representatives of the counties, cities, and royal burghs in Great Britain. They sit in an apartment by themselves, and at the beginning of every parliament choose a speaker, who must be approved by the crown. The peculiar privileges of the house of commons relate chiefly to the raising of taxes, and the elections of members to sit in parliament. With respect to taxes, it is an indisputable right in the house of commons, that all grants of subsidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their house, and are first bestowed by them; though their grants are not effectual, until they receive the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. The general reason for this exclusive privilege of the house of commons is, that the supplies being raised upon the body of the people, it is proper that they alone should enjoy the right of taxing themselves. So jealous are the commons of this privilege, that they will not suffer the other house to exercise any power but that of rejecting; nor will they 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 whatever.

The mode of procedure in making laws is much the same in both houses. In each the whole is bound by the act of the majority, which is declared by votes openly and publicly given.

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, which must be presented by a member. This petition, when founded on facts, that require to be evinced, is referred to a committee of the members, who examine the matter alledged, and report it to the house; when, if not before, leave is given to bring in a bill. But in public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the house, without any petition. This is read a first time, and, at a convenient distance, a second time. After each reading, the speaker opens to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question, whether it shall proceed any further. The introduction of the bill may be originally opposed, as the bill itself may at either of the readings; and, if the opposition succeeds, the bill must be dropped for that session; as it must also, if successfully opposed in any of the subsequent stages.

After the second reading, the bill is committed or referred to a committee, which is either selected, by the house in matters of small importance, or if the bill be of 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

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the committee, the chairman reports it to the house, with such amendments as the committee has made; when the house reconsiders the bill, and the question is repeatedly put upon every clause and amendment. When the house has either agreed or disagreed to the amendments of the committee, and sometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is ordered to be engrossed, or written in a strong gross hand, on one or more rolls of parchment sewed together. This being done, it is read a third time; when amendments are sometimes made to it; and, if a new clause be added, it is written on a separate piece of parchment, called a rider, which is tacked to the bill. The speaker then again opens the contents; and holding it up in his hands puts the question, whether the bill shall pass. If this be agreed to, the title of the bill is then settled. One of the members is then directed to carry the bill to the lords, and desire their concurrence. Attended by several others, he carries it to the bar of the house of peers, where he delivers it to the speaker, who comes hither from his seat for that purpose. It there passes through the same forms as in the other house (excepting engrossing, which is already done) and, if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it passes *sub silentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. If the lords agree to it, they send a message by two masters in chancery (or sometimes, in matters of high importance, by two of the judges) acquainting the house of commons of their determination; and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it; but if any amendments be made, they are sent down with the bill to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the latter should disagree to the amendments, a conference usually follows between members deputed from each house; who for the most part 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.

The same forms are inversely observed, 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 amendments. When both houses have done with any bill, it is always 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. In the house of commons the vote of the members is expressed by *aye* or *no*, and in the house of peers, by *content*, or *not content*.

The royal assent may be given to bills either by his majesty in person, or by commissioners deputed for the purpose; and in the former case the transaction is accompanied with much solemnity. The king then appears in the house of lords, on his throne, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by the 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; or the chancellor on a close bench removed a little backwards. The bench of bishops ranges along the side of the house on the right hand of the throne, as those of the dukes and earls do on the left; and the viscounts and temporal barons, or lords, face the throne, on benches or woolpacks, covered with red cloth or baize. The peers, on this occasion, are dressed in their parliamentary robes.

The king being seated, he sends for the commons, several of whom, accompanied by the speaker in his official robe, come to the bar of the house of lords. 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 usually extols the generosity of the commons, and intimates how necessary it is to be frugal of the public money. The titles of all bills that have passed both houses are read; and the king's answer is delivered by the clerk of the parliament in Norman French. If the king consents to a public bill, the clerk pronounces *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it to be so;" 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 intimated in the gentle expression of *le roy s'aviserà*, "the king will advise upon it." When a money bill is passed, it is carried up, as has already been said, by the speaker of the house of commons, and the royal assent is thus expressed, *le roy remercie ses loyal subjects, accepte leur benevolence, & 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, & commons, en ce present parliament assemblez au nom de tous vos autres subjects, remercient tres humblement votre majesté, & prient a dieu vous donner une sante bonne vie & 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 health and long to live."

When an act has passed, it is placed among the records of the kingdom, no formal promulgation being necessary to give it the force of a law; because every subject of the realm is considered, in the judgment of the law, as a party to the making of an act of parliament, being virtually present in his representatives. Copies, however, are annually printed at the king's press, for the use of those who are desirous of particular information.

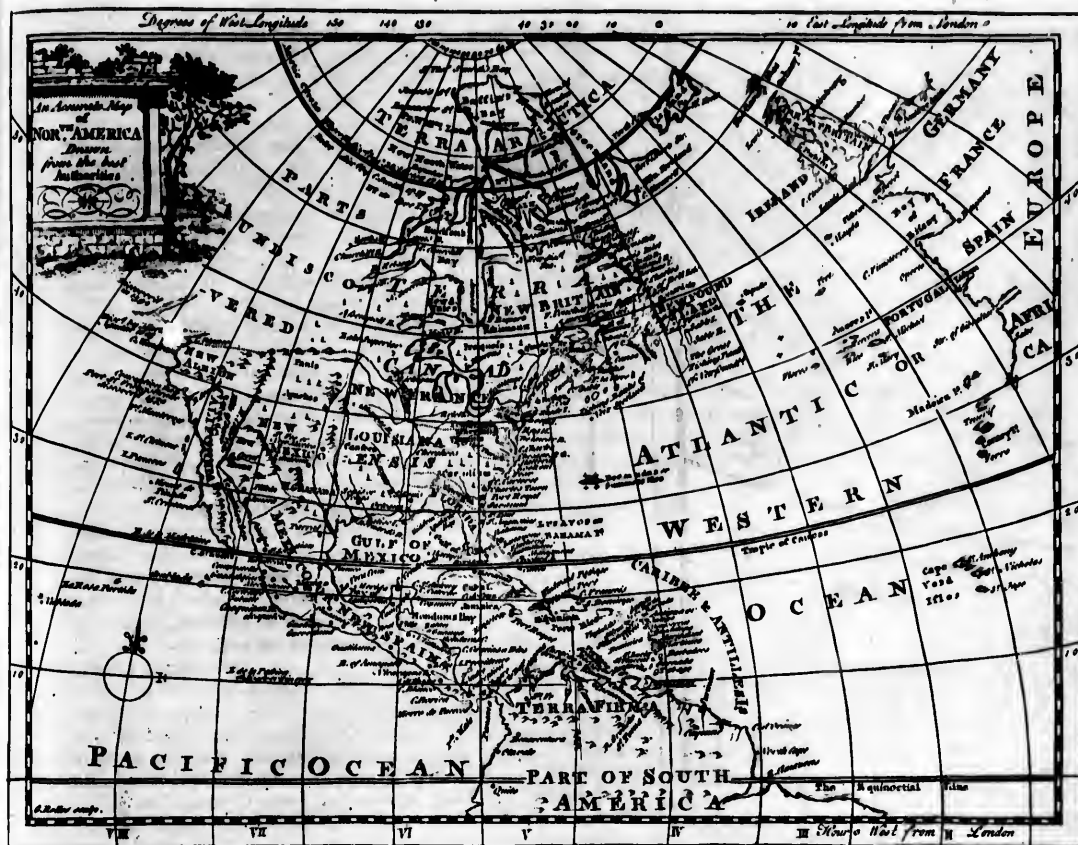
An act of parliament, thus made, is the highest authority acknowledged by the nation, and can neither be dispensed with, nor repealed, but in the same forms, and by the same constitutional powers to which it owed its existence.

To prevent the mischiefs that might arise by placing this extensive authority in hands that are either incapable, or else improper, to conduct so important a charge, it is provided that no person shall sit or

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The term of first or prime minister, though the office perhaps be necessary, is unknown to the British constitution; and the king may entrust any of his servants with the management of public affairs. But though it is no office, there is a responsibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a post of difficulty and danger. When the office of first lord of the treasury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer, the person who holds them is always considered as first minister.

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No. 42.

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The office of earl marshal is hereditary in the family of the duke of Norfolk. Before England became so commercial a country as it has been for a century past, this office required great abilities, and knowledge of English history, for its discharges. In time of war, the earl marshal was the judge of all army causes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. When the cause did not admit of such a decision; it was left to a personal combat, attended with a great variety of ceremonies, the arrangement of which fell entirely within the marshal's province. To this day, he, or his deputy, regulates all points of precedence according to the archives kept in the herald's office, which is also within his jurisdiction. He directs all solemn processions, coronations, proclamations, funerals, general mournings, and the like. He is supposed to be judge of the

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houses, without any new engrossing or amendments. When both houses have done with any bill, it is always 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. In the house of commons the vote of the members is expressed by *aye* or *no*, and in the house of peers, by *content*, or *not content*.

The royal assent may be given to bills either by his majesty in person, or by commissioners deputed for the purpose; and in the former case the transaction is accompanied with much solemnity. The king then appears in the house of lords, on his throne, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by the 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

When an act has passed, it is placed among the records of the kingdom, no formal promulgation being necessary to give it the force of a law; because every subject of the realm is considered, in the judgment of the law, as a party to the making of an act of parliament, being virtually present in his representatives. Copies, however, are annually printed at the king's press, for the use of those who are desirous of particular information.

An act of parliament, thus made, is the highest authority acknowledged by the nation, and can neither be dispensed with, nor repealed, but in the same forms, and by the same constitutional powers to which it owed its existence.

To prevent the mischiefs that might arise by placing this extensive authority in hands that are either incapable, or else improper, to conduct so important a charge, it is provided that no person shall sit or

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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 sit in either house, till he has, in the presence of the house, taken the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration; and subscribed and repeated the declarations against transubstantiation, the invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass. To prevent dangers that may arise in 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 though he be naturalized, shall be capable of being a member of either house of parliament.

Besides the high court of parliament, which is the grand council of the nation, the king has for his assistants subordinate officers and ministers, who are responsible for their advice and conduct. They are appointed by the king's nomination, without either patent or grant; and on taking the necessary oaths, become immediately privy counsellors, during the life or pleasure of the sovereign that chooses them.

The duty of a privy-counsellor consists of seven articles, namely, to advise the king according to the best of his judgment; to advise for the king's honour and good of the public; without partiality, through affection, love, need, doubt or dread; to keep the king's counsel secret; to avoid corruption; to help and strengthen the execution of what shall be there resolved; to withstand all persons who would attempt the contrary; and lastly, in general, to observe, keep, and do all that a good and true counsellor ought to do to his sovereign lord.

Upon a great emergency, the privy-council can supersede the operation of the law, if the parliament is not sitting; but this is considered as illegal, and an act of parliament must pass for the pardon and indemnification of those concerned.

The administration is chiefly conducted by a committee of the privy-council, commonly called the cabinet council. This consists of the lord chancellor, the first lord of the treasury, the first lord of the admiralty, the secretaries of state, the lord privy-seal, and the president of the council.

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In the former case it is held for the day of the coronation only, by some great nobleman; and in the latter it is generally exercised by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper; whose commission, as high steward, ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of his office.

The lord high chancellor presides in the court of chancery, to moderate the severities of the law, in all cases where the property of the subject is concerned; and his rule is to give judgment according to the dictates of equity and reason.

The post of lord high treasurer has for many years 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 the lord high treasurer. He has the management 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.

The lord president of the council was formerly an officer of great power. His duty is to propose all the business transacted at the council board, and to report to the king, when his majesty has not been present, all its debates and proceedings. This is still an office of great dignity, as well as importance.

The lord privy-seal puts 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. He 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 anything against the law of the land.

The office of lord great chamberlain of England is hereditary to the family of the duke of Ancester. He attends the king's person, on his coronation, to dress him. He has also the charge of the house of lords during the sitting of parliament; and of sitting up Westminster-hall for coronations, or trials of peers.

The office of lord high constable has been disused since the year 1521, but is occasionally revived for a coronation. It was formerly a place of very great trust, as it commanded all the king's forts and garrisons, and took place of all officers in the field.

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marshals court; and in those times when proclamations had the force of law, he exercised a censorial power in all cases of usurping false names, designations, armorial bearings, and the like; but this power is now disputed, and reduced to a conformity with the common law. As the duke of Norfolk is disqualified by his religion from the exercise of any part of the office, some nobleman, generally one of his own friends or family, is deputed to act for him; and he wears, as his badge, a gold baton tipped with ebony.

The office of lord high admiral is likewise now held by commission, and is a place of great importance. This is a board of direction, as well as of execution, and is in its proceedings independent even of the crown. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commission immediately issuing from this board; and the members must sign the death warrant for execution. Being removable at pleasure, they can do nothing to clash with the prerogative of the crown, and must comply with the directions which they receive from his majesty. The board of admiralty regulates the whole naval force of the nation, and names all its officers, or confirms them when named; so that its jurisdiction is very extensive. An appeal, however, lies from it to the high court of admiralty, a court of a civil nature, the judge of which is commonly a doctor 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.

There are in England properly two secretaries of state, one of whom has the southern, and the other the northern department. In the former are comprehended the southern countries, and in the latter, Germany, Prussia, Poland, Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the Hans-towns. These officers are entrusted with the king's signet. Besides them, the first commissioner of the board of trade has for some years acted as a secretary of state, for the American colonies; but those two offices are now disjoined.

The next in dignity to the high court of parliament is the court of chancery, which is intended to relieve the subject against frauds, breaches of trust, and other oppressions; and to mitigate the rigour of the law. In this court 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. The decrees of this court, however, do not affect either lands or goods, and are binding only to the persons of those concerned in them; who, should they refuse to comply with the terms, may be sent to the prison of the Fleet. The court is always open, and if a man be sent to prison, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can grant a *habeas corpus*, if he thinks proper.

To this court belongs the clerk of the crown, who, either in person or by his deputy, is obliged

to attend the lord chancellor as often as he sits for the dispatch of business. Through the hands of this officer pass all writs for summoning the parliament, or choosing of members; commissions of the peace, pardons, &c.

The court of king's bench is so called either from the kings of England sometimes sitting there in person, or because here are tried all matters determinable at common law between the king and his subjects, except such affairs as properly belong to the court of exchequer. This court has likewise the controul of all inferior courts, their judges, and the justices of peace. The number of its judges are four, the first of whom is styled lord chief justice of the king's bench, or, by way of eminence, lord chief justice of England.

The court of common pleas takes cognizance of all pleas between subject and subject. It has also four judges, the first of whom is distinguished by the title of lord chief justice of the common pleas. None but serjeants at law are permitted to plead in this court.

The court of exchequer was instituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and is vested with the power of judging both according to law and equity. In the causes which are tried according to law, the lord chief baron of the exchequer, with three other barons, presides in the court. Besides these, there is a fifth, called curstior 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 the officers of the custom-house.

In cases where this court determines according to equity, the barons are assisted by the first lord of the treasury, and the chancellor of the exchequer. All matters relating to the king's treasury, revenue, and fines, are here tried. Other officers belonging to this court are, the king's remembrancer, who takes and states all accounts of the revenue, customs, excise, parliamentary aids, &c. and the lord treasurer's remembrancer, whose business is to make out processes against sheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For the more effectual execution of the laws, a high sheriff is annually appointed by the king, for every county, except those of Middlesex and Westmoreland. The office of the sheriff is both ministerial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandates, and all writs directed to him out of the king's courts of justice; to impanel juries, to bring malefactors to trial, and to see the sentences executed, both in civil and criminal affairs. He is also to attend the judges at the assizes, and to guard them all the time they are in his county. It is, besides, a part of his office to collect all public fines and distresses into the exchequer, or where the king shall appoint; and to make such payments out of them as his majesty shall order.

The office of the sheriff being judicial, he holds a court, called the county court, to hear and determine all civil causes under forty shillings. This was formerly a court of record, but for many years its ancient privilege has been abolished.

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The next officer to the sheriff is the justice of peace, of whom there are several in each county. They are intrusted with the power of executing great part of the statute law, in matters relating to the highways, the poor, vagrants, riots, &c. and they examine and commit to prison all who disturb the peace. For the punishment of 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, enquires into the cases of all delinquents, and presents them by bill guilty of the indictment or not guilty. The former are committed by the justices to jail, for their trial, and the latter are acquitted. This court of justices is called the quarter-sessions for the county.

Each county has two coroners, who enquire, by a jury of neighbours, how or by whom any person came by a violent death, and enter it on record as a plea of the crown.

The civil government of cities forms a kind of independent police; each having, by charter from the king, a jurisdiction within itself, in matters both civil and criminal; but the extent of these privileges are not universally the same. Some cities are counties, and choose their own sheriffs; and all of them have a power of making bye-laws for their own government.

The government of incorporated boroughs is nearly the same with that of cities. In some there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs, all of whom are justices of the peace within their liberties.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the manor 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 present and punish nuisances; and at courts-baron, the advowances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled.

The office of a constable is very ancient in the English constitution. Every parish is furnished with one of those; and every hundred with a high-constable, on whom the former occasionally attend. They are assisted by another officer, called the tything-man, who formerly superintended the tenth part of a hundred. The business of a constable is to keep the peace in all cases of quarrels and riots. He can imprison offenders till they are brought before a justice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his district, every warrant that is directed to him by such a magistrate.

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.

In no political constitution whatever, is personal liberty more strongly secured than in that of England. Every man that is imprisoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge in Westminster-hall, called his *habeas corpus*. If the judge, after considering the cause of commitment, shall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted

to bail, till he undergoes a trial in a proper court of justice.

If any man is charged with a capital offence, he must 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 without twelve of them agreeing to a bill of indictment against him. If this be done, he must stand a second trial, before twelve other men, whose opinion is definitive. In some cases the person 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 proper judges, that he may enquire into their characters, and discover whether they want abilities, or entertain any prejudice against him. Of the number that is originally nominated for this purpose, he may in open court peremptorily object to twenty, without assigning any reason, and to as many more as he can assign a sufficient reason for their not being admitted as his judges.

The trials of malefactors is conducted in England in a particular manner. The court being met, and the prisoner called to the bar, he is commanded to hold up his hand by the clerk, who 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 to 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. If the prisoner refuses to plead, that is, if he will not say in court, whether he is guilty or not guilty, the law of England formerly enjoined that he should be pressed to death; but this law is now repealed.

When the witnesses have given their evidence, and the prisoner has, by himself or his counsel, cross-examined them, the judge recapitulates to the jury the substance of the evidence produced against the prisoner, and desires them to pronounce a verdict according to their conscience. If the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of court; and this is delivered in the name of the whole jury, by the foreman, who declares the prisoner guilty or not guilty. But if any doubt arises among the jury, and the matter requires deliberation, they all withdraw into a room with a copy of the indictment, where they continue locked up till they are unanimously agreed in their verdict; and if any one of the jury should die during this interval, the prisoner will be acquitted. When the jury have agreed in their verdict they inform the court of it; and the prisoner is again set to the bar to be informed of his fate. The verdict of the jury is unalterable, except in some doubtful cases, when it is brought in special, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

All prisoners found not guilty by the jury are immediately discharged; and in some cases obtain a

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copy of their indictment from the court, to proceed at law against their prosecutors.

Though the laws of England are esteemed more merciful than those of most other countries, yet the punishment of such as at their trial refuse to plead guilty or not guilty, was formerly extremely cruel. In this case the prisoner was laid upon his back; when his arms and legs being stretched out with cords, and a considerable weight laid upon his breast, he was allowed only three morsels of barley bread, given him the next day without drink; after which he was allowed nothing but foul water till he expires. This punishment, however, was scarcely inflicted once in an age; but some offenders have chosen it to preserve their estates to their children. Those guilty of this crime were not suffered to undergo such a length of torture, but had so great a weight placed upon them, that they soon expired. In case of high treason, tho' the criminal stand mute, judgment was always given against him, as if he had been convicted, and his estate is confiscated.

The law of England ranks all capital crimes under high treason, petty treason, and felony. The first consists in plotting, or rising up in arms against the sovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin of the realm. The traitor is punished by being drawn upon a sledge to the place of execution, when after hanging on the gallows a little time, 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 former is usually fixed on some conspicuous place. All the criminals lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loses her dowry, and his children both their estates and nobility.

But though coining of money be adjudged high treason, the criminal is only drawn upon a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

The sentence passed upon all traitors is the same; yet when the offenders are persons of quality, the punishment is generally altered to beheading.

The punishment for misprison of treason, that is, for neglecting or concealing it, is imprisonment for life, with the forfeiture of the offender's estates, both real and personal.

Petty treason is when a son kills his father, a wife her husband, a clergyman his bishop, or a servant his master or mistress. The crime is punished by being drawn upon a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till the criminal is dead. Women guilty either of this crime, or of high treason, are sentenced to be burnt alive; but instead of suffering the full rigour of the law, they are strangled at the stake before the fire takes hold of them.

Felony includes murders, robberies, and forgeries. These are punished by hanging, only murderers are to be executed soon after sentence is passed; and then to be delivered to the surgeons, for public dissection. Persons guilty of robbery were sometimes transported for a term of years to his majesty's plantations; and in all those felonies where the benefit of clergy

is allowed, the offender is burnt in the hand with a hot iron.

In the case of manslaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a person without premeditated malice, but with a present intent to kill, the offender is allowed the benefit of clergy for the first time, and only burnt in the hand. For chance-medley, or the accidentally killing a man without an evil intent, the offender is also to be burnt in the hand; unless he was doing any unlawful act, which renders the punishment death.

The punishments for some other crimes are, imprisonment, fines, transportation, whipping, or standing in the pillory; and within these few years the method has been introduced of putting convicts to hard labour in clearing the bed of the river Thames.

### C H A P. XVIII.

*Of the Revenue—military and naval establishments.*

**T**HE ecclesiastical revenue being now mostly alienated by the bounty of the crown, the king's ordinary temporal revenue consists in the demesne-lands of the crown; the hereditary excise, which is part of the consideration for the purpose of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption; with an annual sum issuing from the duty on wine licences; the forests, the courts of justice, &c.

The annual taxes are the land-tax, and the malt-tax. The perpetual taxes are the customs, or tunnage and poundage of all merchandise exported or imported; the excise duty, or inland import on a great variety of commodities; the salt duty, the post-office, or duty for the carriage of letters; the stamp duty on paper, parchment, &c. the duty on houses and windows; the duty on licences for hackney-coaches and chairs; and the duty on offices and pensions.

The nett produce of those several branches of the revenue, after all charges are paid, amounts nearly to eighteen millions; besides two millions raised annually, at an average, by the land and malt-tax.

In the time of peace this revenue is little more than sufficient for the ordinary expences of the government, and for paying the interest of the national debt. For the support of a war, therefore, extraordinary supplies are granted by the house of commons, who also consider of the ways and means for raising them.

The land forces of these kingdoms, in time of peace, amount to about forty thousand men, including those in garrisons in Ireland, Gibraltar, Minorca, and America; but in time of war, there have been in British pay, natives and foreigners, above a hundred and fifty thousand. This computation is exclusive of the militia, of which there is now embodied to the number of above forty thousand.

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men, in time of peace, usually amounts to twelve or fifteen thousand; and in time of war they have amounted to upwards of eighty thousand.

Officers and soldiers who have served a certain time in the army are at liberty to follow any trade or occupation for which they are fit, in any town of the kingdom, the two universities excepted; and soldiers in actual service may make verbal wills, and dispose of their goods, wages, and other personal

effects, without those forms which are required by the law in other cases.

The seamen in his majesty's navy enjoy the same privileges with the soldiers: nor can the former, when aboard, be arrested for any debt, unless it be sworn to amount to twenty pounds; though by the annual mutiny act, a soldier may be arrested for a debt which extends to the half of that sum.

## S C O T L A N D.

SCOTLAND is bounded on the south by England, and on all other sides by the sea. It is situated between fifty-four degrees thirty minutes and fifty-nine degrees thirty minutes of north latitude, and between one and six degrees of west longitude; extending in length from north to south three hundred miles, and in breadth, in the widest part, a hundred and fifty. It has no natural boundary from England, except the river Tweed, for some miles westward of Berwick, and the Solway Frith, westward of Carlisle. In the time of the Romans this kingdom extended farther south, being bounded by the wall which stretched from Carlisle to Newcastle; and under the Norman kings, it included the three northern counties of Northumberland, Westmoreland, and Cumberland. It is divided into thirty-three shires or counties, namely, those of Berwick, Roxburgh, Selkirk, Dumfries, Kircudbright, Wigton, Air, Peebles, Haddington, Edinburgh, Linlithgow, Lanerik, Renfrew, Dumbarton, Sterling, Clackmannan, Kintofs, Fife, Angus, Perth, Argyle, Inverness, Mearns, Aberdeen, Banff, Moray, Nairn, Cromartie, Ross, Sutherland, Caithness, Orkney, and Bute.

### C H A P. I.

*The Shires of Berwick, Roxburgh, Selkirk, Dumfries, Kircudbright, and Wigton.*

PROCEEDING from the east part of Northumberland into Scotland, we arrive in Berwickshire, a fertile country, which derives its name from the town of Berwick, formerly the capital. It is divided into two districts, called the Merse or Merches, and Lauderdale. The chief town of the former, at present, is Greenlaw, and of the latter, Lauderdale, both of them small towns, but royal boroughs. In the Merse is situated the town of Duns, anciently the capital of the district, and remarkable for the birth, in the year 1274, of John Duns, commonly called Duns Scotus. This is a place of the best trade in the county; and of all the towns in Scotland, is reputed to have the best weekly market for cattle.

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A few miles westward lies Coldstream, another market-town, where formerly stood an abbey. It is situated opposite to Cornhill, on the north bank of the Tweed, over which here has lately been built a fine bridge, consisting of five large, and two smaller arches.

Another market town is Eccles, whence at a little distance lies Ersilton, noted for the birth-place of the prophetic poet Learmont, so much admired by the common people in Scotland, under the name of Thomas the Rhymmer.

Aymouth stands on the sea-coast some miles north of Berwick, and has a good harbour for fishing. Here was formerly a fort, erected with the view of curbing the garrison of Berwick; and in the reign of queen Elizabeth, it was held by the French, as this was the first port in Scotland where they could safely land supplies for the queen-mother.

Coldingham, where a monastery was built by the king of Scotland about the year 1200, became famous for Ebba, its lady abbess. She was the daughter of Edelfred, king of Northumberland; and when her father was made prisoner by the Pagan Mercians, she, with three other women, took refuge in a boat in the Humber, whence rowing into the open sea, they were driven by storm under a promontory in this county, and their boat dashed in pieces. On reaching the shore, they were supplied by the inhabitants with food; and erected for themselves a little hut, where leading an austere life, they in a short time acquired so great a character for sanctity, that people from every quarter solicited them for their prayers, by which they obtained such donations: as enabled them to build a religious house at Coldingham.

When the Danes invaded this part of Scotland, Ebba, who was very beautiful, is said to have cut off her nose and upper lip, for the sake of preserving her chastity; and she caused her companions to do the same. But the barbarous Danes, exasperated at this behaviour, set fire to the nunnery, and burnt every person in it alive. From this lady, who was sainted for these sufferings, the promontory where she landed is to this day called St. Abba's Head, and vulgarly St. Tabb's. Upon the point of this promontory there

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was a strong fort, called Fast-castle, belonging to the earl of Hume; but it has been demolished some years.

The town of Lauder is situated on a small river of the same name, and is the seat of the commissaries. Over the bridge at this place, the Scots nobility, headed by the earl of Angus, hanged the despicable minions of James III. Contiguous to the town stands Lauder-castle, a seat belonging to the earl of Lauderdale.

#### ROXBURGHSHIRE.

Westward of the shire of Berwick lies that of Roxburgh, which is divided into three districts, viz. Teviotdale, Lidfdale, and Easdale.

In the first of these stands Kelso, a handsome market-town, upon the bank of the Tweed, over which here is a fine stone bridge. At this place are also the remains of an ancient monastery, founded by king David I. for the Cistercian monks. The building has been very large; and part of it, till lately, served for a parish-church.

Within a mile of Kelso, near the junction of the Tweed and the Teviot, stands the remains of the castle of Roxburgh, seated on a lofty eminence, of an oblong form. This was anciently one of the strongest fortifications in Scotland; and here king James II. was killed by the splinter of a cannon, which happened to burst on being fired. This castle forms a noble object from the duke of Roxburgh's house at the Floors, situated near half a mile to the northward. The ancient town of Roxburgh, once the capital of the county, and a place of great importance, was situated about a mile west of the castle; but, as if doomed to perpetual oblivion for the crimes of its lawless inhabitants, no vestiges of it remain.

Eight miles westward lies Jedburgh, the chief town of the county. It is situated on a small river, called the Jed, over which is a bridge. The church at this place was also built by king David; and is one of the most magnificent Gothic structures in Scotland. At the school in this town, the celebrated poet Thomson received the earlier part of his education.

The abbey of Melrose is situated on the fourth bank of the Tweed, near ten miles north of Jedburgh, and about the same distance westward of Kelso. This public building was likewise founded by king David, in the year 1136. The great church was as large as some cathedrals. What remains of the choir is a hundred and forty foot in length, exclusive of the part that may have been pulled down at the east end. By the thickness of the foundations, there seems to have been a large and strong tower, or steeple, in the centre of the church. From several fragments of the house, with those of the court, and other buildings, the place has evidently been of great extent. The outside of the abbey is richly decorated with a variety of figures cut in stone, in the manner of those times; and several eminent persons have been buried in it.

About a mile eastward of Melrose, on the opposite

side of the Tweed, lies the old monastery of Dryburgh, of which a considerable part yet remains.

Hawick is situated on the fourth-side of the Teviot, about ten miles north-west of Jedburgh, and is noted for a manufacture of carpets.

This country, which is well watered, and beautifully diversified with hills and valleys, is justly entitled to the name of pleasant Teviotdale; but in some parts of it the inhabitants are much disposed to the ague.

#### SELKIRKSHIRE.

This shire is one of the smallest in Scotland, and contains only one town, which is that of Selkirk, situated on the fourth-side of the Tweed, at the bottom of a hill. The adjacent county has a bleak and barren appearance, and though it produces not much corn, affords good pasture for sheep.

#### DUMFRIESHIRE.

Dumfriesshire is usually divided into the three districts of Eskdale, Nithsdale, and Annandale, so named from the different rivers with which it is watered. The chief town of the county is Dumfries, situated on the river Nid or Neth, over which here is a fine stone bridge consisting of nine arches. It stands about two miles from the sea, but the tide flowing up to the town, ships of burden come close to the key; and about four miles below, the largest merchant ships in Britain may ride in safety. The streets are spacious and well-built; and besides a handsome church, a tolbooth or prison, and a town-hall, here is a commodious exchange for the merchants. This town once enjoyed a great share of the tobacco trade, but its commerce is now much declined. It derives considerable advantage, however, from the great weekly markets for black cattle, vast droves of which, from Galloway and the shire of Air, pass through it to the fairs in Norfolk and Suffolk. Here is an ancient castle, which, notwithstanding the injuries of time, continues to be yet of great strength.

Dumfries was formerly much exposed to the inroads of the English, from whose depredations it often suffered. To prevent those incursions, a great ditch and mound, called Wander's Dykes, were formed from the Nith to Locker-moss, where watch was constantly kept; and when an enemy appeared, the cry was a *loreburn*, a *loreburn*. The meaning is no farther known, than that it was a word of alarm for the inhabitants to take to their arms. This word is inscribed on a ring of silver round the ebony staff, put into the hands of the provost as a badge of office on the day of annual election.

On the bank of the same river, about twelve miles distant, stands the castle of Drumlanrig, a fine seat belonging to the duke of Queensbury, but, like Chatsworth in Derbyshire, surrounded by a tract of barren mountains.

Annan being a sea-port, and having a good harbour, was once a place of considerable trade; but it

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was often taken by the English, who at last burnt it to the ground, in the reign of Edward VI. since which time it has never recovered its former eminence. It has, however, some trade in wines, with an annual export of between twenty and thirty thousand Winchester bushels of corn. Here was anciently a castle, which is now demolished.

Lochmaban, which, as well as the two preceding towns, is a royal borough, is almost surrounded with lakes, which afford excellent fish, particularly a kind found no where else. Here likewise formerly stood a castle.

Moffet stands on the river Annau, and is remarkable for medicinal springs, so much esteemed in feropulous, as well as in other disorders.

Near Langholme is shewn a spot where several women suffered for witchcraft in the last century; and not many years ago, an opinion prevailed in those parts, that the midwives had the power of transferring to the husband the pains of his wife when in child-bed.

The ancient custom of hand-fisting was practised in the district of Eskdale so late as the middle of the last century. At an annual fair, held near the confluence of the white and black Esk, the unmarried of each sex looked out for mates; and making their engagements by hand-fisting, or joining hands, they went off in pairs, and cohabited till the return of the fair, to which they again resorted, and were at liberty either to renew or break off their former treaty; and if both parties were satisfied, the engagement was then made for life. This custom is supposed to have taken its rise from the want of clergy in the popish times.

Not far distant is the village of Gretna, famous of late years for the clandestine marriage of parties that resort from England for that purpose.

In the burying-ground of Kirkconnel is seen the grave of the fair Ellen Irvine, with that of her lover. This lady being wooed by two gentlemen at the same time, the unsuccessful rival vowed to sacrifice the other to his resentment; and watched an opportunity of effecting his purpose, while the happy pair was sitting on the bank of the Kirtle, which washes those grounds. Attacking him therefore in this situation, the lady interposed, in hope of saving her favourite, when receiving the wound intended for the latter, she fell, and expired in his arms. After revenging her death on the assailant, he fled into Spain, where he served some time against the infidels. Returning to Scotland, he visited the grave of his mistress, on which having stretched himself he expired, and was interred by her side. On the tomb-stone are engraved a sword and a cross, with the inscription, *Hic jacet Adam Fleming*. This tragical event is said to have happened either about the end of the reign of James V. or the beginning of that of Mary.

At Burrens, in the parish of Middleby, are the vestiges of a Roman station, supposed to be the Blatum Bulgium of Antonine, and the place where Agricola concluded his second year's expedition. Two

miles hence are also the vestiges of two other Roman camps.

### KIRKUDBRIGHT.

Westward of the shire of Dumfries lies the Stewartry of Kirkcudbright, containing the lower, or the east part of Galloway, a mountainous country, but abounding with sheep. The capital of this district is Kirkcudbright, a sea-port town, on a bay of the Irish sea, eighty-three miles south-west of Edinburgh. Notwithstanding the commodious situation of this place, its trade is very inconsiderable, owing partly to the poverty, and partly to the disposition of the inhabitants. The river Dee, which enters the sea here, and forms the harbour, takes its rise in the mountains near Carrick, in the shire of Air, and is so remarkable for its windings, that though it crosses a country of not more than seventy miles in extent, in a straight line, it runs near two hundred in its course.

### WIGTON.

The shire of Wigton, or the western part of Galloway, contains the districts of Wigton, Stranraer, and Whitehorn. This country stretches with a peninsula so far into the sea, that from its extremity Ireland is plainly discernible. The arm of the sea on the north side is called Loch-Rian, and that on the other, the bay of Glenluce. On the former of those bays, where the peninsula joins the continent, stands the town of Stranraer, a royal borough, and a place of some trade. A little westward is situated Port-Patrick, the ordinary place for the passage to Ireland. Here is a good harbour, and a safe road; but the packet boat, and a few fishing vessels, form almost the whole of its navigation.

The extent of this peninsula, from its northern coast, which is called Fairland-Point, to the Mull of Galloway, in its southern extremity, is about thirty English miles; and it measures in breadth from three to six. It is hilly rather than mountainous, and while it affords excellent pasture for sheep and black cattle, is not deficient in luce.

The borough of Wigton is situated on a bay in the Irish channel, at the mouth of the river Crea; and six miles southward lies Whitehorn, the ancient Candida Casā, and likewise a royal borough, where in former times stood a priory.

Though the people of Galloway, considering their maritime situation, are far too neglectful of commerce, they apply with diligence to agriculture, and are great breeders of cattle, of which it is computed, that they annually send to England above fifty thousand head. The country also produces an excellent kind of strong little horses, thence called Galloways. The ancient language and dress of the inhabitants were those which are commonly worn in the highlands of Scotland; but for upwards of a hundred years they have been gradually diffused.

## C H A P. II.

*The Shires of Air, Peebles, Haddington, Edinburgh, Linlithgow, Lanark, Renfrew, Dumbarton, Clackmannan, and Kinross.*

**T**HE shire of Air lies northward of Galloway, and is divided into three baileries, viz. Carrick, Kyle, and Cunningham. Carrick is a less mountainous, and more fruitful country than Galloway, but does not abound so much in cattle, especially sheep and horses. The inhabitants along the coast devote themselves chiefly to fishing, in which trade they are employed by the merchants of Glasgow, and other parts. The chief town in this district is Maybole; which, though situated on the coast, has no harbour, and is a poor place, but has a tolerable good market.

Proceeding to the north part of this division, we pass the river Dun, over a bridge of one arch, ninety foot wide, and arrive in the district of Kyle, which, being more level, is much better cultivated than the former, and likewise more populous.

The town of Air is distinguished into the old and new town, the former being situated on the south side of the river of the same name, over which is a bridge of four arches. This is the ancient Erigena, famous for the privileges it enjoyed. The new town stands on the north side of the river. It has a good harbour in the river, and lies conveniently for trade, though in this it be greatly declined. This place is noted for the treacherous murder of many noblemen and gentlemen by the English, after Edward I. had over-run the country. Being summoned to some barns, on the pretext of attending a court of justice, when they entered one by one the place where the court was said to be assembled, they were successively hanged by persons provided for the purpose. This infamous act, however, was soon revenged by Wallace, who being informed of what had passed, hastened thither that very night, and having disposed his associates in such a manner as that none of the enemy should escape, set fire to the barns, and burnt all the English that were in them. The vestiges of the barns, where those scenes were transacted, are yet visible. A citadel, well fortified with a fosse, and a stone-wall, was built here by Oliver Cromwell; but of these only some houses and angles of the ramparts remain.

In the district of Cunningham stands the town of Irvin, situated on a river of the same name. Here are two handsome streets, with a good quay, and a capacious harbour. The chief trade of the place consists in coal, which abounds in the neighbouring hills, and is exported to Ireland. At a little distance from this town stood Kilmarnock castle, the seat of the family of the Boyds, late earls of Kilmarnock. On the other side is the castle of Eglington, the residence of the earls of that name; and on the north-east borders of the county, where it joins to Clydesdale, is the beautiful seat of the earl of Loudon. Kilmarnock, in

the same county, is the residence of the earls of Glencairn.

Upon the bay of Clyde stands the town of Langis, famous for the defeat of the Norwegians by Alexander III. king of Scotland.

## P E E B L E S.

Proceeding eastward, we arrive in the shire of Peebles, otherwise called Tweedale. This country is better adapted to pasture than to agriculture, and produces great numbers of sheep, which constitute the principal riches of the inhabitants. The chief town is Peebles, situated seventy-two miles south-west of Edinburgh. It stands on the bank of the Tweed, and is only a small town, but contains some good houses. It was formerly remarkable for three churches, three gates, three streets, and three bridges, of which that over the Tweed has five arches.

In the church-yard of Drumelzier, in this county, the prophet Merlin is said to be buried. There was an old prophecy, "that the kingdoms (England and Scotland) should be united, when Tweed and Pausel met at his grave;" and this extraordinary junction of those rivers is said to have happened by an inundation, when James VI. succeeded to the crown of England.

Near the town of Lync, in this county, are the remains, as is supposed, of a Roman camp, called Randal's Trench, which is joined to the town by a causeway about half a mile in length.

In this shire are two remarkable lakes; one of which, called West-water Lake, abounds with eels and other fish. The other is known by the name of Lochgenen Lake, and falls into Annandale from a precipice two hundred foot high, when the fish are frequently killed by the fall of the water.

Tweedale contains two striking monuments of the instability of human grandeur. One is the foundation of a prodigious building, begun by the earl of Moreton, who dying soon after on the scaffold, the execution of the plan perished with him. The other is the noble house of Traquair, built by an earl of that family, who, after being for some years chancellor of Scotland, and enjoying the highest posts both of honour and profit in the kingdom, incurred at length so much odium, by his conduct under Charles I. that he was reduced to the lowest state of indigence, even that of receiving alms; in which miserable circumstances he died about a year before the Restoration.

## H A D D I N G T O N.

Crossing a part of Selkirkshire and Roxburghshire, we come to that of Haddington, or the East Lothians, the Northamptonshire of North Britain.

Dunbar is situated in the mouth of the river Forth, and is a handsome, well-built town, and a royal borough. Though the harbour be neither large nor commodious, it is a place of considerable trade, and carries on a great herring-fishery. This place was anciently

ciently defended by a castle, now in ruins; between which and the harbour is a remarkable stratum of stone, in some respects resembling that of the Giant's Causeway in Ireland. It consists of a red grit stone, variously shaped into columns, that contain from three to six angles. Their diameter is from one to two foot, and their length about thirty. The space between them is occupied by a thin division of red and white sparry matter; and veins of the same are observed to pervade the columns transversely.

Between the town and the great road stands Broxmouth, a pleasant seat belonging to the duke of Roxburgh; and a little farther is the castle of Tenningham, a noble old seat of the earls of Haddington.

South-west from Dunbar, near a place called Dunhill, lies the field where the battle was fought between Oliver Cromwell and general Lesly, commander of the Scotch army.

Not far hence stands the magnificent house of Yester, the residence of the marquis of Tweedale.

Passing the borough of North-Berwick, we reach Haddington, which is situated on a small river called the Tyne, over which here is a bridge. This is a royal borough, and though much decayed, was formerly a large, strong, and well-built place, defended not only by a wall and a wide ditch, but by lines and bastions, the vestiges of which may yet be seen. Here are some good houses, and the streets broad and well-paved.

Proceeding westward, we meet with a great number of populous villages, interspersed with many beautiful seats. Fish and coals are here in great plenty; and besides some other manufactures, good salt is made in almost all the towns along the Frith.

In the mouth of the Forth, near the coast of East-Lothian, stands a steep rock, called the Bass, inaccessible on all sides, except by one narrow passage. In former times it was slightly fortified, rather to prevent it from being occupied by pirates, than for any other purpose. In the reign of Charles II. and in that of his successor, it was made a state prison, where the fanatics, called Cameronians, were confined for being in arms against the king. After the Revolution, a band of desperate men took possession of it; and by means of a large boat, which they hoisted upon the rock, or let down at pleasure, committing several piracies, held out the last of any place in Great Britain for the abdicated king.

This island is remarkable for a kind of fowls, called fulan-geese, which are larger than the common geese. The bill of this species is pointed like that of a crane or heron, but much thicker, and about five inches long. These fowls live on fish, particularly herring, and are very fat. At a certain season of the year they come from the north, whither they also return at a stated period. The inhabitants are careful not to disturb them till they have built their nests; and afterwards no noise can induce them to abandon their seat. They lay but one egg at a time, which they fix dexterously to a point of the rock, in the middle of the nest. They hatch it by holding it fast under one foot, and seldom leave it during the time of incuba-

tion. The fish caught by the old geese often serve the inhabitants for food; and the sticks they bring to make their nests supply them with fuel. The few islanders that occasionally live here make considerable profit of the flesh and feathers of the young geese, which are taken from their nests by a person let down the precipice with a rope. When young, those geese are of an ash colour, but when old, they become white; and though of a strong fishy taste, are considered as a dainty.

On the top of the cliff is a fresh-water spring, with a small warren for rabbits; but the bottom of it is almost worn through by the tide. This insulated rock was formerly the property, and sometimes the seat, of the family of Lauder, which a long time refused to sell it, though often solicited by several kings, till coming to decay, it was purchased by king Charles II.

### EDINBURGH.

Entering the shire of Edinburgh, or Middle Lothian, by the great east road, we soon reach the capital of Scotland. This city stands in fifty-five degrees fifty-eight minutes of north latitude, and in three degrees of west longitude. The principal street, which, including the Canongate, is upwards of a mile in length, is situated on an eminence, extending by a gradual declivity, from the castle, on the west, to the palace of Holyrood-house, on the east. Along the greater part of the street, the houses are of hewn stone, in some places ten or eleven stories high, or upwards, but in most places six. On each side is a descent by several wynds or lanes; of which those on the south lead to a street called the Cowgate, which runs parallel to the preceding. The ground afterwards ascends to the south, where several handsome streets have been lately built. At the bottom of the descent on the north-side of the High-street, was formerly a piece of water, called the North-loch, but now drained; beyond which stands the New Town, where several handsome streets are already built in the English manner. Over the hollow between the Old and the New Town is erected a magnificent bridge, consisting of seven arches, five of which are very wide and high, and elevated upon lofty piers.

This city is of great antiquity, and has seven gates, or, as they are here called, ports. The castle stands at the western extremity, on a high, abrupt rock, inaccessible on the south, west, and north. The entrance is from the east, where the rock is also very high, and is defended by a round battery, and an outwork at the foot of it, with a draw bridge. In different parts of the fortress are placed several batteries of heavy cannon, many of which are of brass; and the garrison is supplied with water by two wells. Here is a royal palace, of hewn stone, in which are kept the regalia, and chief records of state. This fortress was once called the Maiden Castle, because the Pictish kings kept their daughters in it; and more anciently it had the name of *Castrum Alatum*, or the Winged Castle, perhaps from its lofty situation.



The palace of Holyrood-house, otherwise called the Abbey, was founded by king David I. for canons regular of St. Austlin; but has undergone considerable alterations since that time. It is a quadrangular building, of hewn stone, with a court in the middle. The entrance from the west is adorned with massy pillars, under a cupola in the form of an imperial crown, balustraded on each side. On each corner of this front is a circular tower, of which that towards the north was built by James V. and the other by Charles II. The inner court is surrounded with piazzas, whence, on each side, are entries to the several apartments, which are very magnificent. Here is a noble gallery, a hundred and forty-seven foot long, adorned with the pictures of all the Scotch kings, from Fergus I. to James VII. inclusive. Those kings who were eminent, and all the race of the Stuarts, are drawn in full length, but the others only half length. The apartments in this palace are occupied by noblemen, who enjoy the privilege either by hereditary title, or an occasional grant from the crown.

On the north-side of the palace stood the conventual church, the roof of which was of great height, and the pillars of as exquisite workmanship as those of St. George's chapel at Windsor. But the greater part of this magnificent chapel fell down in the year 1768, occasioned by the enormous weight of a new stone roof which had lately been laid over it.

Adjoining to the palace is a park about four miles in circumference, but which has neither any wood nor deer, and only affords pasture for cattle. In it is a high verdant hill, with a craggy summit near half a mile in height, called Arthur's Seat, whence Arthur, the British king, it is said, used to view the adjacent country.

The precincts of the palace, and the park, afford a sanctuary to debtors, in the same way as the court at St. James's.

The number of churches in the city of Edinburgh, and suburbs, is eleven, exclusive of many episcopal chapels, and some meeting-houses belonging to different sects.

Of those churches four are under the same roof, namely, the New Kirk, Old Kirk, Tolbooth Kirk, and Haddo's Hole Kirk; all which, before the Reformation, constituted one cathedral, dedicated to St. Giles. In the New Kirk is a gallery for the king, or his commissioner. Here also the magistrates hear divine service every Sunday, as likewise do the judges, in their habits, during the time of session. The common steeple of those four churches is of elegant architecture, with a summit resembling an imperial crown. In this steeple is a set of bells, which are not rung out as in England, but played in the manner of a harpsichord; the person who performs having thick leather covers to his fists, by which he is enabled to strike with the greater force. For this office he is allowed a salary from the town, and plays various tunes very musically, from one to two every day, Sundays and holidays excepted.

Contiguous to this church is a square of fine build-

ings, called the Parliament-clofe, of which the west and south sides are occupied by the parliament-house, the several courts of justice, the advocates library, the post office, &c. In this square is an equestrian statue of Charles II. reckoned one of the finest in Europe.

The parliament-house is a large and commodious structure. Over its entrance are the arms of Scotland, well cut, and supported by emblematical figures of Truth and Mercy, with this inscription, *Stant his felicia regna*, importing that these virtues render kingdoms happy. This building bears some resemblance to Westminster-hall, and, though not so large, has a much more curious roof. In the south, or upper end of it, one of the judges sits every day in session-time, to hear causes in the first instance; and at the west end are kept the sheriff and commissary courts. In the inner-house sits the court of session, the supreme civil judicature in Scotland. Within the principal entry, is a fine marble statue of Duncan Forbes, Esq. formerly lord president of the court. He is represented sitting in his robes, with his right hand extended, and holding papers in his left, which leans on a chair. Beneath is the following inscription in gilt letters:

*Duncan Forbes de Culloden,  
Supremæ in Civilibus Curia Præfati,  
Judicii, integerrimi,  
Civis optimo,  
Prisæ virtutis viro,  
Facultas juridica libens posuit,  
Anno post obitum Quinto.  
C. N. M. DCC. LII.*

Under the parliament-house is a noble library of books and manuscripts, belonging to the advocates, or gentlemen of the law.

Near the Parliament-clofe is the Royal Exchange, a handsome building, of a square form, lately erected, and intended for the merchants to assemble in; but they still continue to meet at change hours, in the open street opposite the Exchange, where the Cross formerly stood.

On the south side of the town stands the college or university, consisting of two courts; which was founded in 1580, by king James VI. in consequence of a petition from the city. The persons established by the foundation were a principal, a professor of divinity, four regents, or masters of philosophy, and a professor of philology, called *prof. humaniarum litterarum*, or regent of humanity. In 1640, the town added a professorship of mathematicks; to which have lately been subjoined a professor of ecclesiastical history, civil law, theoretical and practical medicine, anatomy, botany, chemistry, rhetoric and the belles lettres. The dignity of chancellor and vice-chancellor of the university is vested in the magistrates of the city.

Belonging to the university is a good library, founded by Clement Little, a commissary of Edinburgh, and much increased by donations. The books are kept on shelves cloistered with doors, over which are the names of the respective donors, in gold letters. Here

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is the original of the Bohemian protest against the council of Constance, for burning John Hus and Jerome of Prague, in the year 1417, with a hundred and five seals of Bohemian and Moravian grandees annexed to it. Here is also a museum, containing a noble collection of curiosities.

Near the college stands the royal infirmary, a sumptuous building for the reception of the sick, who are attended by two physicians belonging to the charity, and by all the surgeons of the city in rotation.

Almost adjoining to the former is the high-school, which is well endowed, and contains accommodations for one master and four others.

In the west part of the city, near the great area, called the Grass-market, stands Heriot's hospital, a large and stately edifice, the most magnificent of the kind in Britain. It was erected by the Reverend Dr. Balcanqual, to whom George Heriot, jeweller to king James VI. left near seventeen thousand pounds to dispose in pious uses; which sum the worthy clergyman expended in building and endowing this house. Here many of the sons of freemen are maintained, clothed, and educated in useful learning, till they are fit for apprenticeship, or to go to the university, where they are allowed exhibitions.

Not far hence stands the charity-workhouse for the city, where old and infirm persons are clothed and maintained, and foundling or deserted children taken care of, and educated, till they be fit either for service or apprenticeship. The number of old and young maintained by this charity is computed to be upwards of five hundred.

In a corner of Hope-park, which is the place where the inhabitants of the town resort for walking, is another hospital, a noble building, and well founded; besides which there are several other inferior institutions of the same kind; with a tolbooth or prison, and a bridewell or house of correction.

The city is well supplied with excellent water, brought in lead pipes from a hill three miles south, to a great reservoir on the Castle hill; whence it is conveyed in the same manner to wells in different quarters of the town. The flesh, fish, and green-markets, are kept separate from each other, and well supplied with provisions of all kinds.

In the Fountain-close, near the Nether-bow, is the college of physicians, who were incorporated by king Charles II. in 1682; and not far distant is surgeon's-hall.

At the end of the bridge, in the New town, stands the theatre, an elegant building, which was lately erected by subscription. In a court of the High-street, is an elegant assembly room; and in another part of the town, a room for concerts; both which are held weekly during the winter, and occasionally in the summer.

The city is governed by a provost, who, like the first magistrates of London and York, has the title of lord; and by four bailies, with a common council, consisting for the most part of twenty-five persons, but sometimes of thirty-eight. Before the union, the lord provost for the time being was always a member

of the privy council. The magistrates are chosen every second year upon the Tuesday next after Michaelmas-day, by thirty-eight electors.

The trained bands of the city consist of sixteen companies; but besides these, there are three companies of town guards, under the command of so many captains; a part of which, with one of the officers, is constantly on duty in the guard-room, to extinguish fires, and preserve the public tranquillity.

The streets are generally well paved and lighted; hackney coaches and sedan-chairs are frequent; and near the exchange is the station of the cadies, a numerous body of ticket-porters, no less remarkable for their alertness and fidelity, than for the extreme cheapness of their hire, which, for an errand to a moderate distance, is only a penny. In the most public part of the city are several coffee-houses; and the taverns, which are also numerous, afford not only elegant, but cheap entertainment.

On the top of the Calton-hill, a part of the suburbs lying north-east of the city, a fine terrace has lately been made, commanding a delightful and extensive prospect. Here it is intended to build an observatory for the improvement of astronomy. On the same hill is interred the celebrated historian and philosopher David Hume, to whom a mausoleum has been erected. A little farther north, in the way to Leith, is a physic garden, under the direction of the professor of botany, containing many thousands of plants, indigenous and exotic.

A mile north from Edinburgh, stands Leith, which is the sea-port of the city. It is a large and populous town, divided by the harbour, and a small river into two parts, which are joined by a stone bridge of three arches. Here is a fine quay, well wharfed up with stone, and fenced with piles. At the mouth of the harbour, on the east-side, is a long and well-built pier, which runs out a considerable way from the shore, and prevents the entrance of the harbour from being obstructed with sand, to which it would otherwise be exposed, when the wind blows hard at north-east. A stone pier has also been lately built on the other side of the harbour, to answer the same end. This town is within the jurisdiction of the magistrates of Edinburgh, and is governed by a bailiff under them. It was formerly a strong place, but has had no fortifications for many years. Passage-boats go regularly from this place to Kinghorn, on the other side of the Frith, which is here seven miles over.

At a little distance from the shore is an island, called Inch-keith, where formerly stood a fort, now in ruins.

About a mile beyond Holyrood-house stands a magnificent seat lately built by the earl of Abercorn, and esteemed one of the finest in Scotland. Farther on is situated the castle of Craig Millar, once the residence of the unfortunate queen Mary; and more to the southward lies the Drum, an elegant seat belonging to lord Somerville; in whose park, among other curiosities, is the ancient cross of the city of Edinburgh, which, on being taken down some years ago, was carefully removed thither by his lordship. Two miles hence to the south is situated Dalkeith, a well-built

populous

populous town, and noted for its excellent market. Almost close to the town is a magnificent house belonging to the duke of Buccleugh, who has another, called Smeaton, within the distance of a mile. In this neighbourhood likewise lies Newbottle, a seat of the marquis of Lothian.

On the tombstone of one Margaret Scott, who died in the town of Dalkieth in 1738, is the following remarkable inscription.

" Stop, passenger, until my life you read :  
The living may get knowledge by the dead.  
Five times five years I liv'd a virgin's life :  
Ten times five years I was a virtuous wife ;  
Ten times five years I liv'd a widow chaste ;  
Now, weary'd of this mortal life, I rest.  
Between my cradle and my grave have been  
Eight mighty kings of Scotland, and a queen.  
Four times five years the common wealth I saw ;  
Ten times the subjects rose against the law.  
Twice did I see old prelay pull'd down ;  
And twice the cloak was humbled by the gown.  
An end of Stewarts' race I saw : nay, more !  
My native country sold for English ore.  
Such desolations in my life have been,  
I have an end of all perfection seen."

Five miles south-west of Edinburgh lies the chapel of Roslin, a curious piece of Gothic architecture, founded in 1446, by William de St. Clare, prince of Orkney. The outside is ornamented with a multitude of pinnacles, and variety of ludicrous sculpture. The length of the inside is sixty-nine foot, and the breadth thirty, supported by two rows of clustered pillars, between seven and eight foot high, with an aisle on each side. The arches are obtusely Gothic, and continued across the side-aisles ; but the centre of the chapel forms one arch, elegantly divided into compartments, and finely sculptured. The capitals of the columns are enriched with foliage, and a variety of figures ; and amidst a heavenly concert, appears a cherubim blowing the ancient highland bagpipe.

At a little distance, in a deep den, amidst wooded eminences, are the ruins of the castle, seated on a peninsulated rock, accessible by a bridge of stupendous height. This had been the residence of the great family of Sinclairs. Of this house was Oliver, favourite of James V. and the innocent cause of the discomfiture of the Scots, at the battle of Solway Moss, by the chagrin with which the nobility beheld his advancement to the command. He lived many years after this event in great poverty, a signal instance of the caprice of fortune, which he emphatically intimated to Arran, the minion of James VI. when appearing in the presence of that haughty courtier, he uttered only these words, " I am Oliver Sinclair."

In the neighbourhood of this place three victories are said to have been obtained in one day, by eight thousand Scots, over three bodies of the English, consisting of ten thousand each, in the year 1302.

Not far from Roslin lies Hawthornden, the seat of the historian and poet, Drummond. The

house, and a ruined castle, are placed on the brink of a vast precipice, at the side of the river North-Esk, which runs in a deep den beneath. In the house are preserved the portraits of the poet and his father. Below the house, in the front of the rock, is cut a flight of twenty-seven steps, the descent of which is interrupted by a gap, passable by a bridge of boards. These steps lead to caves, which have been hewn with great labour out of the rock. There are several apartments, but the largest faces the door, and is ninety-one foot long ; the beginning is twelve foot wide, the rest only five foot eight inches, and the height six foot. In a recess of the broader part is a well, nine fathoms deep, and above is cut a funnel, which pierces the roof.

These caves are supposed by some to have been the work of the Picts, but others ascribe them to later ages. It is probable, however, that they were designed as an asylum in troublesome times : and as such they were used by the brave Alexander Ramsay, in 1341. This place is likewise remarkable for the solemn and picturesque walls cut along the summit, sides, and bottom of this romantic den, which is beautifully diversified with woodland scenery, and the grotesque figure of many rocks.

The environs of Edinburgh, to the westward also, abound with several elegant seats, interspersed with towns and villages. Six miles from the capital, is the queen's ferry, so called from a passage over the Frith, much used by Margaret, queen to Malcolm III. and sister to Edward Atheling.

#### L I N L I T H G O W .

Proceeding in this direction, we enter the West-Lothians, or the shire of Linlithgow, which extends several miles along the Frith. The capital of this district is Linlithgow, a large, well-built town, with a stately town-house ; but chiefly famous for the noble palace of the kings of Scotland. This edifice stands in a fine park, on an eminence which projects in the form of an amphitheatre into a fine lake ; and from it is a descent in the manner of terrace walks. It is of hewn stone, and consists of three courts. At each corner are two towers, with apartments ; and in the centre of the middle court is a curious fountain, adorned with several fine statues. Here king James V. restored the order of the knights of St. Andrew, and erected a throne and stalls for them in St. Michael's church, which forms a wing on the right hand of the first court. This beautiful palace was much damaged by the soldiery in 1745.

This town contains between three and four thousand inhabitants. It carries on a considerable trade in dressing of white leather, which is sent abroad to be manufactured. It also employs many hands in dressing of flax, and in wooll-combing. Besides those branches of trade, it has a linen manufactory ; and the water of the lake is reckoned so excellent for whitening linen cloth, that great quantities of that commodity are annually sent thither to be bleached. This is a royal borough ; and here the earl of Murray,



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On regaining the top, the walk is continued near the verge of the rocks, that on both sides have the appearance of a straight wall, except where they overhang the river, which is pent up between them. Having proceeded about half a mile, on a sudden ap-

pear in a few years.

In the higher part of the city stands the great church, formerly cathedral and metropolitan, dedicated to St. Mungo, who is said to have been bishop here about the year 560. This is a magnificent and stately edifice, equally remarkable for its stupendous size and curious workmanship, which is displayed no less in the several rows of pillars, than in the exceeding high spire that rises from a square tower in the centre. This large cathedral is now divided into several churches, one above the other.

At a little distance stands a ruinous castle, formerly the residence of the archbishop, who was superior of the ground on which Glasgow is built. It is encompassed with an exceeding high wall of hewn stone, and has a fine prospect into the city.

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ray, lord regent, killed with a spear by a gentleman.

South from Edinburgh is an ancient castle, leaning so as to be a terrace while others are hills are the view.

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Burrowfoot extending along the coast, but for some miles.

A little to the land running where in former times confined.

Two miles richer, forming

Directing Linlithgow distale. The district, rich in rick-stone, and Peebles till being a furd, and mous moon for production is for the of Hopton the celebrated are about Lynn, a pavilion situation. tating its tions, and rocks, of tower.

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ray, lord regent in the time of queen Mary, was killed with a musket-ball, shot at him in revenge by a gentleman named Hamilton.

South from the town, near a place called Kips, is an ancient chapel or altar of great unpolished stones, leaning so as to support one another. Some imagine it to be a temple of Terminus built by the Romans, while others ascribe it to the Celts or Druids. Near it is a circle of great stones, and on two adjacent hills are the vestiges of camps, supposed to be Roman.

A few miles from Linlithgow stands Hopton-house, beautifully situated on the side of the Frith, and commanding a prospect one of the noblest that can be imagined. The grandeur of this edifice is correspondent to that of its situation; and justly ranks it among the most magnificent villas in Great Britain.

Burrowtowness consists of one straggling street, extending along the shore of the Frith. It formerly enjoyed a considerable trade with Holland and France, but for some years it has much declined.

A little to the southward upon a narrow point of land running into the Frith, stands Blackness Castle, where in former times state prisoners were frequently confined.

Two miles south-west from Linlithgow lies Forricher, formerly the residence of the knights of Malta.

#### L A N E R K.

Directing our course westward from the shire of Linlithgow, we arrive in that of Lanerk, or Clydesdale. The river Clyde, which gave name to this district, rises in Tinto-hill, near a place called Arrick-stone, on the confines of the shires of Lanerk and Peebles. At first it runs towards the north-west, till being joined by another stream, it passes by Craufurd, and runs almost directly north, through the famous moor of the same name, anciently renowned for producing gold dust and lapis lazuli, as it still is for the rich mines of lead, belonging to the earl of Hopton. Not far from Lanerk, a small town, are the celebrated falls of the Clyde: the most distant are about half an hours ride, at a place called Cory-Lynn, and are seen to most advantage from a ruinous pavilion in a gentleman's garden, placed in a lofty situation. The cataract is here full in view, precipitating itself from rock to rock, with short interruptions, and bounded on either side with vast wooded rocks, on the summit of one of which is a ruined tower.

A path conducts the traveller down to the beginning of the fall; into which projects a high rock, that is insulated in the time of floods, and whence is a tremendous view of the stream. In the cliffs of this savage retreat, the brave Wallace is said to have concealed himself, meditating revenge on the enemies of his country.

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No. 43.

pears the great bold fall of Boniton, in a foaming sheet, and dispersing a mist around it a considerable way. Above this is another great fall, which is succeeded by two smaller. Beyond these the river widening becomes more smooth, and pursues its course, bounded on one side by wooded banks, and on the other by fertile fields.

A little below Lanerk the Clyde is joined by the river Douglas, which gives the name of Douglasdale to the lands near it. In a vale adjoining this river stands the old castle, which had been the paternal seat of the great family of Douglas for many centuries; but in the year 1758, it was destroyed by accidental fire.

In this county stands Glasgow, a large, handsome, and flourishing city. The four principal streets are perhaps the most beautiful any where to be seen. The houses are all of stone, and generally uniform in height, as well as in front. The lower stories, for the most part, stand on vast square Doric columns, with arches, which open into the shops. Where the four principal streets meet, is a spacious market-place, in the centre of which stands the cross; and at one of the angles, the tolbooth and guild-hall, which is a noble structure of hewn stone, with a very lofty tower. The great streets are adorned with various public buildings, but the chief ornament of the place is the college or university, a magnificent fabric, consisting of several courts. A high wall separates this building from the rest of the city, its front towards the latter being of hewn stone, and excellent architecture.

This university was founded by king James II, in 1453, by virtue of a bull from pope Nicholas V. granting it all the privileges and immunities given by the apostolical see to the college of Bononia in Italy, for teaching universal learning. Many large donations having been made to it at different times, its endowments are very considerable. All the professors are accommodated with handsome houses, and the students, who also live within the college, wear gowns, as at Oxford and Cambridge. Belonging to the university is an excellent collection of antiquities; and a fine observatory has been erected within these few years.

In the higher part of the city stands the great church, formerly cathedral and metropolitan, dedicated to St. Mungo, who is said to have been bishop here about the year 560. This is a magnificent and stately edifice, equally remarkable for its stupendous size and curious workmanship, which is displayed no less in the several rows of pillars, than in the exceeding high spire that rises from a square tower in the centre. This large cathedral is now divided into several churches, one above the other.

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above

above four hundred years ago. A new one has lately been added, of seven arches, with circular holes between each, to carry off the water in great floods.

The great imports of this city are tobacco and sugar; but manufactures of almost every kind are now established here; the herring fishery is likewise very considerable; and upon the whole, the commerce of Glasgow is so extensive, as to entitle it to a rank among the most flourishing towns in Great Britain.

The Clyde not being navigable to Glasgow but by small vessels, the port of the city is therefore Newport Glasgow, which stands near the mouth of the river, and is a harbour for ships of the greatest burthen.

Farther westward on the Frith lies Greenock, a well-built and trading town, where is a good road for vessels, with a castle to command it. This is the chief place in the west of Scotland for the herring fishing, in which the persons mostly concerned are the merchants of Glasgow.

Six miles from Glasgow lies Paisley, an irregularly built town, but of considerable extent. It stands on both sides of the river Cart, over which it has three stone bridges, of two arches each. The river runs from south to north, and falls into the Clyde about three miles below the town. At spring-tides vessels of forty tons come up to the quay; but the inhabitants being now employed in clearing and deepening the river, it will probably be rendered accessible to those of greater burthen. Here is a flourishing manufactory of white thread, of which it is computed there is annually made to the amount of forty or fifty thousand pounds sterling. Vast quantities of foreign yarn are imported here from France, Germany, and other countries; which the inhabitants manufacture into lawn, to the amount, as is supposed, of seventy thousand pounds a year. Here is also a manufactory of silk gauze, and ribbons, besides several others of a more local kind. So great has been the spirit of industry among the inhabitants of this town, during the last thirty years, that their number is trebled within that period; being then computed at only four thousand, but now at twelve thousand.

Many of the buildings in this town are about six hundred years old; the greatest curiosity in Paisley is the burying-place of the earl of Abercorn; which is an old Gothic chapel, remarkable for an extraordinary echo.

Eight miles south of Glasgow is situated Hamilton, a well-built pleasant town; contiguous to which is the seat of the duke of Hamilton, a large edifice, and containing many fine paintings.

Another town in this county is Ruglen, lying a few miles south-east of Glasgow.

#### R E N F R E W.

Westward of the shire of Lanerk, or Clydesdale, lies that of Renfrew, the ancient paternal estate of the Stuarts before they succeeded to the crown of Scotland; and which yet gives the title of baron to his royal highness the prince of Wales. It is a pleasant

country, and well situated for commerce, in which it is fast improving.

Renfrew, the capital of the shire, and an ancient royal borough, stands a few miles below Glasgow, on the opposite side of the Clyde, and though not considerable for extent, has begun of late years to be distinguished for trade and manufactures. The ancient channel of the Clyde, in which the tide flows, furnishes it with a very convenient harbour, called Puddock; and by spring-tides, vessels of tolerable burthen are brought up to the bridge. The inhabitants cultivate much the Irish trade; and having the benefit of a public ferry, derive no small advantage from the correspondence between the counties on both sides the Frith.

Between the Frith of Clyde that of Forth, the Romans erected a fence, called Severus's wall, Adrian's wall, or Graham's dyke, of which many vestiges yet remain. But this isthmus is now distinguished by a public work of a different, and far more beneficial nature, which is a navigable canal thirty miles in length, that unites those great rivers, and forms a communication for internal commerce between the east and west coasts of Scotland.

#### D U M B A R T O N.

North from Renfrew is situated the shire of Dumbarton or Lenox - Dunbarton, as it was anciently styled. Dumbrition, the chief town of the shire, and a royal borough, is situated sixteen miles north-west of Glasgow, at the confluence of the rivers Leven and Clyde. This is a place of great antiquity, and famous for its impregnable castle.

In this county is Loch-Lomond, one of the largest lakes in Scotland, being upwards of twenty miles in length, and, except at the north-end, generally about eight miles broad. It receives many rivers, but empties itself by one mouth into the Frith of Clyde. It contains thirty islands, three of which have churches, and several of the rest are inhabited. The principal of those is Inch-murin, about two miles and a half long, fruitful in corn and grass, and abounding in deer, for the hunting of which the kings of Scotland frequently resorted thither. The other most remarkable are, Nachastel, so called from an old castle that stands upon it; Inchdavnan, noted for broom, wild berries, pleasant habitations, gardens, and fruit-trees; Inchennougon, distinguished for birch-trees and corn-fields; and Inchnolaig, for yew-trees, which grow no where else in these islands.

Loch-Lomond abounds with fish of various kinds, particularly a sort called poans, or pollocks, peculiar to it. Near this lake begin the Grampian mountains, which run north-east to Aberdeen.

#### S T I R L I N G S H I R E.

Proceeding eastward, we enter Sterlingshire, the capital of which is Sterling. This town is situated, like Edinburgh, on the ridge of a hill, sloping on each side, and the street gradually ascending to the castle.

castle, which well built, and contains. In the church, a spire and adorned hospital for doctors by James Colton the gate. The town and though a burgh, is esteemed a palace, built by a square form resting on a wall; and a tower. Two towers, are large parlements of parliament-houses foot long, high.

The noble traveller. The adorned with Forth, the large, that distance by twenty-four abbey of Cammannan, Fartry as far as hills, where 1715; and fertile as the highland mountains Ben-Lomond.

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castle, which stands at the west end. It is large, and well built, and contains about four thousand inhabitants. In the upper part of the town stands the church, a spacious building, of good architecture, and adorned with a lofty tower. Near it is a neat hospital for decayed merchants, founded and endowed by James Cowan, whose statue, big as life, is over the gate. The castle stands upon a rocky precipice, and though not so difficult of access as that of Edinburgh, is esteemed equally strong. Within it is the palace, built by James V. It is a large structure, of a square form, ornamented on three sides with pillars, resting on grotesque figures, that project from the wall; and on the top of each pillar is a fanciful statue. Two rooms, called the Queen's, and the Nursery, are large, with roofs of wood, divided into compartments of various shapes, and well carved. The parliament-house is a vast room, a hundred and twenty foot long, having likewise a timber roof.

The noble view from this castle is admired by every traveller. To the east is a vast plain, rich in corn, adorned with woods, and watered with the river Forth, the windings of which are so frequent and large, that though between Stirling and Alloa the distance by land is only four miles, by water it is twenty-four. In this plain are the ruins of the old abbey of Cambuskenneth, with a view of Alloa, Clackmannan, Falkirk, the Frith of Forth, and the country as far as Edinburgh. On the north are the Ochil-hills, where was fought the battle with the rebels in 1715; and to the west the Strath of Montelith, as fertile as the eastern plain, and terminated by the highland mountains, among which the summit of Ben-Lomond is very conspicuous.

Near the castle are Edmonston's walks, cut through a little wood, on the top of very steep banks. Beneath, on the flat, are the vestiges of the gardens belonging to the palace, where, according to the taste of the times, the flowers had been disposed in beds and curious knots, which may yet be easily traced in the fantastic form of the turf. Above these walks is the Ladies-hill, where they sat to behold the vigour and address of their faithful knights, in the tilts and tournaments, performed in a hollow between this spot and the castle.

Among some old houses in this town belonging to the nobility, the most superb was that of the earl of Mar, built by the regent; the front of which is adorned with the arms of the family, and much sculpture.

The number of inhabitants in Stirling is computed at four thousand; and here are manufactures of tartans, shalloons, and carpets. The bridge at this place consists of only four arches, but they are very large, and the channel widens considerably below it.

Stirling was one of the boundaries of the Roman empire in Britain, as appears by the inscription on a stone, below the castle, towards the bridge, importing that one of the wings of their army kept guard there.

The river Carron, in the neighbourhood, is famous for some Roman monuments, particularly two little

hills, commonly called Dunspice, conjectured by some to have been exploratory mounts, and by others to have been sepulchral. A few miles lower stood the celebrated piece of antiquity called Arthur's Oven; supposed to have been a Roman temple of Terminus; which was a few years ago destroyed by a more than Gothic knight, who made use of the stones to build a mill.

Over the Carron is a bridge of one arch, finely built of free-stone; but the shores being flat, it rises so high, as to appear tremendous to many passengers. There was a necessity for building it with one arch only, for no pier in the middle of the channel could have sustained the shock of the great stones which sometimes are brought down by the stream.

On the side of this river is situated the great foundery lately established; in which it is said that not less than seven hundred men are constantly employed.

Falkirk is a large, ill-built town, supported by the great fairs for black cattle from the Highlands; it being computed that twenty-four thousand head are annually sold here. Near the town are many vestiges of the Roman wall, erected by Lollius Urbicus. The wall was of turf; in this place the breadth of it was forty foot, and that of the ditch thirteen foot.

A few miles north from Falkirk lies the village of Bannockburn, famous in the Scotch history for the battle fought in its neighbourhood, between king Robert de Bruce, and the English army, commanded by Edward II. in person; in which the latter was routed with great slaughter, and the king with much difficulty escaped. This place is also remarkable for the murder of king James III. in an insurrection headed by his son; who, in token of penance, ever after wore round his body an iron chain.

Not far hence are the relics of the Torwood, noted for having been the refuge of the famous Wallace. Some remains of an oak, under which the hero is said to have reposed, are still pointed out with great veneration.

#### CLACKMANNAN and KINROSS.

Contiguous to Stirlingshire, on the north-east, lie the two small shires of Clackmannan and Kinross. The town of Clackmannan is pleasantly situated on a hill, sloping on every side. On the summit stands the castle, which commands a noble view. This place was long the residence of the chief of the Bruces; and the large square tower is called after the name of Robert Bruce, whose great sword and casque are still preserved here. The hill is beautifully wooded, and, with the tower, forms a picturesque object.

Kinross is a small town, but tolerably well-built, and has a good market. It is situated near Loch-Leven, a magnificent piece of water, about twelve miles in circumference. In this lake are dispersed some islands, one of which is large enough to feed several head of cattle: but the most remarkable is that distinguished by the captivity of Mary queen of Scots, which stands almost in the middle of the lake.



lake. The castle still remains, consisting of a square tower, a small yard, with two round towers, a chapel, and the ruins of a building, where, it is said, the unfortunate princess was lodged. In the square tower is a dungeon, with a vaulted room above, over which had been three other stories. This castle had been originally a feat of the Culdees.

At the west end of the lake stands a beautiful house, erected by Sir William Bruce, surveyor-general of the works in the reign of Charles II. and remarkable for his excellent taste in architecture.

The town of Culros, on the borders of Perthshire, is also distinguished for a magnificent house, built about the year 1590, by Edward lord Kinlois, better known in England by the name of lord Bruce, slain in the noted duel between him and Sir Edward Sackville. Here are still to be seen the remains of the Cistercian abbey, founded by Malcolm earl of Fife, in 1217. This is a royal borough, and famous for making girdles, or round plates of iron, on which, in Scotland, the inhabitants bake their oaten cakes.

Alloa is situated on the Frith of Forth, and is a well-built town, with rows of trees planted along the principal street. In the harbour ships of burden may ride with safety. This town contains about five thousand inhabitants; and its trade is very considerable, particularly in coal, of which it is said to export annually above forty thousand tons.

At this place the late earl of Mar had a fine seat, formerly called the Castle of Alloa, which has been completely modernized by the proprietor. The gardens belonging to it are the finest in Scotland, consisting of about forty acres of ground; contiguous to which is a wood, above three times as much in extent, and well laid out in avenues and vistas adapted to the house.

### C H A P. III.

*Fife, and Forfar.*

### F I F E.

**P**ASSING the river Forth eastward, we enter the Roman Caledonia, the name anciently appropriated to the country on the north of this river, and arrive in the shire of Fife. This district is said to have received its appellation from Fyfus, surnamed Duffus, to whom it was granted by king Kenneth II. for his valour against the Picts, about the year 840. His descendants were first called thanes of Fife, and afterwards created earls by Malcolm II. about the middle of the eleventh century. This county is not only fertile, but one of the most populous in Britain, if we except the environs of London; the whole coast from Crail to Culros, about forty miles, being one continued chain of towns and villages.

The chief town is Cowper, lying about the middle of the district, pleasantly situated on the bank of the river Eden. It is a royal borough, but from its interior situation, less flourishing than several other towns in the shire. The first of those that we meet, in coasting the shire, is the borough of Innerkeithing, an

ancient walled town, large and populous, with a spacious harbour, but which has some time been much neglected. Eastward, at a small distance from each other, lie the towns of Dunibrisil, Aberdour, Burntisland, Kinghorn, and Kirkaldie. At Doctan, about four miles from the latter, stands an ancient column, said to have been erected in memory of a victory obtained over the Danes in 874, under the leaders Hungar and Hubba, by the Scots, commanded by king Constantine II. The stone is between six and seven foot high, and mortised at the bottom into another. It is now much defaced by time, but two rude figures of men on horseback are still discernible; and on the other sides may be traced a running pattern of ornament.

Bryond Kirkaldie, and likewise situated on the coast, lie the towns of Dyfart, Pittenweem, Anstruther-Wester, Anstruther-Easter, Kilzenny, Crail, and St. Andrew's.

The city of St. Andrew's is one of the most ancient, and had formerly been one of the most flourishing towns in Scotland; but it is now prodigiously decayed. According to the authority of legend, St. Andrew's owes its origin to a singular accident. St. Regulus, or St. Rule, a Greek of Achaia, was warned by a vision to leave his native country, and visit Albion, an island placed in the remotest part of the world; and to take with him the arm-bone, three fingers, and three toes of St. Andrew. He obeyed, and setting sail with his companions, after a difficult navigation, was, in 370, at length shipwrecked on the coasts of Otholania, in the territory of Hargustus, king of the Picts. The king, on hearing of the arrival of the pious strangers, with their precious relics, gave orders for their reception; and presenting the saint with his own palace, built near it the church, which to this day bears the name of Regulus.

This place was then styled Mucrofs, or the Land of Boars. All round was forest; and the lands bestowed on the saint were called Byrehid. The boars equalled in size the Erymanthian; in proof of which, two tusks were chained to the altar of St. Andrew's, each sixteen inches long, and four thick.

On entering the west part of this town, a well-built street, strait, and of vast length, presents itself, but so unfrequented, and overgrown with grass, as to excite the idea of its having been laid waste by the pestilence. This extraordinary desolation was owing to the fury of the reformers in 1559, who in one day demolished the most magnificent buildings in the city, which has never since recovered its ancient splendor.

The cathedral here was founded in 1161, by bishop Arnold, but was not completed till the year 1318. Its length from east to west was three hundred and seventy-two foot, and that of the transept three hundred and twenty-two. Of this superb pile nothing remains but part of the east and west ends, and the south side. Near the east end is the chapel of St. Regulus, a singular edifice. The tower is a square of twenty foot each side, and a hundred and three high. The body of the chapel remains, but the two side chapels are demolished. The arches of the windows and doors

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are round, some even form more than semicircles; a mode of building which affords convincing proof of their great antiquity.

On the east side of the city are the small remains of the castle, on a rock overlooking the sea. This fortress was founded in 1403, by bishop Trail, who was buried near the high altar of the cathedral, with this singular epitaph:

*Hic fuit ecclesie directa columna, sensu  
Lucida, thuribulum redolens, campana sonora.*

In the church of St. Nicholas is a very magnificent monument to the memory of archbishop Sharp, who was murdered four miles from the city in 1675. In the lower part is represented the manner of his death; in the middle the prelate is placed kneeling, the mitre and crozier falling from him; an angel is substituting, instead of the first, a crown of glory, with the allusive words, *pro mitra*; and above is the bas relief of a falling church, supported by the figure of the archbishop.

In the church of St. Salvator is a beautiful tomb of bishop Kennedy, who died in 1466. The Gothic work is uncommonly elegant. Within the tomb were discovered six magnificent maces, which had been concealed here in troublesome times. With these are shewn some silver arrows, to which are affixed large silver plates, containing the arms and names of the noble youth, victors in the annual competitions in the art of archery, which have been dropt but a few years ago.

The university of this city was founded in 1411, by bishop Wardlaw. It consisted once of three colleges, namely, St. Salvator's, St. Leonard's, and the New, or St. Mary's college. St. Salvator's was founded in 1458, by Bishop Kennedy. This is a handsome building in the form of a quadrangle, containing a court. On one side is the church; on another the library, in which is Fordun's manuscript of the Scotch history; the third contains apartments for students; and the fourth is unfinished.

St. Leonard's was founded by prior Hepburn, in 1512. This is now united with the preceding; the buildings being sold, and converted into private houses.

The New college was established by archbishop Hamilton, in 1553; but the house was built by James, and David Bethune, or Beaton, who did not live to complete it. This is said to have been the site of an eminent school, long before the establishment of the colleges.

The university is governed by a chancellor, an office originally vested in the archbishop of St. Andrew's; but since the Reformation, he is elected by the two principals, and professors of both the colleges.

The city of St. Andrew's is about a mile in circumference, and contains three principal streets. The inhabitants at present hardly exceed two thousand; but that it once was much more populous is evident from the number of bakers, of whom, though there now be only ten, there are said to have been between sixty and seventy in the days of its splendor. The trade of this place was also formerly very considerable.

No. 43.

During the usurpation of Cromwell, sixty or seventy ships belonged to this port: but at present there is only one that deserves the name of a trading vessel.

The harbour is artificial, guarded by piers, with a narrow entrance to afford shelter to vessels from a rough sea. The ancient manufactures of this place are now reduced to one, viz. that of golf-balls; which, trifling as it may seem, maintains several persons. The trade, we are informed, is commonly fatal to the artists; for the balls are made by stuffing a great quantity of feathers into a leathern case, by the means of an iron rod, with a wooden handle; pressed against the breast, which seldom fails to be injured in such a manner that the person at length becomes consumptive.

Dumfermline is situated four miles from the Frith, on a rising ground, beautifully diversified with low and well cultivated hills. A thousand looms are employed in the town and neighbourhood, in the manufacture of damasks, diapers, checks and ticking, of which it is said here is annually made to the amount of forty thousand pound. This trade has rendered the town so flourishing, that the inhabitants are computed between six and seven thousand, tho' twelve years ago they did not exceed half the number.

This is a royal borough, and from very remote times had been occasionally the residence of the Scottish kings. Malcolm Canmore lived here, in a castle on the top of an insulated hill, in the midst of the glyn; but only some small fragments of this building now remain. On the side next the town, was afterwards built a palace, which falling to decay, was rebuilt by Anne of Denmark, as appears by the following inscription: *Propyleum & superstructas adis vetustate & injuriis temporum collapsas dirutasque; a fundamentis in hanc ampliore formam, restituit & instauravit Anna regina Frederici Danorum regis augustissimi filia: Anno salutis 1600.* The ruins of this building are magnificent. Here this princess brought forth the unfortunate Charles I. and in a house in the town is shewn the bed in which he was born.

Contiguous to the royal residence stands the magnificent abbey begun by Malcolm Canmore, and finished by Alexander I. It was probably first intended for a religious infirmary, being styled in some old manuscripts *Monasterium ab monte infirmorum*. David I. converted it into an abbey, and brought to it thirteen monks from Canterbury; but previous to the dissolution it supported twenty-six. Its endowments at this period were very considerable, the revenue in money alone being two thousand five hundred and thirteen pounds Scots. Some of the grants were singular: that of David I. gives it the tythe of all the gold found in Fife and Fotherif; another from the same king invests it with part of the seals taken near Kinghorn; and a grant by Malcolm IV. gives it the heads (except the tongues) of certain small whales, called crespeis, which might be taken in such parts of Scotch water (the Frith of Forth) where the church stood. The oil extracted from them was to be applied to the use of the abbey.

The remains of this edifice are considerable, and

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evince its former grandeur. The window of the room, called Frater-hall, near the gateway, which separated this building from the palace, is very beautiful. The abbot's house is adjacent. The whole abbey, except the church and cells, was burnt down in 1303, by Edward I. who pleaded in excuse of his sacrilege, that it afforded a retreat to his enemies.

Part of the church is at present in use. It is supported by three rows of maffy pillars, hardly feventeen foot high, and thirteen and a half in circumference. Two are ribbed spirally, and two marked with zig-zag lines, in the manner of thofe at Durham. The arches are round, in the Saxon ftyle. Here Malcolm and his queen, with fix other kings, lie buried; the firft two apart, and the others under as many flat ftones, each nine foot long.

Under the pulpit in this church, is faid to lie the body of the great king Robert Bruce, whose heart, according to his direction, was fent to be interred in the Holy Land.

Here alfo is the tomb of Robert Pitcairn, abbot, or rather commendator, of Dumfermline, and fecretary of ftate in the minority of James VI. He is diftinguifhed by the following epitaph.

*Hic citus eſt heros modica Robertus in urna  
Pitcarnus, patriæ columnæque suæ:  
Quem virtus, gravitas generoſo peſtore digna  
Ornabant vera & cum pietate fides.  
Poſt varios vitæ fluctus jam mole reliſta  
Corporis, elyſium pergit in umbra nemus.*

Between Dumfermline and the ſhore are ſituated the lime-kilns, belonging to the earl of Elgin, the greateſt perhaps in the univerſe; placed amidſt inex- hauſtible beds of lime-ftone, and near immense ſeams of coal. The kilns range in a ſtraight line, with their openings beneath a covered way, formed by arches and pillars in front, into a magnificent colonnade. They lie beneath the ſtrata of lime-ftone, which, when broken, is conveyed into them by a number of rail-roads. For ſhipping the lime, either burnt or crude, a convenient pier has been erected. A hundred and twenty men are conſtantly employed in this work; and a little town is built for them.

Falkland is ſituated about the diſtance of eight or ten miles from Dumfermline, at the bottom of Lo- mond-hill, and is a neat little town, reſembling Woodſtock in Oxfordſhire. It is a borough corporate, of which the king is always provoft. Here ſtood one of the ſeats of the Macduffs, earls of Fife. On the attainder of Murdo Stuart, the ſeventeenth earl, in 1424, it became forfeited to the crown, and was afterwards much improved by James V. From the part that remains, its former magnificence is evident. The whole ſtructure, which is of great length, is built of hewn ſtone; and the front of it was adorned with ſtatues, heads in bas relief, and elegant columns, not reducible to any order, but of fine proportion, with capitals approaching the Ionic. The gateway is placed between two fine round towers. On the right hand is the chapel, the roof of which is of wood, handſomely gilt and painted, but now in a ruinous

condition. Beneath are ſeveral apartments, ſome of which are at preſent inhabited.

This place was alſo a favourite reſidence of James VI. on account of the fine park, and plenty of deer. The eaſt-ſide was accidentally burnt in the time of Charles II. and the park was deſtroyed during Crom- well's uſurpation, when the fine oaks were cut down in order to build the port at Perth.

In the old caſtle, David duke of Rotheſay, ſon to Robert III. was cruelly ſtarved to death by the vil- lany of his uncle the duke of Albany. For ſome time his life was ſupported by the charity of two women; one of whom ſupplied him with oaten cakes, conveyed through the priſon grates; the other, a wet-nurſe, with milk, conveyed by means of a pipe. Both of them were detected, and barbarouſly put to death.

Near the palace are ſeveral houſes, built and be- ſtowed by James VI. on his attendants, who have re- corded his liberality by grateful inſcriptions.

Of this palace and the adjoining park the duke of Athol is hereditary keeper.

Within a few miles of Falkland lies Melvil, a handſome ſeat belonging to the earl of Leven. In the garden is a ſquare tower, one of the ſummer re- treats of cardinal Beaton; and near it is Cardan's well, named from that celebrated phyſician, who was invited thither in 1552, to preſcribe for Hamilton, archbiſhop of St Andrew's, on his having been ſeized with an aſthma. Cardan effected his cure; and, by caſting the nativity of his patient, is ſaid to have fore- told the ignominious fate by which he died. The prelate was afterwards hanged on a tree at Stirling, and the following cruel ſarcaſm compoſed on the occaſion.

*Vive diu, felix arbor, ſemperque vireto  
Frondibus, ut nobis talia poma feras.*

In a field near the village of Lundie, are three vaſt upright ſtones; the largeſt is ſixteen foot high, and its ſolid contents two hundred and ſeventy. There are fragments of three others; but ſo ſituated that it is impoſſible to form any conjecture of their original diſpoſition. Near this place the Danes met with a conſiderable defeat from the Scots, under the conduct of Macbeth and Banquo. It is therefore pro- bable that thoſe ſtones are monuments of the victory.

A great part of this county abounds in collieries, where may be obſerved a multitude of circular holes, ſurrounded with a mound, and filled with water. Theſe are called coal-heughs, and were once the ſpi- racles or vent holes to the pits, before the art of min- ing was well known. The ſtrata of coal are of great thickneſs, ſome at leaſt nine yards. Many of the beds have been on fire above two centuries. The vio- lence of the conflagration has now ceaſed, but it ſtill continues in a certain degree; as is evident in time of ſnow, which melts in ſtreams on the ſurface wherever there are any ſiffures.

Towards the junction of Fife and Strathern, not far from the road, is Mugdrum Crofs, an upright pillar, with ſculpture on each ſide, much defaced; but ſtill may be traced the figures of horſemen, and

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beneath them those of some animals. Near this place stood the cross of the famous Macduff,thane of Fife; of which nothing but the pedestal has been left for above a century past. On it are said to be inscribed certain *macaronic*, or half Latin verses, which Mr. Cunningham, who wrote an essay on the cross, translates into a grant of Malcolm Canmore, to the earl of Fife; of several emoluments and privileges. Among others he allows it to be a sanctuary to any of Macduff's kindred, within the ninth degree, who shall be acquitted of any manslaughter, on flying to this cross, and paying nine cows and a heifer.

Near Balvaird, was formerly a rocking stone, esteemed a remarkable curiosity. Being broken by Oliver Cromwell's soldiers, its motion was found to have been performed by an egg-shaped protuberance of its under surface, at the middle, which was inserted in a cavity of a flat stone that lay under it. The vast bulk of the upper stone, which was globular, assisted by two or three surrounding flat stones, so effectually concealed the cause of the motion, that the phenomenon was regarded as miraculous, and frequently used as an engine of judicial trick, during the times of superstition and priestcraft.

Near the south-east extremity of Fife lies the island of May, about a mile in length, inaccessible on the western side. This place was famous in former times for the shrine of St. Adrian, the frequent resort of barren women; but the only constant inhabitant at present is said to be the man who attends the lighthouse established by government on the island.

#### F O R F A R.

Crossing the river Tay from Fife, we enter the shire of Forfar or Angus, a part of Scotland likewise remarkable for its fertility. Here stands Dundee, a well-built town, situated on the estuary of the Tay, and said to contain near fourteen thousand inhabitants. The streets are large and handsome, and the marketplace one of the finest in Scotland. The town-house is also a fine building; and a church has lately been erected in a style of great elegance. The old church here appears to have been extremely magnificent, from the remains of the choir, which is still used as a place of worship; but the body of the ancient cathedral being destroyed, its Gothic tower, a venerable and superb structure, is now left standing by itself.

The town lying at a little distance from the river, they are joined by a causeway or wall, well-paved with flat free-stone. Rows of trees are planted on each side; and on one part of this wall are good warehouses. The manufactures and trade of this town are very considerable. The former consists of linen, especially Osnaburghs, sail-cloth, cordage, thread, thread-sockings, buckrams, tanned leather, and shoes, for the London market; besides hats and sugar, which are now made here in great quantities. About forty years ago here was a manufacture of coarse woollen cloth, called plaiden, which was exported undressed, to Sweden, Germany, and the United Provinces, for clothing the troops of those

countries; but this branch of trade was superseded by that of Osnaburghs, which are now the staple of the country. These are shipped for London, Newcastle, Leith, Burrowstoness, and Glasgow, whence they are sent to the West-Indies and America, for the cloathing of the slaves. To the same places are also exported thread, soap, shoes, leather, and sadlery goods. To Sweden and Norway are sent potatoes, and dressings of flax; in times of plenty, when exportation is allowed, corn, meal, and flour. The salmon taken near Broughty-Castle is sent to Holland.

In respect of imports, this town receives from North-America, Russia, Memel and Dantzick, Sweden, Norway, Spain, and Portugal, the usual exports of those countries; and from Holland, undrest flax, for the manufacture of thread and fine linens, pot-ashes, lin-seed, clover-seed, old iron and madder, for the use of dyers.

This town was the birth-place of the celebrated HeGor Boetius, the Scotch historian.

In the interior part of this district, westward, lies Forfar, the county-town, which contains about two thousand inhabitants. Here, and in the neighbourhood, are considerable manufactures of linens, from four pence to seven pence a yard, computed to amount annually to twenty thousand pounds. No vestiges now remain of the castle, which stood on a small hill near the town; and the lake, which is said to have once surrounded the place, has been of late years considerably reduced by draining; for the sake of obtaining the fine marle which lies at the bottom. This manure is found in strata from three to ten foot thick. The land improved with it yields four crops successively: after which it is laid down with barley and clover.

About a mile north of Forfar stood the cell or priory of Restennot, dependent on the abbey of Jedburgh. It was situated in a lake, and accessible only by a draw-bridge; on which account the monks of Jedburgh deposited here their papers, and all their valuable effects.

In the neighbourhood of Forfar is a moor, noted for being the scene of a battle in the year 831, between the Picts and Scots, when the latter, commanded by Alpin, obtained the victory; in memory of which a great cairn, or heap of stones, called Picts Cairnley, has been raised near the spot. The base is said to have been once surrounded with a range of great upright columns; but there remains only one, which is eleven foot high, seven broad, and eighteen in circumference.

Five miles farther is the castle of Glamis, the feat of the earl of Strathmore. The ancient buildings here appear to have been of great extent. The whole consisted of two long courts, in each of which was a square tower, and a gateway beneath. In the buildings that divided the two courts stood a third tower, which constitutes the present house, the rest being totally destroyed. This has received many alterations, by the addition of little round turrets, with grotesque roofs; and by a great round tower in one angle, in order

order to contain the curious stair-case, which is spiral; one end of the steps resting on a light hollow pillar, continued to the upper story.

This place is celebrated in history for the murder of Malcolm II. who was assassinated in a passage that is still shewn to strangers. Here also remains the venerable seat of poetry, where the bards used to sing the heroisms of their patron and his ancestors.

At this place are to be seen some old carved stones, one of which, in the church-yard, is supposed to have been erected in memory of the assassination of king Malcolm, and is called his grave-stone. On one point is a cross; on the upper part is some wild beast, and opposite to it a centaur. Beneath, in a separate compartment, is the head of a wolf; these animals denoting the barbarity of the conspirators. In a different compartment are two persons shaking hands, each holding in their other hand a battle-ax. On the reverse of the stone are represented an eel and another fish. This alludes to the fate of the murderers, who fled immediately on perpetrating the horrid act. The road being at that time covered with snow, they lost the path, and went on to the lake of Forfar, which happened to be frozen over, but not sufficiently strong to bear their weight; the ice therefore broke, and they all perished. This fact is confirmed by the weapons lately found in draining the lake, particularly a battle-ax, of a form like those represented in the sculpture. Several brass pots and pans were found at the same time, conjectured to be part of the plunder which the assassins carried off with them.

Two miles to the south-west of Glamis lies the castle of Denoon, seated on an eminence environed with steep rocks, and almost inaccessible. On the north are two or three rows of terraces. It is of a semicircular form, encompassed with a stupendous wall of stone and earth, twenty-seven foot high, and thirty thick. The circuit is three hundred and thirty-two yards. The entrances are on the south-east and the north-west. Within the area are vestiges of buildings; and there is a tradition that there was a spring in the middle.

Northward from Dundee, near the road, stands the church of St. Vigan, a Gothic building supported by pillars, with aisles on each side, and situated on a green mount in the midst of a valley. This church has so fine an echo, that it repeats distinctly a hexameter verse.

The shore in this port is high, bold, and rocky, and often excavated with vast hollows, of which is a great variety; some open to the sea with a narrow mouth, internally widening into lofty spacious vaults, which run in a winding course so far, that the extremity has never yet been traced; others of those caves present a magnificent entrance, divided in the middle by a vast column, forming two arches of a height and grandeur that infinitely exceed the work of art in the noblest of the Gothic cathedrals. The most astonishing of all is the cavern, called the Geylit Pot: there may a traveller make a considerable subterraneous voyage, enjoying a picturesque scenery

of rock above, and on every side. He may, we are told, be rowed in this solemn scene, till he finds himself in a circular chasm open to the day, with a narrow bottom and extensive top, widening at the margin to two hundred foot in diameter. On gaining the summit, he emerges unexpectedly among corn-fields at a distance from the sea.

In many places on this shore, the cliffs are likewise remarkable for their appearance. Peninsulated rocks of stupendous height jut frequently from their front, with abrupt precipices on all sides, and washed by a great depth of water. The isthmus that joins them to the land is so narrow, as to allow only two or three persons to pass abreast; but the tops of the rocks spread into verdant areas, containing vestiges of rude fortifications, in ancient times the retreat of the neighbouring inhabitants from a too powerful invader.

Montrose is seated partly on an isthmus, partly on a peninsula, bounded on one side by the German ocean, and on the other by a large bay. It is a well-built town, consisting chiefly of one large street, of considerable breadth, terminated at one end by the town-house, a handsome edifice, with convenient and elegant apartments for the assemblies of the magistrates. The houses are of stone, and, like those in Flanders, often with their gable ends towards the streets. The town contains about six thousand inhabitants, among whom are many genteel families. Here are very flourishing manufactures of sail-cloth, coarse and fine linen, lawns and cambricks, diapers, Osnaburghs, besides thread, which is spun not only in the town but the adjacent country.

Brechin is an ancient royal borough, situated on the bank of the river North-Esk, over which is a stately bridge of two arches. The town consists of one large, handsome street, with two smaller; and has a moderate share in the coarse linen manufacture. This place was formerly a rich bishoprick, founded by David I. about the year 1150. The cathedral is a Gothic pile, supported by twelve pillars. It is in length a hundred and sixty-six foot, and in breadth sixty-one: part is ruinous, and part serves as the parish-church. The west-end of the aisle is yet entire. The arch of the door is ornamented with many mouldings; and the steeple is a handsome tower, a hundred and twenty-foot high. At a small distance from the aisle stands one of those singular round towers, which have so much exercised the conjectures of antiquaries. The Culdees had here a convent; and here was also an hospital, called Maison de Dieu, founded in 1256, by William de Brechin, for the repose of the souls of the kings William and Alexander, and some other eminent persons. From the walls, which are yet standing, it appears to have been an elegant little building. Of the castle of Brechin, which underwent a long siege in the year 1303, no vestiges now remain.

This place is memorable for a great victory obtained over the Danes, by the chief of the family of Keith, earl marshal, who, having killed the Danish general, was advanced to great honours by

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Malcolm II. Over the grave of the invader was erected a high stone, with some antique letters and sculpture, still called Camus's cross, from his name. At the distance of ten miles is a similar monument, over the grave of another Danish warrior.

Not far hence stands the ruined castle of Finhaven, once the seat of the Lindseys, earls of Crawford. A few years ago here was a Spanish chestnut-tree of a vast size, the circumference of which, near the ground, measured forty-two foot eight inches.

Above the castle is the hill of Finhaven, a great ridge, with a vast extensive hollow in the top. Along the edges are huge masses of stone, strongly cemented by a lava, or a femivitrified substance. These masses appear to be each of a ton weight. They have been procured out of the hill, and were placed as a defence to the inclosed area, which had anciently been a British post. Mr. Pennant is of opinion that this hill is the effect of a volcano. At one end of the hollow are two great apertures of a funnel shape, the craters, as is supposed, through which the matter had been ejected. One of them is sixty foot in diameter, and above thirty deep. It had once been much deeper, but was from time to time rendered more shallow by the flinging in of stones, to prevent the loss which arose from cattle frequently falling into it. On both sides of the hill are found, in digging, great quantities of burnt earth, that serves all the purposes of the *pulvis puteolanus*, so frequent in countries that abound with volcanoes.

Near the bottom of the hill stands Aberlemni, where are some curious carved stones, supposed to have been erected in memory of some victories over the Danes.

At the distance of a few miles from Brechin, is a range of black heathy hills, one of which is divided into two summits, the higher named the White, and the lower the Black Cater-thun, from their different colours. Both were Caledonian posts, and the former was of uncommon strength. It is a stupendous dyke of an oval figure, composed of loose white stones, the convexity from the base within to that without, being a hundred and twenty-two foot. The whole is surrounded by a deep ditch; and at the distance of a hundred yards are the vestiges of another, that went round the hill. The area within the stony mound is flat; the length of the oval being four hundred and thirty-six yards; and the transverse diameter two hundred. Near the east-side is the foundation of a rectangular building; and on most parts are the foundations of others, small and circular. There is also a hollow, which had once been a well, now almost filled with stones.

The other is called Black, from the colour of the ramparts, which are composed only of earth. It is of a circular form, consisting of various eccentric dykes. On one side of it issues a small stream, which running down the hill, has formed a deep gully. From the side of the fortrefs stretches another rampart, which extends parallel to the stream, and then reverts, forming an additional place of strength.

Not far from this range of hills are three Roman camps, the vestiges of which, however, are difficult

to be traced. It is supposed they were occupied by Agricola; and that before one of them he drew up his forces to receive the enemy. Of these is one at Ruthie near Brechin, a second near Caerhoddo, between Forfar and Panmure; and a third called Battledikes, near Kennymoor.

## C H A P. IV.

*The Shires of Perth, Argyle, and Inverness.*

PROCEEDING westward from Angus we enter Perthshire, an extensive county lying in the middle of Scotland; and on its borders, our notice is attracted by Belmont, the seat of the right hon. Stuart Mackenzie. In the environs of this place lay the last scene of the tragedy of Macbeth. Here is shewn his tumulus, called Belly Duff, or, as Mr. Pennant conjectures, rather the memorial of his fall; for to tyrants he observes, no such respect was paid. The same ingenious traveller remarks, that, from the final syllable, it more probably has been intended as a monument to perpetuate the memory of the gallant Mac Duff. It is a verdant mount, surrounded by two terraces, with a cap at top, shaded by broad-leaved laburnums, of great antiquity.

In a field on the other side of the house is a monument to the memory of the brave young Seward, who was slain on the spot by Macbeth. It consists of a stupendous stone, twelve foot high above ground, and eighteen foot and a half in girth in the thickest part. Below the surface of the earth it reaches only two foot eight inches. The weight is computed at upwards of twenty tons; and what must increase our idea of the pains which were bestowed in those times on erecting monuments, no stone of the kind is to be found within twenty miles. Near it is a small tumulus, called Duff's-know, where some other commander is supposed to have fallen; and the church-yard abounds in monuments, adorned with hieroglyphic columns, and a variety of ancient sculpture.

On quitting Belmont we pass beneath the famous hill of Dunfinnan, on the south-side of Strathmore; on the summit of which stood the castle, the residence of Macbeth, full in view of Birnham wood, on the opposite side of the plain. No place could be better adapted for the seat of a jealous tyrant: the sides are steep, and of the most difficult ascent; and the summit commands an extensive view. Now, however, there are no remains of this celebrated fortrefs; the site of it is a verdant area, of an oval form, fifty-four yards by thirty, and surrounded by two deep ditches. On the north is a hollow road cut through the rock, leading up to the entry, which lies on the north-east, facing a deep narrow chasm, between this and an adjacent hill. To assist in fortifying this place, Macbeth summoned the thanes from all parts of the kingdom; when Mac Duff alone refusing to comply with the order, the enraged tyrant threatened to put round his neck the yoke that was on the oxen which were labouring up the side of the hill.

A little to the eastward is a hill, called the King's

Seat, commanding a more extensive view than Dun-sinnan, and where tradition reports that Macbeth used to sit, as on a watch-tower.

The capital of this county is the city of Perth, which is situated between two green plains, called Inches, on the south bank of the river Tay, over which here is a fine bridge lately erected. The town consists of three long streets, and several others running across; and on every side, except towards the river, it is surrounded by an old wall, now in ruins. It was formerly called Johnston, or St. John's Town, from an old church dedicated to the evangelist St. John, which yet remains, and is so large as to make two parochial churches. The ancient city having been destroyed by an inundation of the Tay, an adjoining spot was chosen for the site of the new town. Here formerly was a magnificent abbey, often the residence of the kings, and the place in which James I. was barbarously assassinated.

The chief business of this town is the manufacture of white and brown linens, of which about seventy-five thousand pounds worth is annually sent to London, besides a great quantity that is disposed of at Edinburgh and Glasgow. It is computed that London and Glasgow take likewise every year about ten thousand pounds worth of linen yarn.

Lintseed-oil, likewise, forms a considerable branch of its commerce. Seven water-mills belonging to this place are in full employ, and make, at an average, near three hundred tons of oil, which is chiefly sent to London, and brings in annually from eight to nine thousand pounds.

The exports of wheat and barley are from twenty-four to thirty thousand bolls.

Considerable quantities of tallow, bees-wax, dressed sheep-skins, dressed and raw calves-skins, and raw goats-skins, are also shipped from this place; and the exports of salmon to London and the Mediterranean are valued from twelve to fourteen thousand pounds a year. Three thousand of this fish have been caught in one morning, weighing, one with another, sixteen pounds a-piece.

The river is navigable to the town for ships of good burden; and the bridge over it is the most beautiful structure of the kind in North Britain. Its length is nine hundred foot. It consists of nine arches, of which that in the centre is seventy-five foot in diameter. Several preceding bridges had been built at this place, but were successively washed away by the violence of the floods.

About a mile and a half from Perth, on the north side of the river, stands the celebrated palace of Scone, situated amidst beautiful woods, and at a small distance from the river. This is supposed by some to have been the capital of the Picts; but it certainly was the seat of the kings of Scotland as early as the time of Kenneth, and the place where all the succeeding monarchs of the country were usually crowned. The building is large, as are also the royal apartments, and, though ancient, yet not much decayed. The front extends in length about two hundred foot,

and there are two fine courts, besides two others, containing offices, outhouses, &c.

The celebrated wooden chair, with the stone in it, was brought thence by Edward I. and placed in Westminster-abbey, where it has ever since remained. The removal of this stone, which had been superstitiously regarded as the palladium of the Scottish kings, was beheld by the nation with universal regret; but the success of the royal line of Scotland to the English crown, in the person of king James, verified the following prophetic distich, which had for ages been applied by the people to this venerated object of their attachment.

*Ni fallat fatum, Scoti, quocunque locatum  
Invenient lapidem, regnare tenentur ibidem.*

This stone is said to have been first dignified by Kenneth, who having here fought a bloody battle with the Picts, in which they were totally defeated, sat down to rest himself upon it; when his nobles, in the height of their congratulation, crowned him with a garland of victory. The stone was henceforth dedicated to the coronation of the kings of Scotland, as a happy preface of their prosperity.

Here is still to be seen the mound on which the courts of justice were held, so well known by the name of Mons Placiti de Scone, the Mote-hill of Scone.

The hereditary keeper of this palace is the viscount of Stormont.

Within a few miles of Perth, in a very fertile tract, is Loncarty, celebrated for the signal victory obtained by the Scots, under Kenneth III. over the Danes, by means of the gallant peasant Hay, and his two sons, who, with no other weapons than yokes, which they snatched from their oxen then at plough, first put a stop to the flight of their countrymen, and afterwards led them on to conquest. Tradition relates, that the monarch gave this deliverer of his country, in reward, as much land as a greyhound would run over in a certain time, or a falcon would surround in its flight; and the story says that he chose the latter. The noble families of Hay derive their descent from this rustic hero; and, in memory of the action, bear for their arms the instruments of the victory, with the allusive motto, *Sub jugo*.

In the adjacent fields is a number of tumuli, in which are frequently found bones, and entire skeletons, some lodged in rude coffins, formed of stones, and others deposited only in the earth. In one place is a stone standing upright, supposed to mark the spot where the Danish leader was buried. The present names of the places on the plain seem to allude to the action, and the vanquished enemy. Turn-again-hillock probably points out the place where the Scots rallied, and a spot near eight tumuli, called Danemark, may denote the place of greatest slaughter.

Not far hence, on the banks of a small rill, are vestiges of an encampment, as is supposed, of the Danes, and to have been called, from those invaders, Gally-Burn, or the Burn of the Strangers.

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Three miles westward of Perth lies the Moor of Methwin, noted for being the scene of a battle between Robert Bruce and Aymer de Valence, earl of Pembroke, in 1306.

Near this place, on the bank of the river Almond, were interred the fair friends, Bessie Bell and Mary Gray, two neighbouring beauties, celebrated in a well-known Scotch ballad, composed by a lover, who was deeply stricken with the charms of both. One was the daughter of the laird of Rinvaid, the other of the laird of Lednoch. A pestilence that raged in 1666, determined them to retire from the danger. They selected a romantic and sequestered spot, on the side of Brauchie-burn, where

They bigged a bower on yon burn brae,  
And thick'd it o'er with rushes.

Here they lived for some time, and, as should seem, without jealousy; for they received the visits of their lover, till, catching the infection, they both died, and were interred in the lands of Lednoch, at Dro-nach-haugh.

Suspending our progress to the north and west, till we have taken a short view of the south part of Perthshire, we shall proceed to Dumblain. This town is pleasantly situated on the bank of the river Allan, four miles north of Stirling. It was made a bishoprick by king David I. and the ruins of the bishop's and canons houses are yet to be seen, as are also those of a church, of excellent workmanship. Here is a public library, bequeathed to the town by one of the bishops, with an endowment for its support.

At Ardoch, about six miles north of this town, are the vestiges of a Roman camp, the trenches of which, and the prætorium, are extremely conspicuous. Farther north are two others, one at Stragith, and the other at Comerie. In the latter is seen a multitude of oblong hollows, lying parallel to each other, and separated by banks three foot wide, on the outside of the northern agger. Mr. Pennant, at whose desire the ground in this part was dug, informs us that nothing was found in it but large quantities of charcoal; on which account he is of opinion that those hollows were intended for dressing the provisions of the soldiery, and that they were not places of interment, as has been formerly conjectured.

In the south-east part of the county, on the border of Fife, is the Rumbling-bridg at Glen-devon, a bridge of one arch, thrown over a chasm worn by the river Devon, about eighty foot deep, very narrow, and horrible to look down. The bottom, in many parts, is covered with fragments of rocks; in others, the waters are visible, gushing between the stones with great violence. The sides in many places project, and almost lock in each other. Trees shoot out in various spots, and contribute to increase the gloom of the scene, which resounds with the cawing of daws, the cooing of wood-pigeons, and the impetuous noise of the waters.

A mile lower down is the Cawdron-glen. Here the river, after a short fall, drops on rocks hollowed into large cylindrical cavities, open on one side, or formed

into great circular cavities, like caldrons, whence the place derives its name. One in particular has the appearance of a vast brewing-vessel, and the water, by its great agitation, has acquired a yellow scum, exactly resembling the yeasty workings of malt-liquor. Beneath this cavity, the water darts down about thirty foot, in form of a great white sheet; the rocks below widen considerably, and their cliff sides are fringed with wood.

Two miles north is Castle Campbell, seated on a steep peninsulated rock, between vast mountains, having to the south an extensive view through a deep glen, flagged with brush-wood. From its dark situation, this pile was formerly called the Castle of Gloom; and the names of the adjacent places were suitable; it stood in the parish of Dolor, was bounded by the glens of Care, and washed by the burns of Sorrow. This castle, with the whole territory, belonging to the family of Argyle, underwent all the calamities of civil war, in 1645, when the marquis of Montrose carried fire and sword through the estate. The castle was demolished, and its magnificent ruins have since remained a monument of the horror of the times.

We descend thence into Strathearn, a beautiful vale, about thirty miles in length, full of rich meadows and corn-fields, divided by the river Earn, which serpentinez finely through the middle, and falls into the Tay at the east end. It is pleasantly diversified with groves of trees and gentlemen's houses; among which, towards the west end, is Castle Drummond, the fortified seat of the earl of Perth. In its neighbourhood are situated Crieff and Muthel, the former of which is a post-town, and contains several good houses.

At the village of Innerpefferay is a good room, with a library, for the use of the neighbourhood, founded by David lord Madderty, who also left a perpetual fund for the purchase of new books.

The prospect from the hill of Moncrieff, at the east end of Strathearn, is the glory of Scotland, and justly merits the encomiums bestowed upon it for the richness and variety of its views. On the south and west extends Strathearn, embellished with the seats of lord Kinnoul, lord Rollo, and of several other gentlemen. The Carse, or rich plain of Gowrie, the Stormont hills, and the hill of Kinnoul, the vast cliff of which is remarkable for its beautiful pebbles. The delightfulness of the prospect is greatly increased by the meanders of the Earn, with the æstuary of the Tay, which is full in view, and beyond it, at a distance, the sea.

The Carse of Gowrie is a fine tract, extending in length fourteen miles, in breadth four, and remarkable for its fertility. It is covered with all sorts of corn, pease, and clover, in great perfection, intermixed with orchards, plantations, and gentlemen's seats.

At Abernethy, on the south-side of the river Earn, is an ancient round tower, uncovered. The height within is seventy-two foot; the inner diameter eight foot two inches; the thickness of the wall at top, two foot seven; at bottom three foot four; and the circumference near the ground forty-seven foot. This

place



place is supposed to have been anciently the capital of the Picts.

At a small distance from Dupplin, the seat of the earl of Kinnoul, are vestiges of a Roman road, twenty-four foot in breadth, and formed of large stones. Passing by the great plantations at Gask-hall, we have a view of a small circular intrenchment, and about half a mile farther is another, the ditch of which is eleven foot wide, and the area within the bank fifty six in diameter. Westward of this are two others, similar, placed so near as to command the view of the whole adjacent country. These are supposed to have been the site of little observatory forts, subservient to the stations established by Agricola, on his conquest of this country.

In passing beneath the vast rocks of Kinnoul, the impending craggy precipices are extremely awful. Beautiful agates are frequently found here; and in examining some fragments at the bottom of the hill, Mr. Pennant discovered a considerable quantity of lava, a proof of its having anciently been a volcano.

Proceeding along the side of the Tay, in the plain of the Stormont, we meet with a neat settlement of weavers, called from the inhabitants, Spitalfields. This country is very populous, full of spinners, and of weavers of buckrams, and coarse cloths or flannelings, of which we are informed that twelve millions of yards are exported annually from Perth. Much flax is raised here, and the country abounds in corn, which is however insufficient to supply the numerous inhabitants.

The situation of Inchstuthal, or Delvin, is very remarkable. The house stands on a flat of a hundred and fifty-four Scotch acres, regularly steep on every side, and of uniform height, about sixty foot above the great plain of Stormont, on which it stands.

From some ancient vestiges which remain, it is conjectured that the Picts had here a town. A mound of stone and earth running along the margin of the steep is in many places entire. The stones were not on the spot, but were brought from a place two miles distant, where quarries of the same kind are still in use. Another dike crosses the ground in the narrowest part, and seems to have been intended as the first defence against an enemy, after the outworks had been abandoned. Near the extremity is what may be called the citadel, consisting of a small portion of the eminence, separated from the rest by five great dikes, and as many deep fosses.

This place had also another security, of which time has long since deprived it. The river Tay once entirely environed the mount, and formed it into an island, as appears from the name Inchstuthal, which in the ancient language imports the island of Tuthel. The river at present runs on one side only, but there are plain marks, on the north in particular, of a channel, running in the direction which the Tay had taken, before it ceased to insulate this piece of ground.

Sepulchral monuments are frequent over the face of this plain. The barrows are round, not much ele-

vated, and their basis are surrounded by a foss. In some of them have been found many bones.

The natural strength of this place induced the Romans likewise to take possession of it; and notwithstanding the great change made by inclosures and agriculture, there are still vestiges of a station five hundred yards square. The side next to Delvin house is barely to be traced; and part of another borders on the margin of the bank. There is also a small square redoubt near the edge, facing the East Inch in the Tay, which covered the station on that side.

The former was once inclosed with a wall fourteen foot thick, the foundations of which are remembered by two farmers yet alive; and to the westward of this station, about thirty years ago, were discovered the vestiges of a large building. A rectangular hollow, made of brick, is still entire: it is about ten or twelve foot long, three or four foot wide, and five or six foot deep. Boethius calls the place the Tulina of the Picts; and adds, that in their time it was a very populous city, but was deserted and burnt by them on the approach of the Romans under Agricola. Mr. Pennant is of opinion, that this was the Orrea of the Romans, which the learned Stukeley, though he places it in his map north-east of the Tay, and on the very spot where the present Delvin stands, supposes to have been Perth.

Ten miles westward of Perth, on the north side of the Tay, stands the town of Dunkeld, supposed to be the Castrum Caledoniae, and the Oppidum Caledoniarum of the old writers. It is a small town, containing several good houses, and has a linen manufacture, though not very considerable. It was anciently a bishop's see, and is now chiefly noted for the stately ruins of its cathedral. The extent within is a hundred and twenty foot by sixty. The body is supported by two rows of round pillars, with squared capitals. The arches are Gothic. The choir still remains, and is used at present as a church.

At this place the duke of Athol has a fine house and gardens; and near a mile westward from the town is a rock, which retains the name of the King's Seat. Here, we are told, the Scottish monarchs usually placed themselves, for the purpose of shooting at the deer which were driven this way, for their amusement. At a hunting-match in the time of queen Mary, we are told that the highlanders drove thither, from the hills of Athol, Badenoch, Mar, and Murray, two thousand red deer, besides roes and fallow deer, of which number were killed in one day three hundred and sixty deer, and some roes, besides five wolves.

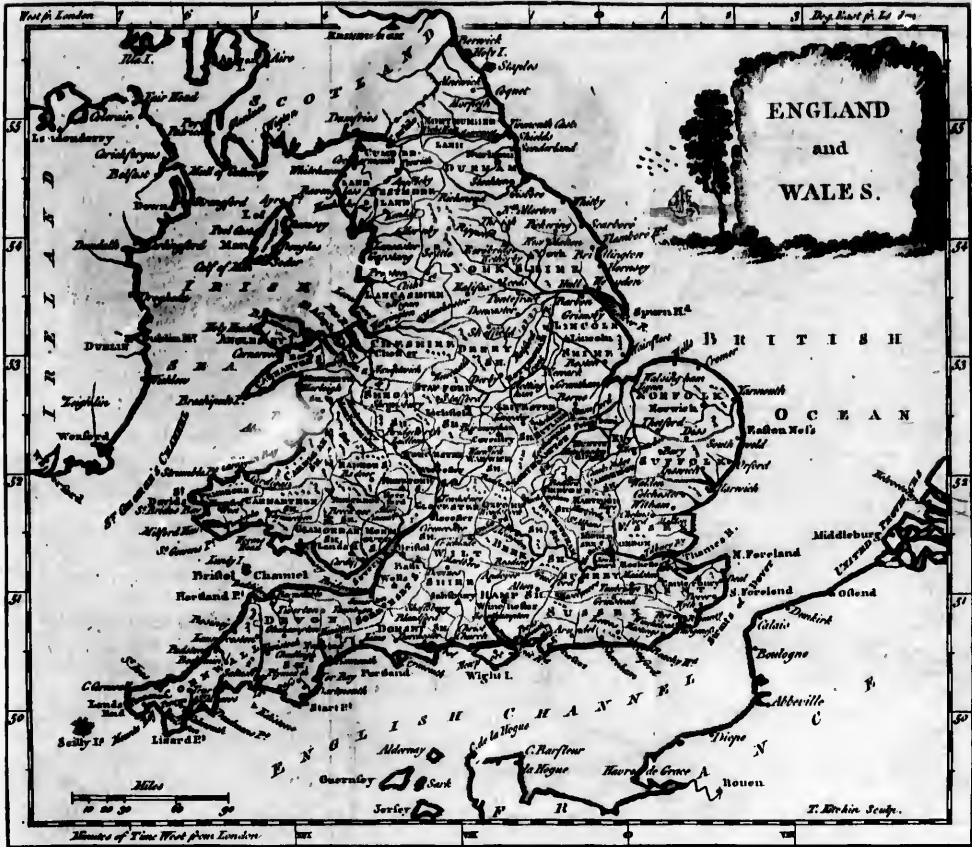
The neighbourhood of this town is extremely pleasant, and is much frequented in the summer by company, who resort thither for the drinking of goat-whey. Here we enter the Highlands, which hence stretch northward through Athol, and westward by Strath-Tay and Breadalbane.

About fourteen miles north-west of Dunkeld, is the famous pass of Gillieranky, noted for the battle between the viscount Dundee and king William's forces.



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of the hill Grianan, three miles west from Miggerny in this county. On the north-west side is a stone twenty-nine foot long, and nine thick, which supplies part of the edifice on the outside. The form of this structure is a circle, from eleven to twelve foot thick; and within the place where the great stone stands, is an additional wall, about eight foot thick. The most entire place is nine foot and a half high; and the diameter within the wall is forty-five foot. The greater part of the stones used in this building are from three to six foot long, and from one and a half to three foot thick. At no great distance from this place are situated three others, concerning which the tradition of the inhabitants is said to be expressed in these lines:

*Dá chaiséal-deug aig Feann  
An an érom gheann nér cleck.*

No. 44.

Stirling to Fort Augustus, in the North Highlands. Near it is Moness, which is remarkable for its waterfalls. A neat walk conducts you along the sides of a deep and well-wooded glen, enriched with a profusion and variety of cascades, that strike with astonishment. The first, which lies on the left, runs down a rude stair-case with numbers of landing places, and patters down the steps in a beautiful manner. Advancing along the bottom, on the right, is a deep and darksome chafin, water-worn for ages; at the end of which is a great cataract, consisting of several breaks. The rocks more properly arch than impend over it; and the whole is shaded with trees.

On ascending a zig-zag walk, we cross the first cascade, and continuing along the path, among the woods, to the top of the hill, discover from the verge of an immense precipice, another cataract, forming

place is supposed to have been the Picts.

At a small distance from the seat of the earl of Kinnoul, are two large stones, each twenty-four foot in length, and twenty-four foot in diameter. Passing by the stones, we have a view of a fine mountain, about half a mile farther, which is eleven foot wide, and fifty six in diameter. Very similar, placed so near to each other, in the whole adjacent country, has been the site of little or no habitations, the stations established of this country.

In passing beneath the mountain, the impending craggy precipices are beautiful. Beautiful agates are found, and on examining some fragments, Mr. Pennant discovered a proof of its having been a lava.

Proceeding along the side of the Stormont, we find the weavers, called from the mountain. This country is very fertile, and of weavers of buckram, and of yards are exported, which is raised here, and the which is however insufficient for the inhabitants.

The situation of it is very remarkable. The house is built on a side, and of uniform height, and the great plain of Stormont.

From some ancient remains, it is conjectured that the Picts of stone and earth run steep is in many places found on the spot, but in use. Another dike

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It is a narrow foot of water, the river Gairn is a terrible chain.

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It is a narrow road, about a mile in length, at the foot of vast woody mountains, along the bank of the river Garrie, which runs below in a deep and horrible channel.

Not far hence lies Faskelly, delightfully seated in a beautiful meadow, environed by craggy mountains that are skirted with woods. On one side it is bounded by the river Tummel, which at a small distance appears again gushing from between the wooded rocks, down a precipice of great height. Salmon annually force their passage even up this furious cataract, and are taken here in a most artless manner. A hamper fastened to a wicker rope, pinned into a cleft of the rock, is flung into the stream; and now and then a fish, in the fall from its effort to surmount the cataract, drops into the basket. At other times, the fisher throws into the stream below, a caltrop, or crow foot, fastened to a long rope. On this instrument the salmon often transfix themselves, and are drawn up to land. Another method, of much risque to the adventurer, is also sometimes practised. A person seats himself on the bank of the precipice, above the cataracts, and fixes one foot in the noose of a wicker-cord. Here, armed with a spear, he waits the leap of a salmon, and the moment the fish rises he darts his weapon, at the hazard of falling into the water by his own effort, or the struggle of his prey.

In the parish of Mouline, in this neighbourhood, on the top of a steep den, are the remains of a circular building, called the Black Castle, about sixty foot diameter within side, and the walls about eight foot thick. About a mile westward is another; and a third a little to the south; besides one in the parish of Loggierait, at the distance of some miles. Some antiquaries have conjectured that these round buildings were intended for making signals with fires in case of invasions; others think they were store-houses for concealing valuable effects on a sudden inroad of an enemy; but the former opinion is generally considered as the most probable. A chain of buildings of this kind, we are informed, may be traced in different parts towards the west sea. The most entire of these is Castal-an-dui, lying at the foot of the hill Grianan, three miles west from Miggerny in this county. On the north-west side is a stone twenty-nine foot long and nine thick, which supplies part of the edifice on the outside. The form of this structure is a circle, from eleven to twelve foot thick; and within the place where the great stone stands, is an additional wall, about eight foot thick. The most entire place is nine foot and a half high; and the diameter within the wall is forty-five foot. The greater part of the stones used in this building are from three to six foot long, and from one and a half to three foot thick. At no great distance from this place are situated three others, concerning which the tradition of the inhabitants is said to be expressed in these lines:

*Dá chaiséal-deug aig Feann  
An an érom-ghleann ner clect.*

No. 44.

That is, "Fingal, king of heroes, had twelve towers in the winding valley of the grey-headed stones."

Two other buildings of similar construction are to be met with, which, though out of the line of those now mentioned, it is conjectured might be subservient to their use. One lies on the north-side of Loch-Tay, about five miles east of Killin, above the public road. The other, called Caisteal Baraora, on the south-side, about a quarter of a mile from the lake.

At Blair, a few miles north of Faskelly, the duke of Athol has another fine seat, where is a cascade of a singular appearance. It is first seen tumbling among the trees, at the head of a small glen. The waters are soon joined by those of another that dart from the side; and these uniting fall into a deep chasm, appear again, and after forming four more cataracts, are lost in the Tilt; which likewise runs under a rock for a considerable space.

At this place the late duke of Athol introduced the culture of rhubarb, which thrives exceedingly, and grows to a vast size. Some of them, when fresh, have been found to weigh fifty pounds, and to be equal in smell, taste, and effect, to the best that is imported.

Proceeding westward from Loggierait, along Strath-Tay, we pass the castle of Grandtully, on the south-side of the river, and reach the village of Aberfeldy, at which is the bridge of Tay, erected by the government in the year 1733. It consists of nine arches, and bears the following inscription.

*Mirare*

*Viam hanc militarem*

*Ultra Romanos terminos*

*M. Postum CCL. hac illas*

*extensam;*

*Tasquis & paludibus insultantem*

*Per montes rupesque patefactam*

*Et indignanti Tayo*

*Ut cernis infratum,*

*Opus hoc arduum sui solerti*

*Et decennali militum operâ.*

A. ÆR. XNÆ 1733, POSUIT G. WADE.

This bridge stands on the great road that leads from Stirling to Fort Augustus, in the North Highlands. Near it is Monks, which is remarkable for its waterfalls. A neat walk conducts you along the sides of a deep and well-wooded glen, enriched with a profusion and variety of cascades, that strike with astonishment. The first, which lies on the left, runs down a rude stair-case with numbers of landing places, and patters down the steps in a beautiful manner. Advancing along the bottom, on the right, is a deep and darksome chasm, water-worn for ages; at the end of which is a great cataract, consisting of several breaks. The rocks more properly arch than impend over it; and the whole is shaded with trees.

On ascending a zig-zag walk, we cross the first cascade, and continuing along the path, among the woods, to the top of the hill, discover from the verge of an immense precipice, another cataract, form-

ing one vast sheet, tumbling into the deep hollow ; whence gushing with great force, it is instantly lost in a wood beneath.

Near half a mile from Tay-bridge, on the north, stands the castle of Weem, the residence of sir Robert Menzies ; and four miles westward stands Taymouth, a most beautiful seat belonging to the earl of Breadalbane. The house, which is large, is an ancient castle modernised, and increased with two handsome pavilions, besides other buildings. It is situated on a curvature of the Tay, about a mile east from the Loch, where the river has its source. The vale on which it stands is bounded on the south and north by mountains finely planted. That on the south is covered with trees, or with corn-fields, far up its side. The hill on the north, which is likewise planted with pines and other trees, is very steep, and particularly resembles the great slope opposite the Grande Chartreuse in Dauphine. The park surrounding the house is of great extent, and is stocked with fallow-deer. More grand and beautiful terraces are no where to be seen ; nor a greater number of summer-houses and temples, commanding a variety of delightful prospects. The wall along the bank of the Tay is fifty foot wide, and stretches westward two and twenty hundred yards ; but when completed to the junction of the Tay and the Lyon, will extend the same length to the east.

On a plain in Glen-Lyon, is a small Roman camp, called Fortingel, or the fort of the strangers ; and in the church-yard at this place are the remains of a prodigious yew-tree, measuring fifty-six foot and a half in circumference.

Near a mile and a half west of Taymouth, on an eminence, stands Kenmure, an elegant village lately built by lord Breadalbane, who has also erected here a handsome church, and a bridge over the Tay. At this place is the eastern extremity of Loch-Tay, which extends about fifteen miles in length, is generally half a mile broad, and in many places a hundred fathom deep. It abounds in salmon, trout, and other kinds of fish ; and till the year 1772, was supposed to be incapable of freezing.

Near the east end is a pretty little island, tufted with trees. Here are the ruins of a priory, founded in 1122, by Alexander I. in which were deposited the remains of his queen Sybilla, natural daughter to Henry I. To this island the Campbells retreated during the success of the marquis of Montrose.

This lake in its course makes three great bends, which adds considerably to its beauty. It is bounded on each side by lofty mountains, which slope to the water edge, forming a tract of cultivated ground, rich in corn, and diversified with groves and plantations. The inhabitants on each side are said to surpass in number those of any place in Scotland of equal extent ; there being not less, according to a late computation, than seventeen hundred and eighty souls, on the north-side, and on the south-side twelve hundred.

On the south-side of the lake, almost three miles from Taymouth, is a beautiful cascade ; and another

yet more remarkable, on the north-side, at a little greater distance. Near the latter is the hill of Laura, a vast high mountain, the top of which is perpetually covered with snow, except about a month or six weeks succeeding midsummer. It abounds with a species of birds called ptarmigans, and a small kind of hare ; both which are grey in the summer, and white in the winter ; and to the taste are extremely delicious.

Along this side of Loch-Tay, the whole length and many miles to the westward, is an excellent road, made at the sole expence of the present earl of Breadalbane, who has also erected thirty-two stone bridges over the torrents that rush from the mountains into the lake. His lordship's estate is said to be so extensive, that he can ride a hundred miles an end on it, even as far as the west sea, where he has likewise some islands.

On a plain at the west end of Loch Tay stands the town of Killin, near which is Finlarig, an old castle, anciently the seat of the family of Breadalbane, and Achmore, the residence of Mr. Campbell of Achalader. Not far thence, on the top of a great eminence, are the remains of a vast enclosure ; to which it is imagined the inhabitants anciently drove their cattle in time of invasion, on the signal given from the round towers a little before mentioned. The form approaches an oval ; the greatest length is three hundred and sixty foot, and the breadth a hundred and twenty. No part of the wall is entire ; but the stones that formed it lie in ruins on the ground, to the breadth of fifteen foot. Within, near the east end, is the foundation of a rectangular building, thirty-eight foot long, and ten broad.

Westward of Killin is situated Loch-Dochart, in a Glen, of the same name, beautifully ornamented with trees. In a lofty island embosomed in wood, is the ruins of a castle, one of the nine formerly under the rule of the great knight of Lochoy, ancestor to the earl of Breadalbane.

Farther west lies Strath-Fillan, or the vale of St. Fillan, an abbot who lived in the year 703, and retired thither the latter end of his life. He is supposed to this day to perform great cures in cases of lunacy. The unfortunate patient being brought thither by his friends, they first perform the ceremony of the Deasil, thrice round a neighbouring cairn ; afterwards offering upon it some rags, or a little bunch of heath, tied with worsted. They next immerse the person three times in a holy pool of the river, and afterwards leave him fast bound during the night, in the neighbouring chapel. If in the morning he should be found loose, the saint is supposed to be propitious ; but if he continues in bonds, his cure remains doubtful.

The Deasil, or turning from east to west, according to the course of the sun, is a custom of high antiquity in religious ceremonies. The Romans practised the motion in the manner now performed in Scotland. The Gaulish Druids made their circumvolution in a manner directly reverse. The number

of turns was times. Thus tends to the

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of turns was also religiously observed in very remote times. Thus Medea, in all her enchantments, attends to the sacred three.

*Te se convertit, ter sumit flumine crinem  
Erravit aquis; ternis ululatus ora  
Solvit, & in dura submissis poplite terra,  
Non, ait, &c.*

She turn'd her thrice around, and thrice she threw  
On her long tresses the nocturnal dew;  
Then yelling thrice a most terrific sound,  
Her bare knees bended on the stony ground.

St. Fillan was of singular service to Robert Bruce, inspiring his soldiery with uncommon courage at the battle of Bannockburn, by a miracle wrought the day before in his favour. His majesty's chaplain was directed to bring with him into the field the arm of the saint, lodged in a silver shrine. The good man, fearing, in case of a defeat, that the English might become masters of the precious limb, brought only the empty cover; but while the king was invoking the aid of St. Fillan, the lid of the shrine, placed before him on the altar, opened and shut of its own accord. On inspection, to the astonishment of the whole army, the arm was found restored to its place: the soldiers accepted the omen, and, assured of victory, fought with amazing enthusiasm. The king, in gratitude for the assistance received from the saint, founded here, in 1314, a priory of canons regular, and consecrated it to him. At the dissolution, this house, with all the revenues and superiorities, were granted to an ancestor of the present possessor, the earl of Breadalbane. This part of the country lying in the parish of Killin, very remote from the church, and the chapel being destitute of a resident minister, lady Glenorchy, with distinguished piety, has established a fund for the support of one; for whose accommodation she has also built a house, to which lord Breadalbane has added a glebe.

This tract is at present almost entirely stocked with country sheep, which has in a manner expelled the breed of black cattle.

Farther west, near Tyendrum, where another great road leads to the North Highlands, stand the hill of Bendoran, celebrated for the hollow sound it sends forth about twenty-four hours before a heavy rain.

#### ARGYLESHIRE.

Entering Argyleshire on our route westward, we pass through the pleasant valley of Glenorchy, a very fertile tract, embellished with a number of little groves, and watered by a fine stream. This county is deeply indented by seven large bays, called by the inhabitants lochs. The chief of these is Loch-fine, famous for the number and excellence of its herrings. It is said to be forty miles in length, and the narrowest place about four in breadth.

Loch-aw is also very large, and contains twelve islands, one of which is Castle Kilchurn, belonging to the earl of Breadalbane; a magnificent pile, now

in ruins. In this parish may be seen a deep circular hollow, resembling a great cauldron. According to tradition, this was one of the seats which were formerly frequent in the Highlands, and whence the ancient natives drew an unctuous substance, used by them to dye their cloth black, before the introduction of other materials for that purpose.

The chief town of this county is Inverary, a royal borough, seated on a small but beautiful plain, on the side of Loch-Fine. At this place stands a magnificent house belonging to the duke of Argyle, who, with the assistance of the country gentlemen, has introduced here a woollen manufactory, which promises to turn out to great advantage.

Kintyre, a district of this county, is a peninsula, which runs thirty miles out into the Irish sea; its extremity being no more than fourteen or fifteen miles from Ireland. In this division stands Campbelltown, which was made a royal borough by king William, and has a safe harbour for ships.

Knapdale, another district, lies north of the preceding, and abounds with lakes and bays, several of which contain islands and castles.

The pleasantest, however, and the most fruitful part of the shire is Lorn, in which stands the castle of Dunstaffnage, formerly a royal seat, and where several of the ancient kings are buried.

Armaddie is celebrated for two quarries, one of marble, and the other of slate, both belonging to the earl of Breadalbane. The marble is beautifully variegated with different colours, red, white, blue, and green, and receives a polish not inferior to the best that is imported.

The sea-coast of Argyleshire abounds with high rocks, and black mountains covered with heath, which afford pasture for black cattle and deer; and the whole county is interspersed with the numerous seats of gentlemen, who are mostly of the name of Campbell.

#### SHIRE of INVERNESS.

Northward of Argyle lies the shire of Inverness, containing several districts, the chief of which are Lochabar and Badenoch. In the former of these stands Fort William, so named from king William, in whose reign it was built, principally as a check upon the Camerons, at that time a lawless and seditious clan. It is situated in a rocky barren country, at the foot of a mountain called Benevish; and one side of the fortification is washed by a navigable arm of the sea. On the land side it is almost surrounded with rivers, which, though not broad, are rendered impassable by their depth and rapidity. Contiguous is a town called Maryburgh, which was originally intended as a sutlary to the garrison. The houses are all built of timber and turf, that they might be speedily burnt, if ever they should be in any danger of becoming a lodgement for an enemy.

Fort William is surrounded by vast mountains, which occasion almost perpetual rain. The loftiest

are

are on the south-side, where above the rest soars Benwick, the summit of which is said to be fourteen hundred and fifty yards above the level of the sea.

Fort Augustus is situated on Loch Ness, a beautiful lake, twenty-four miles long, and in some places two miles broad, lying in the midst of high mountains, that are covered with wood. It stretches in a direct line, is in most places a hundred and fifty fathoms deep, and was never known to freeze. From the lake issues the river Ness, which discharges itself into the Murray Frith at Inverness, a royal borough, the capital of the shire, and the Highlands of Scotland.

This town is situated a hundred and six miles north from Edinburgh. It consists chiefly of four streets, three of which meet at the cross, but the fourth is irregular. The houses are built of stone, but are so differently modelled, that they cannot be comprehended in any general description. They are, however, mostly low, because the town is exposed to sudden and impetuous gusts of wind, which rush upon it along the valleys between the adjacent mountains. One end of the house is generally turned towards the street, and there is a short alley into a kind of yard, whence ascend the stairs that lead to the first floor; for the ground-floor is generally a shop or warehouse, and has no communication with the rest of the building.

Before the Union the houses were neither slated nor slated. At present the apartments have no other ceiling than the floors of those above, which are in general very badly constructed.

Such are the houses in the principal streets of the town; those of the middling sort are yet lower, and have generally in the front a close wooden stair case, which is lighted by small round or oval holes, just big enough to admit the head. The extreme parts of the town consist of wretched hovels, faced and covered with turf.

The town-hall is a plain building of rubble. The walls within are rough, not being so much as plastered; and the furniture is only a table, with some rude chairs.

On a small, but steep hill, which joins the south side of the town, stands the castle, a structure of an irregular figure, and built with unhewn stone. This was formerly a royal palace, where queen Mary once resided, with the view of conciliating the affection of the Highlanders. Before it was repaired, it consisted of six lodging rooms, the offices below, and the gallery above. The gallery has since been removed, and each of the rooms being divided into two, there are now twelve apartments for officers.

At the bottom of the hill is a stone bridge, near eighty yards in length, consisting of seven arches.

Though Inverness be the capital of the Highlands, it is remarkable that the inhabitants of the town, and the adjacent country, are equally expert in the English and Erse languages; but as they always speak the former according as it is written, their pronunciation is guttural and uncouth.

Within a mile of Inverness, the Highlands begin to

rise to the north-west; but towards some other points for five or six miles, the country is moderately level.

A little to the north-east are the ruins of the fort built by Oliver Cromwell, which commanded the town, the mouth of the river, and part of the flat country on the land side.

A mile to the westward is a very regular hill, about four hundred yards long, and a hundred and fifty broad. On the top is a large hollow, almost the whole extent of the summit, which the inhabitants suppose to be the haunt of fairies and witches.

The greatest ornament of the adjacent country is an island, distant about a quarter of a mile. It is about six hundred yards long, well planted with trees, and formed by two branches of the Ness. To this place the magistrates conduct the judges, when they are upon their circuit in the month of May, and entertain them with salmon, which is boiled the moment it is taken, and set upon a bank of turf, surrounded by seats of the same.

Not far from the town, large moor-stones, some of them ten feet high, are set up in regular circles, one within another. The tradition is, that that they were erected by the Romans, either for temples, or as tribunals for the trial of criminal soldiers; but for this conjecture there seems to be little authority.

At the distance of about two miles is Culloden-house, a large stone-building, with good gardens and a park; in the neighbourhood of which the rebels were defeated by the royal army in 1746.

The village of Fernotsh, in this county, is famous for its whisky, which is said to excel all other distilled spirits of the kind.

Some miles from the town, on the side of the loch, are the ruins of the castle of Urquhart, formerly consisting of seven great towers, said to be built by the Cummins, and demolished by Edward I.

## C H A P. V.

### *Of the Highlanders.*

THE Highlanders, or Gaël, are generally admitted to be descendants of the first Celtic colony that arrived in Britain; and of any people with whom we are acquainted, they have the longest retained the language and customs, as well as the character of their ancestors. In their persons, they are for the most part of the middle size, but extremely active, and capable of enduring great hardships. They are brave, hospitable, and generous, much affected with the civility of strangers, and have in themselves a natural politeness and address. They are impatient of affronts, and therefore often revengeful of injuries; but their resentment is quickly appeased on the submission of the person who offended them. They are so fond of news, that even the poorest labourers, upon seeing at a great distance a traveller on the road, often quit their work, and running to meet him, enquire with great earnestness about the state of public affairs. If he prove communicative, they accompany him perhaps for many miles; and they seem to think themselves

themselves by the inter

The and composed of stripes, which garment, which yards long near the ancient statue middle which plaid hang want of shirt, they neraly of the plaid kind of round the is termed tartan, tie into tassel use trowl all of one mon people tanned on with a th of a part which m cock, or beg gene call a dir times of silver; large lea hanging Highland The jerkin, according they we the chin buckle, the hea linen, behind. women their m twisted which throug legs, t snannel plait dren t The ter, w break ther of wa ter; whik T stone N

themselves well recompensed for the time they have lost by the intelligence which they have received.

The ancient dress of the men is the tartan plaid, composed of woollen stuff of various colours, forming stripes, which cross each other at right angles. This garment, which is of considerable breadth, and several yards long; 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 like a petticoat, and supplies the want of breeches. Under the plaid, and over their shirt, they wear a waistcoat, which is likewise generally of tartan; and sometimes, instead of making the plaid hang down below their middle, they wear a kind of petticoat of the same variegated stuff, tied round the waist: this hangs down to the knee, and is termed a phillibeg. Their stockings are likewise of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into tassels. But instead of this dress, they sometimes use trowsers, which consist of breeches and stockings all of one piece, made likewise of tartan. The common people wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undressed leather, and which are usually tied with a thong. The covering of the head is a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture; in one side of which many wear occasionally the feather of a peacock, or some other bird. From the belt of the phillibeg generally hang a knife and a dagger, which they call a dirk, both sheathed, with an iron pistol, sometimes of fine workmanship, and curiously inlaid with silver; besides which, they carry the broadsword. A large leathern purse, richly mounted with silver, and hanging down before, was formerly always a part of a Highland gentleman's dress.

The dress of the women consists of a petticoat and jerkin, with frait steves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer. Over this they wear a plaid, which they either hold close under the chin with the hand, or fasten with a round broad buckle, called a brooch, generally made of silver. For the head, the married women use a kerchief of fine linen, which comes under the chin, and hangs down behind. Among the poorer sort, however, the young women use no covering on the head till the day after their marriage. Till this time they wear their hair twisted, and rolled up on the crown of the head, in which position it is kept firm by a bodkin running through it, and a surrounding band of tape. On their legs, the women, both young and old, wear hose of flannel, which are made of great length, and hang in plaits so far up as the knee. It is common for the children to use neither shoes nor stockings.

Their diet consists mostly of milk, cheese, and butter, with bannocks baked of oat or barley meal. For breakfast they generally use pottage, and for supper either sowens (summers) or brochen, which is a kind of water-gruel. Their common drink is whey or water; and the only liquor known in the country is whisky.

Their houses are generally cottages, composed of stones and clods, thatched with broom or heather. In-

stead of chimneys, they have a hole in the roof; and the window, which is small, has for the most part no glass, but is accommodated with a wooden shutter. In the houses of the poorer people it is usual for their cow to have her station in one end. Their common fuel is peat and turf, and sometimes heather or broom. Instead of candle they mostly use lamps, or burn small pieces of fir.

In proportion as industry has advanced among the Highlanders, their ancient sports, such as archery, hunting, fowling, and fishing have declined. Those which remain are chiefly throwing the putting-stone, or stone of strength, as they call it; the penny-stone, which answers to the coin; and the shinty, or striking a ball of wood or hair.

Their domestic amusement in the evenings is generally the telling of tales. Their chief musical instrument was anciently the harp, which was covered with leather, and strung with wire: but this has long since given place to the bagpipe, which likewise begins now to decline. Vocal music was also much used among them; and their songs were chiefly in praise of their ancient heroes.

The weddings of the people of inferior rank are celebrated, as in other parts of Scotland, with a festivity that partakes of the ancient Saturnalia. In the morning, the bride and bridegroom, with their attendants, and a bagpipe, visit the most respectable persons who have been previously invited to their nuptials. When the two parties meet for the celebration of the marriage, they commonly salute each other with the discharge of several pistols. The entertainment consists of a dinner, with liquor and dancing, for which every person pays a share.

In former times, the cronoch, or singing at funerals, was practised; but this custom is now fallen into disuse. They still, however, retain in some places, the superstitious ceremony of the *Bel-Tein*, or the Fire of the Rock, which is kindled on the first of May, and accompanied with a rural repast. It was a custom, till of late years, among the inhabitants of whole districts in the North of Scotland, to extinguish all their fires on the evening of the last day of April. Early on the first day of May, some select persons meet in a private place, and by turning with great rapidity an augre in a dry piece of wood, extracted what they called the forced or elementary fire. Some active young men, one from each hamlet in the district, attended at a distance, and as soon as the forced fire was kindled, carried part of it, with great expedition and joy, to their respective villages. The people immediately assembled upon some rock or eminence, lighted the *Bel-Tein*, and spent the day in mirth and festivity. Three times they carried round the fire in procession, the branches of mountain-ash, with wreaths of flowers and heath, which they afterwards deposited above the doors of their respective dwellings, where they remained till next year, when the ceremony was again performed.

Even before the introduction of Christianity, this people, with the other Celtic nations, maintained the doctrine of the immortality of the soul. They placed



Paradise in the *Green Isle of the West*, and were totally ignorant of what we call Hell, having no name for any such place in their language; a circumstance to which may justly be ascribed the remarkable valour of those nations.

By the charity-schools which have lately been established in different parts of the country, the children are now universally taught to read the scriptures; and since the abolition of the power of the chieftains, a spirit of independence, unknown in former times, is almost every where diffused among the people.

## C H A P. VI.

*The Shires of Kincardin, Aberdeen, Banff, Elgin, Nairn, and Cromartie.*

**P**ROCEEDING eastward from the shire of Inverness, we enter that of Kincardin, or the Mearns; which is bounded on the south by the county of Angus, and on the east by the sea. The part of this county called the Hollow of the Mearns, is extremely fertile, and abounds with gentlemen's seats.

The town of Stone-hive, or Stone-haven, consists at present of about eight hundred inhabitants, who are making great advances in the manufacture of sail-cloths and Osnaburghs, as well as in knit worsted and thread stockings.

The celebrated castle of Dunnoter stands on a lofty peninsulated rock, jutting into the sea, and divided from the main-land. The area on the top of the rock is an English acre and a quarter in extent. The entrance to the castle is high, through an arched way. Beyond is another, with four round holes in front, for the annoying any enemy who might gain the first gate. The buildings are numerous, many of them vaulted, but few appear to be above a century and a half old, excepting a square tower of a considerable height, and the buildings which defend the approach. The sides of the rock are extremely steep, and even that part which impends over the isthmus has been cut, in order to render the fortress still more secure. The cistern which supplied it with water is now almost filled up; but appears to have been no less than twenty-nine foot in diameter.

This castle was the property of the Keiths, earls Marshals of Scotland, an ancient and heroic family, but which forfeited its title and estate in the rebellion of 1715. It is a place of great antiquity, and was the scene of a bloody achievement about the year 1296, when it was taken by the celebrated Scotch champion, Sir William Wallace, who is said to have destroyed in it four thousand Englishmen by fire. In 1336 it was re-fortified by Edward III. in his progress through Scotland, but was soon afterwards retaken by Sir Andrew Murray. From that time, to the civil wars in the last century, there is a chasm in the history of this ancient castle.

Paldykirk, in the neighbourhood of this place, is famous for being the burial-place of St. Palladius, who,

in 431, was sent by pope Celestine to preach the gospel to the Scots. The town is noted for an annual three days fair, where the principal commodity is coarse cloth, that is usually exported to the Netherlands.

Kincardin, the chief town of the county, is a place of little note.

On the coast is situated Inverbervie, made a royal borough by king Alexander III.

The town of Fordun was famous in former times for the relics of St. Palladius above mentioned; and is also noted for being the birth-place of John de Fordun, the Scotch historian.

On the lands of Arduthie and Redcloak may be seen some trenches, cast up by the Danes in one of their invasions; and round the hill of Urie is a deep ditch, where the Scots had their camp.

Towards the northern part of the county, on the road-side, is a cairn, of a stupendous size. The shape is oblong, and the height at least thirty foot. It consists of great loose stones, mixed with semivitrified matter; and at some distance from the ground, the stones are formed into a broad terrace. Along the top is an oval hollow, about six foot deep. Its length within is a hundred and fifty-two foot, and its breadth in the middle sixty-six. This uncommon object, called Fetter-cairn, is presumed to have been monumental.

## SHIRE OF ABERDEEN.

Directing our course northward, we enter the shire of Aberdeen, which is also a fertile county, subdivided into the districts of Mar, Buchan, Garioch, and Strathbogie.

The capital of this shire is Aberdeen, situated eighty-four miles north-east of Edinburgh, and distinguished into the New and the Old Town; the former standing at the mouth of the river Dee, and the latter at that of the Don, at the distance of about a mile from each other. Old Aberdeen was formerly the bishop's seat, and has a cathedral, commonly called St. Macher's, a large and stately structure, which was anciently much more magnificent, but suffered greatly at the time of the Reformation, and afterwards at the Revolution.

The chief ornament of this town is the King's College, founded by bishop Elphinston, in the year 1500. Here are a principal, a sub-principal, who is also one of the regents, three other regents, professors of philosophy, a professor of humanity, or philology, with those of divinity, physic, law, the oriental tongues, and mathematics. The church and steeple of the college are built of hewn stone; and the summit of the latter resembles an imperial crown. The windows of the church were formerly admired for their paintings, and something of their splendor yet remains. In the steeple are two bells of extraordinary bigness, besides others. Close to the church is a library, well furnished with books.

New Aberdeen is situated upon three hills, the main part on the highest; and the skirts of it extend

tend into the generally four for the most part them. The and the streets

Nicholas's with a lofty was divided west being in down, and also on its site.

Here is a the voluntary town and the work-house, pital, in which merchants and educated with one music school

In this by George considerably principal, four languages, likewise a been established

In this lish church nity church bishop of one of the the Independence From a flow two of a quality

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tend into the plain. The houses are neatly built, generally four stories high, or upwards, and have for the most part gardens and orchards belonging to them. The market-place is beautiful and spacious, and the streets adjoining it extremely handsome.

Nicholas's church is a fine edifice of free stone, with a lofty steeple, in the form of a pyramid. It was divided into two churches; but that to the west being in a ruinous condition, has been pulled down, and another, proportionably elegant, erected on its site.

Here is a large infirmary, built and supported by the voluntary contributions of the inhabitants of the town and the adjacent country; besides a prison, a work-house, an alms-house, and an excellent hospital, in which about forty boys, the sons of decayed merchants and tradesmen are maintained, clothed, and educated. Here is likewise a grammar school, with one master and three ushers; exclusive of a music school.

In this city stands the Marshal college, founded by George earl Marshal, in the year 1593; and since considerably enlarged. In this university are a principal, four professors of philosophy, one of oriental languages, one of mathematics, one of divinity, and likewise a professorship of physic, which has lately been established.

In this place are two meeting-houses of the English church, viz. St. Paul's chapel, and the Trinity church; two of the Nonjurors, under a titular bishop of Aberdeen; two of the Roman catholics; one of the Secessers, one of the Quakers, and one of the Independents.

From a round hill at the west end of the city, flow two springs, one of pure water, and another of a quality resembling that of the German spa.

Few cities enjoy greater natural advantages than Aberdeen, the air being pure and wholesome, and the climate remarkably mild. Provisions of all kinds are good and cheap; and the inhabitants are universally distinguished for their courteous behaviour. Possessing a great inland trade, and drawing from the adjacent country commodities of considerable value, the town is become very populous, and accounted the third in North Briton. Here are several kinds of woollen manufactures, particularly stockings, coarse and fine. This trade, which was very great before the union, declined afterwards, but has been recovered of late years. They likewise make plaids, singrams, and some other coarse goods. The linen manufacture also flourished exceedingly; and there were made excellent Osnaburghs, till the suspension of the bounty upon the linen manufacture gave a check to that branch; which however it is hoped will revive. At present a considerable trade is maintained in the finest sorts of linen; and there is likewise a manufacture of sail-cloth. Large quantities of yarn have been spun here, and exported to England, where they have been wrought up at Manchester and other places; which is a strong proof of the industry of the people, as well as of the cheapness of labour; two circumstances which afford ground to suspect,

that whatever improvement may be attempted either in linen or woollen, will have a very fair chance of succeeding in Aberdeen.

The inhabitants here likewise export a great deal of pickled pork, which they sell chiefly to the Dutch for the victualling their East India ships, and their men of war; the Aberdeen pork having the reputation of being the best cured of any in Europe, for keeping on very long voyages.

But one of the greatest branches of trade in this city is the curing of salmon, of which a prodigious quantity is here taken in the rivers Dee and Don, and afterwards sent to England, France, the Baltic, and several other parts.

The river Dee has its source on the sides of the mountains, or, as they are called in this country, the Braes of Mar. It runs almost directly east, and after being augmented by many brooks and rivulets in a course of fifty miles, discharges itself into the sea. This river has been celebrated from all antiquity for breeding great quantities of the most excellent salmon. The Don rises some miles farther north, and declining to the south-east, falls likewise into the German ocean. Both these rivers have bridges over them, at a little distance from the fall: that over the Dee consists of seven stately arches; that upon the Don is only of a single arch, sustained on each side by a rock, and is esteemed a noble piece of workmanship.

The port of Aberdeen, which has a great extent of coast, and not fewer than twenty creeks dependent upon it, is no more than a tide haven, with a bar that sometimes shifts; but with some expence might be rendered both large and commodious.

The town of Peterhead stands at the mouth of the water of Eugie, and has a road which will contain a hundred ships. At this place it is said to be high-water when the moon is directly south.

Inverury is a small town, but pleasantly situated on the Don, and is a royal borough. Here king Robert Bruce, though sick and carried in a horse-litter, defeated John Cummins, and the other partizans of Edward I. This was the first victory he obtained, and that which laid the foundation of his subsequent conquests. Near the same place, at Harlaw, in 1411, Alexander Stuart, earl of Mar, defeated Donald of the Isles, in a bloody battle.

Kintore is also situated on the Don, and is a royal borough.

The town of Frasersburgh is furnished with an excellent harbour, in which thirty ships may winter at once, with great safety. From this place the coast trends away due west, and quitting the shire of Aberdeen we enter that of Bamf.

#### BAMFFSHIRE.

This county is subdivided into the districts of Bamf, Strathdovern, Boyne, Enzy, Balveny, Strath-avin, and part of Buchan.

The chief town is Bamf, a royal borough, situated on the river Devon, or Dovert, which rises a few

few miles north from the Don, and falls into that part of the German ocean styled the Murray Firth, where it forms two small harbours for the town. Bamff is neither large nor rich, but tolerably well-built, and neat. What trade it has consists in the exportation of corn and pickled salmon. The linen manufacture begins to spread in its neighbourhood: but as its ports can receive only vessels of small burden, there is not much to be expected from its commerce. Here are the ruins of an old castle; near which is the abbey of Deer, formerly belonging to the Cistercian monks.

Not far hence is a grand modern edifice, erected by the late earl of Fife, but which never yet has been completed. It is of a square form, with several towers, and surrounded on every side by columns of excellent architecture.

Eight miles from Bamff stands Cullen, an ancient royal borough. It is chiefly remarkable for its salmon fishery, and the fruitful soil of the adjacent country; for having no port, it is a place of little trade. At the entrance of the town is a noble seat belonging to the earl of Finlater.

The town of Fochabers lies in a hollow, close to the banks of the Spey, and consists chiefly of one street, a mile long, in which, however, the houses are frequently separated at a little distance from each other.

The river Spey, which is supposed to be the Tufis of Ptolemy, rises in the mountains of Badenoch, in the shire of Inverness, its waters quickly spreading to such an extent, as to become a small lake, called Loch Spey; from which resuming the form of a river, it proceeds several miles south-east. Then fetching a compass, it turns north-east, and in that direction runs many miles, till it reaches Ruthven; whence digressing more to the east, and receiving many rivulets by the way, it rolls on with a rapid stream to Rothes; from which place, directing its course northwards, it falls into the Frith of Murray, at a place called Garmach, or Garmouth, a creek of no great importance, frequented only by small vessels.

The banks of this river are exceeding beautiful, and adorned for many miles with fine woods. In its course through the Bog of Gicht, a part of Bamff-shire, it passes by Gordon-castle, the chief seat of the duke of Gordon, and one of the noblest palaces in the North.

Balvenie, in this county, abounds with aluminous stone; and in the district of the Boyne great quarries of spotted marble have been discovered.

#### S H I R E of E L G I N.

Proceeding westward along the Murray Frith, or that great bay of the sea, which extends from Frazerburgh, in the county of Aberdeen, to the north-point of Caithness, we arrive in the shire of Elgin, a part of the ancient province of Murray. It is said, that in the plains of this shire, they have forty days of fair weather in the year, more than any other coun-

ty in Scotland; and such is the salubrity of the air, that eighty years are reckoned no great age to the sober and temperate among the inhabitants. This county is no less pleasant than fertile, and abounds with villages and gentlemen's seats.

The capital of this county is Elgin, a royal borough situated on the river Lossie, which after running a short course falls into the Murray Frith a little below the town. It consists of one long street, and several shorter, having a neat church in the middle. The houses are almost all built upon arches, which form a commodious piazza. This was anciently a bishop's see; and here are the ruins of one of the most stately cathedral churches in the kingdom. The greater part of the end walls yet remains; as do likewise some magnificent pillars. On a large mount, at the other end of the town, are the ruins of an ancient castle, which was demolished in the Danish wars.

The river Lossie, which almost surrounds this town at a small distance, is famous for salmon; of which there is annually pickled and exported from eighty to a hundred lasts, all taken in a few months of the summer, and in the space of one mile, at the village of Garmach. The fish are taken with hooked tridents in the day; by night with wicker baskets, or little boats covered with hides; into which none will venture but such of the natives as are used to them.

The borough of Forres is pleasantly situated at the end of several ridges of mountains, and consists of one large street, where every house is accommodated with a garden. Here are the ruins of an old castle, in which, it is said, the kings of Scotland used to reside.

Contiguous to the town is a flat pillar of stone, about five foot broad, which rises about twenty-three foot above the ground, and reaches twelve or fifteen foot below it, as the inhabitants of the neighbourhood relate. It is covered with a variety of hieroglyphical figures, of which some are still visible and distinct. The whole stone above ground is divided into seven compartments, the lowest of which is almost concealed by some steps, or supports, lately placed at the expence of the countess of Murray, to secure it from falling. The second contains many figures, but most of them defaced. In the third are several of a monstrous form, resembling four-footed beasts with human heads; and others of men standing by them. In the fourth division are six or seven ensigns or standards, with some figures, holding obscure weapons in their hands. The fifth and sixth divisions are filled with figures of the like kind; and in the uppermost have been others, which are now mostly obliterated. On the reverse of this stone is the representation of a cross; beneath which are two Gothic human figures.

According to some antiquaries, this pillar is a sepulchral monument either of a Danish or Scotch king; but Camden is of opinion, that it was erected to commemorate a victory obtained by king Malcolm Mac-Kenneth over Sweno king of Denmark.

N A I R N

The shire of Elgin by the hills of spread into Loch-Moy, stands Moy. The river is passing by military road north-east, into which smaller stream running at declining a basin, which through Forres together with when the of the river

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## N A I R N.

The shire of Nairn forms the remaining part of the province of Murray, and is separated from that of Elgin by the river of Findorn. This river rises in the hills of Monchroly, where its waters quickly spread into a lake; passing out of which, and running south-west, they soon form a larger, called Loch-Moy, where is a considerable island, upon which stands Moy-Hall, the seat of the laird of Mackintosh. The river issuing thence, takes a wide compass, and passing by Conbrugh, through which runs the great military road to Inverness, turns gradually to the north-east, becoming the boundary of the two shires into which Murray is divided. After receiving many smaller streams, crossing the wood Tornaway, and running at a little distance from the town of Forres, declining a little to the north-west, it falls into a basin, which receives likewise a less river that runs through Forres; and two other little streams, which together make a pretty good harbour, though dry when the tide is out, and with a bar at the mouth of the river.

Nairn, the capital of this county, is a royal borough and a sea-port town. It stands on a river of the same name, which falls into the Murray Frith; but the harbour is capable of receiving only small vessels. Over the river is a handsome stone-bridge of one arch; and along its banks are scattered the seats of many gentlemen.

It is said, that near Bean-castle, in this county, was found in the year 1406, a fine marble vessel curiously carved, which was full of Roman coins of various sorts; and that several old forts and mounts have been seen here, which evidently appeared to have been the work of the Romans.

Westward of Nairn lies the small shire of Cromartie, which is sometimes considered as a part of Ross, and receives its name from a royal borough, upon the Frith of Cromartie. It extends in a narrow strip of land from west to east, where it is bounded by the Murray Frith. Here stands the town of Fortrose, pleasantly situated in a valley, between fruitful hills. It was formerly a bishop's see, and had a stately cathedral, with a castle, in which the bishop resided.

Cromartie bay, or frith, is noted for being the finest harbour, with perhaps the least business, of any in Britain. It is fifteen miles long, and in many places two miles broad; and, like Milford-Haven in Wales, is capable of receiving the royal navy of Great Britain; but for want of trade, this noble harbour is almost totally unemploy'd.

This county is the largest in Scotland, and contains, besides Cromartie, three towns of some note. One of these is Chanoury, so called from a college of regular canons that flourished there. It stands in the peninsula between the bays of Cromartie and Murray, among pleasant and fertile hills, and has a ferry over the Frith into Murray. It was anciently the see of a bishop, and had a large cathedral, a part of which yet remains; and a castle in which the bishop resided. Here is a stately house belonging to the earl of Seaforth.

No. 44.

Teyne is a royal borough, situated likewise in a fruitful country; and has a considerable trade, from its communication with the Western Islands and its herring fishery.

Dingwal, which is also a royal borough, is situated at the bottom of the Frith of Cromartie, and has a pretty good market.

Two miles west, of this place, on the hill of Knochfarril, is a curious piece of antiquity, lately investigated with great care by Mr. Williams. This hill is about nine hundred foot of perpendicular height, of an oblong figure, exceeding steep on both sides; but the declivity at each end is by an easy descent. The area within the walls is a hundred and twenty paces long, and about forty broad. At the desire of the board of the annexed estates in Scotland, Mr. Williams made a section of the ruins on this hill; in prosecuting which he began not exactly in the middle, but a little nearer the east-end.

At first nothing was met with but rich black mold, made by the dung of sheep and gnats which had been accumulated for ages, and which was mixed with large stones and fragments of vitrified ruins. This continued the same for several yards, only that the stones and fragments were more numerous the farther the workmen advanced; and when they came near the ruins of the wall, they met with little besides stones and fragments of the vitrified matter.

When they had advanced to the ruins of the wall on the south-side, they found it difficult to get through, on account of the hardness of the vitrified matter. With the help of crows, however, and plenty of hands, they tumbled over some very large fragments, which at first went whole down the hill; but gaining velocity in their descent, they dashed to pieces against the rocks, and ended in a thick shower of particles at the bottom of the hill.

In examining the north-side they began without the wall, immediately in the vitrified rubbish; and soon came to pretty high ruins of a wall, extremely hard and strong. The height of the ruins of this wall is now no less than twelve foot perpendicular; and as in this situation they occupy a considerable extent of ground, the original altitude of the wall must have been very great.

From the appearance of these ruins, it was conjectured that this hill had formerly been a volcano; but Mr. Williams seems fully to establish his opinion, that it had been a fort; evincing at the same time, that the surrounding wall was vitrified by the force of fire, and owed not its consistence to any plastic matter that had been poured amongst the stones.

On the inside of the surrounding wall, there are ruins of vitrified buildings, which seem to have been worse executed, and are therefore more decayed than the outer walls. It is conjectured, that those inner works have been a range of habitations, reared against, or under the shade of the outer wall. They appear to have been continued quite round the area, but have been much higher on the north-side, facing the sun, than on the opposite aspect. Within the walls were discovered the ruins of some wells, in

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each

each of which the workmen found more than three foot of water.

The full name of this hill is Knochfarril-naphian, which is said to signify in the Celtic language, Fingal's place or Knochfarril. The vulgar tradition is, that this was the habitation of giants; the chief of whom is said to have been Ree Phian Mac Coul, or king Fingal the son of Coul. From the names of adjacent places, and other circumstances, Mr. Williams is led to conjecture that this is the ancient Selma, so much celebrated in the poems of Ossian.

Vitrified forts of the same kind have been discovered in other parts of Scotland, particularly on the hill of Craig-Phadrik, or Craig Feterick, two miles west of Inverness; Castle Finley, and Dun-Evan, in the shire of Nairn, and of Finhaven in the shire of Angus.

The shire of Ross is for the most part mountainous and woody towards the western ocean, but on that side next to the Murray Frith it is much better cultivated and fruitful. The lochs or lakes on the west coast, in the proper season, abound with herrings; particularly Loch-Eu, which is divided into two parts, one a bay of the sea, and the other a fresh-water lake, extending about nine miles in its greatest length, and three miles in breadth where it is widest. On the same coast is Loch-bryan, another bay that runs ten miles up the country, and is also famous for herrings.

North of these lakes are two mountainous districts, called Coygach and Aslynt, which abound with deer. Here are also huge rocks of marble, and several gentlemen's seats towards the coast.

The middle part of the county, called Ardross, is mountainous and thinly inhabited, but affords many spots fit for pasture. Another district, called Ardmeanoch, extending in the form of a peninsula between the bays of Cromartie and Murray, is also mountainous; some parts of it, however, being fertile.

#### S U T H E R L A N D.

North of Ross-shire lies the county of Sutherland, which is less mountainous than the preceding, but more fit for pasture than for agriculture. The valleys, however, are pleasant, fertile, and well inhabited. It abounds with black cattle, sheep, deer, and wild fowl; and it is said that all the deer bred on the hill of Arkil have forked tails. Here are three remarkable forests, besides many other woods that afford game, which the inhabitants are fond of hunting. The country likewise contains a great quantity of white marble, free-stone, lime-stone, iron-stone, and good slate; and though situated so far north, we are informed that it produces good saffron.

One sort of bird, called by the inhabitants a knag, is said to be peculiar to those northern districts. It resembles a parrot, and scoops its nest with its beak in the trunk of trees.

In this county are above sixty lakes, abounding with swans, geese, ducks, and other fowls; and contain vast quantities of fish. Loch-fin, which is the

largest, is fourteen miles long; and in many of them are pleasant islands.

The north part of this county is separated from the west by mountains, and is called Strathnaver, from the river Naver which runs through it. This district has good harbours, and many woods, with great herds of black cattle, sheep, goats, and horses. Here is also plenty of venison; and the inhabitants despise those who are not fond of hunting.

Here are several monuments of victories gained over the Danes, particularly one at Enbo, which is a stone cross, said to be erected over a Danish king. Dornoch, the capital of this county, is situated on the Murray Frith, and, though in general a place of little trade, has four annual fairs, which are much frequented. This was formerly the see of a bishop; and had a cathedral for the diocese of Caithness, with a castle belonging to the earl of Sutherland, and the family burying-place.

Brora is a burgh of barony at the mouth of a river of its own name. In its neighbourhood are mines of excellent coal; and a great deal of salt is here made and exported.

#### C A I T H N E S S.

Caithness is the most northern division of Scotland, and lies eastward of Sutherland, from which it is separated by a tract of mountains. This county abounds with gentlemen's seats; and contains likewise many little towns and villages. The chief of these is Wick, a royal borough, situated on the eastern coast, and which has a good harbour.

Thurso is situated on the northern coast, on a little bay, and has likewise a good harbour.

#### C H A P. VII.

*Of the Islands of Shetland and Orkney.*

**T**HE Shetland or Zetland isles are situated on the north-east coast of Scotland, between fifty-nine degrees fifty minutes and sixty degrees forty-eight minutes of north latitude, and between fifty minutes of east and one degree fifty minutes of west longitude. They are in number about forty-six; but only twenty-six are inhabited, which, excepting three or four, are of little note.

The chief island, called Shetland, and also the Mainland, is about sixty miles long, and in some places twenty broad, but in others not more than two. The whole coast, a few places excepted, is lined with high and inaccessible rocks; and the interior part of the country is mountainous, and abounds with morasses. In some places, however, there are spots of land both smooth and fertile. The shores of the island are indented with numerous inlets of the sea, some of which enter several miles, and in the language of the country, are called Vocs. Here are a great many ports, some of which are good harbours. On the west side is that of Scalloway Voc, which flows into the land, amid several islands of various sizes:

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sizes. Two entranes lead to the harbour, which is deep, safe, and commodious. Scalloway, before which it is situated, was formerly the only town on the island. In the year 1600, Patrick earl of Orkney built here a stately castle, which is now in ruins; and the place is at present so much declined, that it hardly contains thirty houses. On the same side of the island are Olis Voe and Valley Sound, both fine ports, and very capacious.

On the east side of the island stands the town of Lerwick, the present capital, which contains above three hundred houses.

Opposite to Lerwick lies the island of Brassa, between which and the main runs the famous Brassa, sometimes also called Broad Sound, where no less than two thousand sail of vessels have lain commodiously at a time. This Sound is four miles in length, in some places two, in others one mile broad, but in a few places much narrower; deep, and well secured from winds.

On the same side of the island with Brassa Sound, are Dura Voe, and Belton, both good ports; besides Catford Voe, where, in the summer season, a large navy may ride with great convenience. The island of Brassa is five miles long, two broad, and has some arable land, with two churches. This island is famous for the herring-fishery in its sound; and hither, about the middle of May, the Hamburgers and people of Bremen come annually, and exchange linen, muslin, bread, &c. for fish, mutton, fowls, stockings, &c.

To the south of Scalloway lies the little island of St. Ninian, corruptly called St. Ringings, in which, though only a mile long, and half a mile broad, there is a large well-built church; a proof that it once was fully inhabited.

Opposite to the town of Scalloway, lie several islands, the largest of which is Trendra, three miles long and two broad. Burra consists of two islands, one called House, the other called Kirk Island, in neither of which, it is said, mice can live. Northward of these lies Papa Stour, or the Great Papa, which, though but two miles long and one broad, is reckoned the pleasantest, and for its size the best furnished with the necessaries of life, of any of those islands. Here are also the Papas, and the Little Papa; northward of which lies Rose Stour, or the Great Rose, eight miles long and two broad, with a good port.

To the south of Lerwick lies Moura, or the Queen's Island, one mile long, and about a quarter of a mile broad, remarkable for containing the most entire of those little fortifications, called by the natives brughs, but by the Scots commonly Picth houses.

Eastward of the preceding lies the island of Nefs, two miles long, and three quarters of a mile broad, with a church upon it.

The isle of Whalley is also situated to the east of the main-land, and northward of Brassa, and is about nine miles in circumference. Six leagues hence lie two dangerous little islands, called the Skerries, on which ships are often cast away.

Besides those, there are two considerable islands be-

longing to Shetland, with several small ones adjacent. The first of these is Yell, lying north-east-by-east of the main-land, from which it is divided by an arm of the sea, called Yell Sound. This island is supposed by Mr. Maule to have been the ancient Thule. It is said to be twenty miles long, and eight broad; it is mountainous and mossy, but affords considerable pastures for sheep. Here are eight large voes, or harbours, besides many smaller bays. It seems to have been formerly well inhabited, as it contains three churches, twenty chapels, and many brughs, or Picth forts. There are dependent upon it, Hafcorca, two miles long, and one broad; Samphra, and Bigga: all of them islands very fertile in grass. To the south-west lies Fetlar, or Theodore's Isle, nine or ten miles in compass, with a church, ten chapels, and many brughs. It has several creeks for small boats, but nothing that deserves the name of a port.

The other of those two large larger islands is Unst, which is also one of the most northern of all the Shetland isles, being at the same time the pleasantest, and not the least fertile among them. It lies at a small distance east from Yell, from which it is separated by an arm of the sea, called Blumel Sound. Unst is eight miles long, between three and four broad, and divided into twenty-four scattalds, or portions of land. Here is a little very fertile arable ground, with some good pasture, and great plenty of heather and peat. The island contains three churches, twenty-four chapels, and eleven brughs. At the southern extremity stood a castle called Mownes, now in decay. There are two excellent harbours, the one in the south, called Via Bay, and which is covered by an island of the same name, is large and commodious, having nine fathom water, and good anchoring-ground. The other is on the east side, covered by the isle of Belton, and thence called Belta Voe. This is also very safe and spacious, with eight fathom water.

The number of inhabitants in Unst and its dependencies may be about fifteen hundred; and they have seventy fishing-boats. The island of Via produces great plenty of fine grass; and the same may be said of Belta, which is also well stocked with rabbits.

Between six and seven leagues west from the main-land lies the island of Fusa, or Foula, commonly called by our seamen Foul Island. It is about three miles long, narrow, and full of rough, steep, and bare rocks; one of which is so large, and runs up to so great a height, as to be clearly seen from the Orkneys. This therefore may be esteemed, with the greatest probability, to be the Thule of Tacitus, whatever may have been that of the Phœnicians and Greeks. It has hardly any pasturage, and but a very little arable land, which is, however, extremely fertile, and serves, with the fowl and fish, for the subsistence of the poor inhabitants. Here is nothing that can be called a port; and the only commodities are stock-fish, train-oil, and feathers.

Fair Isle lies between Shetland and Orkney, ten leagues south-west from the former, and about twelve east-north-east of the latter. It is three miles long, and scarce half a mile broad, very craggy, with three high

high rocks, which are clearly seen both from Orkney and Shetland. There is in this island also a small quantity of arable land, which is well manured, and very fruitful. Here are a good many sheep, but no kind of moor-fowl or other game. There is, however, great plenty of sea and water fowl, and all kinds of fish upon the coasts. The island is furnished with a pretty church, but no minister, it being annexed to one of the parishes in Shetland, or served by an itinerant preacher. A layman reads the scriptures every Sunday in the church; and the inhabitants are a sober and honest people. They have properly no port, though two are distinguished by that name. One is at the fourth end, which is full of rocks, where only small boats can lie, and that but indifferently. The other, which is at the north-east end, is larger, and serves commodiously for their fishery. On the coast of this island was shipwrecked the duke of Medina Sidonia, commander of the famous Spanish armada. The vessel broke to pieces, but the duke, and about two hundred more, escaped. They lived here till both themselves and the inhabitants were near famished. At length the duke, and the poor remains of his people, were carried over to the main-land of Shetland by Andrew Humphry. After continuing some time at Queendale, they embarked on board the same small ship, and were safely conveyed to Dunkirk; for which service the duke rewarded Humphry with three thousand marks. This island produced its late proprietor between fifty and sixty pounds a-year, and was sold a few years since at Edinburgh for about eight hundred and fifty pounds.

The Shetland islands, during four months in the year, enjoy almost perpetual day; but their situation in winter is proportionably gloomy, and much exposed to violent storms. But though the air at this season be extremely cold, many of the natives live to great age. By using much salt-fish, however, they are very subject to the scurvy, against which nature has furnished them with plenty of scurvy-grass. As no grain agrees with the soil so well as barley, their bread is mostly of this kind; and their common drink is whey, which they barrel up, and keep in cold cellars. Some drink butter-milk, mixed with water; but those in more affluent circumstances have beer, ale, and wine. During their long winter-nights they burn oil, which they make of the livers of fish. The inhabitants of the smaller isles maintain themselves in summer by catching fowl, and taking their eggs; and make considerable profit by selling their down and feathers. They catch the fowl by climbing the rocks, at which they are very dexterous; and likewise by being let down from the top by ropes, while they sit in a basket. Their fuel is turf, peat, and heath. They make coarse cloth, knit stockings and gloves for their own use, and for sale to the Norwegians; but their most profitable export is fish.

Here is abundance of little horses, called shelties, fit both for the plough and saddle, though they are so light, that a man can lift them from the ground. They are of two sorts, the pyed and the black; but the latter are the best. They are never housed, and when

they have no grass, live upon sea-weeds, which can only be had at ebb tide. Yet they commonly live to thirty years of age, and are all the while fit for service.

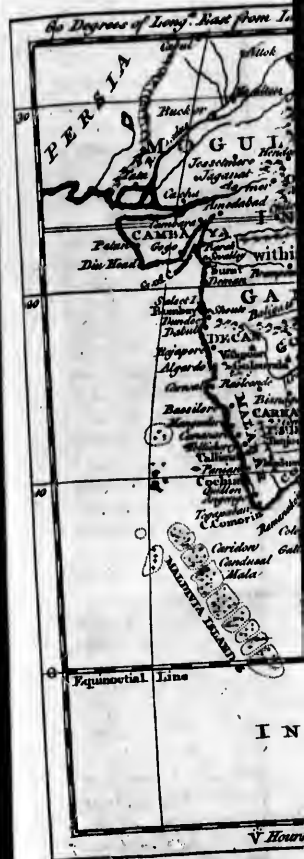
The chief trade of the Shetland isles is to Leith, London, Hainburgh, Spain, and the Straits. The inhabitants import timber, deals, and some of their best boats, from Norway; corn and flour from the Orkneys and North Britain; spirits, and some other articles, from Hainburgh; cloaths, and the better sort of linen, from Leith; and grocery, household furniture, and and other necessaries, from London. The duties to the earl of Morton, who is superior, are generally let in farm, and are paid by the inhabitants in butter, oil, and money. The remains of the old Norwegian constitution are still visible in the division of their lands; and they have some udalmen, or freeholders among them. But the Scotch laws, customs, manners, dress, and language, prevail. In respect of ecclesiastical concerns, they have a presbytery, which consists of twelve ministers, besides an itinerant preacher for Foula, Fair Island, and the Skerries. Each of these ministers has a stipend of between forty and fifty pounds, with a house and glebe, free from taxes. It is computed that the number of souls in all these islands may be about twenty thousand.

The Orkades, or Orkney Islands, are situated between fifty-eight degrees twenty-seven minutes and fifty-nine degrees ten minutes, of north latitude, and between one degree thirty minutes and two degrees fifty minutes of west longitude. They are separated from the continent of Scotland by the strait called Pentland Frith, which is twenty-four miles long, and from twelve to sixteen in breadth.

At the beginning of the last century, there were reckoned seventy-eight islands, cultivated and inhabited, exclusive of the smaller islets. The most considerable is Pomona, or the Main-land. This island is irregular in its form, shooting northward about sixteen miles in length, and nine in breadth; and the lower part running out eastward thirteen miles in length, and in some places four in breadth; but from Kirkwall to the opposite sea not above two miles broad. Here are several mountains and lakes, but the greater part of the island is flat and fruitful. Kirkwall, the only town in those islands, stretches near a mile in length, on the east side of a fine bay, which affords a commodious harbour. The houses, which are generally well built of stone, and handsomely slated, are about three hundred, and the place seems to be increasing. In the centre is situated the cathedral church of St. Magnus, a large and beautiful structure, in the form of a cross, standing upon pillars, and adorned with a high steeple. Here were formerly two palaces, one called the King's, and the other the Bishop's. This is a royal borough, in which are held the sheriff's and commissary's courts, with the synod of the clergy; and here are likewise a custom-house and a post-house. At Birsá, in the north-west corner of the island, Robert and Patrick, earls of Orkney, built a magnificent palace, part of which is yet standing.

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No. 45.

breadth, fruitful in barley and grafs, and has a safe harbour called Elwick. This island formerly made part of the estate of the bishop of Orkney. Fine leadore has been discovered in several places on the south-east. A large holm called Halgar, which lies near it, covers the port of Elwick, and affords excellent pasture.

To the north-east lies Stronfa, separated from the preceding by a frith about five miles broad. This island is seven miles in length, and four in breadth, very fertile, and abounding with all the necessaries of life. On the south-west runs out a peninsula, called Rousholm-head, which affords great plenty of peat. This peninsula forms the west side of a harbour called Rousholm-bay; besides which there are three others, one on the west, covered by Ling-holm, and called Linga-found; Strynie, on the north, defended by the little island of Papa-Stronfa; and a little to the south-west of this, Mills-bay. In former times this island was

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bread is mostly of this kind; and their common drink is whey, which they barrel up, and keep in cold cellars. Some drink butter-milk, mixed with water; but those in more affluent circumstances have beer, ale, and wine. During their long winter-nights they burn oil, which they make of the livers of fish. The inhabitants of the smaller isles maintain themselves in summer by catching fowl, and taking their eggs; and make considerable profit by selling their down and feathers. They catch the fowl by climbing the rocks, at which they are very dexterous; and likewise by being let down from the top by ropes, while they sit in a basket. Their fuel is turf, peat, and heath. They make coarse cloth, knit stockings and gloves for their own use, and for sale to the Norwegians; but their most profitable export is fish.

Here is abundance of little horses, called shelties, fit both for the plough and saddle, though they are so light, that a man can lift them from the ground. They are of two sorts, the pyed and the black; but the latter are the best. They are never housed, and when

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Besides the three good ports on the east end of the island; and the other at the south end, the largest of the fairs is held at the south end of the island.

The number of inhabitants to the south of the island, or Swinna, is about 1000. Hoia or Hoia Flotta, Burra, and one another.

Among the islands, which are called the Ullnesses; the Ullness island, and the Ullness broad, in the quantities of good grazing. A very few hills are to be seen in the north of the island, other than at West.

South-west of Swinna, the island is chiefly formed by Swinna.

To the east of the island of Water South, from east to west, is a mile broad, and well furnished with Pomona, and Glumps, and overgrown with numbers.

West of the island, the island of Wells, which is made by about nine parts but is the north of those islands extremely. There are all the other islands, which are not to be also great, and the island is anciently called the pleasant. No.

Besides that of Kirkwall, there are in Pomona three good ports, viz. Deer Sound, in the north-east end of the island; Grimshall, on the south-east side; and the bay of Cairstan, now called Stromness, at the south-west extremity. At the latter is a village of the same name, the most noted and the best frequented in the Orkneys.

The number of the South Isles, or those which lie to the south of the main land, is twelve; viz. Suina, or Swinna, Suda, South Ronaldsha, Waes or Wells, Hoia or Hoy, Graemes, Cava, South Fara, Ryfa, Flotta, Burra, and Coupinsha; differing much from one another in size, and likewise in quality.

Among those the most considerable is South Ronaldsha, which lies nearest to the continent of Caithness; the usual ferry being between Burwie in this island, and Duncan's Bay on the continent. It is between seven and eight miles long, in some places five broad, in others hardly two; producing considerable quantities of barley and oats, as well as great plenty of good grass; and its coasts abound with cod and ling. A vein of lead ore has been discovered near Grimness, in the north-east part of the island, and another near Widewall, on the west side. Here are a few hills and lakes, with two very good ports, one on the north side, called St. Margaret's Hope, and the other at Widewall.

South-west of the preceding lies the little island of Swinna, remarkable for a fine quarry of slate, but chiefly for two whirlpools, called the Wells of Swinna.

To the northward of South Ronaldsha lies the island of Burra, separated by a narrow strait called Water Sound. This island is four miles in length, from east to west; in some two, and in others one mile broad; abounding in corn, grass, and peat, and well furnished with stores for building. Between this and Pomona lie Lamb Holm, fertile in corn and grass; Glumpa Holm, affording good pasture; and Hunda, overgrown with heath, and affording shelter to great numbers of wild fowl.

West from South Ronaldsha, and south from Pomona, lie the isles of Hoia or Hoy, and of Waes or Wells, which, at the low ebbs after spring-tides, make but one island. Considered in this light, it is about nine miles long, and five broad in the widest parts but in some places not above one. Hoy, which is the northern part, is the most mountainous of all those isles; the hills being very high, and the valleys extremely deep, afford striking and romantic prospects. There are more bushes and birch-trees in this than in all the other islands, but the soil is heathy and barren, abounding, however, with game, particularly hares, which are white in the winter, and which creature is not to be found in any other of those islands. Here are also great numbers of the species of bird called the liar, which is much esteemed. On the west side of the island is a kind of natural fortrefs, called Brobury, anciently reckoned impregnable. Wells, and particularly that part called South Wells, is flat, fertile, and pleasant. There are in these isles three good ports,

No. 45.

viz. Orchope, Longhope, and Kirkhope, all very safe and commodious.

At a small distance to the east of Hoy, lies the little island of Ryfa, a fertile and pleasant spot. About two miles north east of this, and nearly the same distance from Pomona, is situated Cava, another small island, overgrown with heath, which affords shelter to abundance of wild-fowl, particularly the tyft, a small but very high flavoured bird. On the coast of this island are great quantities of excellent fish of various kinds.

Between Pomona and Hoy, about a mile distant from each, lies Graemes, a pleasant island, about five miles in circumference. The shore is formed by a chain of sharp and steep rocks; but the interior part of the country is flat, and fertile in corn and grass. Their peat and heath for fuel the inhabitants receive from Pomona, for a communication with which this island lies very conveniently, as covering the port of Stromness.

Coupinsha, more properly Coupmansee, or the Merchant Isle, lies directly east from Pomona. It is a small, but very high island, which with a rock near it, called the Horse of Coupinsha, serves as a sea-mark for all ships bound from the eastward; on which account it received its name. It is about a mile in length, hardly half as much in breadth, and remarkable only for its situation.

The North Isles, or those lying to the north of Pomona, are fifteen, viz. Damsa, Shipinsha, Gerfa, Vera, Eglesha, Raufa, Westra, Papa-Westra, North-Fara, Eda, Alhallow or Inhallow, Stronfa, Papa-Stronfa, Sanda, and North-Ronaldsha.

Damsa is a small island, lying at the foot of Wyt-fall, in a bay of Pomona, about a mile, or somewhat less in circumference, plain, pleasant, and for its size fruitful. Here was formerly a nunnery; and near it is a Holm, called Grimbutler, almost as large as Damsa, and which was once elegantly laid out in gardens.

Shapinsha lies three miles north-east of the town of Kirkwall; it is four miles long, almost as much in breadth, fruitful in barley and grass, and has a safe harbour called Elwick. This island formerly made part of the estate of the bishop of Orkney. Fine lead-ore has been discovered in several places on the south-east. A large holm called Halgar, which lies near it, covers the port of Elwick, and affords excellent pasture.

To the north-east lies Stronfa, separated from the preceding by a frith about five miles broad. This island is seven miles in length, and four in breadth, very fertile, and abounding with all the necessaries of life. On the south-west runs out a peninsula, called Rousholm-head, which affords great plenty of peat. This peninsula forms the west side of a harbour called Rousholm-bay; besides which there are three others, one on the west, covered by Ling-holm, and called Lingasound; Strynie, on the north, defended by the little island of Papa-Stronfa; and a little to the south-west of this, Mills-bay. In former times this island was

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much frequented by shipping: it was very populous, and the inhabitants had a considerable trade with all the northern nations, and a valuable fishery round a great rock near it, called *Oufkerry*, about a mile and a half in circumference, and which is very fertile in corn and grass, but without peat.

Two miles north of *Stronfa* lies *Sanda*, esteemed the largest of all these islands, next to *Pomona*. It is of an irregular figure, intersected on every side by deep inlets of the sea. It is twelve miles long, in some places only one broad, in others two, but in none above three miles. Here are several hills, and many lochs, some of which are of considerable extent. It is fruitful in corn and grass, but affords no peat or turf. It is also defective in respect of ports, for though there be two under that name, they are both small and shallow.

North-end-by-east of *Stronfa*, lies *North Ronaldsha*, the most remote of those islands, as well towards the north as to the east. It is three miles long, and one broad, mostly flat, and sufficiently fruitful both in corn and grass, but without any peat. The sea on its coasts is very tempestuous, and there is properly nothing that can be called a port. Here was formerly a very neat church, dedicated to *St. Olaus*.

Returning to the west, we begin with *Eda*, *Ethic*, or *Heath*, which lies north from *Shapinsha*, north-west from *Stronfa*, and west from *Sanda*. This island is about eight miles long, and two broad, hilly, covered with heath, and abounding in peat, with which it supplies several of the other islands. In other respects it is not very fertile. On the north-east of it is a large grassy holm, called the *Calf of Eda*, between which and the isle is a very safe road. In the last century this was the property of *Stuart earl of Carrick*, who built a good house on the island; and having erected proper works on the *Calf of Eda*, made there very fine salt. This is supposed by some to be the *Oecetia* of *Ptolemy*.

Three miles westward of *Eda*, lies *Westra*, a very beautiful island, nine miles long, and five broad. The country is finely diversified with hills and plains, abounding with barley, grass, cattle, sheep, rabbits, wild and sea fowl, as well as with fish upon the coasts. On the north-west are the remains of the castle of *Maitland*, which was begun, but not finished, by *Hepburn duke of Orkney*. Near the most western part of the island is the little harbour of *Pierowal*, where vessels that draw under ten foot water may lie with great safety.

At the distance of two miles eastward is situated *Papa-Westra*, a pleasant, and not unfertile island, three miles long and one broad, celebrated in former times for *St. Friedwald's* chapel and loch, of which many fabulous stories are still related.

About a league west from *Eda*, and four north-east from *Pomona*, lies the island of *Eglua*, or *Egilsha*, three miles long and one broad. It is a pleasant, fruitful island, distinguished by a neat little church, in which is said to lie the body of *St. Magnus*, the patron of those isles.

Half a league south-west of *Egilsha*, and about the

same distance north-east from *Pomona*, lies *Wire*, two miles long and one broad, very fertile in barley and grass, but affording no peat, with which it is supplied from the other islands.

Two miles south from *Wire*, about the same distance north-west from *Shapinsha*, and half a league north-west from *Pomona*, lies the small island of *Giarfa*, two miles long and one broad, with a pyramidal-shaped hill in the middle. Part of this island running out in a peninsula on the east side, forms what is called the *Hen of Giarfa*, between which and the body of the island there is a commodious little creek.

A very narrow sound separates *Pomona* from *Ronfa*, which lies north from it, and is a square island, between four and five miles in length from north to south, and about four in breadth. It is mountainous on the west and south sides, as well as in the middle, but in the other parts it is flat, and fertile in grass. Here is a great deal of heath and peat, with which many of the neighbouring islands are hence supplied. It is well supplied with cattle, sheep, rabbits, fowl, and fish, and is very healthy and pleasant. On the east it is separated from *Egilsha* by a strait about a mile broad, called *Howe Sound*, which affords a passage to the ships bound to and from *Iceland*; and it is divided by another strait called *Wire*, from the little island of that name.

Between *Ronfa*, and the north-west point of *Pomona*, lies the little isle of *Allhallow*, or *Inhallow*, about a mile in circumference, and, for its size, both fertile and pleasant.

The dress, language, and customs of the inhabitants of the *Orkneys*, are the same with those of the *Shetland* islands. Their trade, however, differs from that of the latter, in not depending on the resort of strangers, but on their own produce. They annually export a great quantity of corn, black cattle, sheep and swine, as well as of butter, tallow, and salt, with seal-skins, otter-skins, lamb and rabbit skins, &c. besides a vast deal of down, feathers, quills, bams, and wool. Their corn, in particular, is exported as far as *Edinburgh*, whence they bring what goods they want in exchange. A considerable branch of their employment is the herring and white fishery; but not having merchants to export their fish, when taken, they most commonly fish for the *Dutch*, and the merchants of *Inverness*.

The *Orkney* and *Shetland* islands form one constituency, and send a member to parliament.

When, or by whom, these islands were first planted, it is impossible to determine; but from the earliest accounts extant, relative to navigation and commerce, we find that even the most distant of them are treated as countries that were already known and inhabited. As such they were visited by the *Phœnicians*, who gave to the most northern of them the name of *Thule*, that is, *dark*, or *obscure*, as being then probably very full of wood. *Antonius Diogenes*, who flourished not long after *Alexander the Great*, wrote a large work concerning them, the materials of which are said to have been taken from cypress tables, preserved in the tombs of *Mantima* and *Dorcellis*, at *Tyre*.

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Tyre. Of this work only a fragment now remains, which is, however, sufficient to prove, that these islands were known to the people of Tyre, by means of whom they were afterwards introduced to the acquaintance of the Greeks.

These islands appear to have been conquered by the Norwegians towards the close of the ninth century, when they were conferred on Sigurd, or Sward, a man of a powerful family, who enjoyed them during his life, and left them to his son Gothurn. The latter dying soon after without issue, the islands came into the possession of Rongwald, the elder brother of Sigurd, who bestowed them on his natural son, Einar, or Eynard, with the title of earl. This nobleman is much celebrated by the Islandic and Norwegian bards, for finding out the use of turf, without which these islands could scarcely be inhabited, in their present naked and exposed condition.

The islanders remained several ages under a long succession of those princes, and dependent on the kingdom of Norway, under a very easy and equitable constitution; the earl living upon his demesne lands, the bishop and clergy having also a support suitable to their respective stations, and the inhabitants enjoying an extensive commerce.

This succession of earls ended in Magnus the Fifth, to whom, in right of his mother, succeeded Malis, earl of Strathern in Scotland, who held the earldoms both of Orkney and Caithness. This earl, by two wives, left five daughters, by which the inheritance came to be divided, till it was again united in the family of Sinclair; in the possession of which it remained when by virtue of the contract of marriage between James III. king of Scots, and the princess, Margaret, daughter to Christian III. king of Denmark and Norway, all the rights of the last mentioned monarch were transferred by way of mortgage, redeemable for fifty thousand florins, part of the marriage-portion of sixty thousand florins, to king James. This contract bears date at Copenhagen, Sept. 8, 1468.

These islands being thus transferred, it is evident that king James came only in the place of his father-in-law, Christian I. the sovereignty of the islands being yielded to him, while the actual possession remained as before in the earl of Orkney. But by a subsequent transaction between the same king and the family of Sinclair, confirmed by an act of parliament, these islands were annexed to the crown of Scotland. They were governed during that and the succeeding reign by the king's lieutenants; and notwithstanding the surrender of the earldom, the family of Sinclair, about the year 1501, obtained a very beneficial grant of the rents of the earldom, which they enjoyed for many years. Not satisfied with this beneficence, they even attempted to recover the entire possession of the islands. With this view the earl of Caithness and lord Sinclair, accompanied by a considerable force, landed in the Orkneys in 1529; but they were attacked and routed by the people of the country, when the earl of Caithness, with about five hundred of his followers, were killed or drowned, and lord Sinclair and all the rest were made prisoners.

Sir James Sinclair, captain of the castle of Kirkwell, who had distinguished himself in opposing the attempt of his kinsman, procured from king James I. a grant of the two fine islands of Sanda and Eda, upon a false suggestion that they were only holms fit for grazing. But the king being informed of this imposition, and expressing a very high resentment, Sir James was so terrified on the arrival of the monarch at Kirkenwall in 1534, that he threw himself into the sea at a place called the Loup of Linkness. This monarch was entertained during his stay by the bishop; and having composed all the troubles, he carried away with him some of the most factious persons, that they might create no more disturbances.

Soon after the attempt above mentioned, the king granted the revenues of the islands to James earl of Murray, which grant, however, did not take effect; but the widow of the lord Sinclair continued to enjoy the beneficial lease bestowed on her family, till the year 1540, when the rents of those islands were again let to Sir Oliver Sinclair at two thousand pounds a year. In 1565, queen Mary made a grant of them to her natural brother, lord Robert Stuart; which, however, was revoked on the queen's coming of age. In 1567, the same princess was prevailed upon, not only to make a new grant of these islands to James Hepburn, earl of Bothwell, but to raise him to the rank of duke of Orkney. Upon his flight and forfeiture they fell again to the crown, in which state they continued some years; till lord Robert Stuart reviving his claim on the grant made to him seventeen years before, and having great influence over young king James, at length prevailed so far, as not only to get that grant renewed, but to be created earl of Orkney in 1581. Soon after, for some acts of oppression which he had committed, the grant was revoked; in two years it was renewed, and confirmed to himself and his son. In 1609, the latter obtained a new grant, but he treated the inhabitants so ill, that upon their complaints, he was imprisoned; in which state having excited an open rebellion, he was in 1615 convicted of high treason, and beheaded. After this, to quiet the minds of the people of Orkney, a public proclamation was made by authority from the crown, declaring that these islands should never more be dissevered or granted in private property.

In 1614, Sir James Stuart, afterwards lord Ochiltree, became the king's farmer-general for these islands; and in a few years after, the complaints against him were so great, that he was imprisoned. In 1624, Sir George Hay, the chancellor obtained the collection of the rents, but he surrendered the grant three years after; and in 1633, upon a very strong representation from the people of Orkney, the islands were again annexed to the crown more strictly than ever. The rents were let by lease upon such terms as the treasury thought expedient, which were sometimes higher and sometimes lower, according to the respective interests of those by whom they were obtained. At length, in 1643, the earl of Morton procured a grant of these islands to himself and his heirs,

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with the whole jurisdictions and regalities, in the nature of a mortgage, redeemable upon the payment of thirty thousand pounds sterling. His family was dispossessed by Cromwell, who caused a small fort to be erected at Kirkwall, in which he placed a garrison. After the Restoration the earl of Morton resumed the possession; but from an apprehension that by the general revocation, these islands were again devolved to the crown, a new grant by way of mortgage, was in 1662, obtained from king Charles II. to the lord Viscount Grandison, in trust for the family of Morton. But in 1669, both this and the former grant were declared null and void, by a decree of the court of session; and the isles of Orkney and Shetland were once more annexed to the crown by a very strict act of parliament.

The rents were from this time let as they formerly had been, upon lease, particularly in the year 1671, to George Scot, for the annual rent of forty thousand marks Scots, making two thousand two hundred and seventy-five pounds fifteen shillings and six pence sterling. In 1707, after repeated applications to parliament, relative to the manner in which the grant to the earl of Morton had been dissolved, James, then earl of Morton, procured a new grant, subject to a fee duty of five hundred pounds sterling a year; and by an act of parliament passed in 1742, this grant was made absolute and irredeemable. Besides the crown lands, his lordship obtained likewise a grant of those belonging to the bishoprick of Orkney, which in the time of popery was a fee of considerable value; but this grant was subject to large deductions. The earl of Morton has also a temporary grant of the rights of admiralty; the admiralty of the islands of Shetland and Orkney having always been distinct from that of Scotland.

#### C H A P. VIII.

##### *The Hebrides or Western Isles.*

THE Western Isles of Scotland were called by the ancients *Æbudæ* and *Hebrides*, and have been computed to form a number no less than three hundred. The first considerable island of this class which we meet in our progress southward, is Lewis and Harris. This has been supposed to be two islands, but is only one, the different parts of which are united by a narrow isthmus, that of Lewis being the most northerly. It is situated sixty-eight miles west of the main land of Scotland, extending near a hundred miles in length from north to south, and ten or twelve in breadth. It is commonly called the Long Island; but under this name is sometimes included the range of islands lying to the southward, and which are supposed to have been once united with this tract.

The climate, though none of the most desirable, especially in the northern part, is yet esteemed healthy. The springs are backward and bleak; the summer sufficiently warm; the autumn rainy, particularly in the month of October; the winter sharp

and windy, but the frost not very long or severe; neither have they much snow. The soil is arable for about sixteen miles on the west coast, and in some places on the east; but it is generally sandy, except the muirs or heaths, which are partly of red and partly of black clay; of which the women here make vessels for boiling their meat, and for preserving their ale. When manured with sea-wreck, the black land is very fertile, and produces large crops of good barley and rye; besides oats, peas, beans, potatoes, and all kinds of garden stuff. Hemp and flax likewise thrive well; and here is plenty of peat and turf, which supplies the want of wood; there being now only a few birch and hazel trees. There are some quarries of stone, and even of marble. Gold dust is said to have been found; and there is much yellow talc. Amber, and ambergris, have been frequently thrown upon the coasts. Coral and coralline grow in Loch Seaforth, and perhaps in other places.

Besides a variety of good springs, some of which have a particular quality, here are several rivers and rivulets, in which are salmon, trouts, and other excellent fish. Here are also many fresh-water lakes, particularly that of Langavat in Lewis, which is twelve miles long and six broad; and a smaller lake of the same name in Harris; all of them plentifully stocked with fish of different kinds. On the east and west sides are several inlets of the sea, or salt-lochs, such as Broad Loch, Loch Stronawa, Loch Grimhadar, and many others.

In the mountains there are eagles and hawks of several different kinds, with a great variety of wild fowl. The lakes are covered with an incredible diversity of water fowl, among which may be reckoned the famous *anas farenfis*, canard a duvet, eider goose, or as it is called here, the colek, the down of which is supposed to be the finest in the world. Here are sheep, goats, and hogs, in great number, with black cattle, horses, and deer, small indeed in size, but excellent in their respective kinds. The island produces no wild beasts, and very few vermin, except the mettrick, which is said to afford valuable fur. On the coasts are cod, ling, haddock, whiting, skate, turbot, mackarel, and many other kinds of fish in great plenty. In some or other of the lochs there are herrings through all the seasons of the year. Seals and otters are in greater numbers than in the other isles; as also porpoises, and whales of almost every size and denomination; with all the kinds of shell-fish, in a degree of excess, so as to cover the beaches, when the sea ebbs, where, by corrupting in the warm weather, they sometimes infect the air.

The inhabitants are generally a stout, active, well proportioned people, with their hair for the most part of a light brown. In cultivating the ground, they make use of what they call a ristle, a kind of sickle plough, drawn by one horse, and which cuts not a furrow, but a deep line, dividing all the stringy roots of bent and other plants, that compose their moors. They afterwards plough with an instrument which

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is also peculiar to themselves; and after sowing, draw over the field a harrow with two rows of crooked teeth, and heather fixed in another row, to smooth the surface, after the clods have been broke.

They make woollen cloth and linen, for their own use; and while they had a market for it, the women spun a great deal of yarn and thread.

This island appears to have been inhabited from very remote times, for here are many monuments of druidical worship, such as the Trufhel-stone in the parish of Barvas, which is twenty foot high, and very near as many broad. Likewise three upright stones on the north-side of Loch Carlavay, each of them twelve foot in height; with a temple at the village of Clafernesh, said to be as remarkable as Stone-Henge in Wiltshire.

The northern part of it, or the Isle of Lewis, belongs chiefly to lord Seaforth, and that of Harris, or the southern part, to lord Macleod.

#### NORTH UIST.

North Uist, or North Vist, lies to the south of Harris, from which it is divided by a sound about nine miles broad, in which is a multitude of very small islands. This island is reckoned about thirty miles in circumference. The climate is temperate, and the soil rich; there being on the west-side a great deal of flat ground, which affords large quantities of grain, especially barley; as well as excellent pasture. On the east-side the island is sandy, full of little eminences; and in the middle mountainous, but where grows a great deal of fern, and grass, sufficient to feed numbers of cattle and sheep. On the east-side, the inhabitants make large quantities of kelp. Loch Maddie is accounted a good harbour. This island is capable of great improvement, and belongs to lord Macdonald.

#### BENBECULA.

Benbecula lies to the south of North Uist, from which it is divided by a sound seven miles broad. This island is ten miles in circumference; on the west-side plain and fruitful, but on the east sandy and full of little hills. Here was formerly a large nunnery, which is now the residence of Mr. Macdonald of Clanronald, the proprietor of the isle.

#### SOUTH UIST.

South Uist is separated from Benbecula by a narrow sound, which is fordable at some places at low water. This island is thirty-six miles long from north to south, and in breadth from four to seven. On the west-side is a tract of flat land, containing about forty thousand acres, very rich and fertile. This, besides excellent pasture, produces large crops of fine barley. Hemp and flax thrive exceedingly. Here are great numbers of black cattle, with sheep which have very fine wool; and the coast abounds with all sorts of white fish. Notwithstanding these advantages,

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and that the island is less subject to rain than any of the rest, the inhabitants have little or no commerce, and are consequently poor. This island is likewise the property of Mr. Macdonald.

#### BARRA.

Barra lies at a small distance from South Uist, and is about fifteen miles in circumference. It is not either so pleasant or so fruitful as the preceding; but there is plenty of cod and ling, of a large size, caught on the coast. This island belongs to a gentleman of the name of Mac Neil.

Southward of Barra lie several small islands, particularly five, which, though they have distinct names, are in general called the Bishop's Islands. There are likewise innumerable islands of various sizes, lying round the six larger which have been described; most of them very small, but some of them five or six miles in circumference.

Those islands, in point of legal jurisdiction, are in the shire of Inverness. They are divided into several parishes, in each of which is at least one school, where the children of the better sort receive a tolerable education. According to computation, the number of inhabitants in all those islands is not more than fifteen thousand. The common people speak the Gaelic; and in South Uist and Barra, many of them are papists, of whom there are none in the other islands. But even in those two, the number of Roman catholics is now much declining.

#### ST. KILDA.

To the westward lies the famous solitary isle of St. Kilda, or in the language of the country, Hirta. It is two miles long, and one broad; surrounded with steep rocks, except at the bay on the south-east, where is an entrance for vessels. The land rises high in the middle; and there are several fountains of good water on each side the island. It produces oats and barley, the latter of which is accounted the largest in the Western Isles. The inhabitants, who are about two hundred, are well proportioned and comely. In their manners they are virtuous and simple; and know not the use of money. Here is a chapel where they assemble on Sunday, and where the scripture is read by the proprietor's steward, who also has the privilege of baptizing and marrying, unless when a minister is sent thither from Harris. Though protestants, they have in the chapel an altar and a crucifix, which have continued there since the time of popery; and though they pay no worship to the crucifix, yet they swear decisive oaths, by laying their hands upon it; and take the marriage oath in the same manner.

Their houses are low, built of stone, with a cement of dry earth, and covered with turf thatched with straw. They make their beds in the walls of their houses, and lie commonly on straw, though they have great plenty of feathers and down. They all live in a little village on the east-side of the island; not far from which are the remains of an old fort.

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In this island is the house of a druidess, all built of stone, without any cement. It is of a conic figure, open at the top, and has a fire-place in the middle of the floor. It cannot easily contain more than nine persons. From the side of the wall go off three low vaults, separated from one another by pillars, and capable of containing five persons each.

On this island are two others dependent. One of these, called Soa, lies about half a mile from the west side of St. Kilda, and is about a mile in circumference, very high and steep all round. The other, called Borera, lies about two miles north of St. Kilda, and is about a mile in circumference, surrounded likewise, in most places with a high rock. All these three islands afford good pasturage, and abound with sea fowl from March till September. Here is a bird called the fulmar, about the size of a moor-hen; which subsists on fish. When approached by any person, it scouts out oil from its beak; and this the natives use not only for their lamps, but as a remedy in rheumatic pains, and other complaints. This island is the property of lord Macleod.

## S K Y.

Sky or Skie, lies between the coast of Scotland, and the range of islands to the westward which have been already mentioned. From Point Hunish in the north-east of this island, to Loch Tarradon in Ross, the distance is seven leagues; but for the space of about six miles, at the south-east end, the breadth of the sound is little more than a mile; and at the ferry it is yet much narrower. This island is supposed to be the Eastern Euboda of Ptolemy. Though the springs here are commonly backward, the summers are sufficiently warm; but the rain generally sets in about the dog-days, and continues through the autumn. As to their winters, they are in comparison with the continent, remarkably mild, with very little frost or snow; but they are often attended with high northerly winds, and heavy rains.

The form of this island is very irregular, the sea entering deep into the land on every side, so as almost to divide it in several places. In the interior parts, it is generally marshy, abounding at the same time with rocks and mountains; among the latter of which, are seven remarkably high, viz. Quillin, Scornifey, Bein-Stor, Bein-vore-scowe, Beinchro, Bein-nin, and Kaillach. Of these Quillon is the highest; and to it dividing the clouds in their passage, a great part of the wet weather which prevails here is commonly ascribed. The length of this island is said to be forty-four computed miles, and its breadth thirty-six in some places; but in others twenty-six, and in some parts hardly two miles.

The soil is various in respect of colour, depth, and quality. In some places it is a thin clay, in others moss; but in many parts a rich black mould, lying upon some lime-stone, and extremely fertile. Even the moss, when manured with shell sand, of which there is great plenty in all parts of the island, produces very good crops. Though the interior part

of the isle be one continued moor, interspersed with mountains, rocks, and morasses, yet all these afford a rough kind of grass, on which the cattle feed and grow fat. Few countries are so well stocked as this island with all kinds of manure; for besides the seaweed, which is common to all the islands, they have a very prolific sort of sea sand, distinct from the shell sand before mentioned; exclusive of fine marle, which, though well known, is very little used. Here is also great variety of fine earths, of different colours, soft, unctuous, and free from any kind of grit; potters earth, fullers earth, a kind of white earth which has been mistaken for chalk; free-stone, lime-stone, white and black marble, agate, and crystal. Upon the rocks are found some dying mosses, and talc as fine as that of Venice. In some places there are promising appearances of silver ore; and cakes of iron are frequently discovered among the peat ashes. Coal has been found in different parts of the island; but having plenty of peat and turf, which are more easily procured, the inhabitants make little use of it. The country was formerly overgrown with fir-trees, of which few if any are now left; but there are still some woods, and several coppices in different parts of the island. The natives grow considerable quantities of barley and oats, the latter of which is by much the best. They have also hemp and flax; with potatoes, peas, beans, and all kinds of garden stuff.

This island is remarkably well watered, having innumerable springs, some of which are mineral and medicinal, and all of them limpid and wholesome. Rivulets and rills of different sizes run down from the mountains; and besides several kinds of fresh fish, there are about thirty of those that abound in salmon. Here are likewise several fresh-water lakes, and among these one of a considerable size, in which is an island, with a chapel dedicated to St. Columba. In several of these lakes there are trout, eels, and pikes; and in some are muscels that yield pearls. Many salt-water lakes, which are numerous on each side of the island, abound with herrings in the season; and all of them with white and shell-fish of different sorts. In a few of the largest there are islands which serve for pasturage, and afford shelter for sea fowl.

Tame fowls of all kinds are here in great plenty; as are likewise wild and water fowl. The black cattle are small, but, when well fed, afford excellent beef. The horses likewise are small, but lively and hardy, going through all sorts of labour, upon food that costs their owners little or nothing. The island affords sheep, hogs, deer, goats, and rabbits, but no hares. There is however, a number of foxes, with seals, otters, weazles, and two or three sorts of vipers, the bite of some of which is said to be mortal.

The inhabitants, though generally not very tall, are well made, stout and active; and they dwell for the most part in scattered villages, as conveniency and the situation invite. Though they are not unacquainted with the improvements in husbandry, the quantity

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quantity of corn which they raise is disproportioned to the consumption of the inhabitants, the former being computed at nine thousand bolls in tolerable seasons, and the number of the latter at thirteen thousand. They make woollen and linen cloth for their own use, and a little for sale. Till lately, the linen was always woven by their women, the occupation of a weaver being thought a disgrace to the other sex. They cure some fish for sale, but not a great quantity. Kelp is a great article of their trade, selling from three pounds ten, to five pounds a tun; and they likewise burn a considerable quantity of fern ashes. They transport most of their commodities in their own little boats, and might extend their commerce much farther, if their circumstances would allow them to build larger vessels.

The commerce of the isle of Sky is almost entirely confined to two places. One of these is Portry, on the east-side of the island; where the Loch of the same name affording a commodious harbour, and the place lying in the middle of the country, two fairs are annually held, one about the beginning of June, and the other in the beginning of September, in which are sold cattle, cheese, butter, fish, and other commodities. The other place of greatest resort is at Dunwegan, on the west-side of the island, where the bay or loch called Failort affords a tolerable harbour. The purchasers, at their return from these fairs, swim the horses and cows across the ferry to the main land.

In this island many ancient monuments are still extant; such as altars, stones of immense height, and circular temples, erected in the time of the druids; besides small houses under ground, and a kind of cells in remote places, which were the retreat of hermits in later ages. Here is also a considerable number of watch towers; with heaps of stones, supposed to be the sepulchral monuments of the Danes, who once were masters of the island. Besides these there are many natural curiosities, among which are caves of a prodigious extent.

This island lies in the shire of Inverness, and is divided into seven parishes, in each of which is a school, exclusive of three charity-schools in different parts of the island. The inhabitants are in general protestants, and the common sort speak only Gaelic or Erse, but persons of better condition understand and speak English. The lands are divided chiefly between three proprietors, who are lord Macdonald, lord Macleod, and the representative of the family of Mackinnon.

Contiguous to Sky are many smaller islands, with a great number of islets or holms, that are dependent upon it. To the north-east and north-west of Trotterness, which is its northern extremity, are eight or more small islands, which, from the ruins of chapels that are in them, appear to have been inhabited in former times. To the south lie five islands, viz. Canna, or Cannay, Rum, Egg, Muck, and Aich. The first of these, though not the largest, is by much the most valuable. It is a flat island, about three miles long, and upwards of a mile broad, well

watered, the soil remarkably rich, and producing plenty of corn and grass. At the east end of it there is a safe and capacious harbour, capable of containing a hundred and fifty-sail of ships; and near it are two banks abounding with large cod; but notwithstanding these advantages, the islanders have neither trade nor manufactures; and being able to pay their rent with their black cattle, give themselves very little trouble about fishing. It contains about three hundred inhabitants, and is the property of Mr. Macdonald of Clanronald.

Rum is a larger island, of a circular form, and near twelve miles in diameter; but the face of it is rugged and mountainous, the soil wet and marshy. It produces only grass; and the black cattle, sheep, and goats are of an inferior kind. This is the property of Mr. Maclean of Colle; and contains between two and three hundred inhabitants, who live in great poverty.

Egg and Muck are not either of them quite so large as Canna, but are as fertile, and their climate is both healthy and pleasant. The island of Aich is the least considerable of them all.

These islands look always fresh and verdant, but, except Rum, they contain not so much as a bush; and the inhabitants are of opinion that no trees will grow in them. In this, however, they are probably mistaken; for in Soa Veretil, an island of much the same size, and lying between them and Sky, the wood is so plentiful as to cover one half of the island.

On the east-side of Sky there are likewise five islands, viz. Pabay, Scalpa, Raafa, Fladda, and Rona. Pabay is a flat round island, about a mile in diameter, now used only for pasture; but it has for rich a soil, that it might be rendered entirely arable. Its only inhabitants are a cowherd and his family.

Scalpa is three miles long and one broad, rising gradually on all sides from the shore, but not to a great height. Along the sea-side there is some arable ground; and the other part affords pasture for black cattle.

Raafa is nine miles long and three broad, divided into arable and pasture ground, and is the property of Mr. Macleod, who has a handsome seat upon it.

The island of Fladda is only a mile in circumference.

Rona the most northerly of this group, is about three miles long, and half a mile broad. It contains very little arable land, and is the property of the gentleman last mentioned. The number of inhabitants in these five islands is computed to be about six hundred.

#### M U L L.

Proceeding southward we reach the island of Mull, situated on the coast of Argyleshire, and supposed to be the Malcos of Ptolemy. It is twenty-four miles in length, and near as much in breadth; very rough and mountainous, intersected by the sea on all sides, particularly the west, where are two large bays which penetrate the land to a great extent.

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From the beginning of April to the end of May, here is generally fair weather, but attended with cold northerly winds. From that time to the middle of July, the weather is pretty warm, and in most seasons tolerably dry; but thence to the end of October, the rains are almost incessant. During the winter, wind and rain prevail more than frost or snow, either of which seldom happens; and when they do, they are not severe or of long continuance.

The soil of this island is for the most part very indifferent. In the south-west corner, which is styled *Ros* or *Rosy*, the ground is plain, low, and tolerably fertile, as likewise is the north-east part, which is called *Morinish*; but the rest is in general cold, wet, and barren. The interior part of the island is covered with mountains, some of which, particularly *Bainne Mcre*, are steep and of great height. There are some woods and many coppices yet remaining. The grass is in general but indifferent; and black cattle can find little or no subsistence on the hills in winter. Those mountains, however, are not totally useless, as they yield immense quantities of peat and turf, which supply the inhabitants with fuel. Oats and barley grow here, but neither of them is reckoned excellent in its kind.

The island is for the most part exceedingly well watered with fine springs, some of which are medicinal; and many rivulets run from the mountains on all sides. There are some fresh water lochs of considerable extent, which abound in trout, eel, and other fish; and in some of the rivers there are salmon as well as pearl muscles.

Bloody Bay affords a harbour for small vessels, which sometimes go to Loch Buy in the herring season. The bay behind the castle of Dowart is also frequented by small vessels. But *Toubir-Mary-Bay*, which is covered by a small island called *Calve*, is a very good port, in which a large ship of the Spanish armada was blown up in 1588.

There is great plenty of tame fowl of all sorts about every habitation in the island. The mountains abound with game; and the lochs furnish a prodigious variety of water-fowl. Here are great numbers of black cattle, of a small size, but affording excellent beef. Sheep and goats are also numerous; and there are many deer in the hills and woods, which are also much infested with foxes. The horses are of a smaller size, but are highly esteemed; and there is an annual fair in the month of August, in which considerable numbers are sold. Herrings come frequently into the bays, which likewise afford great plenty of white and shell fish of all kinds. Many seals and otters are found among the rocky islands in the large bays; and the sea-ware not only supplies plenty of manure for the lands, but there is likewise a great quantity annually made into kelp.

The castle of Dowart, which stands on a rock, about the middle of the east-coast of the island, remains still a kind of garrison. The castle of *Abos*, farther in the country, is become a heap of ruins; and that of *May*, at the end of Loch Bay is now a place of no consequence. There are some remains

of little Danish forts, but nothing that deserves the name of a town, in all this large island. The inhabitants, who resemble those of the other islands, in language and customs, live in scattered hamlets, and have among them no appearance of improvements, except a few inclosures. They have no manufactures but those of coarse cloth and linen for their own consumption; nor any fisheries of consequence, though for these their situation is so commodious.

The principal proprietor is the duke of Argyle, but there are also many others. Here are only three parishes, in each of which is a church. There is likewise a chapel, and a school where forty or fifty children are taught, at the expence of the society for propagating Christian knowledge in the Highlands. The inhabitants are protestants, and computed to be about five thousand; but from the vestiges of many churches, the island appears to have been formerly much more populous.

### J O N A.

*Jon.* or *Jeosum Kill*, is separated from the western extremity of Mull by a strait scarce half a mile over. This celebrated island is about two miles long, and a little more than half a mile broad. Though lying so near Mull, the climate is warmer, and much less subject to rain. On the borders of the sea the soil is rich and fertile, producing excellent oats, barley, and flax; the other part, which is rocky, abounds with fine grass, and seeds, in proportion to its extent, a great number of cattle. It is well-watered, exceedingly pleasant, and contains about a hundred and fifty inhabitants.

This island was given in the sixth century to St. Columba, who erected here a monastery, in which she was interred. In succeeding times, a nunnery, and several chapels were built here; and it was also famous for a library, in which were deposited the archives and histories of Scotland, with many other curious manuscripts now lost. But the circumstance for which it is most celebrated, is its having been the burying place, not only of the kings of Scotland, but of Ireland, Norway, and the Isles; and likewise of other distinguished persons of both sexes in the western parts of Scotland, and in the islands. Many ruins of buildings yet remain, that evince the ancient splendor of this island, which was once the resort of visitors, from all the northern nations of Europe.

Round this island are several of a smaller size, which furnish pasture for cattle, and near the coasts of which great quantities of cod, ling, and other fish might be taken.

### S T A F F A.

On the west coast of Mull likewise lies the small island of Staffa, about a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth. This island is celebrated for the natural pillars that range in a magnificent manner along many parts of the coast, particularly on the south-

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south-west side. They are mostly of great length, and lie in various directions; but in one place, called the Cave of Fingal, they are about fifty-foot high, and proportionably thick, disposed in the form of colonnades, according to the direction of the shore.

## C O L.

Col is about thirteen miles long, and three broad, mostly covered with heath, interspersed with spots of grass and corn. The quadrupeds in this island are horses, cows, sheep, and goats; but here are neither deer, hares, nor rabbits. There are several lochs, some of which afford trout and eels. Both ends of the island are the property of the duke of Argyle, but the middle belongs to Mr. Mac Lean.

## T Y R - I T Y.

Near Col lies the island of Tyr-Ity, eight miles long and three broad. It abounds with corn, cattle, fish, and fowl. Here is a fresh water lake, with an island and an old castle in it. Tyr-Ity formerly belonged to the family of Mac Lean, but is now the property of the duke of Argyle. There is in the island one church, called Sorabi, of which the dean of the Isles was minister.

## C O L O N S A Y.

Colonsay is above twelve miles long, and three broad, full of rocky hills, running transversely, intermixed with meandering valleys, all affording excellent pasturage. The soil produces oats, beans, and potatoes; and a considerable quantity of kelp is here annually made.

## O R A N S A Y.

Oranay, which is separated from the preceding by a narrow sound, is three miles long; the fourth part low and sandy, but the rest high and rocky. This island yields the same commodities as the last mentioned; and here are the ruins of an ancient monastery, founded, as some suppose, by Columba, but more probably by one of the lords of the Isles, who established here a priory of regular canons of Augustine, dependent on the abbey of Holy-rood at Edinburgh. The church is fifty-nine foot by eighteen; and contains many tombs of the ancient islanders.

## I L A Y.

To the southward of these lies Ilay, about twenty-eight miles long, of a square form, but deeply indented on the south by the great bay of Loch-anidaal. The face of the island is hilly, though not high, and much of it is covered with heath; but in some parts the land is of good quality. Should the inhabitants turn their attention to agriculture, the island might be greatly improved; for besides sea-wreck, it affords coral, shell sand, rock and pit marle, and great quantities of lime-stone. The chief produce, however, is only flax, and some corn, of the latter of

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which so little is cultivated, that the inhabitants annually import a thousand pounds worth of meal. From the number of cattle bred here, the island is frequently so overstocked, that many of them die in the spring for want of fodder. Here are weazles, otters, hares, eagles, falcons, black and red game, with several kinds of fish; and vipers swarm in the heath. The people of this island are said to be extremely superstitious with respect to the power of fascination. Here are several mines of lead, much mixed with copper, which appear to have been wrought in former times, and have again been opened of late years.

## B E R N E R A.

Bernera is about five miles in circumference, and has in it a noble wood of yew, with a fresh water lake, where many land and sea fowl resort. This island was a sanctuary in popish times.

## L I S M O R E.

Lismore is about nine miles long, and one and a half broad, and is extremely fertile in oats and bear. Here is a church of modern but mean building; and in the church-yard are two or three old tombs, with the highland broad sword engraved on them. Here is also a remarkable tomb consisting of nothing more than a thick log of oak. On a rock are cut the radii of a dial, but the index is lost.

## J U R A.

Jura is reckoned about twenty-four miles long, and in most places seven broad. It is the most rugged of all the Hebrides, the interior parts consisting chiefly of vast naked mountains, incapable of cultivation. Some of these rise to a great height, particularly two, which are distinguished by the name of the Paps of Jura. The east coast of the island, through its whole extent, is remarkably plain and fertile, as are likewise several spots in other places, producing barley, oats, rye, hemp, and flax, in considerable quantities. This island is remarkably well watered with fine springs; and here are also some fresh-water lochs, which abound in trout, pike, eels, and other sorts of fish, besides vast quantities of water fowl. No less than ten beautiful rivers run from the mountains towards the east side of the island, four or five of which are well stored with salmon and other fine fish. Here is great plenty of all sorts of tame fowl; and the hills abound more with black game than any other of the islands; producing likewise a considerable number of deer, for which this island was formerly famous. Black cattle, horses, sheep, goats, and rabbits, are in great number; but here are neither hares nor foxes. The sea-coast abounds with all sorts of white and shell fish; and the barren rocky islands at a little distance afford plenty of seals, as well as prodigious quantities of sea ware.

The inhabitants are in general a stout, well proportioned, and active people; of a brown or rather dark complexion, resembling the people in the southern

countries of Europe. They live in small hamlets, dispersed for the most part along the east-side of the island. The number of persons amounts to about twelve hundred. In general their language is Erse, but the better sort here grows speak English. This island lies in the shire of Argyle, and part of it is the property of the duke.

#### G I G A I A.

The next remarkable island is Gigaia, six miles in length, and a mile and a half in breadth, with a soil well adapted both for arable and pasture ground. Upon the stones here grows corkir, which dyes a crimson colour; and crostil, which dyes a philamort. The proprietors of this island are the Mac Neils.

#### C A R Y.

Cary is situated a very little south of the preceding, and is about a mile in compass, affording good pasturage, and abounding with rabbits. This island belongs to the family of Macalester.

#### A R R A N.

Arran lies in the mouth of the Frith of Clyde, at the distance of a few leagues from the continent. It is of an oval shape, and almost every where rough and mountainous. The cock of Arran, which is towards the northern extremity, is a famous sea-mark; but the highest mountain stands in the interior part. The length of this island from south to north is twenty-four miles, and its greatest breadth fourteen, being in many places indented by the sea. At present, only a small part near the coast is improved, but the cultivation appears to have been anciently more general. The island is well watered with springs, as well as with several fresh-water lochs, particularly Loch Versa, out of which runs a fine river. Besides many rivulets, here are five considerable streams that fall into the sea on the west side, and an equal number on the east. The produce is the same as that in the other islands, only here are no hares nor foxes. The lochs and rivers abound with trout and salmon; and various sorts of sea fish are caught upon the coast in great abundance.

The inhabitants live in scattered villages over the island, and have no other mechanic employments than such as are absolutely necessary towards their subsistence. Besides a little coarse cloth which they spin and weave for their own use, their only manufacture is kelp, which they sell for about forty and sometimes fifty shillings a ton.

The greatest natural beauty in Arran is the incomparable harbour of Lamlach, which lies towards the south-east, covered by an island of the same name, about three quarters of a mile in length. This haven is a kind of circle nine miles in compass, surrounded by high mountains, and capable of containing five hundred sail of ships. Its distinguishing convenience arises from the disposition of the island at its mouth, which affords a double entrance and

outlet, so that vessels may pass in almost any wind. To the north, at the distance of about five leagues, lies the harbour of Loch Ransa, which is land-locked, and though in other respects very commodious, is dry at low water. The bay without, however, is spacious, and in it sixty or seventy ships may anchor with great safety.

Formerly there were several churches in this island, but at present only two parishes, which are those of Kilbride and Kilmoray. There is also a chapel and catechist at Loch Ransa, endowed by one of the duchesses of Hamilton with twenty-five pounds a year.

Here are many remains of druidical superstition, which evince its having been inhabited in very early times; as are also many caves remarkable for their size and situation; besides the remains of some ancient fortresses. The castle of Broadwic, which belongs to the duke of Hamilton, is still a large edifice, and must anciently have been both strong and sumptuous.

The number of inhabitants is computed at about five thousand. On the west side of the island they generally speak Erse, and on the east side English. The duke of Hamilton is proprietor of the greater part of Arran; and, with others of the neighbouring islands, it lies in the shire of Bute.

#### B U T E.

The isle of Bute is situated at the entrance of the Frith of Clyde, having the main land of the shire of Air at the distance of six miles on the east. Its length from north to south is eighteen miles, and the broadest part about five; but it is in many places narrower, being indented on both sides by large bays of the sea. The face of the country is rather hilly than mountainous, except in the north-east part; and large tracts of level and fruitful ground are interspersed between the hills through almost every part of the island. Along the shore, and in the valleys the soil is generally a deep strong mould, extremely fertile, and well adapted for wheat, barley, oats, and flax, though at present the inhabitants grow only oats and bear of which they commonly export about four thousand quarters annually. Towards the north end of the island is a quarry of coarse slate; and a vein of coal has been found, which, however, dipping very deep, is not thought worth the expence of working. Here is plenty of free-stone, and stone of a red colour, of which there are many ancient buildings. A large mountain of lime-stone hangs over the sea. Here were anciently many woods, several of which, some of oak, are yet remaining.

The island is well watered with springs and rivulets; and there are six or eight fresh-water lochs, among which four have rivers running out of them; all abounding in pike, perch, and fine large trout. Here are wild, tame, and water fowl of most sorts, and in great plenty; and the hills afford deer, with the beautiful creature called the roe-buck. The horses and black cattle are small, occasioned by their breeding too great numbers. The sheep are excellent, and

and the quantity around with herring.

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and the quantity of swine considerable. The coasts abound with different sorts of sea fish, particularly herring.

Bute, according to ancient writers, was the first island possessed by the Scots, under the command of Renda, or, as he is named by others, Rothsay, who is said to have built the town and fort of that name: this, though a royal borough, and giving, since the reign of Robert III. the title of duke to the heir-apparent of the crown, is an inconsiderable place, containing about six or seven hundred inhabitants. It stands, however, upon a very fine bay, which is capable of containing a fleet of large ships; and the entrance and quay have been lately much improved by the assistance of the earl of Bute, the proprietor. The chief support of the inhabitants is the herring-fishery, in which they employ from a hundred and sixty to two hundred boats. They sell the fish daily, as they take them, to the attending traders from Glasgow, Greenock, and other places.

There are in the island two ferries, one from Rothsay to Greenock, which is about five leagues up the Clyde; and the other from Mount Stewart to Larges, the nearest port in the shire of Air. The boats go regularly every week, the former carrying corn, cattle, and other commodities, for the Greenock market, and the latter chiefly passengers. Most of the inhabitants speak the English language, which may be considered as their mother-tongue, though many of them understand, and some likewise can speak Erse, which is the common dialect of the ordinary people in the other western islands.

Here are several old fortresses, or places anciently built for defence, such as Dun Owl, or Dun Ouil, and Dun Allin, on the west side; and on the east side of the island, a little north from Rothsay, is an old castle, three stories high, which seems to have been once a stately building, and a great security to the place.

In former times there were several churches in this island, but at present only two parishes, the inhabitants of which, conjunctly, are computed at six or seven thousand. The principal proprietor is the earl of Bute, besides whom two gentlemen have houses and estates in the island.

Adjacent to Bute are two small islands, called Great and Little Cumbrays, which are the property of the earl of Glasgow.

#### C H A P. IX.

*Of the Scott.—Religion.—Learning.—Constitution.*

THE Scots, in general, are an open, good-natured, hospitable, brave, and honest people, differing little, at present, in their manners and customs from the English, whom they are also fast approaching even in the refinements of their language: they are, however, distinguished by the established religion of the country, as well as by some particulars in their political constitution.

It is generally admitted by ancient writers, that

Christianity was first taught by some of the disciples of St. John the apostle, who fled thither to avoid the persecution of the Roman emperor. It was, however, not publicly professed, till the beginning of the third century, when, according to the Scotch historians, Donald I. and his queen, with several of the nobles, were solemnly baptized. The progress it had made was soon afterwards confirmed by emigrations from South Britain, during the persecutions of Aurelius and Dioclesian, when it became the general religion of the country, under the direction of a society of learned and pious men, named Culdees, whose principal seat was in St. Andrew's.

Christianity, thus planted, appears to have flourished in its native simplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, who being sent thither in the fifth century by the bishop of Rome, found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romish church. The dependence of the Scots, however, upon the papal see, remained always more weak than that of any other nation; and notwithstanding the oppression exercised by the Romish clergy, the Culdees continued to be a distinct order in the kingdom, so late as the fourteenth century.

The reformation began in Scotland in the time of James V. during whose reign, as well as that of his daughter Mary, though both catholics, it made great progress, and was at length completed, through the preaching of John Knox, who had embraced the doctrine of Calvin. Those who laboured in establishing the new doctrine naturally imagined, that upon the abolition of the Romish religion, they should succeed to the revenues of its clergy; and the nobles, who had already destined those possessions to themselves, did not discourage this notion: but no sooner was the revolution in the church effected, than the latter monopolized all the church-livings, and shamefully left the reformed clergy in a state of almost total want, till their increasing importance in the nation procured them from the legislature a decent maintenance.

The Scotch clergy are generally acknowledged to be the most decent and consistent in their conduct of any of their order. Their livings are from forty, to a hundred and fifty pounds a year, with a suitable house, and about six acres of land annexed. The church allows no curate, except in case of sickness or age, when one is appointed under the title of helper. The widows and children of those who die in poor circumstances, are provided for out of a fund established by two acts in the last reign.

The church of Scotland is modelled principally after the Calvinistical plan established at Geneva; and its chief distinction is an equality of all the presbyters in respect of ecclesiastical rank. They dress without clerical robes, but some of them appear in the pulpit in gowns and bands. They make no use of set forms of worship, but are not prohibited that of the Lord's prayer.

The lowest ecclesiastical judicatory in Scotland is the kirk-session, the authority of which is confined to its own parish. It consists of the minister and elders,

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the latter of whom, generally amounting to eight or ten, are chosen by the former from among the most intelligent and regular of his parishioners. The office of an elder is nearly the same with that of a church warden in England, having the superintendency of the poor, and the management of the parochial affairs. They also assist the minister in several of his clerical duties, particularly in catechising, visiting the sick, and at the communion-table. One of them is called the ruling elder, who is generally a person of the first quality and interest in the parish: this office entitles him to a seat in the higher ecclesiastical judicatories.

Superior to the kirk-sessions are the presbyteries, of which there are in Scotland sixty-nine. These consist of the ministers of several parishes, with one ruling elder, chosen half-yearly out of the respective kirk-sessions, and they meet in the head-town of the district. Their jurisdiction is confined to the parishes that constitute the presbytery, within which they take cognizance of all ecclesiastical affairs. A chief part of their business is the ordination of candidates for livings. In the discharge of this office they are extremely 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 this privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

Next to these are fifteen provincial synods, composed of a number of the adjacent presbyteries, over which they have a power.

The highest ecclesiastical judicatory is the general assembly, consisting of deputies from the several presbyteries in the kingdom. A presbytery containing under twelve ministers, sends two ministers, and one ruling elder; if it contains between twelve and eighteen members, it sends three, and one ruling elder; if between eighteen and twenty-four, it sends four ministers, and two ruling elders; but if the presbytery has twenty-four members, it sends five ministers, and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh sends one ruling elder, and the city of Edinburgh two. Every university, likewise, sends one commissioner, usually a member of their own body.

The general assembly meets once a year at Edinburgh, and in it the king presides by his commissioner, who is always a nobleman, but has no voice in their deliberations. Hither appeals are brought from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland.

Of late years a great number of persons have dissenting from the church of Scotland, under the title of Seceders. These choose and maintain their own ministers, who have likewise their presbyteries and synods. In different parts of the country there are also some episcopalians, a few quakers and papists, with other sectaries, who are denominated from their preachers.

From the time of the Restoration, in 1660, to that of the Revolution in 1688, episcopacy 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 recognize king William's title. During the time of episcopacy, Scotland contained two archbishopricks, St. Andrew's and Glasgow, and twelve bishopricks, which were those of Edinburgh, Dumblain, Dunkeld, Brechin, Aberdeen, Murray, Ross, Caithness, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the Isles.

Ever since the revival of learning, the Scots have been peculiarly distinguished for their improvements in science, and their successful exertions of genius in almost every species of polite literature. The name of Napier of Marchiston will be celebrated to the latest ages for the discovery of the logarithms; while those of Gregory, Maclaurin, Simpson, and Stewart, will also be held in high esteem, for the extraordinary abilities with which they have cultivated the abstrusest parts of mathematical science. In history, philosophy, and medicine, the character of the Scotch nation is almost unrivalled; and the reputation of Thomson alone may establish its claim to the most distinguished honours in poetry.

The government of Scotland, by its original constitution, was one of the freest in Europe. Its parliament anciently consisted of all who held any land of the crown by the tenure of military service. This assembly was invested with supreme power in every thing that related to the government, and even enjoyed the prerogative of restraining grants which had been made by the crown. The king had no negative voice in its resolutions; and so bounded was his authority, that he could not declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public business of importance, without the concurrence of parliament. The constitution was in reality rather aristocratical than monarchical, and the tranquility of the nation was frequently disturbed by the ambition of the chieftains and great landholders. In checking which evil, the kings, in later times, were assisted by the clergy, whose revenues were exceeding great, and who always entertained a jealousy of the powerful nobles. For this purpose, a select body of members was established in parliament, who were called the lords of the articles. These were chosen out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burghesses. The bishops chose eight peers, and the peers eight bishops; these sixteen jointly nominated eight barons, or knights of the shire, and the like number of commissioners for burghs. To the whole were added eight great officers of state, the chancellor being always the president.

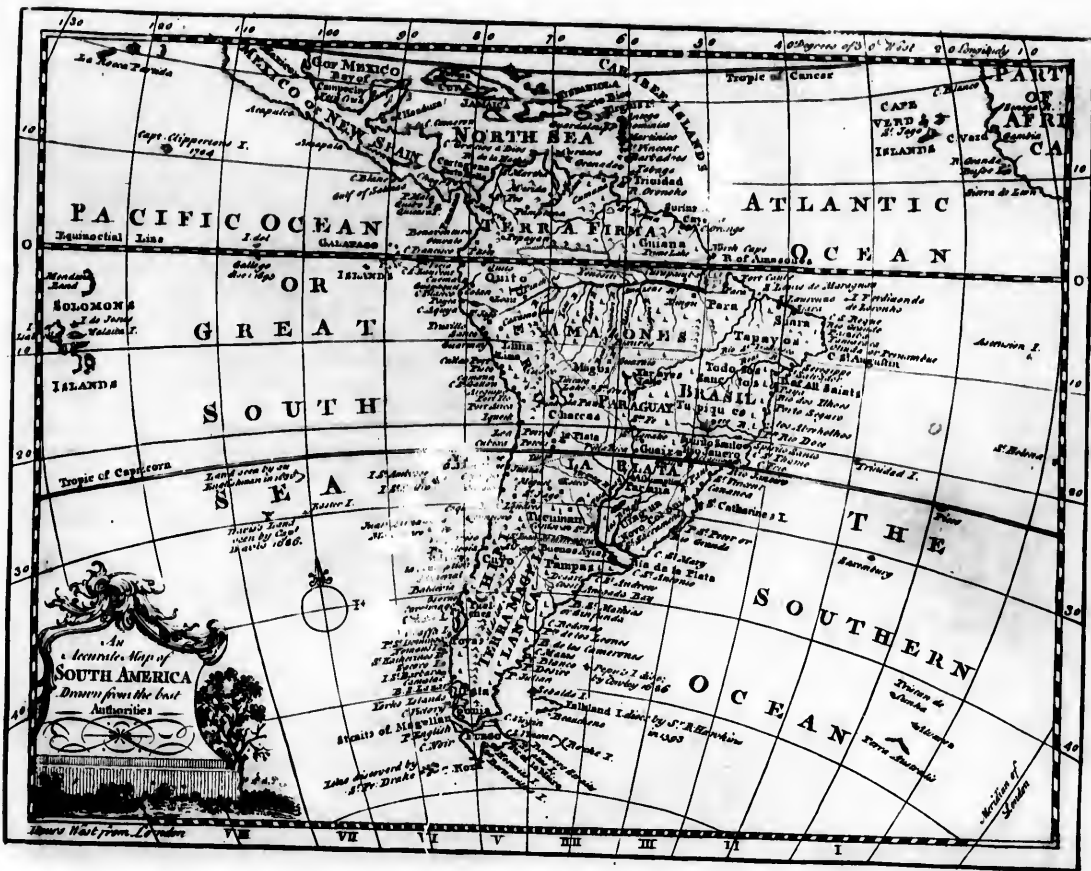
The business of this body was, to prepare all motions and bills brought into parliament: so that though the king could not directly give any negative, yet being by the clergy, and the places which he had to bestow, always sure of the lords of the articles, no measure could be adopted by parliament without his tacit approbation.

Before the Union, there were in Scotland eight great officers of state, of whom the first four were of superior rank. These officers were, the lord high chancellor, treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary; with the lord register, lord advocate, treasurer-depute, and justice-clerk. Since the Union, these several offices



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The highest criminal tribunal in Scotland is the judiciary court, which, in its present form, was instituted so late as the year 1672, when a lord justice-general, removable at the king's pleasure, was appointed. This office is still held by one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court are, the justice-clerk, and five other judges, who are al-

jurisdiction vested in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but these were reckoned of so dangerous tendency, 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 restricted to twenty shillings, or setting the delinquent in the stocks three hours, in the day-time. These courts were formerly vested with the power of life and death, but they are now deprived of this jurisdiction.

The courts of commissaries in Scotland answer to those of the English diocesan chancellors, and the highest of them is kept at Edinburgh. It consists of four judges, before whom actions are pleaded con-

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have been abolished, excepting those of the lord privy-seal, register, advocate, and justice-clerk; but a secretary of state for Scottish affairs has occasionally been nominated.

The office of chancellor of Scotland differed little from that in England; and the same may be said of the other principal offices above mentioned. The lord register was chief clerk to the parliament, convention, treasury, exchequer, and session, and keeper of all public records: he likewise acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to dispute his report of the numbers upon a division.

The office of lord advocate resembles that of the attorney-general in England, but his powers are far more extensive: he is the prosecutor of all capital crimes before the judiciary; he likewise concurs in all pursuits before sovereign courts for breaches of the peace; as well as in all civil matters where the king has interest. One or two solicitors are named by his majesty as assistants to the lord advocate. The justice-clerk is intitled to preside in the criminal court of justice, in the absence of the justice-general.

The officers of the crown were, the high chamberlain, constable, admiral, and marshal; of whom the constable and marshal hold their places by hereditary right. A nobleman has still a pension as admiral; and the office of marshal is now exercised by a knight-marshal.

Besides the offices already mentioned, there were several others both of the crown and state; but they are either now extinct, or too inconsiderable to be described. That of Lyon king at arms is still in being, and was formerly a place of great splendor and importance. This officer was even crowned solemnly in parliament with a golden circlet; and his authority might be carried into execution by the civil law.

Before the Revolution, the privy council of Scotland exercised inquisitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now absorbed in the parliament and privy council of Great Britain; and civil and criminal causes are chiefly cognizable by two courts of jurisdiction.

The former of these is the college of justice, instituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament; and the members of it assume the title of lords of council and session. 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. Its decisions are governed by the civil law, in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. The members of it act likewise as a court of equity; but an appeal lies from them to the house of lords.

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No. 46.

ways nominated from the lords of session. All causes in this court are determined by the verdict of a jury; but it is not necessary that they be unanimous.

Besides these two great courts of law, there is also a court of exchequer, the barons of which have the same jurisdiction as those of the correspondent court in England.

In the reign of Charles II. the court of admiralty in Scotland was, by act of parliament, declared to be a supreme court in all causes competent to its own jurisdiction. By the same act 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, as well as in fresh waters, and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within flood-mark. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty may be brought into this court, whence there lies no appeal 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. The place of vice-admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the salary annexed to it is about a thousand a year; and the judge of the admiralty has considerable perquisites belonging to his office.

The government of the counties in Scotland was formerly vested in sheriffs and stewards, courts of regality, baron courts, commissaries, justices of the peace, and coroners. Sheriffdoms were formerly hereditary; but by a late act of parliament they are now vested in the crown. By the same act it is ordained, that all high sheriffs, or stewards, shall for the future be appointed annually by his majesty; and in regard to the sheriff deputies and steward deputies, it is enacted, that there shall be only 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 *ad vitam aut culpam*, that is, for life, unless guilty of some offence.

Stewartries were formerly parts of the royal domain; and the stewards had much the same power in them, as the sheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality were held by virtue of a royal jurisdiction vested in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but these were reckoned of so dangerous tendency, 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 restricted to twenty shillings, or setting the delinquent in the stocks three hours, in the day-time. These courts were formerly vested with the power of life and death, but they are now deprived of this jurisdiction.

The courts of commissaries in Scotland answer to those of the English diocesan chancellors, and the highest of them is kept at Edinburgh. It consists of four judges, before whom actions are pleaded con-



cerning matters relative to wills and testaments; the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tithes, divorces, and other causes of that nature; but in almost all other parts of the kingdom, there sits only one judge in those courts.

At present, justices of the peace in Scotland exercise nearly the same power as those in England; but in former times their authority was greatly cramped by the power of the feudal lords, who obtained an act of parliament, that the justices were not to take cognizance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

Coroners were instituted in Scotland so early as the reign of Malcolm II. They were empowered to take cognizance of all breaches of the peace, and likewise to register depositions, as well as the verdicts of jurors. This office,

however, is at present much diffused in the country.

The royal boroughs of Scotland send each a delegate annually to Edinburgh, where they hold a convention to deliberate upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are of considerable extent; and before the Union they made laws relative to shipping, and several manufactures, as well as branches of trade. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is still subject to their regulation. Their conservator is nominated by the crown; but the convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his salary.

According to the articles of the Union, the Scots peers are represented in the British parliament by sixteen noblemen, chosen out of their own body; and the commons by forty-five members.

## O F I R E L A N D.

### C H A P. I.

*Of the situation, provinces, climate, soil, mountains, lakes, bogs, forests, rivers.*

**I**RELAND is situated in the Atlantic ocean, between six and ten degrees of west longitude, and between fifty-one and fifty-six degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the east by St. George's channel, which divides it from Great Britain; and on all other sides by the Atlantic. It is distant from Holy-head, in North-Wales, fifty miles, and from Galloway in Scotland, fifteen miles; extending in length from south to north two hundred and eighty-five miles, and in breadth a hundred and sixty. It is divided into four large provinces, viz. Munster, Leinster, Ulster, and Connaught.

The province of Munster comprehends the south part of Ireland, and includes the following counties, viz. Corke, Kerry, Limerick, Waterford, and Tipperary.

The province of Leinster contains the midland eastern parts, and is divided into the subsequent counties, viz. Wexford, Carlow, Kilkenny, Queen's County, Wicklow, Dublin, Kildare, King's County, West-Meath, East-Meath, Lowth, and Longford.

The province of Ulster comprises the northern part of the kingdom, and is distinguished into the following counties, viz. Cavan, Monaghan, Armagh, Down, Antrim, Londonderry, Tyrone, Donegal, and Fermanagh.

The province of Connaught includes the midland western parts, in which lie the subsequent counties, viz. Leitrim, Sligo, Mayo, Roscommon, Galway, and Clare.

The climate of Ireland differs little from that of

England, and the air is generally salubrious, except in the uncultivated parts, where unwholesome fogs are very prevalent.

The soil, when properly cultivated, is for the most part very fruitful, notwithstanding its remarkable rockiness. From stone being so general, a judicious observer has intimated an opinion, that the whole island is one vast rock of different strata and kinds, rising out of the sea. Pasturage, arable, and meadow ground abound in the kingdom; but, till of late years, tillage was not sufficiently encouraged.

It has been remarked, that the Irish language is more happy in distinguishing the size of mountains than perhaps any other. A knock signifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; a slieve denotes a craggy high mountain, gradually ascending, and continued in several ridges; a bein or bin expresses a mountain of the first magnitude, ending in a sharp or abrupt precipice. The last are often seen and compounded together in one and the same range. Compared with other countries, however, Ireland is far from being mountainous. The principal mountains are those of Mangerton, and the Reeks in Kerry; the Galties in Cork; those of Mourne in Down; Crow Patrick and Nephin in Mayo.

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 fish; and the great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality.

The face of the country is in many places overspread with bogs, some of which are of vast extent. They are of two sorts, black and red. The former is generally very good. It is solid almost to the surface, yields much ashes in burning, and is for the

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most part improveable, though at a great expence. The latter has usually a reddish substance five or six foot deep, which holds water like a sponge, yields no ashes in burning, and is supposed to be incapable of cultivation.

Many theories have been invented to account for those phenomena in the natural history of this country. It is observable that in those bogs, various roots of trees, some of them of a great size, are generally found, and usually at the bottom, the common kinds being oak, fir, and yew. The roots of those trees are fast in the earth. Some of the trees seem to be broken off, others have the appearance of being cut, but more of them bear the marks of fire. Under some bogs of considerable depth are yet to be seen the furrows of land once ploughed. The black bog is a solid weighty mass, which cuts almost like butter, and upon examination appears to resemble rotten wood. Under the red bogs is always a stratum, not quite so solid as the former species, but makes as good fuel. Both kinds of bog are covered with a spongy vegetable mass, which is thicker on the surface of the black. The spontaneous growth is most commonly heath, with some bog myrtle, rushes, and a little fedy grass. The depth of the bogs is various. Many of them have been fathomed to that of fifty feet, and some are said to be yet deeper. They differ extremely from the bogs in England in the inequality of the surface, the Irish being rarely level, but rising into hills.

The principal forests are situated in Leitrim, the King's and Queen's counties, and those of Wexford and Carlow. Great forests are also in the county of Donegal, the north part of Tyrone, the county of Fermanagh, and the north part of the county of Down. They contain some good timber: the oak is reckoned equal to that of English growth.

In various parts of the coast there are spacious bays, and commodious havens, and the country is beautified by many fine rivers. The principal of these is the Shannon, which issuing from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, serves as a boundary between Connaught and the other three provinces; and after a course of a hundred and fifty 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 inconvenience, it is said, might be remedied by a short canal, at the expence of ten or twelve thousand pounds; and communications might also be made with other rivers, to the great benefit of the nation. The Boyne rises in Queen's county, and running north-east by Trim and Cavan, falls into the Irish channel a little below Drogheda. The Liffey rises in the county of Wicklow, whence running west into Kildare, and then turning north-east, it directs its course through the county of Dublin, and falls into the Irish sea a little below the capital. In the north part of the kingdom is the river Ban; and in the south are the Barrow, the Noer, and the Suir,

which after uniting their stream below Ross, fall into the channel at Waterford-haven.

## C H A P. II.

*Of the Province of Munster.*

## C O R K E.

**I**N the southern extremity of Ireland lies the county of Corke, extending eighty miles in length, and fifty in breadth. It is bounded on the West by Kerry and the sea, on the north by Limerick, and on the east and south by the ocean.

The first town we shall mention is Youghal, which was incorporated by king Edward IV. in the second year of his reign. The church here is a large Gothic structure, the nave being forty-five yards long, and twenty-two broad, adorned on each side with six Gothic arches. This town, from south to north, is about an English mile in length, consisting mostly of one street, intermixed with old and new houses. The street, towards the south end, is crossed by a high square tower, called the Clock-gate, which divides the town into the upper and lower. The town is situated on the side of a hill, on an arm of the sea, and has a tolerable good harbour. The walls on the west side extend the whole length of the town, and are flanked with some old towers. House-rent is here very low, and good provisions cheap; so that people of a moderate fortune may live very comfortably. The entrance of the bay is dangerous to strangers, being obstructed by a bar, which cannot be passed till half flood. Towards the sea, the town is defended by a small fort or block-house, mounted with cannon. Near it is a mole for shipping and a key; adjacent to which are the exchange and custom-house. Over the fort the town-council meet, to transact the affairs of the corporation. Of late the trade of this port is very inconsiderable, being mostly confined to vessels trading to Bristol with woollen yarn. At present here is a manufactory of earthen ware, which they make tolerably good. The town sends two members to parliament. Here potatoes were first imported into Ireland by Sir Walter Raleigh. The person who planted them, imagining that the apple which grows on the stalk was the part to be used, gathered them; but not liking their taste, neglected the roots, till the ground being dug to sow some grain, the potatoes were discovered in it. From the small quantity then imported, the country is said to have been furnished with seed.

In this town is a barrack for two companies of foot; and at the arrays in 1746, here were a thousand protestants fit to bear arms.

Four miles from Youghal stands Killeigh, a small village, where was a nunnery of canonesses, founded by St. Abban, in the ninth century. The river that runs by it is remarkable for its serpentine course, and for its quality in whitening cloth.

Castle-martyr is a neat small town, well watered, and commodiously situated for the linen manufactory. It was anciently called Leper's town, as is said, from a leper-house in the neighbourhood; and there is a tra-

tradition of its having been remarkable for a copper manufactory. At present, however, there is no copper ore near this place, but iron mines almost every where round it.

Westward of Castle-martyr stands Cloyne, an ancient bishoprick, founded in the sixth century by St. Colman, who was the first bishop of this see. This cathedral, dedicated to its founder, is built in the form of a cross, and is a decent Gothic building, seventy foot in length, with a nave about a hundred and twenty. On each side are lateral isles, (besides the cross isles) divided by Gothic arches, five on each side. In this town was anciently an abbey of Augustine nuns, founded in the sixth century by St. Ile, who was the first abbes. Near the church stands a round tower ninety-two foot high, and ten foot diameter. The door is about thirteen foot from the ground. To the north-west of the town, is a reputed holy well, dedicated to St. Colman, which is annually visited by the Irish on the 24th of November.

Middleton, so called from its situation, midway between Corke and Youghal, is a borough and market-town, pleasantly situated in the north-east angle of Corke harbour. It consists of one long street, ranging from the north to the south bridges, and is well built. It is governed by a magistrate, styled a sovereign, with two bailiffs, and twelve burgesses, who return two members to parliament.

Not far from the water-side is the remains of an ancient building, called the Spittle, supposed to have been a leper-house, of which kind there are many in the kingdom. In a garden at Balinachora, an adjacent village, is a high sepulchral mount, one of the Danish tumuli.

Rathcormack is a small neat borough, about twelve miles from Corke, situated near the river Bride. It returns two members to parliament; and here the county sessions are held once a-year. Northward of this town is a range of mountains, the last of which to the east is termed Cairn-Tierna, i. e. the Thane's Heap. On the top of it is a large rude heap of stones, said to take its name from the thane or lord of the country, who there held judicial assemblies. It is also said to be the place where the people elected their chiefs, in the times when tanistry prevailed.

Corke lies mostly on a marshy island, surrounded by the river Lee, which divides about a mile above the city, and falls into the ocean ten miles below it. One of the branches run on the north side of the town, and the other on the south, under two handsome new-built bridges. Between those streams run several canals, which, being banked and quayed in, bring up ships almost to every street. Towards the north and south the city stands partly on a rising ground; it is about three miles long, and near two in breadth. The main street is very broad, but the other part is mostly composed of lanes which intersect the former at right angles, and are so narrow, that one of them, about ten foot wide, is called Broad-lane. The houses are old, and far from being elegant in their appearance; but on the quays there are

some handsome buildings. The city has two gates, the north and the south; near the former of which is an old tower, called Skiddy's Castle, now converted into a magazine for powder.

Here are seven churches, three of which are considerable. The cathedral stands in an area shaded with rows of trees. It is a spacious structure of the Doric order, and is said to have been founded in the year 630, by St. Finbar, the first bishop of this diocese; but it was last rebuilt in the reign of his late majesty. St. Mary Shandon, beyond the north bridge, stands upon a rising ground, and is a handsome building, with a high square tower, erected a few years ago. There is also another new church within a hundred paces of the south gate, and which is the first edifice in the city.

Besides the churches, there are in Cork eleven mass-houses, with four dissenting meeting-houses, belonging to presbyterians, anabaptists, quakers, and French protestants.

The city is ornamented with several charity-schools, alms-houses, and a neat infirmary.

The custom-house is a handsome brick building, with angles, windows-eyes, and door-frames of stone. It is surrounded by a good quay, with cranes, and all proper conveniencies for landing goods. The market-place is also a handsome new pile, built in the Italian taste, with a fine open piazza; but stands in an obscure part. The exchange is small in proportion to the opulence of the city, but is a neat building, supported by substantial pillars, and opens to the north and west sides. The county court-house, where the assizes are held, is a large structure, and well ornamented; but obscured by a bad situation. It is supposed to stand partly on the spot where was in former times the king's residence, and is thence still called the king's old castle.

Corke is remarkable for the number of cattle annually slaughtered in it; and the exportation of beef, pork, butter, hides, tallow, &c. is proportionably great. In 1754, the return of houses in this city was seven thousand four hundred and forty-five; and in 1766, it was eight thousand one hundred and thirteen; so that if we suppose them to have increased at the same rate since, they are now upwards of eight thousand six hundred. This is doubtless a low estimate; for great numbers of the poor are exempted from paying hearth-money.

The harbour of Corke is large enough to contain the whole navy of Great Britain. The entrance is free, open and bold, but has at present no fortification to defend it, though the remains of an old one are yet visible on the right hand. At the place where this formerly stood, the cape is very high, and the channel is not a hundred yards from the shore. Dog's-nose-point, as it is called, is another formidable situation. When ships have entered, they anchor off a village called Cove, where they are landlocked, and secured from all danger. Here are two islands called Spike and Hawlebowling, that serve as bulwarks to protect vessels riding at anchor from being damaged by the tide of ebb or floods off the land.

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land. On the latter of those islands are the remains of an old fortification, erected about the end of queen Elizabeth's reign, and which commanded all vessels of burthen passing up to Corke. One side of the harbour is formed by Barrymore island, which is upwards of four miles long and two broad. The land here is every where high and steep. The principal place is Cove, which is inhabited only by fishermen, and a few custom-house officers. It is built upon the side of the hill, so very steep, that they stand almost one upon another. Spike's island is situated to the left, and is a noted place for smuggling.

The old barrack to the east of Elizabeth's fort, was erected in 1698, and the new barrack in 1719. Both together are capable of containing seven hundred men, and afford apartments for the officers.

The air of Corke is tolerably clear and healthy, being refreshed in summer by gentle breezes from the several canals, and moderated in winter by the warm vapours which arise from the same. The soil on the south side being lime-stone ground, the city is indifferently supplied with good water. On the north-side are some good springs; but the generality of the inhabitants use that of the river Lee, taken up at low water, which, it must be confessed, is far from being of the purest kind.

The floods sometimes do great damage to the merchants and traders here; and the inhabitants of the city have been sometimes obliged to pass from house to house in boats, in the very middle of the high-street. It is true, those inundations happen seldom; but the houses upon the quays prepare for them every winter, by providing materials to stop up the doors of the warehouses, &c.

The environs of Corke are pleasant, and are decorated with many beautiful seats and gardens.

Kinsale is situated on the river Bandon, fourteen miles south of the city of Corke, and obtained its first charter in the time of Edward III. It lies in the form of a crescent round the harbour, which is one of the finest in Ireland; for at low water it is deep enough to contain five hundred sail of the largest ships, land-locked, as the sailors term it. Some of the buildings of this town are tolerable, but many of them are mouldring away. In the centre is a large market place, near which stands a strong-built prison. Here are the ruins of several monasteries, and religious houses. That part towards the land was formerly covered by a strong wall, if we may judge from the thickness of its remaining gates. This town is generally most flourishing in the time of a war with France or Spain. It sends two members to parliament.

## K E R R Y.

The county of Kerry is bounded on the east by the counties of Corke and Limerick, on the south and west by the Atlantic ocean, and on the north by the county of Clare. It extends in length from south to north near sixty English miles, or about forty-seven Irish; and its greatest breadth is about fifty four

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English, or forty-three Irish miles. It is situated under the same parallel of latitude as the English counties of Worcester, Gloucester, Warwick, Oxford, &c.

The borough of Dingle is situated at the bottom of a small but safe harbour, where ships of a hundred tons may come up to the town. The entrance of the harbour was formerly defended by a small fort or block-house, which has been many years demolished. This town was incorporated by queen Elizabeth in 1585, when she also gave the inhabitants three hundred pound to wall the place. Several of the houses were built in the Spanish fashion, with ranges of stone balcony windows, the town having been formerly much frequented by the people of that nation, who traded with the inhabitants, and came to fish on this coast. Most of the houses are of stone, with marble doors and window-frames. Lime being scarce here, the town-walls were built of clay mortar, and are gone much to decay. Here is a barrack for a company of foot. The town had formerly a monastery, which was a cell of the abbey of Killagh, near Castlemain. The parish church dedicated to St. James, is said to have been built at the charge of the Spaniards. It was originally very large, but most of the old structure is gone to ruin; a part of it only, called St. Mary's chapel, being kept in repair for divine service.

Tralee or Trahy is situated on a bay northward of Dingle. During the palatinate of the earl of Desmond, it was the place where he chiefly resided, and has ever since been the shire town of the county. It was incorporated by James I. in 1612. In the midst of the town is a square, environed on the north side with the county court-house, and jail, and on the other sides with houses and shops. Through the town runs a rivulet, over which are some small stone bridges. Here were formerly four castles, of which only one remains. The town is situated about a mile from the sea, whence a vessel of fifty or sixty tons may come up. The bay, however, being open, shallow, and unsafe for shipping, the place has very little trade. Its chief advantage arises from its being the county town, and from the money spent at the assizes, elections for members of parliament, and other public meetings. Its markets are well supplied with all sorts of provisions, and towards autumn considerable quantities of fine herrings are taken in the adjacent bay.

In the castle at this place was committed the inhuman murder of sir Henry Danvers, with the justices Meade and Charters, who were slain with all their servants, when asleep by sir John of Desmond, the earl's brother, in the year 1579. This piece of barbarity paved the way for the destruction of the Desmond family, which happened soon after.

In this county lies the lake of Killarney, so much celebrated for the variety of beautiful scenes which it affords. It is generally considered as forming two lakes, but may not improperly be distinguished into three. On the eastern side is situated the town of Killarney, whence, to the western extremity, is one

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continued range of enormous mountains, the declivities of which are covered with wood, almost from their summits to the verge of the lake. In the latter is dispersed a number of beautiful islands of various sizes, ornamented with trees of almost every kind, which appear to grow spontaneously in great luxuriance.

One of those islands, named Innisfallen, is supposed to be the most beautiful of any in Europe. It contains twenty acres of land, and has every variety which the range of beauty, unmixed with the sublime, can give. The general feature is that of wood; the surface undulates into swelling hills, and sinks into little vales; the slopes are in every direction, and the declivities die gently away, forming those slight inequalities which are the greatest beauty of dressed grounds. The little vallies admit views of the surrounding lake between the hills, while the swells break the regular outline of the water, and give the whole an agreeable confusion. The wood has all the variety into which nature has thrown the surface: in some parts it is so thick as to appear impenetrable; in others it breaks into tufts of tall timber, under which cattle feed. Trees of large size, and commanding figure, form in some places natural arches; the ivy intermixing with the branches, and hanging across in festoons of foliage, while on one side the lake glitters among the trees, and on the other a thick gloom dwells in the recesses of the woods. The figure of the island is also beautifully diversified. For the coast being broken and indented, forms bays surrounded either by rock or wood; and into the lake shoot slight promontories, the rocky edges of which are crowded with wood. The shore of Innisfallen has much variety, but in general it is woody, and of the beautiful character which predominates in the island. One bay is particularly beautiful. It is of a femicircular form, and in the centre is a projecting knole of wood, which has a fine effect.

Directly opposite to this island, on the south-west, in a beautiful bay of the lake under the mountains, is a magnificent natural cascade, which descends several hundred yards down a shallow glyn that is mostly covered with trees.

Some of the islands in the upper lake are of such a stupendous height, that they resemble at a distance so many lofty towers standing in the water; and being many of them crowned with wreaths of arbutus, represent the ruins of stately palaces. Their edges are so much worn away by the dashing of the water against their sides, and by frequent rains washing away the earth, and time has so disjoined many of the marble rocks, that several of them hang in a most surprizing and tottering manner, and represent a rude kind of confused architecture, almost without foundations. In others of them the waters have worn passages sufficiently large for boats to go through; and those tottering arches, though of immense weight, are in some places supported only by very slender pillars.

The most noted of those islands is that of Ross, which

is rather a peninsula, being only separated from the main-land by a small cut through a morass, over which is a bridge. On this island stands an ancient castle, which has a new barrack adjoining. For several years here has been a garrison with a governor appointed upon the establishment. The castle had been flanked with round turrets, which, with its situation, rendered it a place of some strength. This island contains about eighty or a hundred acres, well wooded, and fertile of rich pasturage.

Salmon are caught in great plenty and perfection in those lakes, and sold at the moderate price of one penny a pound. The extent of the lower lake, from east to west, may be about seven or eight miles, and across it from north to south about half that extent. But from the north of the lower lake to the south of the upper, including the winding streight between them through the vallies, must be at least ten or twelve miles.

The lake of Killarney is bordered by some of the highest mountains in Ireland.

On the south-east is the hill of Mangerton, whose foot the lake washes, and whose head is generally lost in the clouds. Its altitude was found, by the barometer, to be a thousand and twenty yards above the lake, which is considerably higher than the sea.

On the west side of Mangerton stand the mountains called the Reeks, of a conical figure, much steeper than the former, and surrounded with terrible precipices. More towards the centre of the lake, is a high mole, called the Turk, whose sides down to the verge of the water are beautifully covered with groves of various kinds of trees. A part of this hill slopes away like a promontory terminating in the lake, and forming one side of a canal, which is a passage into the upper lake; as does the point of a mountain called Glenna the other side of this streight, which is adorned also with forest trees. As a fine contrast to this verdure, at the back of those mountains, stands others, shaped like pyramids, being only naked rocks of a vast height.

Westward of Glenna stands the lofty pike named Tormisk, variegated half way to its top with a waving forest; and down whose sides, especially after rains, run very considerable cataracts into the great lake.

As one side of the lake consists of the above mentioned range of formidable hills, as the opposite side is adorned with a level and beautiful country, with the town of Killarney, and the habitations and improvements of several gentlemen, at different distances.

Near Mucreus, on the borders of this celebrated lake, is a copper mine, reputed to be one of the richest in Europe. Lead ore has also been discovered in the neighbourhood; and the adjacent mountains all abound with iron.

Within two miles of Killarney, the ruined church of Aghadae stands on an eminence, in a very fine situation. It is of great antiquity, and was dedicated to St. Finian. It still retains the name of a cathedral, though the archdeacon be the only dignitary now belonging to it.

Castlemain

Castlemain is so called from an ancient castle erected on a bridge over the river Mang, and said to have been built at the joint charge of Mac Carty More, and one of the earls of Desmond, as a place of defence between their respective frontiers. Each of them was to have an equal claim to this fortress, and they agreed to give and receive possession of it alternately.

Mac Carty went first into the castle, and surrendered it to Desmond, who, instead of giving possession of it in his turn, ordered his followers to hold it; who shut the gates, and drove off Mac Carty and his people. The place continued in Desmond's family till it was surrendered to queen Elizabeth by the last earl. Though the castle has been a long time in ruins, it gives a nominal appointment to a constable, who has a small piece of land annexed to it as a salary. The person who enjoys this office is generally the clerk of the crown for the county; and he has also the fishing of a small part of the river near the bridge.

Ardfert is at present only a small decayed village, but is a borough by prescription, and sends two members to parliament. It is also a bishop's see, and has been held in *commendam* with that of Limerick ever since the Restoration. The bishops were anciently called bishops of Kerry. The ruins of the nave and choir of the cathedral are twenty-six yards long, and but ten broad. On the south was an arcade of four Gothic arches, which formed an aisle. The last window was twenty-six foot high. Opposite to the west end of the cathedral stands one of the ancient round towers, near a hundred foot high, built mostly of a dark kind of marble. The door of this tower faces the west entrance of the cathedral, with the design, as is supposed, that the penitents who were enclosed in it might receive the prayers of the congregation, at going in and out of the church.

The persons who return members for this borough to parliament, are a port-river, and twelve burgesses. Here are at present only one or two good houses, a few cabbins, and some old ruins.

A little to the east of Ardfert stand the ruins of a Franciscan friary founded by Thomas Fitzmaurice, the first baron of Kerry, in 1253. The walls of the steeple, the choir, with some of the cloysters, the dormitory, and morning prayer chapel, remain entire, and bear evident marks of its having been formerly a noble structure.

The promontory called Dunmore-head, in this county, is reckoned the most western point of Europe. About a mile and a half hence stands the largest of the Blasket or Ferriters islands, called also the Blasques. The number of those islands is twelve, but four of them are only rocks.

The island Innismore, i. e. the great island, is about three mile in length. It has a high mountain, with some arable ground towards the east end; and on it reside five or six families, which pay tithes to a very distant parish, called Ballinvokir. The air of this island is esteemed remarkably salubrious; and here are the ruins of a very ancient church.

The second island in magnitude is called Innis-

Mac-Keilane, or Mac-Keilane's island. It lies seven miles south-west from the head-land of Dunmore. The land being low and too bleak to afford shelter, here have been no inhabitants for many years; but the island contains the ruins of an ancient chapel, with an old stone chalice, and a baptismal font. Here is also a small cell or hermitage, being an arch of stone neatly put together without any mortar or cement, and which admits no rain. Structures of this kind are to be seen in some other parts of Ireland. They are said to have been erected by the first missionaries, who preached the Gospel in this kingdom. They were probably the first edifices of stone erected in Ireland, and are supposed to vye in point of antiquity with even the round towers. Their form seems to have been taken from that of the small huts, made of bended wattles, by the old inhabitants of the British islands.

The third island is called Innis-ni-Broc, or Quern island. It has received this name from its round form; a quern being a small kind of mill-stone about two foot diameter, and five or six inches deep, like an earthen pan, within which another stone is placed. This island lies at no great distance from the second above mentioned, and about four miles from the great Blasket.

The fourth island is called Innis-Tuskart, or Innis-huigh, i. e. the Northern island. It is upwards of an Irish mile in length, and not being inhabited, has no building on it, except one of the cells abovementioned.

Near the great island are three small ones. The first is called Beg-Innis, i. e. the Little island. It is a very fertile spot, consisting of about sixteen acres, that will fatten thirteen bullocks every summer. The grass is most clover and cinquefoil, and is constantly enriched by the spray of the sea, which always leaves behind it a considerable quantity of salt. The other two are used likewise to fatten cattle, but they are smaller.

Four miles north-west from the great island, is a stupendous rock, on the side of which rises a smaller pyramid, not quite so high. In the spring this rock is covered with an infinite number of sea-fowl, which breed upon it. On the other islands also are hatched great numbers, that are destroyed by the country people, chiefly for their feathers, of which they collect several hundred weight. Most of those islands are stocked with sheep, and black cattle. The latter are very difficult to be landed on them, and are generally carried in when about a year old. On some of the islands they become so wild that their owners hunt them down, and are obliged to kill them before they can be carried off. The hides, flesh, and tallow, sufficiently pay for their pasture, for as those islands are not inhabited, no profit can be made from the milk. The islands are mostly well stocked with rabbits, that have scarce any other enemy than the hawks and eagles, which devour great numbers of them. The hawks on this coast are remarkably good, and were formerly in much esteem. Those of the islands are accounted

much

much better than the falcons bred on the continent; because they are always on the wing, and constantly fly over the mainland in search of prey. They seldom kill sea-fowl, nor will they feed on their flesh, except after very long fasting.

A small bird, called by the Irish, gourder, is said to be peculiar to those islands. It is somewhat larger than a sparrow; the feathers of the back are dark, and those of the belly white; the bill is straight, short and thick, and it is web-footed. When first taken, the country people affirm, that they cast up about a teaspoonful of a very fine oil. They are almost one lump of fat, and when roasted, of so delicious a taste, that they are reckoned to exceed the ortolan. On this account the gentry hereabouts call them the Irish ortelans.

In some places, the shore of this county is partly composed of high sand hills, and partly of steep cliffs, on the latter of which the ruins of some castles are badly situated, particularly those of Ballybunee, Dune, and Lick. The latter stood on a rock, almost surrounded by the sea, and had formerly a draw-bridge. The castle of Dune was also built on a high cliff standing perpendicular over the ocean.

Northward of Lick, stands a high cliff, called by the country people, the Devil's Castle. It is inaccessible to any creature but fowls, and has an eagle's nest in its summit. The whole shore hereabouts has a great variety of romantic caves and caverns formed by the dashing of the waves. In some places are high open arches, and in others impending rocks, that seem ready to tumble down upon the first storm. Not far from the last mentioned castle is a deep hole in the earth, several yards from the verge of the cliff, into which the sea has an ingress, and where sometimes makes a prodigious roaring noise.

Among the islands on this coast is that of Valentia, which forms the south side of the bay of Castlemain, at the distance of about six leagues from the Blackets on Ferriter's Islands, which form the north side of this bay. Valentia is about five miles in length, and is separated from the main land by a brack of the sea, which is in most places about half a mile broad, and of sufficient depth for vessels to sail through at any time of the tide. The island is a fertile tract, and is esteemed the granary of the country.

#### L I M E R I C K.

The county of Limerick is bounded on the south by the county of Kerry; on the west, partly by the Atlantic ocean, and partly by the county of Clare; on the north by the counties of Clare and Tipperary; and on the east, partly by the county of Tipperary, and partly by that of Waterford.

The capital of the county is Limerick, composed of what is called the Irish and the English town. The latter stands upon a piece of ground called the King's island, formed by the Shannon, which divides itself a little above the city. Both towns, in their ancient state, consist of one long wide street, well built, intersected at right angles by many narrow lanes, in form of a

comb with a double row of teeth. The English and Irish town seem pretty much alike in their buildings, and are joined together by an old bridge called Baal's. On the same arm of the river, communicating with the quays and the new streets, is an elegant bridge, lately built, of three arches. The middle one, the span of which is forty feet, admits boats under sail. The third bridge, thrown over the great arm of the river is called Thomond's, and, though consisting of fourteen arches, is said to have been built for thirty pounds.

Limerick is naturally a place of great strength. For, without the inconvenience of circumjacent hills, it is built upon an island, encircled by a strong barrier, the arms of the Shannon. It is now dismantled, and scarce a trace of its old walls and seventeen gates is to be seen. The substitution of spacious quays and commodious houses, in the room of lofty battlements and massive bastions, has given it a complete and healthy ventilation. Limerick, like London, had formerly been often visited by the plague; but the effect here has also ceased with the removal of the cause.

A few years ago the town stood on sixty-four acres of ground; but now it covers one hundred, which is equal to a hundred and sixty of our measure. The ships in this port trading to London are increased in number from one to twelve; and the revenues have been augmented from sixteen to forty thousand pounds yearly. By cutting canals opposite to the shallows and rocks in the river, it will be rendered navigable to Carrigrohane in the county of Leitrim, a space of ninety miles up the river, which will open a conveyance for grain, timber, iron, coals, &c. and must at length turn the channel of trade in those parts thither. The good effect of a very short oat made near the town, is already sensibly felt. For sea-coal, which was formerly their fuel, is so diseased, that its price is much lowered; turf, the material of which is all their own, now supplying their hearths.

This navigation of near two hundred English miles in length, by communicating with that leading from Dublin, through the bog of Allen, must, in time, make Limerick one of the most considerable places for importation in the kingdom. The same cause may operate upon the exports, by rendering so easy the conveyance of beef, butter, hides, tallow, grain, &c. to the sea-port. Though the town is sixty miles from the sea, ships of five hundred tons come up to the quays.

In this city are three churches. The cathedral is a massive Gothic pile, with a good ring of bells, and some decorations. The custom-house is an elegant modern structure: the pediment is supported by fluted pilasters; the front has but five windows in a row, yet, including the colonnades, the whole elevation is near two hundred feet.

The inhabitants of Limerick had once a manufacture of ferges, but it is nearly extinct. They are, however, famous for making gloves; and some northern soldiers, who have been discharged here, are giving birth to the weaving of linen.

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The county of Limerick is forty-eight miles in length, and twenty-three in breadth. It contains a hundred and thirty parishes, three boroughs, and sends eight members to parliament.

## TIPPERARY.

The county of Tipperary is bounded on the west by the counties of Limerick, Clare, and Galway; on the north by King's County; on the east by Queen's County and Kilkenny; and on the south by Waterford. It is sixty miles in length, and forty in breadth; contains a hundred and forty-seven parishes, and sends eight members to parliament.

The chief town of the county is Clonmell, remarkable for having been the birth-place of Mr. Sterne, author of *Tristram Shandy*. This is an ancient town, and was built before the invasion of the Danes. It consists of four cross streets, formerly fortified with a square wall. The streets lead to so many gates. The market-house is a handsome building, mostly of marble. Here is a spacious bridge of twenty arches over the Suite. Oliver Cromwell found more resistance from this town, than from any other of his conquests in the kingdom. The principal church, which is of the Gothic kind, and before the Reformation, was part of a Benedictine monastery, is still kept in repair. There are the remains of two others, but in ruins. The barracks are in good order, and are capable of accommodating a considerable number of soldiers.

Tipperary is a small, but thriving village, with little or no manufacture. An effort has been made to establish the linen manufacture; for which purpose a colony of northern weavers was settled here about forty years ago; but the scheme has proved ineffectual.

Feathard is an ancient ruinous town, with an old Gothic church, and the remains of an Augustine convent founded in 1326. Besides those there is a spacious, but declining structure, formerly the seat of the family of Everards. At this town are held annual races. The course is round a hill, which affords a beautiful prospect of gentlemen's seats and plantations.

Casheil is a good town, but a poor city, consisting of between five and six hundred houses, some of which are very decent, and seem to be inhabited by persons of condition. It must have formerly been a place of the first consequence in Ireland, for here Henry the Second held a synod. The ruins of the churches and monasteries have a venerable appearance. The cathedral is both the largest and the most ancient in the kingdom. It stands upon a rock; and the whole is usually called the *Rock of Casheil*. The dimension of the nave and choir, from east to west, is about two hundred feet. The steeple is in the centre of the cross. Near the east angle of the north aisle is a round tower, to which leads a subterraneous passage from the church. Cormac's chapel, which stands in the angle on the south of the choir, is near two centuries older than the church; the latter being

No. 46.

built towards the end of the eleventh century, and Cormack having been king of Munster in the year 901. This chapel, fifty feet by eighteen, is a very curious structure, and of a style totally different from the church. Both on the outside and the inside, are columns over columns, better proportioned than one could expect, either from the place or the time. The ceiling is vaulted, and the outside of the roof is corbeled, so as to form a pediment pitch. At the angles of the east end are two small towers.

It may not be improper to remark that the chapel is not parallel to the church, as this observation tends to confirm the greater antiquity of the former. For had the church been the older building, it is probable they would have accommodated the chapel to it; though on the contrary, they would not have adapted the church to the chapel. As the first builders of churches were religiously exact in placing them due east and west, the deviation of the chapel from the true line, we may presume, was corrected in the church. This chapel is supposed to have been erected by Cormac, upon the very foundation of that church originally built by St. Patrick. That there was an edifice of lime and stone ere in the sixth century, is highly credible; for the name of the place (*Cos-diol*) is mentioned in the Acts of the Life of St. Patrick, and signifies literally a house of lime and stone. As this was the seat of the kings of Munster, we may naturally suppose that the castle was their residence, before the introduction of Christianity, in the same manner as it continued after Cormac was not only king but archbishop.

In the town is a large and comfortable sea-house, built within half a century. The old episcopal seat was on the west end of the cathedral, but was battered in the rebellion of 1641, by lord Inchiquin, who put all the priests to death he found in it, as they were the principal part of the garrison which defended the fortress.

There is not in this metropolis one roofed church; the service being performed in a ferry room, where the county courts are held. The choir of the cathedral was kept in repair, and used as a parish church, till within these thirty years; but the situation not being accessible enough, (which, however, twenty pounds might have rendered so,) the roof was wantonly pulled down, an act of parliament and a grant of money being first obtained, to change the site of the cathedral from the rock to the town. A new church of ninety feet by forty-five, was accordingly begun, and raised as high as the wall-plates. But in that state it has stood for near ninety years.

## WATERFORD.

The county of Waterford is bounded on the west by Tipperary and Cork; on the north by the river Suite, which separates it from the counties of Kilkenny and Tipperary; and on the east and south by St. George's channel, and a part of the harbour of Waterford, which divides it from the county of Wexford. Its greatest length from east to west is

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about forty Irish miles, and its greatest breadth about twenty; but in some places it is not half, and in others, not above a quarter so much.

The face of this county, in many places, is rude, and but little removed from the state in which nature originally formed it; much of it being rocky and mountainous, especially about the middle and north-west parts. It is, however, well adapted to the breed of young cattle, and produces a considerable quantity of butter, with some kinds of grain, as barley, oats, and rye. The greater part of the sea-coast is pleasant and fertile.

Towards the western part of the county stands Lismore, at present little better than a village, though formerly a city of considerable note, and the seat of a university. Instead of its ancient lustre, the cathedral, the castle, and a few tolerable houses, intermixed with cabins, is all that now appear. The nave of the present cathedral seems, by its structure, to be of no great antiquity, but the choir is evidently very ancient. Besides the cathedral, no less than twenty other churches are said to have been in this place; of several of which the ruins are yet visible.

The castle of Lismore was built by king John in 1185; and in 1189 demolished by the Irish, who took it by surprize. Being rebuilt, it was many years the residence of the bishops, till Miler Macgrath, archbishop of Cashel, and bishop of this see, sometime before his resignation in 1589, with the consent of the dean and chapter, granted to Sir Walter Raleigh the manor of Lismore, and other lands, at the yearly rent of 13l. 6s. 8d. The castle is boldly situated upon the verge of a hill, upwards of sixty foot perpendicular over the Black-water. Opposite to the great window of the castle, opens a deep and wide glyn, wooded on both sides, and pleasantly watered by a small river, which, at about a mile's distance, winds off to the west side of the great mountain of Knock-mele-down, four miles north. This object exactly faces the window, and appears like a vast cone.

There are at Lismore a free-school, and an almshouse, founded by Sir Walter Raleigh, and afterwards augmented and confirmed by the first Earl of Corke, who rebuilt both.

At the distance of a few miles from Lismore, stands the castle of Strancally, built upon a rock, directly over the Black-water. From the castle to the river, a passage is cut through the rock, of a considerable breadth and pretty deep. According to tradition, it was formerly used by the tyrannical earls of Desmond, as a prison for such persons as had fortunes in this part of the country, whom they frequently invited to the castle, under a social pretext, and afterwards confined to this dungeon, where they were suffered to perish. A hole is cut through the rock, in the manner of a portcullis, down which the dead bodies were cast into the river; and this being done, their lands and effects were seized. One person, by good fortune, escaped out of this dungeon, who gave the government information of those horrid practices; in consequence of which, the castle was soon after de-

molished. The cave is entirely laid open, and half of the castle blown up.

Not far hence is a small island, anciently called Dar-Innes, or the island of St. Molanfade, now Molana, in which are the remains of an abbey of regular canons, founded in the sixth century, by that saint, who was the first abbot. In this abbey is said to be buried Raymond le Gros, the English general, who, with Strongbow, contributed so much to the reduction of Ireland.

The abbey lands of Molana, with those of Rhincrew, were granted to Sir Walter Raleigh in fee-farm; and afterwards, with the rest of his estate, were purchased by the earl of Cork.

The village of Ardmore was anciently an episcopal see, erected by St. Decan, the first bishop of it, in the infancy of the Irish church, and confirmed by St. Patrick in the synod of Cashel, held in 448. Here are the remains of two ancient churches. Of those one, now quite in ruins, is situated on the edge of a clift, near the sea. Near it is St. Decan's Stone, as it is called, of coarse grit, like all the adjacent rocks. It lies shelving on the point of a rock; and on the patron-day of this saint, great numbers of people creep under the stone three times, in order (as they pretend) to cure and prevent pains in the back. Near the church is a well, dedicated to the same saint; to which, as well as to the stone, many miraculous virtues are attributed by the superstitious populace.

The other church stands about a mile north-west of the former; and seems to be very ancient. There is still remaining a handsome Gothic arch, which separates the body of the church from the chancel. The chancel only of the church is roofed, and in it divine service is performed. On the west end of the church are the remains of some figures, venerable for their antiquity, done in alto relievo, in free stone. Those which time has not defaced, are the representations of Adam and Eve, with the tree and serpent between them; the judgment of Solomon between the two harlots; and a Jewish sacrifice.

Near the church stands a round tower, above a hundred foot high, excellently built of hewn stone, and gradually lessening to the top. The door is placed about fifteen foot from the ground. The base of this tower is forty-five foot in circumference.

Ardmore was anciently a Danish settlement, and in the neighbourhood are yet to be seen several remains of that people, as circular entrenchments, and such works.

The town of Dungarvan is tolerably well built, and has a decent session and market-house. The sea flows up to the town walls; and on the north side is a quay, sufficiently convenient for the loading and discharging of small vessels. There belong to this place forty or fifty coasting boats, which are in the season employed in the fishery. The barracks are situated within the walls of the castle, which formerly served as a citadel. The town sends two members to parliament. This place is visited every summer by numbers of people from distant parts, in order to bathe in the sea-water.

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A short way hence, at Ballivony, are some remains of a large building, a hundred and fifty foot long, and ninety broad, supposed to have belonged to the Knights Templars. In a large court-yard facing the building, now almost level with the ground, is an open well, that by a subterraneous passage, of about two hundred foot, communicates with another within the house, the latter of which is defended by some stone steps. The water is brought to those wells by a subterraneous aqueduct, near half a mile. Here are the remains of several large out-offices; and by the ground plan, it has much the appearance of a monastic edifice, though not mentioned as such by any writer on that head.

At Carrickbeg was formerly an abbey of Franciscan friars, founded by the earl of Ormond in 1336. The steeple is a curious building, about sixty foot high, and rises from a single stone, in the form of an inverted pyramid. The point begins several foot from the ground, contiguous to the wall of the ruined church.

The city of Waterford stands on the south side of the river Suir, about eight miles north of the sea. The foundation of this city is commonly ascribed to Satiricos, in the year 853. It was walled, ditched, and fortified; but had not the same extent within the walls as at present. Originally it was built in the form of a triangle, with a strong tower at each corner. The city was enlarged by the English in the time of Henry II. as it also was in the reign of Henry VII. After the enlargement, several mayors, and other inhabitants, in order to perpetuate the names of themselves and their families, built towers and castles, as a strength and ornament to the city; most of which still exist, and retain the names of their founders.

In this city, besides the cathedral, are at present the churches of St. Olave, and St. Patrick, in which divine service is performed. The cathedral, commonly called Christ-church, was at first founded by the Ostmens; and about the beginning of the thirteenth century, it was endowed with lands by king John, who had here a palace, the ruins of which may yet be seen.

The bishop's palace is a fine building of hewn stone, with two fronts, one of which is beautifully ornamented.

The city court-house, or guild-hall, is a handsome structure, having the outside supported by a range of columns of the Tuscan order. The front of the building serves for a corn-market-house, and the inner part for a court-house, where the assizes, the quarter-sessions, and other assemblies relating to the affairs of the city are held.

The exchange, with the custom-house adjoining, are charmingly situated on the quay, which is here of considerable breadth. The former is a neat light building, supported by stone pillars of the Tuscan order. It has an Italian hip roof, with a beautiful octagon cupola, and a dome at top; the cupola being encompassed with a balustrade, round which is a

walk. The custom-house is of brick, with the door and window cases of hewn stone.

The fish-house, also conveniently situated on the quay, is a neat plain building, supported by several arches of hewn stone. Within, for the laying on of the fish, are blocks or stone tables, which are kept constantly clean and sweet. Over the house is a neat lanthorn, with a bell, which is tolled to warn the inhabitants when the fish is arrived.

Many of the private buildings in this city are handsome and spacious; but the streets and lanes are for the most part exceeding narrow, and the houses crowded very thick together.

The quay is equal, if not superior, to any of the kind in Europe; being half a mile long, and of considerable breadth. The largest trading vessels may conveniently come up to it, both to load and unload; and at a small distance opposite to it, may lie constantly afloat. To it are built five moles or piers, which stretch forward into the river; at their heads, ships of five hundred tons may load and unload, and lie afloat.

The Waterford merchants are said to have the greatest share of the Newfoundland trade of any part of Ireland; occasioned, in a great measure, we are told, by the goodness of the pork fed about this place.

In this county, as in most of the other counties in Ireland, we meet with three kinds of ancient monuments, which are generally attributed to the Ostmens or Danes. The first or larger kind of those antiquities is termed Rath; the second is called Liff; and the third, which consists of tumuli, or sepulchral monuments, is distinguished by the name of Dun.

Among the most remarkable Rathes in this county, is one near Lismore. It stands on the top of a hill, called the Round-Hill, of a pretty steep ascent, and is situated near the Black-water river, about half a mile to the west of Lismore. It was surrounded by a double fosse, which is now almost filled up. This Rath, and indeed most of the others in the county, are not near so large as those in the more northern parts of the kingdom, being in general not above forty or fifty foot in diameter at the base, and at the most about twenty foot high, exclusive of the eminence on which they are erected. They are placed near the most ancient towns, and considerable places of resort, which were so many head-quarters or stations, whence the alarm was given to the more distant parts in the country.

Besides that of Lismore, there is one at Killoteran, in the liberties of Waterford; one at Rathgoimuck, in the barony of Upperrthird; one in the parish of Kinsalebeg, opposite to the town of Youghal; some considerable remains of a work of this kind at Ardmore; and many others of less note in different parts of the country.

The second kind of fortifications, which they call Liff in this county, is for the most part no more than a circular ditch, with a fosse round it, and without any mount or hill in the centre. Many are of a considerable extent, enclosing some acres; and others

so small as not to exceed ten or fifteen yards in diameter. The latter seem to have been intended only for the dwellings of single families. They branch out very regularly from the head stations, and are placed at so convenient distances, that the inhabitants of the contiguous forts must have been within call of each other.

The third kind, or those called *Dun*, are the same with the barrows in England. They are commonly situated, especially the larger, near some high road, and usually on an eminence.

### THE PROVINCE OF LEINSTER.

#### Of the County of WEXFORD.

The county of Wexford is bounded on the west by the counties of Waterford and Tipperary; on the north, by those of Carlow and Wicklow; and on the east and south by St. George's Channel. It is thirty-eight miles long, and twenty-four broad, containing a hundred and nine parishes with eight boroughs, and sends eighteen members to parliament.

The capital of the county is Wexford. It stands upon the river Slane, which here empties itself into the ocean. This town was built by the Danes, and was formerly a place of much greater trade than at present. It is seated in a bottom, though where the castle stands is a rocky hill, which overlooks the town and port. The gates, with several parts of the ancient walls, yet remain, and it contains some handsome buildings. At the end of the town, and formed out of the old castle, are barracks for soldiers. Most of the old buildings are of stone, of a reddish colour. The town consists of one long street, with a few lanes on each side. The church stands in the main street, and is built in the modern taste. The market-house is also a neat building, as is likewise the custom-house. Here are several ruins of ancient abbeys, and religious houses interspersed. The chief trade of the town is in corn, and that mostly barley. The haven is very large, and the entrance is defended by two narrow necks of land, each forming an isthmus, which leave an intervening opening of about half a mile. At the extremity of each is a fort; that towards the north is called Fort Margat, and the other, Fort Roselair.

At this place landed the first English forces that attempted to make a conquest of the kingdom; and here also Henry II. embarked, after receiving homage from most of the princes of the nation.

#### C A R L O W.

The county of Carlow or Catherlough is bounded on the south by the county of Wexford; on the west by part of Kilkenny and Queen's county; on the north by part of Queen's county and the county of Wicklow; and on the east by St. George's Channel.

The chief town of this county is Carlow, pleasantly situated on the river Barrow, over which it

has a stone bridge. The town consists of one main street, and another not of so great extent, that crosses it in the middle, besides two or three back lanes. The church is an ordinary structure, but the market-house is a neat building. The town-hall, where the judges sit in their circuits, is built over the jail, which is ascended by a flight of steps from the street. The felons, in the day time, are seated on a bench, fettered, before the door of the prison, to beg and air themselves. Here is a manufacture of the coarsest kind of woollen cloths; and the inhabitants are concerned in supplying the neighbourhood with coals from Kilkenny. Here is likewise a horse barrack; and on an eminence, over-hanging the river, stands an old castle, of an oblong square area, with large round towers at each angle.

Leighlin was formerly a city, but is now only a mean village; though, as well as Carlow, it sends two members to parliament. The cathedral is kept in tolerable good repair, and in the centre is a beautiful arch of marble, which supports the tower. The stalls and other marks of its episcopal dignity still remain neat and entire. Leighlin was a sole bishoprick, founded in the year 632, and joined to Ferns in the year 1600. The ancient cathedral is said to have been burnt to the ground by lightning, and to have been rebuilt in the year 1232. Since the sees were joined, it is made use of as a parish-church.

Three miles south from Leighlin-bridge, on the river Barrow, stands Bagnal's-town, intended to have been made one of the best towns in the kingdom, by the name of Versailles. A magnificent square, court-house, and several other public buildings, were raised with stones of different kinds, intermixed with marble. The proprietor's design was to bring the great road through this town instead of Leighlin-bridge; but failing in the attempt, a stop was put to the building, after having incurred a prodigious expence.

#### K I L K E N N Y.

The county of Kilkenny is bounded on the east by part of the counties of Carlow and Wexford; on the south by the county of Waterford; on the west by Tipperary; and on the north by Queen's county. It contains ninety-six parishes, seven boroughs, and sends sixteen members to parliament.

The chief town is Kilkenny, situated on the river Neure, fifty-four miles south-west of Dublin. This city had formerly the appellation of Holy; and indeed the remains of ruined monasteries evince, that buildings consecrated to religion overspread above a third part of it. The town consists of between two and three thousand houses. The cathedral, which was founded in 1202, is a very venerable Gothic structure. The nave is divided from the aisles, by massy columns of black marble; and from the bishop's palace to the church, is a long and double colonnade, in the modern style. The length of this edifice is two hundred and twenty-six feet, and breadth a hundred and twenty three. Its height is proportioned

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style too modern to correspond with the former structure. The front next the street is built upon level ground, and, with the chapel, forms a large square. It is entered by a lofty gate of marble, of the Corinthian order. The other part stands upon a precipice, overhanging the bend of a deep and rapid river, with two stately bridges full in view; the more distant composed of seven arches, and that next the castle of three, but of a very wide span, of hewn marble, in fine elliptical proportions.

In the environs of Kilkenny are the celebrated marble mills, invented by Mr. Collis. They stand in a delightful bottom, upon the river Nore, about a mile from the town. These engines are so admirably contrived, that they saw, bore, and polish at the same time. The marble quarry is within two hundred yards of the mill; and though it is not varie-

One of the cathedrals is named the Trinity, or Christ-church, and the other that of St. Patrick. The former is the more beautiful, but both contain many monuments.

The modern built churches in Dublin have neither spires nor steeples, but two or three of them are adorned with elegant front fronts. The round church, on the south side of the Liffy, is, as its name imports, really circular, and very convenient for the performance of oatorios.

The bishop's palace, or St. Sepulchre, is very old, and situated not far from St. Patrick's cathedral.

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north is called Fort Marget, and the other, Fort Rosclair.

At this place landed the first English forces that attempted to make a conquest of the kingdom; and here also Henry II. embarked, after receiving homage from most of the princes of the nation.

#### C A R L O W.

The county of Carlow or Catherlough is bounded on the south by the county of Wexford; on the west by part of Kilkenny and Queen's county; on the north by part of Queen's county and the county of Wicklow; and on the east by St. George's Channel.

The chief town of this county is Carlow, pleasantly situated on the river Barrow, over which it

by Tipperary; and on the north by Queen's county. It contains ninety-six parishes, seven boroughs, and sends sixteen members to parliament.

The chief town is Kilkenny, situated on the river Neure, fifty-four miles south-west of Dublin. This city had formerly the appellation of Holy; and indeed the remains of ruined monasteries evince, that buildings consecrated to religion overspread above a third part of it. The town consists of between two and three thousand houses. The cathedral, which was founded in 1202, is a very venerable Gothic structure. The nave is divided from the aisles, by massy columns of black marble; and from the bishop's palace to the church, is a long and double colonnade, in the modern style. The length of this edifice is two hundred and twenty-six foot, and breadth a hundred and twenty-three. Its height is proportioned to

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to these dimensions; and besides a centre aisle, it has one on each side. The choir is very beautiful, and the ceiling adorned with curious fret-work. The stalls are made of wood, but very well ornamented; and the rays of the sun painted over the communion-table, seem as if they gave light to the whole. The arch in the middle of the church is esteemed a masterly performance.

This noble fabric stands on an eminence, with a descent all around it. The church-yard, which is entered from the town by a flight of marble steps, is planted regularly with trees; and to the west is a handsome terrace, where is a beautiful prospect of a very fine country.

The bishop's palace is new built, enclosed with a high wall, in which are two gates, one leading out of the church-yard, and the other into a back street.

The city of Kilkenny would much resemble Oxford, if the latter were divested of its towers and pinnacles. The main street is a full English mile in length, and for the most part it is spacious. Near the middle stands the market-place, and the tholfel or town-house, a very good building. Adjoining to those is a handsome Gothic cross, but now much injured by time. It is not unlike that of Coventry in England, but not so high. Nine gates of this city are yet standing, and its former strength is evinced by the remains of old walls, which are raised in some places over rocks. Along the side of the river, is a pleasant walk, about a mile in length, planted with trees.

The hill on which the cathedral stands, is called the Irish town, and that where the castle is situated, goes by the name of the English town. The former consists mostly of sorry houses, and poor cabins; but the latter is generally well built. Each of them sends two members to parliament. The castle was founded in 1192, by Randolphus III. earl of Chester, but built, as it now stands, by the Butlers, ancestors of the dukes of Ormond. This edifice, the magnificence of which is heightened by the lossiness of its situation, has been gradually falling into decay since the attainder of the last duke. In his time it was a spacious square, only two sides of which are now standing. They are now rebuilding it, but in a style too modern to correspond with the antiquity of the former structure. The front next the street is built upon level ground, and, with the chapel, forms a large square. It is entered by a lofty gate of marble, of the Corinthian order. The other part stands upon a precipice, overhanging the bend of a deep and rapid river, with two stately bridges full in view; the more distant composed of seven arches, and that next the castle of three, but of a very wide span, of hewn marble, in fine elliptical proportions.

In the environs of Kilkenny are the celebrated marble mills, invented by Mr. Collis. They stand in a delightful bottom, upon the river Nore, about a mile from the town. These engines are so admirably contrived, that they saw, bore, and polish at the same time. The marble quarry is within two hundred yards of the mill; and though it is not varie-

gated like the Italian, it is said to bear as fine a polish, and to be no less durable.

Four miles north of Kilkenny is Dunmore cave, situated in the middle of a spacious field. The entrance to this cave is distinguished by a monstrous sight of birds of different species, whose numbers darken the horizon.

#### D U B L I N.

The county of Dublin is bounded on the south by Wicklow; on the west by Kildare; on the north by East Meath; and on the east by the Irish sea. The capital of this county, and of the whole kingdom, is Dublin, situated in six degrees thirty minutes of west longitude, and in fifty-three degrees fourteen minutes of north latitude. It stands at the mouth of the river Liffy, which divides the city into two parts. Over the river are five bridges, among which that named Essex bridge is the most worthy of notice. It consists of five arches of stone, the chord of that in the middle being forty-eight foot. It has raised foot-paths, alcoves, and balustrades, of a white stone, coarse but hard. The length of it is two hundred and fifty foot, and the breadth about the same with that of Westminster. Here the tide rises on an average about ten foot. Queen's bridge is also very neat, and consists of three elegant arches.

At the end of Essex bridge is the elegant new building of the exchange. The whole is of white stone, richly embellished with semicolumns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments, with a statue of his present majesty.

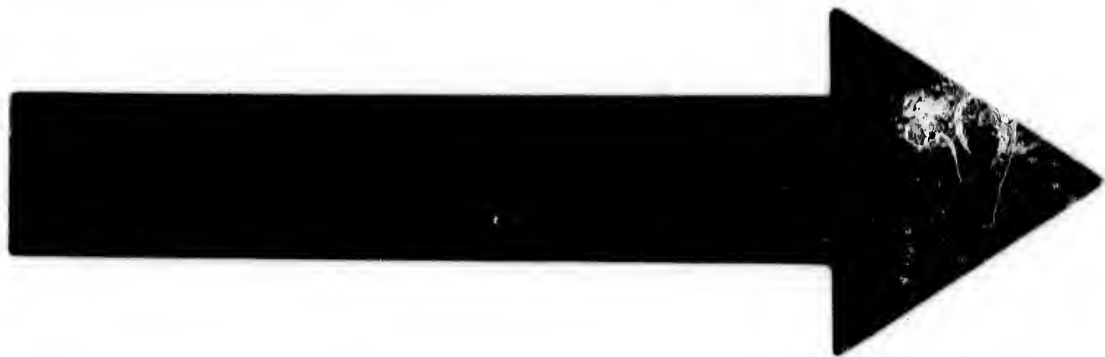
Near the exchange, on a little eminence, is situated the castle, the residence of the lord-lieutenant. It consists of two large courts, called the upper and lower castle yard; in the latter of which are the treasury, and some other public offices. This castle, though not very sumptuous, is upon the whole far superior to that of St James's.

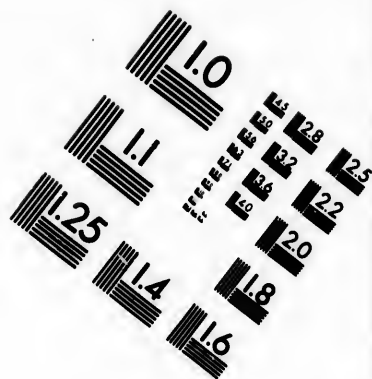
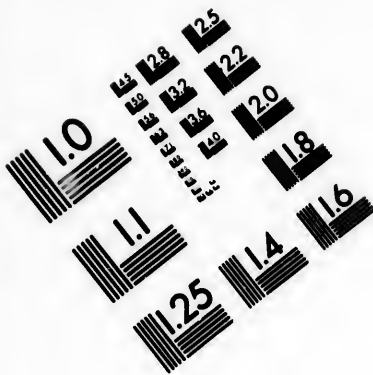
Here are two cathedrals, and eighteen parish-churches, besides several chapels, meeting-houses, &c. Neither of the cathedrals is remarkable for architecture; and in respect of the parish-churches, except on the front of three or four of their steeples, external embellishments have been but little studied. One of the cathedrals is named the Trinity, or Christ-church, and the other that of St. Patrick. The former is the more beautiful, but both contain many monuments.

The modern built churches in Dublin have neither spires nor steeples, but two or three of them are adorned with elegant stone fronts. The round church, on the south side of the Liffy, is, as its name imports, really circular, and very convenient for the performance of oratorios.

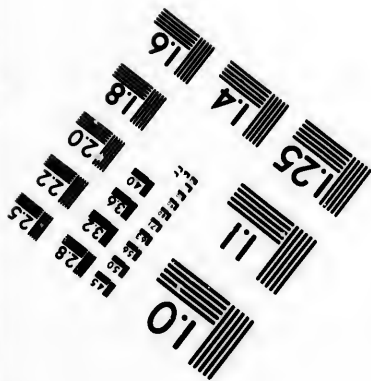
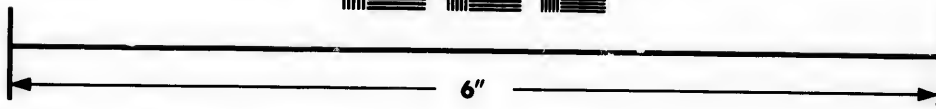
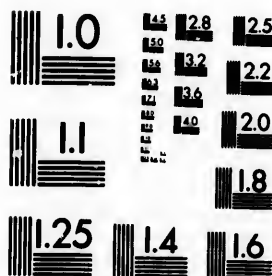
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Great Britain. The house of commons is octangular and very capacious, infinitely superior to that at Westminster. This noble edifice is one of the principal ornaments of the city. The front is a portico of the Ionic order, and in general, well executed, in the form of the Greek II, supported by lofty columns of Portland stone. Near the parliament-house stands Trinity college, which constitutes the whole of the university. It consists of two squares, comprising thirty-three buildings, of eight rooms each. The edifice has twenty-three windows in front, is of white stone, and four stories in height. It was begun in 1591. College-green, which is the name of the street leading to its front, regularly widens in its approach, and terminates in a triangular opening. On the right is the parliament-house, and in the centre of the triangle an equestrian statue of William III. Three sides of the farther square of the college are built of brick, and the fourth is a superb library, which, being constructed of very bad stone, is mouldering to ruin. The inside is commodious and magnificent, embellished with many busts of ancient and modern worthies.

The new square, three sides of which have been built within twenty years, by parliamentary bounty, and thence called Parliament-square, is of hewn stone, of a coarse grain, but extremely hard. The front next the city, is ornamented with pilasters, festoons, &c. Near the college, in the same line, is the Provost's house, a handsome building of free stone. The new hall, where the members dine, is a spacious room. The museum contains few objects to entertain curiosity, excepting a set of figures in wax, representing females in every state of pregnancy. In the anatomy house of this college is a human skeleton, between seven and eight foot high; part of the body of one Macgrath, an orphan, born in the neighbourhood of Cloyn. The child fell into the hands of the famous Berkeley, then bishop of that see; who being desirous to ascertain the possibility of increasing the human stature by art, made the experiment on this orphan. The consequence was, that the latter became seven foot high in his sixteenth year. He was carried through various parts of Europe during the last years of his life, and exhibited as the Irish giant. So disproportioned were his organs, that he contracted an universal imbecility both of body and mind, and died superannuated at the age of twenty. His under jaw was monstrous, yet the skull did not exceed the common size.

In the same repository is the skeleton of one Clerk, a native of Corke, whom they call the ossified man. This person became almost totally ossified in his lifetime, and existed in that miserable condition several years. He is said to have felt the first symptoms of this surprising change some time after he had lain all night in the fields subsequent to a hard debauch. By slow degrees every part grew into a bony substance, excepting his skin, eyes, and entrails. His joints became so rigid as to be utterly incapable of the smallest motion. His teeth were joined, and formed into one

large bone. The tongue lost its use, and his sight left him some time before he expired.

This seminary was founded and endowed by queen Elisabeth, of whom, however, it contains neither statue, bust, nor picture. The provostship is computed to be worth three thousand pounds a year; the place of a senior fellow about seven hundred a year; and that of a junior fellow a hundred, besides commons, and the instruction of pupils. The number of senior fellows is seven, of junior fifteen. There are seventy scholars, and thirty sizers. Among the students are three different ranks, viz. fellow-commoners, pensioners, and sizers, who dine by themselves according to their classes, and are distinguished by a difference in their gowns. The number of students is variable, but generally about four hundred.

Near St. Stephen's green is the mansion house of the lord mayor, a brick building of two stories, with five windows in front. Here are, however, some magnificent structures of modern date; such as the duke of Leinster's, near the mansion-house, and lord Charlemont's, on the opposite side of the river.

Moffe's hospital, or the lying-in hospital, is situated in Great Britain-street, near the northern extremity of Dublin, and is remarkable for the beauty of its architecture. It was founded in 1745, by Dr. Moffe, and is now supported by grants from parliament, private benefactions, with the profits arising from concerts, and its public gardens. The latter are situated behind the hospital, and contain a large circular room called the Rotunda, built in imitation of that at Ranelagh near London, and about a third as large, but without any pillar in the centre. Here they have an organ and orchestra for concerts, in the wet evenings of summer, and for balls in winter.

At the west end of the city, on the north side of the water, near the Phoenix park, stands the barracks, which are capable of containing three thousand foot and a thousand horse. The whole is of rough stone, ornamented with cornices and window cases of cut stone. It consists of three squares, or rather imperfect squares, each wanting its south side. Nearly opposite, on the south side of the river, is Dr. Stevens's hospital for sick and wounded objects of charity; in the neighbourhood of which stands St. Patrick's hospital for lunatics and idiots, founded by the late celebrated dean Swift in 1745.

Near the barracks, on Oxmantown-green, has very lately been erected a new blue-coat hospital, a beautiful stone building, not yet entirely finished, but which will be one of the noblest about Dublin.

Westward of Stevens's is the hospital of Kilmaham, or royal hospital, answering to our Chelsea, and built in 1695. It contains about five hundred men.

Besides the hospitals already mentioned, here are ten or twelve others, useful, but not ornamental structures.

Almost every parish in the city has protestant schools, supported by charitable donations, collected principally in the churches at charity sermons. The

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parliament grants an annual sum to a poor house, for receiving and supporting foundlings from every part of the kingdom. To this house it is not unusual to send children even from England; and they are always received without difficulty.

In this metropolis are two theatres; one in Smock-alley, and the other in Crow-street. The latter is nearly of a size with that in Drury-lane, and is one of the most elegant and best constructed theatres, for the advantage both of the actors and audience, of any in the three kingdoms.

From the badness of the streets, hackney-coaches are here more frequent in proportion than in London, and sedan chairs are every where as common as about St. James's. Here is an odd kind of a single horse chaise, called a Noddy, which is a very dangerous vehicle. The fare of it is half that of a coach.

Goods are conveyed about the city on two-wheeled cars, drawn by a single horse. The wheels are thin round blocks, about twenty inches in diameter. They are frequently used as vehicles for the common people on their parties of pleasure; when a bed or mat is placed on the car, and half a dozen people sit on it, with their legs hanging a few inches from the ground. They are generally dragged a foot-pace.

The city contains about thirteen thousand five hundred houses, and it is computed that the inhabitants amount to a hundred and sixty thousand.

It is remarkable, that in this large and populous city there should be an almost total want of good inns for the accommodation of travellers. This defect obliges every body that is acquainted with the place to get into private lodgings as soon as possible, or to use the hotels lately set up, some of which are elegant.

A penny-post office has lately been established for the carriage of letters in and about Dublin; and there are about twenty stage-coaches for the conveyance of passengers to various parts of the kingdom. There are, however, no stages for horses, excepting on the road from Dublin to Belfast; so that the only convenient method of travelling is to hire a carriage and horses by the week or month. The roads of the country are universally good, but near Dublin extremely bad.

The bay of Dublin is about three or four miles wide, and six or seven deep. The bar of this harbour is very incommodious, but the entrance being at least eight miles from the city, is extremely beautiful and picturesque; diversified with hills and promontories on either hand, and exhibiting a spacious amphitheatre, bounded by a high shore, contiguous to which is interspersed a number of villas.

All the outlets of Dublin are pleasant, but chiefly that which leads through Leixlip, a neat little village, about seven miles up the Liffy; the banks of which being prettily tufted with wood, and enlivened by gentlemen's seats, afford a variety of landscapes, beautiful beyond description.

#### EAST MEATH.

The county of East Meath is bounded on the south by Kildare and Dublin; on the west by West Meath

and Longford; on the north by Cavan and Louth; and on the east by the Irish Channel; extending in length thirty-six miles, and in breadth above thirty. It contains a hundred and thirty-nine parishes, six boroughs, and sends fourteen members to parliament. The chief town is Trim, situated twenty-three miles from Dublin. This place had formerly a castle, the ruins of which, with those of an abbey, remain: Here is now a barrack for a troop of horse.

Kells is a small town, with a round tower in the church-yard. In the market-place is a stone cross with basso relievo, representing stags and dogs; and near it the remnants of three other crosses.

#### WEST MEATH.

The county of West Meath is bounded on the east by East Meath; on the south by King's county; on the west by Roscommon; and on the north by Longford. It contains sixty-two parishes, with four boroughs; sends ten members to parliament, and is one of the most fertile and populous counties in the kingdom. The chief town is Mullingar.

#### LOUTH.

The county of Louth is bounded on the north by Monaghan and Armagh; on the east by the Irish Channel; on the south by East Meath; and on the west by Cavan. It extends twenty-nine miles in length, and thirteen in breadth; containing fifty parishes, with five boroughs, and sends ten members to parliament. The chief town is Drogheda, situated on the river Boyne, about a mile from the sea. It consists, mostly of two streets, which intersect each other at right angles. The tholsel or town-house is a handsome stone building. About two miles from the town is a stone obelisk, twenty foot square at the base, and about a hundred and fifty foot high. It stands on a rock on the edge of the river Boyne, and bears an inscription, celebrating the victory gained of king William over the forces of James II.

At Cluan Mac Nais, in this neighbourhood are several remains of ancient grandeur, particularly stately crosses curiously carved in stone, with very ancient Irish inscriptions.

Eighteen miles north of Drogheda lies Dundalk, which had formerly been a fortified town, as appears from the ruins of walls, and a castle destroyed in 1641. It has an open bay, but a very mean harbour, being so shallow at low water, that people walk over it dry shod, and it is little used but by fishing boats.

Eight miles distant from the preceding lies Carrlingford, situated at the mouth of the river Newry, on the south side of a large bay, where the road is exceeding good quite to the sea. The harbour is capable of containing the whole royal navy of Great Britain; extending nine miles in length, two in breadth, and having from ten to twenty fathom water. The town, though not large, is populous, and is furnished with some dock-yards for building ships. On the side towards the sea, it is not destitute

pute of strength; and here likewise are barracks for infantry. At this place a very narrow long causeway has been made over a great bog, that had formerly been impassable.

#### L O N G F O R D.

The county of Longford is bounded on the east and south by Meath; on the west by Roscommon; and on the north by Leitrim and Cavan. The chief town is Longford, which sends two members to parliament.

#### O F T H E P R O V I N C E O F U L S T E R.

##### C A V A N.

The county of Cavan is bounded on the north by Monaghan; on the east by Louth; on the south by Longford; and on the west by Leitrim. The chief town is Cavan.

##### M O N A G H A N.

The county of Monaghan is bounded on the south by Cavan; on the west by Fermanagh; on the north by Tyrone; and on the east by Armagh. It is thirty-two miles in length, and twenty-two in breadth; containing twenty-four parishes, and one borough, viz. that of Monaghan.

##### A R M A G H.

The county of Armagh is bounded on the west by Monaghan; on the north-west by Tyrone; on the north by Antrim; and on the east by the county of Down. The chief town is Armagh, which, though an archbishoprick, and the metropolitan see of all Ireland, contains only one church, and the ruins of some abbeyes. The archbishop of this see has not only decorated his cathedral, but built for his residence one of the best houses in the kingdom. He has also erected and endowed a sumptuous diocesan library. In the market-place of this town is a cross of two stones, with old basso relievos, representing Christ on the cross between the two thieves, and some ingenious fret-work.

##### D O W N.

The county of Down is bounded on the west by Armagh; on the north by Antrim; and on the east and south by the Irish Channel. It extends in length forty-two miles, and in breadth thirty-four; containing seventy-two parishes, and six boroughs. The chief town is Down-Patrick, situated on the south-west branch of Lough-Coyn, or the Lake of Strangford. It is reckoned one of the most ancient towns in the kingdom, being noted in history before the arrival of St. Patrick in Ireland. At present the town is of considerable extent, and is composed chiefly of four long streets, which meet each other in the centre. It is distinguished into several quarters, as

the Irish quarter, English quarter, Scotch quarter, &c. It was made the see of a bishop by St. Patrick; but has been united to that of Connor ever since the year 1442. The cathedral stands within two hundred paces of the town, on the ascent of a hill, and is yet venerable in its ruins. The roof was supported by five handsome arches, which compose a centre aisle of twenty-six foot broad, and two lateral aisles, each thirteen foot wide. The whole length of the structure is a hundred foot. The heads of the pillars and arches, the tops of the windows, and many niches in the walls, have been adorned with variety of sculpture in stone, some parts of which yet remain. Over the east window, which is very lofty, are three handsome ancient niches, where are the pedestals on which it is supposed the statues of St. Patrick, St. Bridgid, and St. Columb formerly stood.

Adjoining to the east end of the cathedral are two square columns, one of which is solid, and the other hollow; and in it are twenty winding steps, which are supposed to have led up to the roof.

On a stone over the east window is a very ancient inscription. At the west end is an ancient high pillar, which has lately been repaired.

The church and monument were destroyed by Leonard, lord Grey, lord deputy of Ireland, in 1538; the profanation of them being one of the articles of impeachment laid to his charge; in consequence of which he was beheaded three years after.

There are no ancient monuments remaining in the old abbey; but at the distance of about forty foot from the cathedral, stands a round tower, sixty-six foot high. The thickness of the walls is three foot, and the diameter within, eight foot. On the west side of it is an irregular gap, about ten foot from the top; near a third of the whole circumference being broke off by the injury of time. The entrance is two foot and a half wide, and placed on a level with the surface of the ground. In this particular it is pretty singular: for in others the door is placed from eight to twelve foot above the ground, without any stairs; so that those buildings can be entered only by means of a ladder. It is indeed not improbable, that, in respect of this tower, the above mentioned circumstance is owing to the raising of the ground by the rubbish of the old cathedral near it.

There are in Down Patrick the remains of no less than five religious houses.

Besides those buildings, and the present church, which is ninety foot by forty, the town is adorned with several other handsome structures, as a diocesan school, a large market-house, a horse-barrack, and a presbyterian meeting-house; but particularly a session-house.

On the declivity of the hill, leading from the old cathedral to the town, is an hospital. It extends in length two hundred and forty-five foot, and consists of a middle range, with two projecting wings. Over the gateway, in the centre of the house, is a handsome cupola, of free-stone.

About a mile south is a noted horse-course. The hills overhanging the town, on the road leading

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leading to St. Patrick's wells, command many beautiful prospects. From the several summits are no less than fourteen different views of the lake of Strangford, with many peninsulas and islands interspersed. The sea at Killough is in full view, and the isle of Man visible from end to end. In clear weather, there is also a distinct prospect of the Scotch coast.

On the north-west side of the town is a fort or rather of considerable extent, comprehending at least three quarters of an English mile within the circuit of the works. The circumference of it is two thousand one hundred foot, the conical height sixty foot, the diameter at the top bearing a proportion to the other parts. It is surrounded by three great ramparts, the most considerable of which is thirty foot broad.

Opposite to the old cathedral of Down, in the isle of Inch, or Innis-Curecy, in the western branch of Lough-Coyne, are the ruins of the abbey and abbey-church of Luch, which were translated thither from Carrig, near Erynach. The church of this abbey was erected in the form of a cross, part of which remains; and on the south side seems to have stood a steeple, supported by an elegant arch.

At the east end of the church are three large arched windows, upwards of twenty foot high; and on each side, in the north and south walls, are two windows, composed of two arches, little inferior in height or elegance to the great window on the east. Those windows, for light and ornament, must have had a grand effect, when the church was in its splendor. In the south wall may yet be seen three tops of stalls.

In the same island, near the entrance to it by a causeway, is an old church, which perhaps was a chapel to the great abbey. Over the south door is a piece of sculpture representing the image of Christ on the cross, and a person kneeling, with his hands elevated, as in the act of adoration.

From Down Patrick the passage to the island of Inch is by Coil-bridge, composed of six arches. About a quarter of a mile below this bridge, and a mile from the town, is the quay for shipping to the port of Down Patrick. Ships of fifty tons and upwards can come up to it; and here are erected good store-houses.

From the town a road leads eastward to Castleward and Strangford, keeping the distance of about a mile from the shore of the lake. In this journey, about a mile from the town, lies the abbey of Saul, perhaps one of the first monasteries in the kingdom, having been erected by St. Patrick in the year 432. Of this abbey large ruins remain. Here are two small vaulted rooms of stone yet entire, about seven foot high, six foot long, and two foot and a half broad, with a small window placed in one side. Those small chambers were probably confessionals, or places for private devotion. One of them is now closed up, and used by some families for a tomb. At some distance from the church, on the south-west side, stands a castle, with battlements, and two small towers.

Strangford, five miles east of Down Patrick, is a small ancient trading town. It is seated on the west side of Strangford river, or rather on the entrance

into Strangford lake, which is here half a mile broad. This is properly the port-town of the whole lake. Here is a church, and a presbyterian meeting-house. From this place to the isle of Man the distance is only thirty miles.

The extent of Strangford lake from Newton in the north, to Strangford in the south, is upwards of thirteen miles. The shape bears in the whole a considerable resemblance to Italy; that part of it extending westward from Audley road to Coyne-bridge, near five miles, being like the foot of the boot, and the entrance of Anguish rocks to Audley road like the heel. Near Coyne-bridge it becomes narrow for a short space, after which it spreads into a branch irregularly triangular. The lake is in some places three, in some four, and in others, almost five miles broad. The tide flows to Newton, and is reckoned to rise in spring tides about four foot at a medium; but at other times the swell is very inconsiderable.

There are in this lake fifty-four islands, small and great, besides many others which have no name. Towards the west side of it, is a numerous group, that go by the name of the Scaterick Islands; some of which are noted for fattening lean, and restoring distempered horses. Many of them are inhabited; most of them well watered, and profitable both in grain and grass. They abound in lime-stone, and afford variety of wild fowl. The great manufacture carried on in those islands, and on the flat stoney coast surrounding the lake, is the burning of sea-weed into kelp, which employs more than three hundred hands, and is said to produce to the proprietors upwards of a thousand pounds a year. Four of those islands are called Swan islands, from the number of swans that frequent them.

The borough of Killeleagh is situated on an arm of the lake of Strangford, near five miles north-east of Down. It stands on a rising ground, and has a commanding prospect of the lake, the Ardes, and St. George's channel. At the upper end of the street is an old castle, now converted into a gentleman's seat; and at the lower end of the street is a safe bay, where ships lie sheltered from all winds. In the town are some good houses, a market-house, a horse barrack, and a presbyterian meeting-house.

North of Killeleagh, on the side of Strangford lake, is Ringhaddy, noted now for its oysters, but formerly for its castle, which, with another castle erected on the isle Scaterick, not far off, formed two places of defence for those parts.

Portaferry is situated near the rapid ferry of Strangford, and is a market-town, but irregularly built. Three miles north-east of it, in a field, is an artificial cave, formed in the manner of a spiral walk, and about fifty yards in length. The entrance is about three foot wide, but so low, (occasioned by stones and earth tumbled in) that it must be crept into on the belly. With the entrance, it consists of five descents, at each of which is a step two foot deep, where probably flag-stones were placed to stop the passage of pursuers. It is terminated by an oval chamber twelve foot long, eight broad, and five high.

The whole spiral walk, with the chamber, is formed of large flat stones, built without cement, and roofed with long flag-stones, placed horizontally, and supported by other projecting about six inches from the side walls.

Newton stands, as was formerly observed, on the most northern point of the lake of Strangford. The tide flows up as far as the town, whither the lake is navigable; yet the principal trade of the place consists in the linen manufacture; and the town is particularly in repute for the sale of great quantities of fine diaper linen. The quakers have here a factory, and the presbyterians two meeting-houses.

The old church of Newton is a large building, divided into aisles, by four elegant stone arches of the Doric order. The market-house is a handsome structure. On the west end of it is erected a cupola with a public clock, and before it stands a neat octagon building of hewn stone, adorned with a slender stone pillar, which serves the town for a market-cross.

At Molville, about a mile north-east of Newton, stood a monastery of Augustine canons, founded in 550. Part of the ruins of the abbey church yet remains.

Bangor was anciently famous for an abbey of canons founded by St. Congal, about the year 555. The ruins of Malachy's building still remain, and the traces of the old foundation evince it to have been of great extent.

Donaghadee is situated on the coast, opposite to Port-Patrick in Scotland. It has a good market, and is the port where the Scotch packets land. The town consists of two principal streets, besides lanes. Of the former, one is open towards the sea; and at the back of it lies the other, which is well paved. The quay is built in the form of a crescent, of large stones, without any cement. It is a hundred and twenty yards in length, and about twenty-one or twenty-two foot broad, besides a breast wall about six foot broad.

The dissenters have here a large meeting-house, and the non-conformists a decent church, which, though an old building, is in good repair, and erected in the form of a cross, with narrow Gothic arched windows. The church stands on an eminence at the north-west end of the town, and may be seen in clear weather from Port-Patrick in Scotland.

The rath at Donaghadee stands on the north-east side of the town, on a natural hill, of a pretty considerable height. It is encompassed by a dry foss, thirty-three foot broad in some places, in some twenty-seven, and in others less. The circumference at the bottom of the trench is two hundred and nineteen foot, and the conical height on the north a hundred and forty foot. The mount is ascended by several narrow paths, which are carried about it spirally.

Three miles south of Belvoir, on the hill of Drumboe, are the ruins of a church, forty-five foot long, and twenty broad; near which stands an old round tower, about thirty five foot high, forty-seven in circumference, and nine in diameter. It is conjectured that a small fortified town formerly stood at this place.

Near two miles north of the tower of Drumboe, is the Giant's Ring, an artificial rath, two thousand five hundred and twenty-six foot in circumference. Near the middle of it is an ancient Druidical monument.

#### A N T R I M.

The county of Antrim is bounded on the south by Down; on the west by Londonderry; and on the north and east by the sea. The chief town is Antrim, situated within a mile of Lough Neagh, on the banks of the Six-mile-water, over which it has a bridge. The town sends two members to parliament.

Carrickfergus is a sea-port town and a borough, situated in a bay of its name in the Irish channel. It is walled and fortified. The bay is safe and spacious, and here is an excellent harbour, with a strong castle on a high rock, and an ancient palace, now converted into a magazine for arms.

Belfast is situated nine miles west of Carrickfergus, in the same bay. It is a port town, and sends two members to parliament. The bridge here over the Lagan is one of the most stately in the kingdom, consisting of twenty-one arches. The town is regularly built, and the streets are broad and straight. The number of Scotch in this town is very considerable, and they carry on a great trade with their own country.

Proceeding northward to Ballamenab, at some distance from the road is a round tower; a little beyond which is Fairhead, whence the coast stretches westward. Continuing our route three miles, we arrive at the Giant's Causeway, close by the sea, into which it runs out in a direction very nearly north, from the foot of a lofty cliff between two small bays about half a mile wide. The situation of the causeways between the two bays, on rocky lofty amphitheatres, on either hand, has something peculiarly striking. The principal or grand causeway, (for there are several less considerable and scattered fragments of a similar appearance,) consists of a most irregular arrangement of many hundred thousands of columns, outwardly of a whitish free-stone colour, but internally a black kind of rock, or basaltic, hard as marble. Those columns are of unequal height and breadth. Some of the highest, visible above the surface of the strand, and at the foot of the impending angular precipice, may be about twenty foot. How deep they are fixed in the strand, has never yet been discovered. This grand arrangement extends visibly at low water about two hundred yards into the sea; but how far beyond is uncertain. The breadth of the principal causeway, which runs out in one continued range of columns, is, in general, from twenty to thirty foot; at one place or two, it may be nearly forty, for a few yards. The highest part is narrowest at the very foot of the impending cliff, whence the whole projects, and where, for four or five yards, it is not above ten or fifteen foot wide. The columns of this part incline from a perpendicular a little to the westward; forming a slope

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on their tops, by the very unequal height of the columns on the two sides. At the distance of six yards from the cliff, the causeway obtains a perpendicular position, and lowering in its height, widens to between twenty and thirty foot; which part, for nearly a hundred yards, is always above water. The tops of the columns for this length being nearly of an equal height, form a parade, rather inclining to the water's edge. But from the high water mark, as it is washed by the surge on every return of the tide, the platform lowers considerably, and becomes more and more uneven, so as not to be walked on without the greatest precaution. At the distance of a hundred and fifty yards from the cliff, it turns a little to the east for twenty or thirty yards, and then sinks into the sea.

The figure of the columns is in general pentagonal; but a few of them are of three, four, six, and seven sides. What is remarkable, however, there are not to be found in many thousands, two columns, that either have their sides equal among themselves, or the figures of which are exactly alike.

The composition of those columns or pillars is no less worthy the attention of a curious spectator. They are not of one solid stone in an upright position, but consist of several short pieces, curiously joined, not with flat surfaces, but articulated into each other, the one end having a cavity, into which the convex end of the opposite is exactly fitted. This construction is not visible except by disjoining the two stones. The depth of the cavity and its corresponding convexity is generally about three or four inches. What is farther remarkable, those parts are not conformed to the external angular figure of the column, but exactly round; and as large as the diameter of the column will admit. The angles of the columns being in general extremely unequal, the circular edge of the joint is seldom coincident with more than two or three sides of the pentagon; and from the edge of the circular part of the joint, to the exterior sides and angles, they are quite plain. It is likewise remarkable, that the articulations of those joints are frequently inverted; in some the cavity is upwards, in others the reverse. The length also of the stones, from joint to joint, is various. In general, they are from eighteen to twenty-four inches long; being for the most part longer toward the bottom of the columns than near the top, and the articulation of the joints somewhat deeper. The thickness of the columns is as different as their length and figure. In general, they are from fifteen to twenty, and twenty four inches diameter. No traces of uniformity or design are discoverable throughout the whole combination, except in the mechanism of the joint; neither are there any marks of a finishing, either in height, length, or breadth. If there be here and there a smooth top to any of the columns above water, there are others just by, of equal height, which are more or less convex or concave. This shows that they were originally joined to pieces, which have been washed away, or by other means removed.

Notwithstanding the universal dissimilitude of the

columns, both as to figure and diameter, and though they be perfectly distinct from top to bottom, yet the whole arrangement is so clearly cemented at all points, that hardly a knife can be introduced between them, either on the sides or angles.

The cliffs at a great distance, especially in the bay to the eastward, exhibit, at many places, the same kind of columns, figured and jointed in all respects like those of the grand causeway. Some of them are seen near the top of the cliff, which, in general, in those bays, to the east and west of the causeway, is near three hundred foot high; others appear about midway, and at different elevations from the strand. A considerable range of them may also be observed at the bottom of the bay to the eastward, where they appear in a perpendicular position, sustaining a cliff of different strata of earth, clay, rock, &c. to the height of a hundred and fifty foot or more above them. Some of those columns are between thirty and forty foot high, from their apparent base; the longest filling the centre of the group, and diminishing on either hand. This arrangement is called 'The Organs, from a fancied rude likeness to the tubes of that instrument.

The substance of that part of the cliff which projects to the point, between the two bays on the east and west side of the causeway, seems to be composed of the same kind of materials. For, besides the many pieces that are seen on the sides of the cliff, particularly the eastern, there is at the very point of it, and directly above the narrow and highest part of the causeway, a long collection of them, the tops of which just appearing beyond the sloping bank, plainly shew them to be in an oblique position. Their tops likewise are of mixed surfaces, convex and concave, and the columns appear to have been removed by the rising or falling of the cliff, from a perpendicular, to their present slanting direction.

Various conjectures have been formed concerning this celebrated object, the origin of which has by some been attributed to art, while those who think more justly, consider it as a natural production. The opinion of the latter is confirmed by the discovery of similar masses of stone in other parts of the world. Mr Banks informs us, that a stupendous collection of those basaltic pillars may be seen in the island of Staffa, one of the Hebrides; and that Boonhalz, another of the Hebrides, is entirely composed of them, without any covering of earth.

Numerous and extensive groups of the same stone, we are told by Mr. Demarest, are spread over the French provinces of Auvergne and Velay; and Mr. Strange has described two ranges which he lately discovered in the Venetian territory. The structure, situation, and other properties of all those different collections, sufficiently corresponding, leave no room to question their common affinity to each other. So that the only doubt remaining is, by what mechanism or operations of nature, a phenomenon so singular and astonishing has been produced. The most plausible theory seems to be, that it is a crystallization, or concretion of a very particular kind, and of volcanic

canic origin. We find that nature has moulded a great variety of salts and crystalline substances into prismatic figures, but they are, it is true, of minute dimensions. The basaltic columns are of incomparably great magnitude; they are irregular polygons; and the several pieces which compose their shafts, are held firmly together by an inflexion of the ends, different from every other known process of nature respecting inanimate bodies, but somewhat resembling the general structure of animals.

#### LONDONDERRY.

The county of Londonderry is bounded on the east by Antrim; on the south by Tyrone; on the west by Donegal; and on the north by the ocean; extending in length thirty-two miles, and in breadth thirty. It contains thirty-eight parishes, three boroughs, and sends eight members to parliament. The chief town is Londonderry, situated near the mouth of the river Mourne, a few miles south of the lake or bay of Loughfoyle. It is the cleanest and best built town of any in Ireland. It consists chiefly of two streets, that cross each other; in the centre of which stands the exchange. This town is surrounded with walls, and is memorable for the siege it sustained during thirteen weeks, in the reign of king William.

The whole ground plot of this city and its liberties belongs to the corporation of London; from which circumstance it has obtained in our maps the name of Londonderry, but among the natives it is commonly called by its original name of Derry.

#### T Y R O N E.

The county of Tyrone is bounded on the east by Armagh and Lough-Neagh; on the south by Monaghan and Fermanagh; on the west by Donegal; and on the north by Londonderry; extending in length forty-six miles, and in breadth thirty-seven. It contains thirty parishes, four boroughs, and sends ten members to parliament. The chief town is Omagh.

#### D O N E G A L L.

The county of Donegal is bounded on the east by Londonderry and Tyrone; on the south by Fermanagh; and on the west and north by the sea; extending in length sixty-eight miles, and in breadth forty-four. It contains forty parishes, five boroughs, and sends twelve members to parliament. The chief town is Donegal, situated on a bay of the same name, on the western coast of the kingdom. Here is a good bridge of six arches, and the ruins of a large castle.

In the midst of a small lake called Derg; a few miles hence, is St. Patrick's purgatory. At present there remains little of this holy place, except the name.

Ballyshannon is a small town, situated near the sea, with a bridge of fourteen arches, over a river that runs out of Lough Erne, which a little lower falls down a ridge of rocks, about twelve foot, and at low water forms a very picturesque cascade. It is rendered yet more singular and interesting by being the principal salmon-leap in Ireland. This place carries on a tolerable trade, and is well inhabited, considering its situation among bogs and lakes.

#### F E R M A N A G H.

Fermanagh is bounded on the north by Donnegall and Tyrone; by another part of Tyrone and Monaghan on the east; by Cavan and Leitrim on the south; and by another part of Leitrim and the ocean on the west; extending in length thirty-eight miles, and in breadth twenty-three. It contains nine parishes, one borough, and sends four members to parliament. The chief town is Inniskillen.

Belleck is a small village, about five miles eastward, on the western extremity of Lough Erne. From Castle Caldwell, on the north, is a fine prospect of the Lough, and its islands, which are beautifully dispersed in the two lakes, and exceed four hundred. It is not easy to determine whether the number be greater in summer or in winter. During the latter season the water rises eight or ten foot, and thus many low islands are overgrown, as well as new ones formed, by the water encompassing rising grounds. In summer, when the waters subside, those head-lands are re-united to the shores, or to other islands, and new ones appear. Many of them are of a considerable size, well planted with trees, and inhabited. The greatest depth of the lake is about forty yards.

This Lough is divided into two parts nearly equal, which are termed the upper and lower lake; each about twenty miles long, and nine in the broadest part. On a small island, at the place of their junction, stands the town of Inniskillen, famous for producing that brave and gallant regiment of its name, in the wars of king William against James in Ireland. This is one of the most considerable inland towns in the kingdom, and likewise the most beautiful in respect of situation. It is joined to the main-land by two bridges, one of six and the other of eight arches. About three miles hence, in the island of Devanisk, is the most perfect round tower in Ireland. It is exactly circular, sixty-nine foot high to the conical covering at the top, which is fifteen foot in height. The circumference is forty-eight foot, and the thickness of the walls three foot five inches. The diameter within is nine foot two inches. Besides the door, which is elevated nine foot above the ground, there are seven square holes to admit the light. The whole tower is very neatly built with stones of about a foot square, with scarcely any cement or mortar; and the inside is almost as smooth as a gun barrel. Near it are the ruins of an abbey, which was built in the year 1449.

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LEITRIM.

The county of Leitrim is bounded on the north by Donegall; on the east by Cavan; on the south by Roscommon; and on the west by Sligo. The chief town is Leitrim.

SLIGO.

The county of Sligo is bounded on the east by Leitrim; on the south by Roscommon; on the west by Mayo; and on the north partly by the sea, and partly by the county of Fermanagh; extending in length twenty-five miles, and nearly the same in breadth. It contains forty-one parishes, one borough, which is Sligo, and sends four members to parliament.

MAYO.

The county of Mayo is bounded on the east by Sligo; on the south by Roscommon; and on the west and north by the sea; extending in length sixty-two miles, and in breadth fifty-two. It contains seventy-three parishes, one borough, viz. Ballinrobe, and sends four members to parliament.

ROSCOMMON.

The county of Roscommon is bounded on the north by Leitrim, Sligo and Mayo; on the east by Longford and Meath; on the south by Galway; and on the west by Mayo and another part of Galway; extending in length fifty miles, and in breadth twenty-eight. It contains fifty-nine parishes, three boroughs, and sends eight members to parliament. The chief town is Roscommon, which is fortified with a castle. Near it stands an ancient monastery, where is now remaining, in fine Irish marble, a monument of Feidem o Connor, king of Connaught, who died in 1253.

GALWAY.

The county of Galway is bounded on the north by Mayo, and part of Roscommon; on the east by another part of Roscommon, Meath, and King's county; on the south partly by Clare, and partly by the bay of Galway; and on the west by the sea; extending in length eighty-two miles, and in breadth forty-two. It contains a hundred and thirty-six parishes, thirteen boroughs, and sends eight members to parliament. The chief town is Galway, standing on the bay of the same name, in the western ocean, a hundred and ten miles west of Dublin. It is a good port, and well situated for foreign trade.

CLARE.

The county of Clare is bounded on the north by Galway, and Roscommon; on the east by Queen's county, and Tipperary; on the south by Limerick; on the west by the sea. The chief town is Ennis.

No. 47.

CHAP. II.

*Of the natives of Ireland, cloaths, habitations, &c.*

THE Irish are in general a large, well made, strong, and comely people, but frequently indolent, and reputed liable to particular blunders in conversation. The common people are for the most part clothed so very indifferently, that it impresses every stranger with a strong idea of universal poverty: shoes and stockings are scarcely ever found on the feet of children of either sex; and great numbers of men and women are without them. A change, however, in this respect, as in most others, is of late become observable. Women are oftener without shoes than men; and by washing their cloaths no where but in rivers and streams, the cold, especially as they roast their legs in their cabins till they are fire-spotted, swells them to a wonderful size, which is always attended with a black and blue colour both in young and old. In general they are not ill dressed on Sundays and holidays; and black or dark blue is almost the universal colour.

The cottages of the Irish, which are called cabins, are the most wretched hovels that can well be conceived. They generally consist only of one room. Mud kneaded with straw is the common material of the walls, which are seldom above seven foot high, and sometimes not more than five or six. They are about two foot thick; and the only aperture they contain is a door, which admits light instead of a window, and should also serve for a chimney; but they rather keep in the smoke, than allow it to fly off. This custom keeps them warm in winter, but is injurious to the eyes, no less than to the complexion of the women.

The roofs of the cabins are rafters, raised from the top of the mud walls, and the covering varies in different parts. Some are thatched with straw, potatoe stalks, or heath, while others are covered only with sods of turf. The furniture of the cabins is as rude as the architecture. In many, it consists only of a pot for boiling potatoes, a bit of a table, and one or two broken stools. The use of beds is not universal; the family lying on straw, which is frequently shared by cows, calves, and pigs. This is a general description, but exceptions are numerous. Many of them contain much useful furniture, and some even superfluous.

In general, the food of the common Irish is potatoe and milk. The potatoe bowl being placed on the floor, the whole family sits round it upon their hams, and devour a quantity almost incredible. The beggar also often seats himself to it with a hearty welcome; nor is a share of the repast denied to the hens, turkeys, geese, the dog, the cat, or the cow. No person has witnessed those meals without being convinced of the plenty and the cheerfulness that attend them.

There are three races of people in Ireland, so distinct as to strike the least attentive traveller. Those

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are the Spanish, which are found in Kerry, and a part of Limerick and Corke. The people of this race are tall, thin, well made, with a long visage, dark eyes, and long black lank hair. The time is not remote when the Spaniards had a kind of settlement on the coast of Kerry, which seemed to be overlooked by government. The Scotch race is in the north, where are to be found the features most common to that people, with their accent, and many of their customs. In a district near Dublin, but particularly in the baronies of Bargic and Forth in the county of Wexford, the Saxon tongue is spoken without any mixture of the Irish, and the people have many customs which distinguish them from their neighbours. The rest of the kingdom is composed of mongrels. The Milesian race of Irish, which may be called native, are scattered over the island, but chiefly found in Connaught and Munster.

The principal divisions observable by a traveller who passed through the kingdom, without making any residence, would be the people of considerable fortune and the mob. The manners and customs of the former are nearly the same with those of the same rank in England. But the circumstances most conspicuous in the common Irish are vivacity, and volubility of speech. They are infinitely more cheerful and lively than the populace in England, and have nothing of that incivility and sullen silence so usual to the latter. Lazy to an excess at work, but so spiritedly active at play, that at hurling, which is the cricker of the common people, they discover the greatest agility. Their love of society is as remarkable as their curiosity is insatiable; nor are they less distinguished for hospitality. Warm friends, and vindictive enemies, they are inviolable in their secrecy, and inevitable in their resentment; with such a notion of honour, that neither threat nor reward would induce them to betray the secret or person of a man, though an oppressor, whose property they would plunder without ceremony. They are hard drinkers, quarrelsome, and addicted to lying, but civil, submissive, and obedient. Dancing is so universal among them, that there are every where itinerant dancing-masters, to whom the lower people pay six pence a quarter for teaching their families. Besides the Irish jig, which they dance with remarkable expression, they are taught minuets and country dances, and some even cotillions.

The ancient custom of howling at funerals begins now to be disused. It is a kind of song, composed on the actions and possessions of the deceased, which is sung by some women to no disagreeable tune. At the end of each stanza, a chorus of women and girls raise a melancholly howl, which is called the Irish cry, and sometimes used without the song above mentioned.

There are at present in Ireland forty-four charter working-schools, where two thousand and twenty-five boys and girls are maintained and educated. Those schools are supported by an annual bounty from his majesty of a thousand pounds, by a tax upon hawkers

and pedlars, and by subscriptions and legacies. The children admitted are those born of popish parents, or such as would be bred papists, if neglected, and are of sound limbs. Their age must be from six to ten. The boys at sixteen, and the girls at fourteen, are apprenticed into protestant families. Five pounds are given to every person educated in those schools, upon his or her marrying a protestant.

The return of houses in Ireland for the year 1754, was three hundred and ninety five thousand four hundred and thirty-nine; and for the year 1766, it was four hundred and twenty-four thousand and forty six. Supposing therefore the number to have increased at the same rate, it must now be upwards of four hundred and fifty-four thousand. Allowing five persons to a family, the number of inhabitants would be two million two hundred and sixty thousand six hundred and fifty. But as the return of houses by hearth collectors, is rather under than above the truth, and as there are many families in every parish, who are by law excluded from that tax, and therefore not returned, the number, on a moderate estimate, will be two million five hundred thousand.

The established religion and ecclesiastical discipline of Ireland is the same with that of England. Among the bulk of the people, in the more uncultivated parts, popery, and that too of the most absurd illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Irish papists still retain their nominal bishops and dignitaries, who subsist on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind submission of the latter to their clergy, does not prevent protestantism from making a very rapid progress.

Ireland contains at least as many sectaries as England, particularly presbyterians, anabaptists, quakers, and methodists, who are all of them tolerated.

There are in the kingdom four archbishopricks, viz. Armagh, Dublin, Tuam, and Cashell. The number of bishopricks is eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfort, Cloyne, Curke, Derry, Down, Dromore, Kildare, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limerick, Meath, Ossory, Raphoe, Waterford, Kilmore, and Killala.

Ireland contains only one University, which is that of Dublin.

Since the time of Henry II. this country has been dependant on England; and the constitution of its government, in respect to distributive justice, is nearly the same with that of the latter. A chief governor, who bears the name of lord lieutenant, is sent thither from England by the king, whose person he represents; but his power is occasionally either restrained or enlarged, according to the king's pleasure, or the exigency of the times. On his entering upon this office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council chamber; and having taken the usual oath before the lord chancellor, the sword, which is 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, the king at arms, a serjeant at mace, and other officers; and he never appears publicly without being

ing attended by a body of horse guards. He has a council composed of the great officers of the crown, viz. the chancellor, treasurer, and such of the lords spiritual and temporal, the judges, and others, 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 every second 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. The laws are made by the two houses of parliament, after which they are sent to England for the royal concurrence. If approved by his majesty and council, they pass the great seal of England, and are returned.

For the regular distribution of justice, there are also in Ireland four terms held annually for the decision of causes; and four courts of justice, the chancery, king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer. The high sheriffs of the several counties were formerly chosen by the people, but are now nominated by the lord lieutenant.

The public revenue of Ireland arises from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the trustee, for applying it to particular purposes. But there is likewise a private revenue arising from the ancient demesne lands, from forfeitures for treason and felony, privilage of wines, light-house duties, with a small part

of the casual revenue, not granted by parliament; in which the crown has the same unlimited property that a subject has in his own freehold.

The public revenue of Ireland is supposed at present to exceed half a million sterling, of which the Irish complain greatly that about seventy thousand pound is granted in pensions, and a great part to absentees. Very large sums are also granted by their parliament for useful purposes, such as the improvement of the country, civilizing the people, &c.

For the protection of the country, twelve thousand British troops, or upwards, are generally quartered in Ireland, where they are maintained and paid upon the Irish establishment.

The trade and manufactures of Ireland were formerly greatly cramped by the restrictions of the British legislature; but those having been lately removed by act of parliament, the commerce and prosperity of Ireland will soon be increased to a degree which has hitherto never been known in that country.

The history of Ireland, during its earlier periods, is so much involved in fable, that little credit seems to be due to its authenticity, till the age of Henry II. when it became a province of England. Since that time, the affairs of the two countries have been intimately connected together; and the public occurrences in the former relate chiefly to popular disorders, and occasional insurrections, which, however, soon gave way to the lenient, or coercive measures of government.

## ISLANDS IN THE NORTH SEA.

### NOVA ZEMBLA.

**N**OVA Zembla, or Newland, called by the Dutch, the Island of Weygata, is situate in the north sea, between fifty and eighty degrees of east longitude, and beyond seventy degrees of latitude; being separated from the province of Samoieda, in Russia, by a narrow strait, named the straits of Weygata. Whether this be an island, or part of a great continent is not yet determined by navigators, no ships having ever passed to the northward of it, though attempts have been made to discover a passage to China this way. Here are no constant inhabitants, but the Samoieds and Okines resort thither when the straits are frozen, for the purpose of hunting elks and rein-deer.

### SPITZBERGEN.

Spitzbergen, otherwise called New Greenland, and East Greenland, is situate between seventy-seven and eighty-two degrees of north latitude, and between eleven and twelve degrees of east longitude. According to the account delivered by captain Phipps, who

failed to those seas in 1773, the coast appeared to be neither habitable nor accessible. It is formed of barren rocks, in many places of a stupendous height, pointed and black, but in other parts covered with snow. The height of one mountain seen here, was found to be fifteen hundred and three yards. The valleys between the cliffs are filled either with snow or huge masses of ice, called icebergs. The side of those next the sea is nearly perpendicular, and of a lively light green colour. One was observed about three hundred foot high, with a cascade of water issuing out of it. The black mountains on each side, the snow, and the coloured ice are said to have composed a very beautiful and romantic picture. Large pieces frequently broke off from the icebergs, and fell with great noise into the water. One of those floated into the bay, and grounded in twenty-four fathom. It was fifty foot high above the surface of the water, and of the same beautiful colour as the iceberg from which it had been separated.

This dreary region is inhabited only by white bears, of a great size, foxes of different colours, and rein-

rein-deer. Here are no lizards, nor any species of reptile. Some wild ducks, however, and a few other fowls have been observed by some voyagers; among which is said to be a species of parrot, different from those of the Indies in their want of docility, and in having webbed feet. There is no appearance of minerals of any kind, nor of any volcanoes.

The harbour of Smeerenberg has good anchorage in thirteen fathom water. The floor hereabouts is chiefly a kind of marble, which dissolves easily in the marine acid. Close to the harbour is an island, called Amsterdam Island, where the Dutch used formerly to boil their whale oil; and they still resort thither towards the latter season of the whale fishery.

Mossen Island lies in twelve degrees east longitude, and eight degrees of north latitude. It is nearly of a circular form, about two miles in diameter, with a lake, or large pond of water in the middle. The island is covered with gravel and small stones, without the least verdure or vegetation of any kind. Upon it were seen three bears, with a number of wild ducks, geese, and sea-fowl.

Seven Islands lie in eighty-one degrees twenty-one minutes of north latitude, and seem to be surrounded with ice. Captain Lutwidge, and another of the voyagers ascended a high mountain on one of those islands, whence they commanded a prospect to the east and north-east ten or twelve leagues, over a continued plain of smooth ice, bounded only by the horizon. They also saw land stretching to the south-east, laid down in the Dutch charts as islands. This was on the 30th of July, and the weather was then exceedingly fine, mild, and clear.

Some officers of the ship visited an Island which lay in eighty degrees twenty-seven minutes of latitude. They here found several large fir-trees lying on the shore, sixteen or eighteen foot above the level of the sea. Some of these trees measured seventy foot in length, and had been torn up by the roots. Others had been cut down with the ax, and were notched for twelve foot lengths. This timber was no ways decayed, nor the strokes of the hatchet in the smallest degree effaced. There were likewise some pipe-staves and wood fashioned for use. The beach was formed of old timber, sand, and whale bones. The island is about seven miles long, flat, and formed chiefly of stones, from eighteen to thirty inches over, many of them hexagons, and commodiously placed for walking on. The middle of the island is covered with moss, scurvy-grass, sorrel, and a few ranunculuses, then in flower. Two rein-deer were feeding on the moss. The voyagers also saw a light grey coloured fox, and a creature somewhat larger than a weasel, with short ears, a long tail, and a skin spotted white and black. The island abounds with small snipes. Ducks also were seen hatching their eggs, and many wild geese feeding by the water side.

#### GREENLAND.

Greenland, otherwise called Old Greenland, comprehends the vast tract of land extending be-

tween thirteen and fifteen degrees of west longitude, and between sixty-three and eighty degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the east and south by the ocean, and on the west by Hudson's straits, which separate it from America; but towards the north its boundaries are unknown.

This country, though extremely barren and inhospitable, is not destitute of inhabitants, who are represented to be well made, and of an olive complexion. Their clothing consists of the skins of sea-calves, tacked together with the sinews of beasts. The women and men dress nearly in the same manner, each wearing a sort of breeches with many pockets, which they stuff with knives, needles, yarn, looking-glasses, and such other toys as they pick up on the shore after a shipwreck. They stain their faces blue, and their long hair hangs floating down on their shoulders. Almost the only implements they have are bows and arrows, with which they can shoot fishes as they swim; and they have boats made of the sea-calf's skin, fitted to hold one person. Their larger vessels, however, will accommodate twenty persons. Those are made of wood, covered with whale skin, and furnished with sails manufactured from the intestines of fish. Here being no horses, the natives have their sleds drawn by large dogs, which are said to be very tractable. The principal food of the people is fish; and the country yielding no fresh springs, they are forced to use melted snow for drink.

Greenland is said to have been discovered by the inhabitants of Norway, so early as the eighth century; and seems to have been well known when the Danish kings first became Christians; it being mentioned as in the diocese of Anagarius, bishop of Bremen in the year 835. The ecclesiastical jurisdiction of it afterwards devolved upon the bishop of Drontheim, and it was governed by a viceroy appointed by the king of Norway.

The revenues of Greenland being appropriated to the support of the king of Norway's table, it was death by the law for any person to visit the country without a special licence; and this prohibition, joined to the extreme rigour of the climate, has contributed to render our information very imperfect concerning it. By some voyagers we are told that the soil produces corn, and by others that bread is wholly unknown to the inhabitants. The kings of Denmark and Norway have frequently, without success, fitted out ships for discovering the northern parts of this country, from a supposition that they yielded gold, silver, and precious stones; but their information on this subject appears to have been ill founded. The only produce derived from Greenland is the whales, which abound on this coast; and in this trade the Dutch, as well as the British, employ many vessels, notwithstanding the Danes have often remonstrated to the States General, concerning the encroachment on their property. With respect to the territory of Greenland, it is of so little importance, that in all probability the acquisition of it will never be disputed.

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## A M E R I C A.

**A**MERICA, so far as it has been traced, is situate between fifty-eight degrees of south, and eighty degrees of north latitude, and between thirty-five and a hundred and forty-five degrees of west longitude; but whether it extends beyond those limits, towards the north, has not yet been determined by navigators. It is bounded on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from Europe and Africa, and on the south and west by the Pacific Ocean, usually called the South Sea. Its length from south to north is computed to be upwards of eight thousand two hundred miles, and its breadth in some places near three thousand. This immense continent remained entirely unknown to the other parts of the world, till it was discovered by the celebrated Columbus in the end of the fifteenth century. Whence it had obtained its first inhabitants, is a subject on which various conjectures have been formed: the most probable opinion, however, seems to be, that it was peopled from the northern parts of Asia, with which it has been imagined to communicate. It consists of two large tracts of territory, distinguished by the name of North and South America, which are united by the isthmus of Darien, in about ten degrees of north latitude. The mountains of the Andes, which stretch from south to north along the latter of those divisions, at the distance of some leagues from the Pacific Ocean, are reputed the highest in the world. In the northern division, the Apalachian mountains run in the same direction, almost from each extremity, but nearer the middle of the continent. In this quarter of America are also several lakes of great extent; and in both are some rivers of amazing magnitude. The most conspicuous in South America are La Plata, and the river of the Amazons; and in North America, the Mississippi, the Ohio, the Delaware, and the St. Lawrence, besides many others.

In delineating this immense continent, we shall begin at Cape Horn, its southern extremity, where we enter the land of Patagonia.

## P A T A G O N I A.

**B**EGINNING our survey of America at the southern extremity, or Cape Horn, the first country that we meet with is Terra del Fuego. This is properly an island, but being separated from Patagonia only by the straits of Magellan, the breadth of which, in some parts, is not half a league, it is usually comprehended under the name of Patagonia. The country understood by this general denomination is bounded on the north by Chili and La Plata, and on all other sides by the ocean. It is situate between seventy and eighty five degrees of west longitude, and between forty-five and fifty-seven degrees odd minutes, north latitude. The country is in ge-

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neral mountainous, and covered with snow during great part of the year, especially the southern division. On the twenty-first of December, 1769, which is the middle of summer in those parts, the crew of the Endeavour experienced here such excessive cold, accompanied with a great fall of snow, as is unknown even in Norway and Lapland; and shows the fallacy of forming systematical notions respecting the temperature of a country from the knowledge of its situation on the globe. Towards the north, the climate appears to be more favourable to vegetation. Commodore Byron informs us, that the ground was covered with flowers of various kinds, which perfumed the air with their fragrance; and among them there were berries almost innumerable, where the blossoms had been shed. The grass was good, and it was intermixed with a great number of peas in blossom. The country, however, produces no corn, and very little fruit, but abounds in fowls and animals of various kinds; and on the coast the seals are very numerous, as are also the sea-lions.

Mr. Byron assures us, that on the sides of the river Sedger, near Port Famine, there are the finest trees he ever saw; and he doubts not that they would supply the British navy with the best masts in the world. Some of them are of a great height, and more than eight yards in circumference. Among those trees there are innumerable parrots, and other birds of the most beautiful plumage.

The inhabitants of Patagonia are generally of a large stature and well proportioned.

Among the crowd of natives that assembled on the shore, on the arrival of captain Wallis in the Dolphin, one of them was six foot seven inches high, several more were six foot five, and six foot six inches; but the greater part measured from five foot ten to six foot. They are well made and robust, but their hands and feet remarkably small. Their complexion is of a dark copper colour, like that of the Indians in North America; but they paint their faces in various forms. The orbit of the eye is in general white, and the other parts of the face are daubed with horizontal streaks of red and black. Their apparel consists only of the skin of a guanicoe, or seal, thrown over their shoulders, exactly in the state in which it is taken from off the animal; a piece of the same skin being drawn over their feet, and the women wearing a small flap as a substitute for a fig-leaf. On their heads, the men wear caps of skins decorated with feathers, but the women wear no other covering than their hair, which in both sexes is long and black; and they adorn themselves with rings and bracelets round their arms and necks. The people in general appear to be exceeding stupid, and, towards the south especially, the most forlorn of all human beings; spending their lives in wandering about the

dreary wastes, where even in summer the cold is intolerable to any European constitution. Their habitations consist of wretched hovels, or wigwams, made of sticks and grass, which not only admit the wind, but the snow and the rain; and they are almost destitute of every convenience that is furnished by the rudest art. Their diet is chiefly fish, of which they seem to be provided with those of the shell kind. Their weapons are the bow and arrow, the latter of which is barbed, and well fitted with a point, which is made either of glass or flint.

Their language is said for the most part to be guttural; and they pronounce some of their words by a sound resembling that which we make to clear the throat. Some words, however, they have, which we are told would be reckoned soft in the more elegant languages of Europe.

The straits of Magellan, which forms the division of Patagonia, were discovered by Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese, in the service of Spain, in 1520. The Spaniards soon after built forts, and sent thither colonies; but most of their people perishing, they abandoned the country, and no European nation has since taken possession of it.

#### C H I L I.

**C**HILI is situate between seventy-five and eighty-five degrees of west longitude, and between twenty-five and forty-five degrees of south latitude; being bounded on the south by Patagonia, on the west by the Pacific Ocean, on the north by Peru, and on the east by Paraguay, or the country of La Plata. It is in length from north to south twelve hundred miles; and in breadth, in some places, six hundred miles, but generally not more than two hundred.

The mountains of this country are the Cordilleras, or Andes, otherwise called the Sierras Novadas. They run from the province of Quito in the north, to the straits of Magellan in the south, above a thousand leagues, and are reputed the highest mountains in the world. They are generally forty leagues broad, intermixed with a number of habitable valleys. This chain of mountains forms two ridges; the lower for the most part covered with woods, but the higher barren, on account of the excessive cold, and the snow which lies on it. The paths into the mountains are so narrow that a single mule can scarce pass them. The ascent begins near the sea shore, but to reach what is called the top, requires a journey of three or four days. Those mountains are passable only in summer or in the beginning of winter; and there are frightful precipices and deep rivers at the sides of the narrow passes, which frequently occasion the loss both of the travellers and mules. The irksomeness of the road, however, is alleviated by the beautiful cascades, which the water naturally forms in its fall from the rocks and mountains; and in some of the valleys the water springs up to a great height, in the form of jets d'eau, among odoriferous plants and flowers, forming a most delightful prof-

pect. In this chain of mountains, are sixteen volcanoes, which sometimes break out with dreadful effects.

The air of Chili is temperate, but variable, and violent hurricanes frequently happen in the southern part of the country. The soil is generally fruitful, producing, corn, wine, and almost all sorts of fruit.

The chief rivers are, the Salado, or Salt River, Copiapo, Guafca, Coquimbo, Gavanador, Chlapa, Valparisfa, Mapoca, Manle, Italta, Bobio, Imperial, and Baldivia; all which run from east to west, but falling precipitately from the mountains, are not navigable much beyond their mouths.

The indigenous animals are, the peccary, a little black, short legged quadruped, resembling a hog; the oppoffum, remarkable for a cavity under its belly, into which its young retire on the apprehension of any danger, or for the convenience of being carried, until they have attained sufficient strength; the mouse-deer, resembling the red-deer, but almost as large as an ox; the armadillo, so named from its shell resembling armour; the guanaco of the shape of a lizard, but as big as a man's leg; the flying squirrel, with a small body and a loose skin, which he extends like wings, on which he is buoyed up by the wind for a considerable time; the sloth, a creature about the size of a spaniel, which feeds on the leaves of trees, but so slow either in climbing or descending, that he will be eight or ten minutes in moving one of his legs; the racoon, resembling a badger; the beavers, which will cut down trees, and make dams across brooks to catch fish.

The fish on the coasts of the Pacific Ocean are chiefly the mantee, which is as large as an ox, and esteemed excellent food; the paracood, about an ell long, and well tasted; the gar-fish, of nearly the same length, with a sharp bone at the end of his mouth like a spear. Of the tortoises there are five or six species, some valuable for their flesh, and others for their shells: the female lays about two hundred eggs in a season, which she buries in the hot sand, where she leaves them to hatch.

The birds peculiar to those parts are the macaw, resembling a parrot, but much larger; the quam, the curasoe, the cardinal, and the humming bird, all furnished with beautiful plumage.

The most remarkable insects are the migua and cochineal fly: the former of those is so small that it cannot easily be discerned. It usually attacks a man's leg, which it often penetrates to a great depth, depositing its eggs, which encrease to the size of a pea. If the part be scratched, it immediately festers and endangers the loss of the limb. The cochineal fly is bred in a fruit that grows on a shrub about five foot high. When the fruit opens, those insects take wing, and hover a little while over the tree, after which they fall dead on the sheets that are spread to receive them.

Among the reptiles is the poisonous serpent named the rattle-snake, which gives the traveller notice of his danger from a rattle in its tail.

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Here are several mines of gold, silver, and copper, as well as in Peru.

Chili is usually distinguished into two grand divisions, viz. Chili Proper, extending from twenty-five to forty-five degrees of south latitude, and Cuyo or Cuito, lying east of the Andes, between thirty-two and thirty-eight degrees of south latitude.

The capital of Chili is St. Jago, situate in thirty-four degrees of south latitude, in a fruitful plain, near the ocean, at the mouth of the river Valperifo. It is elegantly built, and has canals cut from the river through the principal streets. It was founded by the celebrated Peter de Valdivia, who reduced this part of Chili to the obedience of Spain, in 1541.

Coquimbo is situated on a river of the same name: about two miles from the sea, in thirty degrees of south latitude; and in thirty-seven degrees of south latitude stands Concepcion, both which were also founded by the same commander as St. Jago.

Baldivia is situated in forty degrees of south latitude, on a peninsula formed by two rivers, which, with the islands before it, renders the harbours one of the most commodious in Chili. In the neighbourhood of this town a great deal of gold dust is to be met with.

Other towns of note in this division of the country are, Imperial, Osorno, Castro, Copiapo, Guafca, and Angol, all standing near the sea coast; with Villa Rica, situated upon a lake near the foot of the Andes.

The chief towns in the province of Cuyo, are, Mendoza, situate in thirty-five degrees north latitude, in a pass of the Andes; St. John de Frontiera, standing on the confines of La Plata; and Oromante or St. Louis, in thirty-six degrees of south latitude.

The inhabitants of Chili are of a middle stature, and strong limbed, with tawny complexions, and long black hair. Their features are tolerably good, but for the most part they appear of a dejected countenance; and like the rest of the Americans, they pull the hair off their chins and other parts of their bodies, as soon as it appears, with tweezers or nippers made of shells. Those who inhabit the province of Cuyo, between the mountains of Andes and the Atlantic ocean, are of a larger stature than the natives of Chili Proper, and have also a darker complexion.

The men of Chili Proper wear a loose garment made of the wool of their country sheep, and reaching down to their knees, or lower. It has no sleeves, and not being open longitudinally, is put on as a surplice. They wear a kind of open drawers and doublets, but neither shirts, shoes, nor stockings, only a kind of buskin, or half stocking on their legs. The covering which they use on their head is a stiff hat or cap, cocked up before; and they sometimes adorn the crown of it with a beautiful plume of feathers, dyed wool, or a nosegay of flowers.

The habit of the women differs little from that of the men, only they use no covering on their heads, except a kind of coronet of wool of several colours,

which blinds their temples. Their hair is partly curled and braided, and the rest flows down their backs to a great length. They wear also a sort of sash, with which they swathe their bodies from the middle upwards, and when they go abroad, throw a cloak or mantle over all.

On festivals their cloaths are finer and of more beautiful colours than at other times; and as they decorate their heads with feathers or flowers, they then also adorn their necks with chains of beautiful shells or precious stones.

The inhabitants of the province of Cuyo are not near so well clothed as those of Chili Proper. They are contented with leaves to hide their nudities, and instead of a cloak or mantle, make use of the skins of wild beasts. Their ornaments are some glittering trifes, which they hang upon their lips, by holes bored through for that purpose.

The inhabitants of Chili, the Spaniards excepted, do not live in towns, but every tribe extends itself on the bank of some river, their houses standing regularly at a distance from each other. Those are slightly built of wood, and consist of three or four rooms only, which are so contrived, that they can easily be taken asunder. Their doors have neither hinges, locks, nor bolts, their furniture being so mean, though they live in one of the richest countries in the world, that they fear no robberies. Their beds are the skins of wild beasts laid upon the floor. A block or a stone serves them for a pillow; and they lay over them a coverlet or two made of the wool of their country sheep. Their dishes are made either of wood, or of some calabash or gourd. For boiling or stewing their meat, they make use of earthen pots. A rough unhewn block serves them for a seat, and another of the same kind for a table. Their lances, swords, and other arms, are the principal ornaments of their houses. They seldom remain long in one place, but remove for the convenience of pasture, sometimes into the higher, and at others to the lower grounds, as best suits the season of the year; and for this itinerant life their houses, which are portable, and have very little furniture, are well calculated. In the province of Cuyo, some of the inhabitants live in caves, and others have only a slight tent, made of the skins of beasts.

Along the maritime parts of Chili, the inhabitants, besides fruits and vegetables, live much upon fish, as well as other animal food. Their common drink is water; for though the country produces wine, this article is engrossed by the Spaniards.

The ancient form of government in Chili resembled that of the patriarchal, every tribe or family acknowledging obedience to its respective chief, who was always succeeded either by his eldest son or other nearest relation. On the breaking forth of any war, it was usual to choose for their leader the man who was most famous for his courage and military skill.

The first invasion of Chili by the Spaniards, was in 1535, when Don Diego de Almagro undertook an expedition against it, after the reduction of Cusco, the capital of Peru. In this enterprize he was as-

sifted by the Inca Paulla, who put him in possession of such parts of the country as had long been subjected to the dominion of the Peruvian emperors. Almagro afterwards subdued some of the more southern provinces of Chili, but was obliged to abandon the prosecution of his design, in order to return to Peru, where his presence became necessary towards opposing the Pizarros.

The next Spanish commander that attempted the conquest of Chili, was Valdivia, or Baldivia, who had served in the wars in Italy, and was considered as an officer of great experience. He entered on this enterprize in the year 1540, and met with little opposition from the northern part of Chili; but on advancing farther, he was frequently encountered by the natives. He penetrated, however, the valley of Marocho, which he found extremely fruitful and well peopled. Here he built the city of St. Jago, for the protection of which, as well as the gold lands in the neighbourhood, he erected a castle. After meeting with a variety of obstacles in his progress, he pushed his conquests so far as thirty-seven degrees of south latitude, where he founded another city in the year 1550, to which he gave the name of Conception. Next year he advanced yet farther, and built the city of Imperial, four leagues east of the Pacific Ocean, and forty to the southward of Conception. Thence marching to the mountains of Andes, and, sixteen leagues to the eastward of Imperial, he laid the foundation of another city, which he named Villa Rica, from the richness of the mines in the neighbourhood.

The rapid success of the Spaniards was not a little facilitated by their artillery and small arms, the firing of which the Indians at first imagined to be real thunder and lightning; conceiving likewise that those who discharged them were rather gods than men. What rendered the invaders yet more terrible to the natives was, that both the horses and men being defended with armour, they seemed in great measure invulnerable. Those impressions which had been excited by the novelty of the objects abated however in time, and the Chileans recovering from their astonishment, determined to make a bold effort for expelling the enemy; to which attempt they were farther stimulated by the tyranny of the Spaniards, who compelled them to dig in the mines. While therefore Baldivia had marched farther southward, the Araveans, one of the bravest nations of the Chileans, and who had opposed the Spaniards with the greatest success, entered into a conspiracy against the European invaders, and made choice of Caupolican for their general.

Valdivia receiving intelligence of the intended insurrection, returned in great haste to the valley of Aravea, where thirteen or fourteen thousand of the natives were assembled in arms. An action immediately ensued, in which the Spaniards had the advantage, but the Chileans rallying, and renewing the fight with great obstinacy, the Spanish army was totally cut to pieces, and the general Valdivia made prisoner. Various accounts are related of the man-

ner in which he was sacrificed to the resentment of the exasperated Indians. Some affirm, that they poured melted gold down his throat, desiring him to satisfy himself with that metal which he had so violently thirsted after. Others relate, that his brains were beat out with a club by the hands of a private Indian. It is universally admitted, however, that they made trumpets and flutes of his bones, and preserved his skull as a memorial of that important transaction, in remembrance of which they instituted public sports and exercises, to be annually observed in the country.

Fortune continued for some time to favour the cause of the Indians, till the governor of Peru apprehending that all Chili would be lost, sent thither his son Don Garcia de Mendoza, with a powerful reinforcement of troops, to the assistance of the Spaniards. After several engagements between the two armies with various success, Caupolican, the Indian general was made prisoner, and put to death by the enemy. This disaster however produced no change in the sentiments of the Chileans, who, rather than submit to the Spanish yoke, determined to perish in the contest. The war was therefore carried on with great obstinacy upwards of fifty years, and the Spaniards were dispossessed of most of their settlements in the country.

The Hollanders receiving intelligence of those transactions, formed the project of making themselves masters of Chili, with which view, in the year 1642, they fitted out a squadron of men of war under the command of Captain Brewer, who had also on board a small body of land forces. This armament arrived on the coast of Chili on the 30th of April, 1643, and landing fifty soldiers, they soon afterwards had an engagement with a Spanish party, in which the former were victorious. But Brewer, the Dutch commodore, who had projected the expedition, dying in a short time, and the natives becoming jealous of the designs of the new invaders, the latter totally abandoned the enterprize, after demolishing a fort which they had erected in the harbour of Baldivia.

In the year 1660, an old Spaniard, named Don Carlos, who resided at the court of England, having represented to king Charles II. that the Spaniards had been driven out of most of their settlements on the coast of Chili, and that it would be no difficult matter for the English to acquire the possession of them, sir John Narborough was sent with a man of war of thirty-six guns, for the purpose of examining into the state of the country. Having arrived on the coast of Chili near Baldivia, Don Carlos, who accompanied the expedition, was set on shore. Immediately on his landing, he took the road to Baldivia, of which place the Spaniards had by this time recovered possession, and he never was heard of any more. At first, the Spaniards permitted the English to trade with their people for trifles, prohibiting them, however, from any communication with the Indians. But in a short time they made one of the lieutenants and three seamen prisoners, whom they

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they refused to release, and of whose fate no information was ever received. Sir John Narborough, having no authority to commit hostilities against the Spaniards, soon after returned. In the reign of queen Anne, the scheme of planting colonies on the coast of Peru and Chili by the British was again taken into consideration; but whether or not such a project might be advisable, it has never been carried into effect.

## P E R U.

**P**ERU is situate between sixty and seventy degrees of west longitude, and between the equator and twenty-five degrees of south latitude. It is bounded on the north by Popayan, on the east by the mountains of Andes or Cordilleras, on the south by Chili and La Plata, and on the west by the Pacific ocean; extending in length near two thousand miles, and in breadth about two hundred, except towards the south, where it is almost five hundred miles broad. This vast tract is usually divided into three provinces, viz. the Lanos, or sandy plains which lie along the coast; the Sierras, or hills, situated farther within land; and lastly, the mountains of the Andes, which run parallel to the preceding at least a thousand leagues. The former of those divisions, or the Lanos, is mostly a barren desert, except some valleys that are watered by rivulets, and the air is excessive hot. The Sierras are also generally barren, but interspersed with a number of extensive and fruitful valleys, and the air is more temperate. With respect to the Andes, they are not only destitute of vegetable produce, but extremely inclement.

The sea which washes the coast of Peru is termed the Pacific Ocean, on account of the serene weather that constantly prevails along the shore, and over the whole breadth of the country, between four and thirty-five degrees of south latitude. At the new and full moons, however, it swells here to a great height; and at Guisaguik, which is situate in three degrees of south latitude, the tide rises sixteen or seventeen foot perpendicular.

It is observed, that the winds in the Peruvian seas, and on all the western side of America, from thirty-eight degrees south to seven degrees north, are always southerly two points upon the shore; so that when the coast runs due north and south, the wind is at south-south-west; and when the coast runs south and south-east, the wind is due south, except in the night, in bays and creeks, when the sea wind generally ceases, and a fine moderate gale arises from the land.

It has also been remarked, that at Atica, which lies on the coast of Peru, in eighteen degrees odd minutes south latitude for almost a hundred leagues to the southward, the Pacific ocean is very subject to calms, within thirty-five or forty leagues from the shore.

When the sun is in the northern signs, namely, from March to September, the sky is generally bright and clear along the Peruvian coast; but during the

other part of the year, the weather is often extremely thick and hazy. The weather at a distance from the coast is various, according to the situation of the country. No rain ever falls on the Lanos or sandy plains by the sea-side; but thick mists are far from being unfrequent, especially in the mornings. On that division called the Sierras, the rains fall when the sun is in the southern signs, as in other climates between the equator and the tropic of Capricorn. On the Cordilleras or Andes, it generally rains or snows during two thirds of the year.

The principal rivers which rise on the west side of the Andes, and fall into the Pacific Ocean, are, the Colanche, in two degrees of south latitude; the Guisaguik, in three degrees; the Payta, in five degrees fifteen minutes; the Ylo, in eighteen degrees; and the Aricia, in nearly the same latitude. Several of the rivers between the Sierras and the Andes, are discharged into the great lake Titicaca, about eighty leagues in circumference.

Peru is divided into three provinces, namely, those of Quito, Lima, and Los Charcos; the first of which is the most northerly, and though situated under the line, enjoys a temperate air. The soil of this province is also the most fruitful, abounding with cattle and corn; and, like the two others, affording mines of gold, silver, quicksilver, and copper, as well as emeralds and many species of medicinal drugs. Among those, one of the most valuable, is the Peruvian bark, which grows on the mountains near the city of Loxa, in five degrees of south latitude. The plant which yields this excellent medicine is about the size of a cherry-tree. The leaves are round and indented, and it bears a long reddish flower, from which arises a pod with a kernel like an almond. This species of plant grows also in the mountains of Poton.

The animals in Peru are mostly of the same kind with those in Chili. One species peculiar to this country is the Pacos, a kind of sheep, resembling a camel, and about the size of a stag, covered with a sort of coarse wool, and their flesh is held in great esteem. This was the only beast of burden in Peru, when the Spaniards arrived in the country, and would carry a weight of sixty or seventy pounds.

The Vicuna is an animal resembling the European goat, and in it is found the bezoar stone, as large as a walnut.

Gold is found in every province of Peru, washed down from the mountains in the rivulets, and is generally of eighteen or twenty carats.

The capital of the province of Quito is a town of the same name, situate in thirty minutes of south latitude, and in seventy-eight degrees of west longitude, almost surrounded by mountains. It is a rich populous city, built after the Spanish model, having in the centre a great square, whence a number of spacious streets diverge on every side. A canal runs through the middle of it, over which are several bridges. This city has a great trade in woollen cloths, sugar, salt, and cattle; but its chief riches proceed from the gold that is found in the rivers. Here is an

university, and the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Lima. It is also the residence of the governor, and seat of the courts of justice. Tho' the city be flourishing, it is however, not healthful, being subject to periodical rains and floods, as all other countries near the equator. This place was the residence of the former kings of the country; before the arrival of the Spaniards; and there yet may be seen the ruins of some of their palaces, and of the temple of the Sun. In one of the adjacent mountains is a volcano, the eruptions of which have often endangered the city.

The other towns in this province are St. Jago de Puerto Veijo, Guiaquil, Tombes, Thomebambay, Loxa, Zamora, St. Michael's, and Payta.

The chief town of the province which lies southward of the preceding, is Lima, the capital likewise of Peru. It is situate in seventy-eight degrees of west longitude, and in twelve degrees fifteen minutes of south latitude, on the bank of the river Lima, six miles east of the Pacific ocean. This city, which is also built in the Spanish manner, is two miles in length, and near a mile and a half in breadth. The central square is surrounded on every side with piazzas; and here stand the cathedral, the Viceroy's palace, the treasury, the town-hall, the armory, and a university. There are also in the town a great many parochial and conventual churches, with monasteries and nunneries of every order, and five or six large hospitals. The houses make but a mean appearance on the outside. They are generally built with bricks dried in the sun; but many have only clay walls, and they are seldom more than one story high. The roofs for the most part are covered with reeds and mats, but sometimes only a cloth; one reason of which is, that the country is subject to earthquakes, and another, that the sun never heats those roofs, as is the case with tiles and slate. Besides, as it never rains on this coast, they have no occasion to provide against that accident; nor are they ever disturbed by storms or tempests. The weather is constantly serene, and the heats are much abated by the sea and land breezes. The dreadful earthquakes, however, to which it is exposed, more than counterbalances the various advantages of its situation. One terrible instance of this calamity happened in 1586, and another in 1687. At the latter of those periods, we are told that the sea retreated so far from the shore, that no water was to be seen, and after disappearing a considerable time, it returned with such violence as to carry the ships into the harbour of Callas, the port of Lima, a league up into the country, overflowing the town and forts of Callas, though situated on an eminence, and drowning both men and cattle for fifty leagues along the shore. Another earthquake happened at Lima on the 17th of October, 1746, by which seventy-four churches, fourteen monasteries, fifteen hospitals, several magnificent buildings, and upwards of a thousand private houses, were destroyed. Fifteen hundred persons perished in the ruins, with a prodigious treasure, which lay ready to be sent to Europe. At the same time Callas, which stands

about four or five miles from it, was swallowed up by the sea, and many ships in the harbour carried some leagues over the land. Of seven thousand inhabitants, only two hundred escaped. Were it not for those terrible disasters, the situation of Lima would be one of the happiest in the world; for it abounds in fruits and other produce of various kinds, and is perhaps the only country between the tropics that affords excellent wine.

Three hundred and fifty miles eastward of Lima, in seventy degrees of western longitude, and in thirteen degrees odd minutes of south latitude, stands the city of Cusco, the ancient metropolis of Peru, during the reigns of the Incas. It is built on an eminence in the midst of a spacious plain surrounded by mountains. The climate here is exceeding temperate and healthful; and on account of the dryness of the air, the natives are exempted from musquetoes, and all those noxious insects which prove so troublesome in other countries situated so near the equator. The principal streets of the old town pointed to the four winds, and the houses were generally built of stone, covered with reeds, or thatched. The chief edifices in it were the temple of the Sun, the palace of the Inca, and the castle. The first of those structures, which was built of hewn stone, is said to have been extremely magnificent, and in every part lined with plates of gold. It was divided into several chapels, cloysters, and apartments, in the principal of which, towards the east, stood an image of the Sun, resplendent with gold and precious stones. On each side were placed the bodies of the deceased Incas, curiously embalmed. They were seated on thrones of gold, supported by pedestals of the same metal, all looking to the west, except the Inca Huana Capac, who sat directly opposite to the image. The temple had several gates covered with gold, the principal of which opened towards the north; and round the top of the building, on the outside, was a cornice, a yard deep, consisting of gold plate.

Besides the chapel in which stood the image of the Sun, there were five others of a pyramidal form. One of those was dedicated to the Moon, deemed the sister and wife of the Sun. The walls and doors of this building were covered with silver; and within was the image of the Moon, with the representation of a woman's face in the middle of it. She was called the Mama Quilea, or Mother Moon, being reputed the mother of the Incas, as the sun was held to be the father. On either side of the image were placed the bodies of their deceased empresses, ranged in order; that of Mama Oello, the mother of Huana Capac, sitting with her face towards the Moon.

The third chapel was appropriated to Venus, called Chafca, the Pleiades, and all the other stars. Venus was much esteemed as an attendant on the Sun, and the rest were considered in the rank of maids of honour to the Moon. This chapel also had its walls and doors plated with silver.

An adjoining chapel was dedicated to Thunder and Lightning, which the natives esteemed not as gods, but as servants of the Sun; and those were repre-

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sented by some fanciful image or picture. This apartment, however, was entirely lined with gold plates.

Another chapel was dedicated to Iris, or the Rainbow, as owing its original to the Sun. This also was covered with gold, and contained a representation of the object to which it was devoted.

There likewise was a chapel equally magnificent, for the use of the high-priests, and the rest of the sacred order who were of the blood royal. Here they gave audience to the Sun's votaries, and consulted on the subject of their sacrifices.

Though there was no other image worshipped in this temple but that of the Sun, yet it was furnished with the figures of men, women, and children, and of all kinds of animals, in wrought gold, as large as the life. It being the custom at every great festival for the people to present gold and silver at the shrine of their deity, the goldsmiths belonging to the temple formed the metal into such figures as were most agreeable to the person who made the offering; so that the number of those images increasing annually, and becoming more than sufficient for ornament, they were piled up in large magazines appropriated to that purpose. Great quantities of the precious metals were also formed into the shape of various utensils, and deposited in the treasury of the temple.

No particular account has been transmitted of the palaces of the Incas at Cusco. It appears, however, that they were vastly large and magnificent. Some of the halls are said to have been two hundred paces in length, and fifty or sixty in breadth. The stones of those buildings were generally laid so close to one another that they needed no cement, but in some of the palaces and temples, for the greater magnificence, they were joined by melted gold or silver; a circumstance which operating upon the avarice of the Spaniards, prompted them to raze the greater part of those edifices, in the hope of finding treasure.

The palaces, like the temples, were decorated with the representation of various animals cast in gold; and on the walls, instead of tapestry, were the figures of plants and flowers of the same metal, interspersed with those of serpents, butterflies, and other insects, all delineated in the most lively manner.

We do not find that chairs were any part of household furniture among those people. The Inca, however, sat on a stool made of gold, without arms or back; but having a pedestal of the same metal. They used no other bedding but carpets made of the wool of their sheep, which also served them for covering; and in some parts of the country they lay in hammocks.

The palaces were furnished with bagnios and cisterns of gold, and every utensil in the royal household was made of the same metal; with which, formed into the shape of various animals, even the gardens were richly ornamented:

The fortrefs of Cusco stood upon the top of the hill on which the city was built, and towards the town was defended by a perpendicular rock of great height. The stones in the walls on the other side, consisting of several rounds, were so large that it was

impossible to conceive how the Indians could ever have hewn them out of the quarry, or transported them thither. Acosta relates that he measured a stone in the walls of an Indian castle, which was thirty-eight foot long, eighteen broad, and six in thickness. These however, bore no proportion to the stones in the fortrefs of Cusco, notwithstanding the latter had been dragged by the strength of men, ten, twelve, and fifteen leagues over hills and valleys; and the most difficult ways to that place. The apparent impossibility of transporting such huge masses of rock, without extraordinary knowledge in the science of mechanics, might induce us to imagine, that they consisted not of one piece, but were formed of several, joined together by an excellent cement, which the Peruvians are said to have generally used in their buildings.

Every nation of this extensive empire had quarters assigned for their residence in the royal city of Cusco. The vassal princes of every province were obliged to send their eldest sons to court, where they built them a palace, contiguous to which all the natives of the same province, residing in Cusco, had their houses.

The modern city of Cusco, built by the Spaniards, consists of large squares, surrounded with piazzas; whence spacious streets extend on every side, which are crossed by others at right angles. Here is a great number of churches, monasteries, and nunneries, as well as noble hospitals, both for Spaniards and Indians. The principal inhabitants of the town have generally country houses in the valley of Yucra, one of the most pleasant spots in Peru, and which is now planted with almost every kind of Indian and European corn and fruit.

The other towns in the province of Lima are, Coxamalea, Guanuco, Truxillo, Pisca, Guamanga, and Arigulpa.

The province of Los Charcos comprehends the southern part of Peru. The chief town of this district is Potosi, situate in sixty-four degrees twenty-five minutes of west longitude, and in twenty degrees forty minutes of south latitude, at the foot of the mountain of the same name. Notwithstanding the extreme barrenness of this country, which hardly affords any vegetable produce, the rich silver mines have drawn thither such a number of people, that Potosi is become one of the largest and most populous towns of Peru. Neither is it ill supplied with provisions, which are brought to the market every week from the country within thirty or forty leagues round. Several thousand persons are constantly employed in digging and refining the silver at this place; but so great is the ardor with which the work has been prosecuted, that though the hill which contained the silver is of no small extent, it is now almost exhausted of its treasure, being reduced to little more than a shell; and the Spaniards are now in daily search of new mines.

Porco is situated ten leagues north-west of Potosi; and was considerable on account of its silver mines before the discovery of the latter.

Arica lies a hundred leagues north-west of Potosi, and is the port town where most of the treasure is embarked for Lima.

The other towns in the province of Los Charcos are Santa Cruz, La Paz, Chinquits, Tiagunco, and Killo, or Ylo.

Before the arrival of the Spaniards, every province contained but one great town, the rest being only mean villages. In each of those capitals was a palace belonging to the governor, or vassal prince, a temple dedicated to the Sun, and a convent of select virgins. There were also four royal highways which run through the whole empire, and centered in the market-place of Cusco. On the side of those highways were erected magazines and store houses sufficient to afford provisions to all the forces in the province. The Indians had also noble aqueducts, by which they conveyed water to their great towns and corn-fields, many miles.

In the nunneries of Cusco, there were no less than fifteen hundred virgins, all of the blood of the Incas, or emperors; and in the provincial convents, the nuns were the kindred of the vassal princes, or of the lords of the respective provinces. Those females, however, were not intended for the service of the temple of the Sun, which they never were permitted to enter.

The Peruvians are of a middle stature. Their complexion is of a deep copper colour, but no blacks were found, even under the equinoctial, till the Europeans imported them into the country. Their hair and eyes are black. They pull up the hair of their beards and other parts by the roots. On the arrival of the Spaniards some wore the hair on their heads, but others cut it off. The several nations were distinguished by their head-dresses. Some wore large pieces of cotton, wrapped several times round, in the manner of turbans: others used a single piece of linen; some wore a kind of hats, others caps in the form of a fugar loaf. Several other modes were also used, but the dress of each tribe remained invariable. They anointed their bodies with oil, or fat, and some of them also used paint, like most of the Americans. Some girt a piece of cotton about their waists, but the greater part of the people went entirely naked.

Their chief ornaments were rings and jewels in their ears, which they stretched to a monstrous size; and they also wore chains of jewels and shells about their necks.

The food of the Peruvians, when the Spaniards took possession of the country, was chiefly maize, or Indian corn, which they formed into cakes, or sometimes boiled into a sort of hasty-pudding. Where maize did not grow, they had a small grain or seed, produced from a plant resembling spinach, which they used in the same manner; and in other parts, their bread was made of the root cassavi. They were likewise accustomed to eat of almost every sort of vegetable. The Incas and great men of the country being masters of all the cattle and game, the common people seldom tasted any fish. Once a year, however, a general

hunting was appointed by their princes, at which all the venison and game that was taken, was distributed to the populace. This, with the flesh of the tame cattle, also given them annually, they preserved through the year by salting and drying it.

They only made two meals a day, which were usually between eight and nine in the morning, and again about sun-set. The common drink of the lower class of people was water, but persons of condition often used other liquors, in which many were even intemperate. One of their liquors was made from Indian corn; another from the Maygey tree; and they made a sort of wine of almost every fruit, by boiling or infusing it in water.

The Peruvians adored the great Creator of heaven and earth, whom they denominated *Paca Camac*, that intelligence which animated the world. They seldom built temples or offered sacrifices to him, but worshipped him in their hearts. One temple, however, dedicated to *The unknown God*, the Spaniards found at their arrival, erected in a valley, thence named the valley of *Paca Camac*. The sacrifices instituted in honour of the Sun consisted chiefly of lambs; besides which they offered all sorts of cattle, fowls, and corn, and even burnt their finest cloths on the altar by way of incense. They had also drink offerings made of maize or Indian corn, steeped in water. Nor were those oblations the only acts of adoration in general use among them. When they first drank after their meals, they dipped the tip of their finger into the cup, and lifting up their eyes with great devotion, gave the Sun thanks for their liquor, before they presumed to take a draught of it.

Besides the worship of the sun, they paid some kind of veneration to the images of several animals and vegetables that had a place in their temples. Those were generally the images brought from the conquered nations, where the people worshipped all sorts of creatures, animate or inanimate; it being the custom, when a province was subdued, to remove all their idols to the temple of the Sun at Cusco.

Exclusive of the solemnities at every full moon, four grand festivals were celebrated annually. The first of those called *Raymi*, was held in the month of June, immediately after the summer solstice, and was kept not only in honour of the Sun, but of their first Inca, Manca Capac, and Coya Mama Ocla, his wife and sister, whom the Incas considered as their first parents, descended immediately from the Sun, and sent by him into the world to reform and polish mankind. At this festival, all the viceroys, generals, governors, and nobility, were assembled at the capital city of Cusco, and the emperor, or Inca, officiated in person as high-priest; though on other occasions the sacerdotal function was discharged by the regular pontiff, who was usually either the uncle or brother of the Inca.

The morning of the festival being come, the Inca, accompanied by his near relations, drawn up in order, according to their seniority went barefoot in procession, at break of day, to the market-place, where they remained looking attentively towards the east,

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in expectation of the rising sun. The luminary no sooner appeared, than they fell prostrate on their faces in the most profound veneration, and universally acknowledged it to be their god and father.

The vassal princes, and nobility, that were not of the blood royal, assembled in another square, and performed the like ceremony. Out of a large flock of sheep the priests then chose a black lamb, which they offered in sacrifice, first turning its head towards the east. From the entrails of the victim, on this occasion, they superstitiously drew prognostics relating to peace and war, and other public events.

That the Peruvians believed in the immortality of the soul, appears from the practice of the Incas, who constantly inculcated to the people, that, on leaving this world, they should enter into a state of happiness provided for them by their god and father the Sun.

Before the arrival of the Spaniards in America, the Peruvians were acquainted with some points of astronomy. They had observed the various motions of the planet Venus, and the different phases of the moon. The common people divided the year only by the seasons, but the Incas, who had discovered the annual revolution of the sun, marked out the summer and winter solstices by high towers, which they erected on the east and west of the city of Cusco. When the sun came to rise directly opposite to four of those towers, on the east side of the city, and to set against those of the west, it was then the summer solstice; and in like manner, when it rose and set against the other towers, it was the winter solstice. They had also erected marble pillars in the great court before the temple of the sun, by which they observed the equinoxes. This observation was made under the equator, when the sun being directly vertical, the pillars cast no shade. At those times they crowned the pillars with garlands of flowers and odoriferous herbs, and celebrating a festival, offered to their adored luminary rich presents of gold and precious stones.

They distinguished the months by the moon, and their weeks were called quarters of the moon; but the days of the week they marked only by the ordinal numbers, as first, second, &c. They were astonished at the eclipses of the sun and moon. When the former hid his face, they concluded it was on account of their sins, imagining that this phenomenon portended famine, war and pestilence, or some other terrible calamity. In a similar state of the moon, they apprehended that she was sick, and when totally obscured, that she was dying. At this alarming crisis they sounded their trumpets, and endeavoured by every kind of noise to rouse the lunar planet from her supposed lethargy; teaching their children to cry out, and call upon Mama Quylla, or Mother Moon, that she would not die and leave them to perish.

They made no predictions from any of the stars, but considered dreams, and the entrails of beasts which they offered in sacrifice, as instructive objects of divination. When they saw the sun set, they ima-

No. 48.

gined that he plunged into the ocean, to appear next morning in the east.

Among a people wholly void of letters, the speculative essays of the understanding must have been very rude and imperfect. They had however, among them amentas, or philosophers, who delivered moral precepts, and likewise cultivated poetry. Comedies and tragedies composed by those bards were acted on their festivals before the king and the royal family, the performers being the great men of the court, and the principal officers of the army. The amentas also composed songs and ballads; but if we may judge from the rudeness of the music with which they are said to have been accompanied, they were far from being agreeable to a polished ear.

That the Peruvians were not unacquainted with painting and statuary, appears from the furniture and ornaments of their temples and palaces; but in all the implements of mechanic arts, they were extremely deficient. Though many goldsmiths were constantly employed, they had never invented an anvil of any metal, but in its stead made use of a hard stone. They beat their plate with round pieces of copper in place of hammers; neither had they any files or graving tools. Instead of bellows for melting their metals, they used copper pipes, of a yard long, almost of the form of a trumpet. Having no tongs to take their heated metal out of the fire, they made use of a stick or copper bar. Their carpenters had no other tools than hatchets made of copper or flint, nor had learned the use of iron, though the country affords mines of that metal. Instead of nails, they fastened their timber with cords or the tough twigs of trees. A thorn, or a small bone, served them for a needle, and instead of thread the sinews of animals, or the fibres of some plant. Their knives were made of flint or copper.

According to the tradition of the Peruvians, their ancestors, till five hundred years before the Spanish invasion, lived in woods and caves, used promiscuous copulation, devoured human flesh, and were subject to no form of government. At length a great legislator arose among them, who called himself the descendant of the Sun, to whom he first erected temples, and instituted divine honour. He drew his countrymen from their wild abodes, to live in cities, and conform to the laws of more civilized society. He was succeeded by a series of princes, distinguished by the title of Incas, the twelfth of whom was named Huayna Capac, the father of Athabalipa. On the arrival of Pizarro, with the Spanish army in Peru, Athabalipa, who had imprisoned his elder brother, was found in the city of Quito, at the head of near forty thousand men, armed with darts and long pikes of gold and silver. Pizarro, by his interpreters, made an overture to treat with Athabalipa, who, after several messages, accepted the proposal. Previous to an interview, however, the Spanish general dispatched father Vincent de Valverde, to harangue the Inca upon the benefits of the Christian religion. While this expedient seemed to produce no effect on the mind of the Inca, a tumult arose, on account of the Spaniards attempting to seize

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an idol adorned with gold and precious stones. The crofs and breviary being thrown to the ground in the confusion, the Spaniards became enraged, and exclaiming that those holy things were profaned, they immediately fell upon the Indians, whom they massacred with incredible fury. Pizarro with his own hand pulled the Inca from his litter, and made him prisoner. A most enormous ransom was demanded for the royal captive, which failing to pay, he was on various pretences condemned to be burnt, but obtained the favour to be first strangled, on consenting to be baptized, and owning himself a Christian.

After the death of Athabalsip, many disputes arose about the succession, which fell at last upon Manco Capac, under whom the Peruvian empire was totally subverted by the Spaniards.

#### PARAGUA, or LA PLATA.

**P**ARAGUA, or La Plata, is bounded on the south by Patagonia, on the west by Chili and Peru, on the north by the country of the Amazons, and on the east by Brazil; lying between fifty and seventy-five degrees of west longitude, and between twelve and thirty-seven degrees of south latitude. It is about fifteen hundred miles in length from north to south, and not much inferior in breadth. This country receives its name from the great river which runs the whole length of it from north to south, and separates it nearly into two equal parts. It is divided into six provinces, viz. La Plata Proper, Tucuman, Uruguay, Parana, Guayra, and Paragua Proper.

La Plata Proper is bounded on the north by the river Plata, which here turns to the eastward; on the east by the Atlantic Ocean; on the south by Patagonia; and on the west by the province of Tucuman and Chili. The chief town is Buenos Ayres, situate in sixty degrees five minutes of west longitude, and in thirty-five degrees fifty-five minutes of south latitude, on the south shore of the river Plata, about fifty leagues from its mouth. Notwithstanding the distance from the ocean, the river here is seven leagues broad. This town is a place of considerable trade, a great part of the treasures and merchandize of Peru and Chili being conveyed thither down the rivers, and thence exported to Spain. Here are five churches besides the cathedral, with several convents and nunneries; and the town is defended by a castle regularly fortified. The two other most noted towns in this province are, Santa Fe and Assumption.

Westward of the preceding, and towards the north, lies the province of Tucuman, the chief town of which is St. Jago, situate midway between Potosi and Buenos Ayres, about two hundred and fifty leagues from each. It is a bishop's see, and is the seat of an university. A hundred leagues south of this town, stands Cordova, which is also the see of a bishop.

The province of Uruguay lies in the south-east part of the country, on the north of the river Plata. The chief towns are Uruguay, situate in twenty-nine de-

grees of south latitude, and La Capia, or Tapia, in thirty-two degrees odd minutes of south latitude.

The province of Parana lies northward of the preceding, and has for its chief towns, Stapaos, situate in twenty-seven degrees of south latitude; and St. Ignatio, a little farther to the south-east.

In the province of Guayra, northward of Parana, the chief towns are, Guayra, situate in twenty-four degrees of south latitude; and St. Xavier, lying a hundred leagues farther east.

Paragua Proper is the most northerly province of the country; but as yet we are not informed of any town that it contains.

Several of the rivers in this country rise in the mountains of Andes, and running south-east, fall into the great river Paragua. Others rise in the mountains which divide La Plata from Brazil, and directing their course south-west, fall likewise into the river Paragua. This great river derives its source from the lake Xaraya, in fifteen degrees of south latitude, and running almost due south unites its waters with the Uruguay. From this place to the Atlantic Ocean, all the united streams obtain the name of La Plata.

The river properly called the La Plata rises near the town of that name in Peru, and running south-east falls into the Paragua, in twenty-eight degrees of south latitude. After which it loses the name of Plata, and the united stream is called the Paragua, till it joins the river Uruguay, when it resumes the name of La Plata, till it reaches the ocean.

The third considerable river is that of Uruguay, which rises in the mountains that divide Brazil from this province, and running almost due south, unites its waters with the Paragua, in thirty-four degrees of south latitude; before which it is navigable for ships several hundred miles.

Out of the same mountains, northward, rises the river Parana, another very large stream, which running almost parallel to the former, falls into the Paragua, in twenty-eight degrees of south latitude.

The river Salado, so named from the saltness of its waters, rises in the Andes, and running south-east, falls into the Paragua, in thirty-three degrees of south latitude.

The Tarcero rises also in the Andes, and running almost due east, falls into the Paragua, in thirty-four degrees of south latitude.

Besides those, there is a number of other rivers which fall into the Paragua, and render the country exceeding fertile. The rivers which rise within the tropics, particularly La Plata, Paragua, and Parava, overflow their banks annually, like the Nile, and greatly contribute to this purpose.

That part of the country which lies west of the river Paragua consists of large plains, extending two or three hundred leagues; and on the other side, which borders on Brazil, there is a variety of hills and valleys, woods and champaign.

In the north part of Paragua, which lies within the tropic of Capricorn, they have annually in November

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ember and December, very heavy rains, accompanied with storms and tempests. At this season, all the flat country is overflowed; and the natives who live not near rivers, replenish their cisterns and reservoirs of water, which serve them during the remainder of the year. The beginning of the rainy season is the time of sowing and planting; and the fair season which succeeds is their harvest.

Before the arrival of the Spaniards, the inhabitants of the plains lived in tents or slight huts, and wandered from one part of the country to another, like the natives of Peru. Those who occupied the territory lying between the river Paragua and Brazil, lived mostly in woods or caves; but neither the one nor the other had any town, till they were taught by the Europeans to build.

The natives are generally of a middle stature, and their complexion of a deep olive colour. They have round flat faces, thick legs, large joints, and strong black hair. The common people often go naked, but among those of condition, the men wrap a piece of skin round their middle, which hangs below their knees, and they throw a doe-skin over their shoulders. Round their necks they wear collars of coloured feathers, sticking the same kind of ornaments, or fish bones, in their ears and chin, which are perforated for that purpose.

The women use no other covering than a girdle round their waist. On their neck, hands and arms, they hang chains of fish-bones, or of mother of pearl, and a triple crown of straw distinguishes the wife of one of their caciques or petty princes.

When a child is born they wrap it in a skin, and immediately give it the breast; but this nourishment is soon after changed for raw flesh, which the infant is taught to suck. At the death of a near relation, the men chop a finger off the left hand, and if a handsome daughter dies, her skull is preserved as a drinking cup.

This country produces rice and Indian corn in great plenty, as well as European corn and fruits, which the Spaniards have introduced. Here also are innumerable herds of European cattle, viz. horses, cows, sheep, and goats, which from a few of each species imported by the Spaniards, have prodigiously multiplied. Black cattle are often killed merely for the sake of their tongues, hides, and tallow, and their carcasses left a prey to the wild beasts and birds. A fat ox may be bought for two or three needles, or a two-penny knife; and a horse for trifles of about two shillings value.

The woods abound with deer, wild bears, goats, and such flocks of partridges and wild pigeons, that they may be knocked down with a stick. They also produce peaches, almonds, figs, and almost every sort of fruit, in great quantity. Vines thrive so well in the soil, that were it not for the number of pismires, which swarm here, and destroy the grapes, the vintage would be extremely plentiful. The wine is generally of an agreeable taste, but is apt to four very soon, unless it be well limed.

The Jesuits have long been in possession of that

part of the country lying east of the river Paragua, which they have not only improved, but greatly civilised the inhabitants, and taught them the Christian religion. The method of cultivation which the fathers have pursued, is judiciously adapted to the purpose both of agriculture and commerce. The ground being most fertile on the sides of the rivers which annually overflow, they have caused the Indians to fix their habitations on eminences in those parts, where there is plenty of wood in the neighbourhood, and the convenience of water-carriage for a free communication among the inhabitants of the country. In building their towns, the Jesuits have uniformly adopted the plan of those in Spain. They first form a square, on the side of which usually stands a handsome church, with their schools, the Father's house, who presides in the canton, and the halls and offices of their courts of justice. From each side of the square run off spacious streets, which, where the canton is large, are crossed by several others.

Several years ago, there were twenty-six of those cantons on the banks of the rivers Uruguay and Parana, each of them containing eight hundred or a thousand houses, and seven or eight thousand inhabitants, under the government of two missionaries; and since that time the number is greatly increased in every part of the country. The church of each canton is usually built of brick or stone, and has a very lofty steeple, containing four or five bells. It is as richly furnished, and adorned with plate, vestments, and utensils, as the Spanish churches in Europe. Besides the high altar, they have frequently several side altars and chapels. They have also organs, trumpets, hautboys, violins, and other instrumental music, with some very good vocal performers; so that few cathedrals are better accommodated than the churches of those cantons.

The missionaries here govern the Indians with absolute authority, both in spirituals and temporals; nor is there a place in the world where the people express a more profound submission to their superiors. In paving the way to a treaty of marriage, the woman here is generally the courtier. When she has conceived an affection for any young man, she communicates her passion to the father of the canton, who immediately sends for the youth. If the latter acknowledges a mutual love for the girl, the match is instantly concluded. The man promises to furnish the hearth with fuel; and the woman to supply the house with water. The ceremony being over, the missionary gives them a cabin, five yards of stuff to each for a wedding garment, with a fat cow, a little salt, and some bread, for the purpose of entertaining their friends; but they are allowed no music, dancing, nor any merriment that tends in the least to riot or extravagance.

The pretence of the Jesuits who first went to Paragua, was to persuade the Indians to submit to the Spanish government, but having established their own influence in the country, they have entirely lost sight of the original design of their mission; and it is their present policy to permit as little communication as possible

possible between the Spaniards and the inhabitants of the provinces where themselves reside. They suffer no merchants who enter the country to make a longer stay than is necessary for the purpose of traffic; and they are commonly masters of such well-timed liberality, as effectually to prevent the Spanish governors from enquiring into the worth of their possessions. Besides, their influence over the inhabitants is now become so great, and the country so populous, that it might prove difficult for the court of Spain to exact more than a nominal submission of them.

The Portuguese were the first Europeans that invaded the country of Paragua. In the year 1524, Alonius Garcia, by the command of the governor of Brazil, passed the mountains with a small party, and marched cross the Plata to Peru, where he found a great deal of silver; but being attacked by the inhabitants on his return, he was cut off with most of his men, as well as another of the Portuguese who had been sent to secure his retreat. In 1526, Sebastian Cabot was employed by the Spaniards to penetrate the country. He sailed up the river of La Plata, as far as the place where the Portuguese had been defeated, and there meeting with the treasure that Garcia had possessed himself of, and which the natives had left untouched, not knowing its value, he returned with his prize. Imagining the silver he had found was the produce of Paragua, he represented the country to be exceeding rich; in consequence of which opinion several gentlemen of the west families prepared to visit the coast, accompanied with two thousand land forces, besides seamen, under the command of Don Peter de Mendoza. Arriving at the mouth of the river La Plata, in 1535, they built the town of Buenos Ayres, but not without great opposition; James Mendoza, the commander's brother, with two hundred and fifty men, being killed by the natives.

In 1553; general Baldivia sent two hundred men from Chili, under the command of Francis de Acquire, with whom he passed the Andes, and penetrating far to the eastward, built the city of St. Jago. Two years after, John Gomez de Zarita, detached also from Chili, built Corduba, and made a conquest so far as the great river Paragua. Jesuit missionaries were sent at the same time to the east side of this river, with the view of inducing the natives to submit to the Spanish government, and as a reward for their service, the country between the river Paragua and Brazil was conferred on those fathers, whose successors continue to be sovereigns of it at this day. We cannot suppose, however, consistently with the intention of this grant, that it was meant to convey to the fathers any other right than the territorial possession of the country, under the implied jurisdiction of the Spanish crown.

#### A M A Z O N I A.

Amazonia, or the country of the Amazons, is situate between fifty and seventy degrees of west longitude; and between the equator and fifteen degrees

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of south latitude; being bounded on the south by La Plata, on the west by Peru, on the north by the province of Terra Firma, and on the east by Brazil.

With respect to the nation of the Amazons, which was said to give name to this territory, it is at present not to be found, any more than the giants and cannibals mentioned by the first adventurers thither. It appears that those various objects existed only in imagination, and perhaps were feigned by the natives, to deter the Spaniards from penetrating farther into the country.

This is generally a flat region, abounding in woods, lakes, rivers, bogs, and morasses. The chief river, and one of the largest in the world, is that called the river of Amazons, or the Orellana, which is formed by two large rivers, the one rising in the province of Quito, a little south of the equator, in seventy-three degrees of west longitude, and the other, named Xauxas, rising in the lake of Bourbon, near the Andes, in ten degrees of south latitude. Those two rivers uniting on the confines of Peru and Amazonia, in three degrees odd minutes of south latitude, assume the name of Amazon; whence running eastward upward of two hundred miles, and afterwards inclining to the north, they fall into the Atlantic Ocean by eighty-four channels, which in the rainy season overflow the adjacent country. Besides the two streams mentioned, a multitude of others, both on the north and south side, contribute to the formation of this extraordinary river. As it runs almost across the broadest part of South America, it is computed to be between four and five thousand miles in length, including all its windings.

Its channel from Junta de los Reyes, about sixty degrees from its head, to the river Marañon, is from one to two leagues broad; it then widens from three to four, and becomes gradually broader as it approaches the ocean. Between the places last mentioned, its depth is from five to ten fathom; but from Marañon to Rio Negro, it increases to twenty fathom; after which it is sometimes thirty, and sometimes fifty fathoms, or more, till it comes near the end of its course. It has no sand banks, nor does the shore shelve so as to render it dangerous for vessels. The manetu and tortoise abound both upon the banks of this and the other rivers; and the fishermen must be upon their guard against the crocodiles, alligators, and water serpents, which also swarm here.

The air, as in the countries under the same parallel, is observed to be nearly as cool under the equator as about the tropics, on account of the rains continuing longer, and the sky in that season being clouded. Besides, an easterly wind sets from the Atlantic up the river, so strong that vessels are carried by it against the stream.

The produce of the country is Indian corn, and the cassavi root, of which they make flour and bread; tobacco, cotton, sugar, sarsaparilla, yams, potatoes, and other roots. They have also plenty of venison, fish, and fowl. Among the latter are vast flocks of parrots, of all colours, the flesh of which serves for food, and the feathers for ornament.

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both polygamy and concubinage.

The country affords neither gold nor silver mines, only a small quantity of the former is found in the rivulets which fall into the Amazon near its sources in Peru. While the Spaniards imagined that it contained thie metals, they made great efforts from Peru to reduce this territory to subjection, till being at length undeceived, they abandoned the design.

B R A Z I L .

**B**R A Z I L is situate between thirty-five and sixty degrees of west longitude, and between the equator and thirty-five degrees of south latitude; being bounded on the north by the river Amazon and the Atlantic Ocean; on the east by the same ocean; on the south by Paragua, or La Plata; and on the west, partly by Paragua, and partly by the country of the Amazons.

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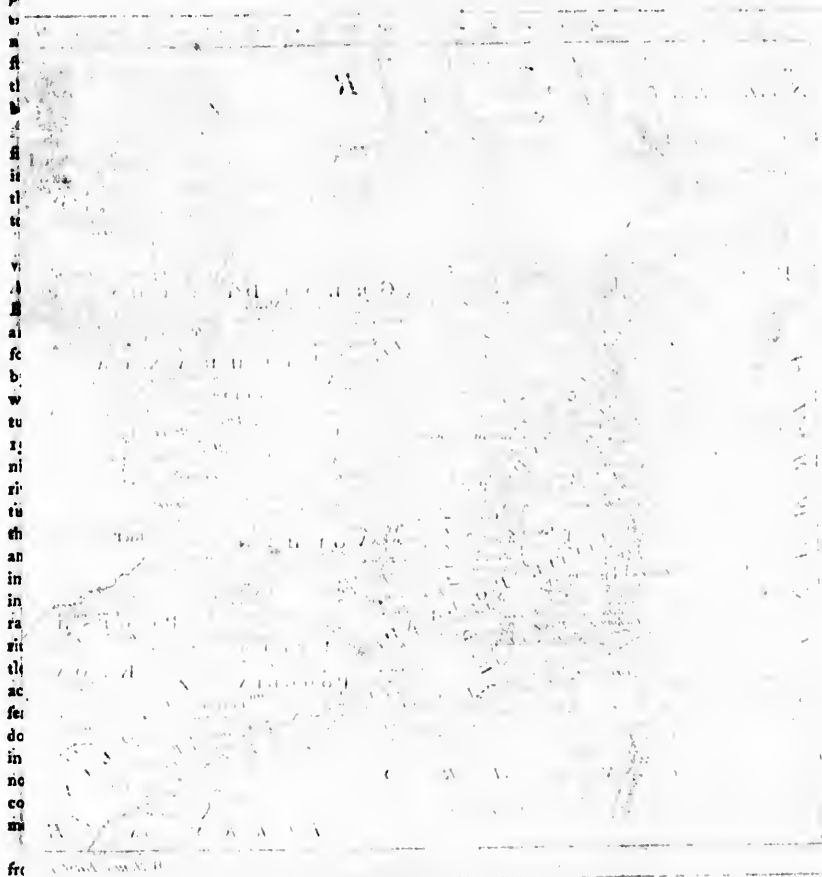
Sersigipe, Babua, or the Bay of All Saints, Ilheos, Porto Seguro, and Spirito Sancto. The south division contains Rio Janeiro, St. Vincent, and Del Rey.

The chief rivers are, Siara, which runs from the south-west to the north east, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean, in four degrees odd minutes of south latitude, near the town of the same name; Rio Grande, which runs from west to east, and falls likewise into the Atlantic Ocean in three degrees odd minutes of south latitude; Paraíba, running in the same direction, in six degrees odd minutes of south latitude; Tamara, running parallel to the preceding; Rio Real, which falls into the sea a little north of the Bay of All Saints; Rio St. Antonio, discharging itself into the ocean in sixteen degrees of south latitude; Ilheos, running parallel to the former, in fifteen degrees south latitude; Rio Dolce, in twenty degrees of south latitude; with the river of Crocodiles, the Alequa, St. Michael, Pariba, and Rio Janeiro; to

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Two years after, John Gomez de Zarita, detached also from Chili, built Corduba, and made a conquest so far as the great river Paragua. Jesuit missionaries were sent at the same time to the east side of this river, with the view of inducing the natives to submit to the Spanish government, and as a reward for their service, the country between the river Paragua and Brazil was conferred on those fathers, whose successors continue to be sovereigns of it at this day. We cannot suppose, however, consistently with the intention of this grant, that it was meant to convey to the fathers any other right than the territorial possession of the country, under the implied jurisdiction of the Spanish crown.

#### AMAZONIA.

Amazonia, or the country of the Amazons, is situate between fifty and seventy degrees of west longitude; and between the equator and fifteen degrees

course. It has no sand banks, nor does the shore shelve so as to render it dangerous for vessels. The manetú and tortoise abound both upon the banks of this and the other rivers; and the fishermen must be upon their guard against the crocodiles, alligators, and water serpents, which also swarm here.

The air, as in the countries under the same parallel, is observed to be nearly as cool under the equator as about the tropics, on account of the rains continuing longer, and the sky in that season being clouded. Besides, an easterly wind sets from the Atlantic up the river, so strong that vessels are carried by it against the stream.

The produce of the country is Indian corn, and the cassavi root, of which they make flour and bread; tobacco, cotton, sugar, sarsaparilla, yams, potatoes, and other roots. They have also plenty of venison, fish, and fowl. Among the latter are vast flocks of parrots, of all colours, the flesh of which serves for food, and the feathers for ornament.

#### BRAZIL.

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All the trees here are ever-green; and fruits, flowers, and herbage are in perfection all the year round. The principal fruits are cocoa-nuts, ananas or pine apples, guavas, bananas, and such others as are usually found between the tropics. The forest and timber trees are cedar, Brazil wood, oak, ebony, logwood, iron-wood, so called from its weight and hardness, the canela, and several sorts of dying wood.

The natives are of the common stature, with good features, a copper complexion, black eyes and hair. It is computed that there are of them about a hundred and fifty different tribes or nations, and the villages are so numerous as to be within call of one another. Among those the Homagues, a people near the head of the river, are famous for their cotton manufactures; the Jurines, who live between five and ten degrees of latitude, for their joiners works; and the Wroffsares for their earthen ware. The Topinambes, who inhabit a large island in the river, are remarkable for their strength. Some of those nations frequently make war upon each other. Their armour consists of darts, javelins, bows and arrows, and they wear targets of cane, or fish-skin. They make slaves of their prisoners, whom they otherwise use very well.

Every tribe is governed by its respective chief or king, the marks of whose dignity are a crown of parrots feathers, a chain of lions teeth or claws hung round his neck, or girt about his waist, and a wooden sword, which he carries in his hand.

Most of those nations, except the Homagues, go naked. The men thrust pieces of cane through their ears and under-lips, as well as through the skin of the pudenda. At the gristle of their noses they also hang glass beads, which wag to and fro when they speak. They are such skilful marksmen, that they will shoot fish as they swim; and what they catch they eat without either bread or salt.

They worship images, which they always carry with them on their expeditions; but they neither have temples, nor any order of priests; and permit both polygamy and concubinage.

The country affords neither gold nor silver mines, only a small quantity of the former is found in the rivulets which fall into the Amazon near its sources in Peru. While the Spaniards imagined that it contained those metals, they made great efforts from Peru to reduce this territory to subjection, till being length undecieved, they abandoned the design.

#### B R A Z I L.

**B**R A Z I L is situate between thirty-five and sixty degrees of west longitude, and between the equator and thirty-five degrees of south latitude; being bounded on the north by the river Amazon and the Atlantic Ocean; on the east by the same ocean; on the south by Paragua, or La Plata; and on the west, partly by Paragua, and partly by the country of the Amazons.

No. 49.

The sea coast is generally flat, from north to south; it is about three hundred and seventy-five leagues, intermixed with woods and savannas, or meadow grounds; but the inland part of the country is mountainous. Towards the west in particular, on the confines of the Spanish territories, there is a long chain of mountains, in which are some of the richest mines in America. Here also are several extensive lakes, whence issue innumerable rivers, which either fall into the rivers Amazon and La Plata; or, running cross the country from west to east, discharge themselves into the Atlantic Ocean; the latter of which is of great use to the Portuguese in turning their sugar mills. The north part of Brazil lying near the equator, the low lands are annually flooded, as in other countries situated under the same parallels; but in the southern provinces, the air is temperate, and constantly refreshed by sea breezes, or the winds from the western mountains.

It is observable, that the winds and seasons are the very reverse here, to what they are in other parts of the world in the same latitudes. For whereas in other places south of the equinoctial, the dry season comes on when the sun goes to the northward of the equator, and the wet season begins when the sun returns to the southward; here the wet season begins in April, when the south-east winds set in with violent tornadoes, thunder, and lightning: and in September, when the wind shifts to the north-east, introduces a clear sky and fair weather; and this is the time of their sugar harvest.

Only the two winds mentioned blow upon this coast, viz. the south-east from April to September, and the north-east from September to April again. But thirty or forty leagues out at sea, they meet with the constant trade-wind, which blows in the Atlantic Ocean all the year round, from the eastward, with very little variation.

Brazil is divided into sixteen captainships or provinces. In the north are those of Paria, Marignan, Siara, Petagnes, Rio Grande, Payaba, Tamara, and Pernambuco. The middle division comprehends Seragippe, Babua, or the Bay of All Saints, Ilheos, Porto Seguro, and Spirito Sancto. The south division contains Rio Janeiro, St. Vincent, and Del Rey.

The chief rivers are, Siara, which runs from the south-west to the north east, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean, in four degrees odd minutes of south latitude, near the town of the same name; Rio Grande, which runs from west to east, and falls likewise into the Atlantic Ocean in three degrees odd minutes of south latitude; Paraiba, running in the same direction, in six degrees odd minutes of south latitude; Tamara, running parallel to the preceding; Rio Real, which falls into the sea a little north of the Bay of All Saints; Rio St. Antonio, discharging itself into the ocean in sixteen degrees of south latitude; Ilheos, running parallel to the former, in fifteen degrees south latitude; Rio Dolce, in twenty degrees of south latitude; with the river of Crocodiles, the Alequa, St. Michael, Pariba, and Rio Janeiro; which

which may be added the river Plata, on the southern boundary of Brazil.

The chief towns in the province of Paria are, Paria, or Belem, situate near the mouth of the river Amazon; and Coruffa, about fifty leagues south-west of the former. The capital of Marignan is St. Lewis de Marignan, situate in a fine bay, formed by the mouths of three great rivers. The capital of Siara bears the same name with the province, and is situated at the mouth of the Siara. The chief town of Rio Grande is Tiguare, lying on the banks of the river Grande; that of Paraiba is of its own name, and situate on the river Paraiba; and the chief town of Timara has also a cognominal designation. The chief town of Pernambuco is likewise of the same name, situate on a peninsula in seven degrees thirty minutes of south latitude. This was the capital of all the settlements which the Dutch formerly possessed in Brazil, and was taken from them by the Portuguese in 1647. The chief town in the captainship of Bahia de Todos Santos, or the Bay of All Saints, is St. Salvador, situated on a hill above the harbour, or Bay of All Saints, in thirteen degrees of south latitude. This city is the capital of the whole country, a distinction to which it is entitled, not only by the extent and elegance of its buildings, but likewise by its riches and trade.

The harbour of St. Salvador is capable of receiving ships of the greatest burthen, and the entrance is guarded by a strong fort, called St. Antonio. It is also commanded by other small forts, one of which is built upon a rock, about half a mile from the shore. Close by the fort all ships that anchor here are obliged to pass, and they must likewise ride within half a mile of it at farthest. Another fort stands upon the same hill with the town, and fronts the harbour.

The town consists of about two thousand houses, which are generally two or three stories high, built with stone, and covered with pan-tiles; many of them being likewise furnished with elegant balconies. The principal streets are large, and all either paved or pitched with small stones. There are also parades in the most eminent places of the town, and several gardens within it, as well as in the environs, well stored with fruit-trees, flowers, and all sorts of excellent vegetables.

Here are several churches, chapels, hospitals, and monasteries, with one nunnery. There are four hundred soldiers constantly in garrison, who are decently clad in brown linen, which in those hot countries is far preferable to woollen.

The merchants here are chiefly Portuguese, and for the most part reputed rich. The principal commodities which the European ships bring thither are linen-cloths, both coarse and fine, some woollens, hats, stockings, both silk and thread, biscuit, wheat flour, wine, oil, olives, butter, cheese, &c. They likewise import iron, and all sorts of iron tools, and pewter vessels, looking-glasses, beads, and other toys.

The exports from St. Salvador are chiefly sugar, and tobacco, either in roll or snuff; besides which

they send abroad raw hides, tallow, and several sorts of dying wood. It is remarked of the sugar, that being refined with clay, it is much better than what we bring home from our plantations.

The European ships commonly arrive here in February or March, for the most part by quick passages, finding at that time of the year brisk gales to bring them to the line, little trouble in crossing it, and afterwards east-north-east winds which waft them expeditiously thither. They usually quit the port on their return about the end of May, or in June.

The small craft belonging to the town are chiefly employed in carrying European goods from Bahia, the centre of the Brazilian trade, to other places on the coast, bringing back thither sugar, tobacco, &c. They are manned mostly with negro slaves, who, about Christmas, are employed in whale-killing, a small species of this fish being very frequent upon the coast. The fat of them is boiled to oil, and the lean is eaten by slaves and poor people. Those that strike them have their licence for it of the king, who is said to receive by this article thirty thousand dollars a year.

The negro slaves at this place are so numerous, that they constitute the greater part of the inhabitants, there hardly being a family of any condition that has not some of both sexes. The richer sort, besides those whom they keep for servile work in their houses, have also men slaves, who either run at their horses sides, when they ride out, or carry them on their shoulders, when they make short visits near home. The vehicle for this purpose is a large cotton hammock hung on a bamboo about twelve or fourteen feet long, by which it is carried on the shoulders of two negroes. The hammock being covered with a curtain, the person who is carried may be concealed, if he pleases; but they generally have a pride in being observed in this situation, and therefore not only often salute one another from their hammocks, but likewise hold long conferences in the streets; the vehicle resting all the while upon two poles, which the slaves also carry for the purpose.

The chief town in the province of Ilheos is of the same name, situated on a promontory, at the mouth of a cognominal river, and is considerable for its sugar mills.

The chief towns in Porto Seguro are Porto Seguro, seated on a rock near the coast, in 17 degrees of south latitude; Santa Cruz, three leagues to the southward, and Santa Maria, a little farther.

The chief town in Spirito bears the same name, and is situated also on a cognominal river, twenty-six miles from the coast, in 20 degrees odd minutes of south latitude.

The capital of Rio Janeiro is St. Sebastian, situated on the river Rio Janeiro, two leagues from its mouth, in 23 degrees of south latitude.

The principal towns in the captainship of St. Vincent are St. Vincent, situated on a fine bay, in 24 degrees odd minutes of south latitude, near which have lately been discovered gold sands; St. Paul, a hundred

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hundred miles north-west of the former, and Santos, situated north of St. Vincent, on the same bay.

The province of Del Rey is situated another town named St. Salvador; and several forts have been erected on the north side of the river Plata, for the defence of the Portuguese frontiers against the Spaniards, who occupy the other side of the river.

The persons, habits, and customs of the Indians in Brazil, as well as the produce of the country, animal, vegetable, and mineral, resemble so much those of Peru and La Plata, lying under the same parallel, that they require no particular description. Brazil, however, abounds more in gold than any of the Spanish provinces; as well as in diamonds, emeralds, and other precious stones.

To mark their age the Brazilians lay by a chestnut for every year; and they compute the revolution of this period by the rise of a certain star, called Tokou, or the Rain Star, which appears in the month of May.

The inhabitants of the inland parts hardly know any thing of religion, or a Supreme Being; but they have an obscure tradition of the general deluge, and are acquainted with the doctrine of a future state. They believe that the souls do not die with the bodies, but are translated to pleasant regions, where they enjoy perpetual happiness. This state of felicity, however, is confined to those persons who have performed meritorious actions; all others they suppose to be tormented by devils, whom they distinguish by various names. They are much afraid of apparitions, in the existence of which they firmly believe; and there is a nation, called Petiguaras, accounted so skilful in sorcery, that they can bewitch their enemies even to death.

Brazil, so called from the wood of that name, with which it abounds, was discovered in 1493, by Americus Vesputius, then in the Spanish service. At this time, however, he sailed no farther than the 5th degree of south latitude; but being employed in the year 1500, by the king of Portugal, he then extended his discoveries to fifty-two degrees. In consequence of the accounts received of the richness of the country, several private Portuguese adventurers went over to Brazil with their families; but most of them being destroyed by the natives, no effectual settlement was made till the year 1549, when John III. king of Portugal, sent thither a fleet with a thousand soldiers on board, under the command of Thomas de Sosa. At the desire of pope Paul III. many jesuits also embarked on the expedition, with the view of converting the natives.

On the arrival of the fleet, the Portuguese finding the country divided into several petty kingdoms or states, and the inhabitants at war among themselves, they artfully fomented those intestine quarrels, and by assisting one nation against another, they at length established their own power on the conquest of the natives, whom they reduced to a state of slavery, and built the city of St. Salvador, in the Bay of All Saints. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were repulsed by the

Portuguese, who remained in Brazil almost without a rival till the year 1623. The latter being at this time under the dominion of the king of Spain, with whom the United Provinces were at war, the Dutch West-India company fitted out a strong fleet with a good body of land forces on board, with orders to sail for Brazil, where they attacked and took the city of St. Salvador with very little loss. But the king of Spain sending thither a strong armament in the year 1625, recovered the city, and drove the Dutch out of the country. The Hollanders, however, continued to send squadrons to the coast of Brazil every year, where they greatly harassed the Portuguese settlements, and took many prizes. In 1629, making a descent near Olinda, they made themselves masters of that city, with the fortrefs of the Recife, and being joined by some nations of the Indians, at length possessed themselves of the whole province of Pernambuco, where they erected many forts. The government of this new acquisition was conferred on Count Maurice of Nassau, who remained in that character from the year 1637 to 1644, during which time he deprived the Portuguese of three more of their northern provinces. But the Dutch West-India company not supplying him with such a number of forces as he judged necessary to maintain the conquests he had made, he returned to Holland in disgust, in the year 1644, from which period the Dutch affairs in Brazil gradually declined, till the subjects of that nation were entirely expelled the country in the year 1654.

The Dutch, however, persevering in their pretensions to Brazil, and committing continual depredations on the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, at a treaty of peace made between the king of Portugal and the States-General, by the mediation of England, in the year 1661, to pay the Dutch eighty tons of gold, in consideration of their relinquishing all interest in Brazil; since which time the Portuguese have remained in the peaceable possession of the country.

## TERRA FIRMA.

TERRA FIRMA is situate between fifty and eighty-two degrees of west longitude, and between the equator and twelve degrees of north latitude; bounded on the north and east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by Amazonia, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. Those parts which lie on the Atlantic, especially towards the north, are mountainous; but the western coast is flat low land, and overflowed great part of the year.

This extensive country is divided into ten provinces, viz. Popayan, New Grenada, Caribbiana, New Andaluzia, Comana, Venezuela, Rio de la Hacha, St. Martha, Carthagena, and Darien, or Terra Firma Proper.

The province of Popayan is bounded on the north by Terra Firma Proper, on the east by New Grenada, on the south by the audience of Quito in Peru, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean; extending in length from

from north to south four hundred miles, and in breadth three hundred. A chain of almost impassable mountains runs through the country from north to south; some of which are volcanoes, and in one the load-stone is found. Towards the shore of the south sea the land is low and flat; and as the rainy season continues near three quarters of the year, innumerable rivers fall from the mountains into the ocean, in the sand of which is found a great quantity of gold dust. This circumstance induces the Spaniards to reside in those parts, notwithstanding the great heat and moisture of the climate render it extremely unwholesome.

The chief town is Papsayan, situate in three degrees of north latitude, and seventy-six degrees of west longitude, in a fruitful plain at the foot of the mountains. It is a large town, a place of good trade, and the see of a bishop, suffragan of Santa Fe. The other towns are Agreda, or St. John de Pasfo, and Madrigal.

The province of New Grenada is bounded on the west by Popayan; on the north by St. Martha, Venezuela, and New Andaluzia; on the east by Caribbiana; and on the south by the country of the Amazons; being about six hundred miles in length from the north-east to the south-west, and five hundred in breadth. This large inland country, which is esteemed as fruitful as any part of Terra Firma, affords a variety of hills and fruitful valleys, watered with navigable rivers. The chief of those are the river Grande, or Magdalena, which rising in the south, runs directly cross the province, falling into the north sea, to the northward of Carthagena; and the river Oronoque, which rising in Popayan, runs directly east, and turning to the northward, after passing the bounds of the province, falls into the north sea, near the island of Trinidad.

The chief town is Santa Fe de Bogota, situate in seventy-four degrees west longitude, and in four degrees odd minutes of north latitude, on the lake Gugtavita, in a plentiful country abounding with corn and cattle. This is the most considerable town in Terra Firma; the seat of the governor, of the courts of justice, and also the see of an archbishop. The other towns are Tocama, Pampeluna, Velez, Trinidad, Palma, Tunia, and St. John de Lanos.

The province of Guiana or Caribbiana is bounded on the south by Amazonia; on the west by Grenada; and on the north and east by the Atlantic Ocean, along the shore of which it extends upwards of twelve hundred miles. This is the only province of Terra Firma not occupied by the Spaniards alone, the French and Dutch having also settlements in it; but the natives are yet in possession of the greater part of the country, and are not subject to any of the European powers, except upon the sea coast. The English had formerly some settlements here, which were yielded to the Dutch by the treaty of Breda, in the year 1667. The settlements of the French and Dutch are chiefly near the mouth of the rivers, where they have built several forts. The principal commodities which they export thence are, sugar, tobacco, cotton, flax, peltry, drugs, and dying woods; for

it does not appear that any gold or silver mines have yet been discovered, as was expected by the first adventurers.

The chief French settlement is that of Cayenne, situated on an island at the mouth of a river of the same name, in five degrees of north latitude. The island is about seven leagues long, and three broad, well wooded and watered with rivulets, and has several good French towns upon it, besides villages of Indians. It produces sugar, tobacco, Indian corn, with other grain and plants, the same as in the neighbouring continent, than which it is reputed more healthful, on account of its lying open to the sea-breezes. The property of this island was long disputed by the French and Dutch, but at last was yielded to the former.

The chief Dutch settlement is that of Surinam, which is the only considerable acquisition they have made in America; situated five leagues within the river of the same name, in six degrees odd minutes of north latitude. They occupy the country round this fortress for several hundred miles, and have numerous plantations, producing coffee, cotton, tobacco, and sugar. Part of this territory they took from the English, in the reign of Charles II. and it was afterwards confirmed to them, in consideration of their relinquishing all pretensions to New York, and some other places in North America, of which they had been divested by the former nation.

The province of New Andaluzia, in which may be comprehended Comana, and the district of Paria, is bounded on the east by the river Oronoque, which separates it from Caribbiana; on the south by Amazonia, on the west by the provinces of Grenada and Venezuela, and on the north by the ocean; extending in length from north to south upwards of five hundred miles, and in breadth between two and three hundred. The chief river that waters this country, is the Oronoque, which rises in the mountains of Andes in Peru, whence running directly east for almost two thousand miles, it turns to the north, and continuing that course above a thousand miles more, falls into the north sea by several channels, between eight and nine degrees of north latitude. The chief towns are, Comana, Varina, and St. Thomas. The latter was the place which Sir Walter Raleigh's people attacked, when he went in search of a gold mine, and for which he was afterwards beheaded.

The province of Venezuela is bounded on the east by New Andaluzia, on the south by Grenada, on the west by Rio de la Hacha, and on the north by the sea; extending four hundred miles in length from east to west, and in breadth about three hundred. The chief town is Venezuela, or Little Venice, so called from its situation in the waters. It stands in sixty-nine degrees of west longitude, and eleven of north latitude, upon a peninsula near a gulf to which it communicates its name. Besides being the residence of the governor and the courts of justice, it is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of St. Domingo, in Hispaniola. Other considerable towns in this province are, Caracas, Maracaibo, Gibraltar, St.

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The province of Rio de la Hacha is bounded on the East by Venezuela, on the south by Grenada, on the west by the province of St. Martha, and on the north by the sea. It is but a small province, and frequently comprehended under that of St. Martha. It abounds in corn and cattle, and has a pearl-fishery upon the coast, with some salt works. The chief towns are, Rio de la Hacha and Roncheria. The former is situated near the north sea, on a river of the same name, in eleven degrees odd minutes of north latitude. It has been so often plundered by enemies and buccaneers, that the Spaniards abandoned it for some time, but have again taken possession of it.

The province of St. Martha is bounded on the east by Rio de la Hacha, on the south by New Grenada, on the west by Cartagena, and on the north by the sea; being about three hundred miles in length from east to west, and near two hundred in breadth. This country is mountainous, and some parts of it so high as to be seen at the distance of almost two hundred miles at sea. Here commence the Andes, which run quite through South America to the Straights of Magellan. The capital of this province is St. Martha, situated on a bay of the sea, in seventy-four degrees of west longitude, and eleven degrees odd minutes of north latitude. Here is a bishop's see, with the seat of the governor and courts of justice. There is a large harbour, formed by the continent and two islands which lie before it. The other towns are, Ramada, Baranca, Ciudad de los Reys, and Tamalamaque.

The province of Cartagena is bounded on the east by St. Martha, on the south by Popayan and New Grenada, on the west by the gulf of Darien, and on the north by the sea. It is computed to be three hundred miles in length from north to south, and about two hundred in breadth. The capital is Cartagena, situated in a peninsula on a bay of the north sea, in seventy-six degrees fifty minutes of west longitude, and ten degrees thirty minutes of north latitude. This being one of the best harbours in Spanish America, great part of the treasures of Terra Firma is lodged here, to be exported to Europe by the galleons. Though the harbour be capacious, the entrance of it is so narrow, that not more than one ship can enter it at a time; and it is strongly defended by castles and platforms of guns. The other towns are Madre de Popa, Cenu, and Tolu.

Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, is bounded on the north by the sea; on the east by the gulf of Darien, which separates it from Cartagena; on the south by Popayan and the South Sea; and on the west by the same sea, and a part of Mexico. It is about three hundred miles in length, and sixty in breadth from sea to sea; lying in the form of a crescent on the bay of Panama, a part of the Pacific Ocean. As this province is one of the most important, and has been the scene of more action than any other in America, it deserves to be particularly described.

Along the Isthmus, which is beautifully diversified with hills and fertile valleys, a chain of mountains

runs soaring above the rest, of unequal breadth, but seldom more than twelve or fifteen leagues from the north sea, towards which it gradually declines, in an almost continued forest.

Though the rivers that water this tract are pretty large, yet few of them are navigable, their entrance being generally obstructed by shoals and sand-banks. The river or gulf of Darien, the eastern boundary of the province, rises in the south, and running directly north, upwards of a hundred miles, falls into the north sea, near Golden Island. It is six or seven leagues wide at the mouth, but its depth bears no proportion, there not being about six foot of water in a spring tide. Within the bar, however, it is deep enough for large ships, and navigable almost a hundred miles; but as vessels of burthen cannot get over the bar, very little traffic is carried on upon it.

The river of Conception rises about the middle of the great ridge of mountains, and running precipitately north-west, falls into the sea opposite to an island called La Sounds Key. This river, like the former, is broad at the mouth, but has also a bar, which prevents any ships of burthen from getting admittance. In the channel at the entrance, however, there is fine riding, between the Janbalas islands and the main land, which form a pretty good harbour.

The river Chagre rises near Panama, in the southern part of the isthmus, whence taking its course to the north-west, it winds through numerous valleys, and falls into the north sea ten leagues to the westward of Porto Bello. This river is the most navigated of any in the province, and upon it is embarked all the merchandize that is sent from Panama to Porto Bello for the galleons, except the gold and silver, which are carried directly over land upon the backs of mules.

The river of Santa Maria, or St. Mary's, rises from the mountains in the north-east part of the province, and running westward, falls into the gulf of St. Michael, on the south side of the bay of Panama. This is a large navigable river, and is joined by many rivulets, in the sands of which is found a great quantity of gold. To one of those, called the Golden River, the Spaniards come with their slaves from Panama, and other towns in the dry season, to gather this metal. The brooks being then not more than a foot deep, the slaves take up the sand in little wooden dishes, and collect so great a quantity of gold, that in some seasons, it is said they carry off no less than eighteen or twenty thousand pounds weight of the pure metal, form the Golden River alone.

The river Congo has its source in the mountains on the east part of the province, and running towards the south-west, almost parallel to the river Santa Maria, falls likewise into the gulf of St. Michael, to the northward of the preceding. It is a large river, navigable for great vessels within the bar, but so shallow at the mouth, as to be very difficult of entrance.

The river Cheapo rises in the mountains near the north sea, whence bending its course westward, and then turning to the south, it falls into the bay of

Panama,

Panama, seven leagues westward of that city. This is also a large river, but liable to the same inconvenience as the others, of having a bar at its mouth, which denies all access to large vessels.

This province being very narrow, and lying between two great oceans, viz. the north and south seas, is more exposed to wet weather than any other place within the torrid zone. The rainy season annually begins in April or May, and continues very violent during June, July, and August, accompanied with great heat, which, when the sun happens to shine out, is almost intolerable. In September the rains begin to abate, but it is sometimes January before they entirely cease. They are, however, neither totally uninterrupted, or nor uniformly violent, during the period in which they prevail. They generally commence with a sudden shower, like our April or thunder showers; then follow perhaps two or three in a day; afterwards one every hour; till at last they continue the whole day; accompanied with violent thunder and lightnings, and the air impregnated with a faint sulphureous smell. It may perhaps rain incessantly for a month or six weeks without any thunder or lightning, when sometimes there succeeds a week of fair weather, with now or then a tornado or thunder-shower, which refreshes the air; but the dropping of the trees at this time is as troublesome as the rain.

The floods and torrents caused by those rains frequently overturn trees, which dam up the rivers, and produce an inundation of all the neighbouring plains.

After every heavy shower, there is generally a disagreeable concert of the hissing of serpents, the croaking of toads, and the humming of gnats; the latter of which, though not so frequent here as in other warm countries, are however very troublesome in all the swampy grounds.

The most temperate season is about Christmas, when the fair weather approaching, the air is refreshed with a cooling breeze.

The soil of this country is good in the middle of the province, but the shores both of the north and south seas are generally either a dry barren sand, or drowned mangrove land, that will hardly produce any grain; add to which, that in those parts the air is very unhealthy, being excessive hot and wet for two thirds of the year. The neighbourhood of Panama, the capital city, is so exceeding poor, that the provisions of the inhabitants are imported from places at a distance. And if their communication with those were cut off for only a few months, the city would unavoidably be starved. This dependent state is not the consequence of the nature of the country alone, but is owing in great measure to the indolence or inattention of the inhabitants, who neither clear it of wood, nor bestow sufficient pains on its cultivation. The Indians, who are not very numerous, clear no more ground than is necessary to afford them a little corn, which, with the produce of their little gardens, and what they take in hunting and fishing, furnishes a poor subsistence for their

families; and with respect to the Spaniards, they have an aversion to the toils of agriculture, both in the old and new world.

Among the great variety of fruit and trees produced in this climate, one is the cotton-tree, which is not only the largest, but the most common tree upon the isthmus, and much used by the Indians for making their canoes. On the north coast are plenty of the most stately cedars, frequently applied to the same purpose.

The macaw-tree is a species of palm, growing in moist grounds, and rising straight up to the height of about ten foot, where it shoots out its branches to the length of twelve or fourteen foot. The stem is surrounded at certain distances with protuberant rings, which are thick set with long prickles. The leaf, which is of an oblong form, broad at one end, and almost as thick as a man's hand, is also covered with the same, and greatly jagged about the edges. The fruit grows in large clusters. Its shape resembles that of a pear, and the colour, when ripe, is either a yellow or bright red, the outside being stringy and slimy, and containing a stone in the middle. The fruit has a sharp taste, but is extremely palatable.

The bibby is a straight slender tree, hardly thicker than a man's thigh, and grows to the height of sixty or seventy foot. The branches sprout near the top, and round the root of each branch the berries grow in the form of a garland. The wood is close grained and black. The Indians top it when young, and procure from it a wheyish liquor of a sharp but pleasant taste. The berries are about the bigness of a nutmeg, of a pale colour, affording an oil, on being boiled, with which the Indians paint themselves.

The calabash is a shell-fruit, of a globular form, very hard, and containing from two to five quarts of liquor, which, though frequently used by the Indians on a march, is not very pleasant. Of those there are two kinds, the sweet and the bitter, the latter of which is medicinal. It is said to be a specific in tertians; and a decoction of it, administered by way of clyster, is accounted an admirable remedy in the dry gripes. The shells are used as drinking vessels, being almost as hard as the cocoa shell, but not quite so thick. The Darien calabash, when painted, is greatly valued by the Spaniards.

The mangrove-tree consists of several thin stems, shooting from different roots that rise a foot or more above the water, and uniting one with another form a body considerably thick. The mangrove is reddish, and used in tanning leather.

Cassava likewise thrives well here. It is a root resembling parsnip, and of which there are two kinds. The sweet sort they roast and eat; and of the other, often pressing out the juice, which is reckoned poisonous, they make bread in the manner of oat cakes.

The country likewise produces plenty of tobacco, but as the inhabitants are strangers to the method of cultivating the plant, it is not quite so strong as that of Virginia. Having stripped and cured the leaves, they lay several, one upon another, and afterwards roll them up sideways, leaving a hollow in the center;

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the length of the roll frequently extending to two or three feet. Their method of smoking is peculiar: a boy having lighted one end of a roll, blows the smoke with the breath of his mouth through the whole length of the roll into the faces of the company. They receive it, sitting on forms, in the hollow of their hands, inhaling it with great eagerness, and seeming to be in raptures at so agreeable a refreshment.

Among the animals, the pecary, which is frequent in other parts of South America, is also a native of Terra Firma. It resembles in shape the Virginian hog; is of a black colour, with short legs, and extremely swift; remarkable likewise for having its navel not on the belly, but on the back. The pecaries usually go in herds of one or two hundred together.

The warnea is another kind of hog, with little ears, large tusks, and strong bristles covering the whole body. It fights with every creature that comes in its way; but seems to have a peculiar enmity to the pecary. They are excellent food, and the Indians hunt and barbicue them, as well as the latter.

The woods are full of various sorts of middle-sized monkeys, which are reckoned good eating. Most of them are black, and have beards, but others are of a white colour, and without that appendage.

Though there be plenty of red deer in this country, the Indians never hunt them, but they pick up the horns that are found shed in the woods, and hang them by way of ornament in their houses.

Here are no hares, but a few rabbits, almost as large as hares, with little short ears, long claws, and no tails; neither are there any bullocks, sheep, cows, goats, asses, or horses. Cats also being unknown, the country is over-run with grey rats and mice. The spiders are large; but not poisonous, green and red speckled lizards are very frequent, and permitted by the Indians to run about their houses unmolested.

In the woods is found a large-bodied bird, called by the Indians chicaly-chicaly. Its plumage is beautifully variegated with the finest red, blue, and other lively colours. It feeds on fruits, flies from tree to tree, and rarely lights on the ground.

The corrofon is also a large bird, and lives among the fruit-trees. It is of a dark colour, and the cock has on his head a crown of yellow feathers, which he moves at pleasure; with gills like those of a turkey. The Indians either bury the bones of this bird, or throw them into the river lest they should be eat by the dogs, in which animal it is said they produce madness.

Here is also great variety of beautiful parrots, which are esteemed good food, as well as the two species of birds before mentioned.

The macaw bird is justly reckoned the most beautiful in the country. Its feathers are an assemblage of the most delightful colours that can be conceived. Its tail is bushy and contains two or three red or blue

feathers, much longer than the rest. It is shaped like a parrot, but is twice as large.

Here is also found the pelican, a large bird, short legged, with a great beak, and a long neck, which it carries upright like a swan. It is web-footed, and its feathers of a dark grey colour. Under the throat hangs a membrane, in which the bird carries its provision.

The bats on the isthmus are as large as pigeons, and have very long wings, the extremities of which are armed with claws.

Among the flies, the most remarkable is the shining fly, which is of the nature of the glow-worm.

Various kinds of fish are also found upon the coast, as well as in the rivers, and in general they are excellent food.

The Indians are most numerous towards the north side of the isthmus. The men are generally near six foot high, and the women short and plump. Both sexes are well made, of an orange tawny, or copper colour, and have good features, but their nose is short and snubbed. They pride themselves much in long hair, which is black, lank, and strong. On the men it hangs perfectly loose, but the women tie their's close to the head with a string, whence it flows down on their backs. They pluck all their hair from their eye-lids, eye-brows, and beards; and this operation is usually performed by the women.

There is a species of people scattered up and down the isthmus, perhaps not exceeding three hundred, who differ entirely from the common inhabitants. Their complexion is a milk white, and their bodies are covered with a short down of the same colour. The hair of their heads and eye-brows also is white, growing to the length of six or eight inches, and inclining to curl. Those people are less in stature than the other Indians. Their eye-brows likewise are differently formed, bending in the shape of a crescent. They cannot see in the sunshine, and therefore hardly ever go abroad in the day-time, except in dark cloudy weather. They are not a distinct race, but proceed from tawny parents; and as they are observed to be shorter-lived than the other Indians, it is probable that their discriminating marks are the effect of some peculiar deviation of their constitution from the standard of health.

The natives of Terra Firma hardly make use of any cloathing. The women have only a piece of cotton tied about their middle with a cord, and hanging down to their ancles; nor do the men conceal any part but their privities, which they cover either with a plantain leaf, or if they can afford it, a piece of gold and silver, formed like the extinguisher of a candle. This they tie very hard upon the penis, and fasten it to their waists with a string. They are in general a cleanly modest people, and even the men turn away from one another, when they are about to make water. For which purpose they slip off their funnel, replacing it nimbly when they have done. They have not, however, any sense of shame with

respect to shewing their hinder parts, and it is the universal practice to ease themselves in the river.

But though they generally use no other covering than what has been mentioned, there are some occasions on which they wear long fringed garments reaching down to their heels; such, for instance, as attending upon their chief, going to a wedding, or any other festival. Even at those times, however, they do not dress at home, but at the place of rendezvous, whither they are followed by women who carry their ornaments in a basket.

The men wear upon their nose a crescent of gold, silver, or other metal, which reaches over their lips, the extremities being fastened to the nostrils; and the women instead of plates wear rings run quite through the nostril, which is therefore often drawn down to the lip, especially in old women. Those ornaments are generally removed when they sit down to their meals, though they sometimes only raise them with their left hand. People of condition adorn their ears with large gold pendants, the weight of which often stretches the part to a great length. They also wear bracelets of teeth, shells, or beads, hanging from the neck down upon the breast. She is reckoned a poor woman who has not more than fifteen or twenty pound weight of those ornaments about her on any solemn occasion.

When the Indians go to war, they paint their faces red, and the rest of their body with black and yellow spots, or such colours as they like best; which they always wash off in the river every night before they go to sleep.

The houses in Terra Firma are composed of mud and timber, the foundations generally sinking two or three foot into the ground, and the roof, which is made to slope, and near twenty foot high in the middle, being covered with large palm and other leaves. They are for the most part erected near a river side, in a scattered manner, without any disposition of streets or rows, but within call of each other. Instead of chimnies, the smoke passes through a hole made in the roof for that purpose. There is no division of apartments, but every person is furnished with his own hammock, which hangs from the roof. Their seats are blocks of wood, and they have neither doors, shelves, nor tables. In the sides, or at the ends, are holes made at random, through which they annoy their enemies with shooting arrows.

They set maize round every house, by making a hole in the ground with their fingers, into which they throw grains, and cover them with earth. For the celebration of any festival they steep twenty or thirty bushels of this grain in a vessel of water, which in a short time begins to grow four. Then several women chew grains of maize in their mouth, spitting them afterwards into calabashes, with which they are furnished for the purpose, and lastly empty them, spittle and all, into the sour water, which has previously been decanted from the maize, and is put into fermentation by this mixture. When the process has been completed, they pour the liquor off the sediment, and preserve it for use.

The only task of the men is to clear the plantations by cutting down the trees, the women performing all other works, both within and without doors, besides attending in the character of servants, when their husbands go abroad. Notwithstanding this slavery, they go about every thing with such readiness, that their labour seems to be entirely the effect of choice; and it is common to observe the greatest harmony subsist between the men and their wives.

Almost immediately after a child is born, a woman carries the mother and infant upon her back, and washes them in the river. The child is afterwards kept for a month tied by the back upon a straight piece of maccaw wood, from which it is removed only for the purpose of being cleaned, the mother lifting up board and all when she puts it to the breast.

When a man is about to dispose of his daughter in marriage, he invites all his acquaintances for twenty miles round, and provides a great feast to entertain them. The men that attend his invitation bring their axes to work with, and each of the women about half a bushel of maize. The boys bring fruits and roots, and the girls eggs and fowls. They lay down their several burdens at the door, and retire till all the guests are arrived; the host in the mean time disposing of the gifts as he thinks proper. On their return, he presents each person with a calabash of strong liquor, sending them afterwards into an area behind the house. In this manner the male visitors are first received, the women next, and afterwards the boys and girls.

The fathers of the bride and bridegroom then appear to the company, each leading his respective child. The father of the latter, makes a speech, and having danced with that of the former till they are perfectly fatigued, he presents his son to the bride, who is held by her father kneeling. The young couple having joined hands, the bridegroom is returned to his parent, and the ceremony concludes. The men then run with their axes, hollowing and hooping, to an adjacent tract of land, which they clear from the wood, continuing perhaps at work for six or seven days. As they clear the ground, the women plant it with maize, or whatever else is in season. This being done, they join to build a house for the new married couple, who enter it on the eighth day, when a course of festivity begins, generally accompanied with hard drinking and rioting, that lasts for several days, after which the company disperses.

The men here are allowed a plurality of wives; and before a new married bride is presented to her husband, she spends the first seven nights with her father, or the next male relation. This custom is intended to shew that her friends are unwilling to part with her.

The men drink to one another at meals, reaching the cup to the person to whom they have last paid the compliment. The women who stand by to attend them, since the cup when it is empty, and fill it again; retiring, when the meal is concluded, to eat and drink by themselves.

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When the men are neither cutting wood nor hunting, their domestic occupations, if their natural indolence allows them to submit to any, are the making bows, arrows, lances, baskets, and cups. Sometimes they notch a hollow cane, with which, by blowing strongly, they produce a kind of whining noise without any melody.

At other times thirty or forty of them will dance together, forming a ring, and shaking all the joints of their body in an antic manner. Their merriments generally conclude with drinking; which is also the practice of the women, who dance in the same manner by themselves.

They have no idea of the divisions of the day into hours and minutes, but to express that any thing happened so many nights since, they lean their head on their hand, as if asleep, repeating the action so often as they would enumerate nights. They compute their æras by the moon, being entirely strangers to any other planetary revolution.

They reckon by units to ten, which in their language is called *anivege*. At this number they clap their hands together, and for every succeeding number, strike the fingers of the left hand one by one with the fore-finger of the right, expressing the quantity by repeating it thus, viz. ten and one, ten and two, &c. till they come to twenty, when they clap their hands together twice, repeating this ceremony with the addition of a clap at every score, till they count a hundred, which seems to be the *no plus ultra* of their best arithmeticians.

Stealing and adultery are here punished with death, except the woman swears that she was forced to be false. If otherwise, she is burned.

The manner of punishing him who deflowers a virgin, is by thrusting into the penis a briar, which is turned round ten or twelve times. This operation is usually followed by a gangrene of the part; but the convict is at liberty to cure himself if he can. All those facts must be proved by the witness swearing by his own oath.

The natives of Terra Firma have a great veneration for the Sun and Moon, though they never pay divine honours, nor apply in distress to those luminaries, but to inferior demons, from whom they imagine that all human calamities proceed.

The chief towns of Terra Firma, are Panama, Porto-Bello, Venta de Cruz, Cheapo, Nota, Conception, Santa Maria, and Schuchadero.

The city of Panama is situate in eighty-one degrees of west longitude, and in nine degrees of north latitude. It stands in the form of a crescent in the most capacious bay in the South Sea, and is built with brick and stone; surrounded by a stone wall, fortified with bastions and other works, and planted with great guns both towards the sea and land. The small vessels lie close to the walls, the water is so shallow near the town, that great ships cannot come up to it, on which account the port to the city is the island of Perica, distant about three miles. Panama is reckoned to contain six thousand houses, eight parish churches, besides the cathedral, thirty

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chapels with several monasteries and nunneries. It is the seat of the governor and courts of justice, and also the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Lima in Peru. But what renders this place most considerable, are the treasures of gold and silver, and the rich merchandize of Peru, which are lodged here in magazines till they are sent to Europe; as well as the merchandize sent over by the galleons from Old Spain, to be transported to Peru and Chili.

Porto-Bello is situate in a hundred and twenty degrees five minutes west longitude, and in ten degrees thirty minutes of north latitude; about seventy miles north of Panama, on the narrowest part of the isthmus. The harbour has a narrow entrance, but is large, secure, and commodious, defended by a fort on the left hand going in, and by a block-house opposite on the other. At the bottom of the harbour lies the town, bending also in the form of a crescent. In the middle, on the shore, is a third small fort; and at the west end of the town, upon an eminence, another strong fort, which is, however, commanded by a neighbouring hill. In all those forts there are usually about two or three hundred men in garrison. The town lies open towards the country, without walls or works. On an eminence, near the great fort at the west end of the town, stands the governor's house, and at the east end is a long stable for the king's mules. This quarter of the town is situated in low swampy ground; and the sea, at low water, leaving the shore within the harbour bare, a great way from the houses, the mud emits a very noisome vapour, which added to the heat of the climate, renders the place extremely unhealthful. Towards the south and east the country rises gradually in hills, which are partly woodlands, and partly savannah or pasture; but there are few fruit-trees, or plantations near the town.

The inhabitants consist chiefly of Indians, Mulattoes, and Negroes, no Spaniard of any condition choosing to reside in so unwholesome a place. But at the time of the fair it is so crowded with rich merchants, that above a hundred crowns are given for a poor lodging, and a thousand crowns for a shop, during the short time that the galleons stay here. The place is so subject to pestilential fevers that five hundred persons have been known to die of the distemper during the continuance of the fair only. This inconvenience of the climate was particularly experienced in 1727, by the British Squadron, of which not only the commanders, admirals Hoffer and Hopson, perished, but the ship's crew of almost every vessel, twice over.

Venta de Cruz is situate in eighty one-degree thirty minutes of west longitude, and nine degrees twenty minutes of north latitude, about thirty miles to the northward of Panama, on the banks of the Chagre, where the river begins to be navigable. Here the merchandize brought from Panama is embarked for Porto-Bello, in order to be sent to Europe.

The town of Cheapo is situated on the river of the same name, about twenty-five miles north-east of Panama, and twenty from the sea. It is but a small place, of no considerable trade.

Nota is a port-town on the west side of the bay of Panama, about seventy miles south-west of the city of Panama. The chief dependance of the inhabitants is on the latter, which they supply with cattle, hogs, and poultry.

Conception is a small town near the mouth of the river of the same name.

Santa Maria is situated six leagues from the sea, on the south bank of the river to which it gives name, in seven degrees forty minutes of north latitude. It is an unhealthy place, and considerable only on account of the gold which is found in the neighbourhood.

Schuchadero is a small town, situated on the north side of the same river, near its source. As it stands on a dry soil, on the gulf of St. Michael, and is thence refreshed by breezes, it is reputed a healthy place, but is otherwise not considerable.

The situation chosen by the Scots, when they attempted to make a settlement in Terra Firma, was one of the most advantageous in the country. It was on the continent, near the north-west point of the gulf of Darien, in nine degrees of north latitude. The harbour of the city which they intended to build was about a league in length from the north west to the south-east, half a mile broad at the entrance, upwards of a mile broad within, and large enough to contain five hundred sail of ships, untouched by any wind that could blow. The fort stood upon a peninsula, almost surrounded by the harbour and the north sea, and the access to the peninsula so defended by rocks and precipices, that a very little art would have rendered it impregnable. The water of the place was sweet, the air temperate and healthful, and there was so much land within the settlement as might have produced ten thousand hogheads of sugar yearly. The peninsula likewise abounded in venison and poultry, as did the seas with the best fish; and what rendered it still more important, it stood in the neighbourhood of the richest gold rivulets in America.

The parliament of Scotland passed an act in the year 1695, for erecting a company to trade to Africa and the Indies. By this act they were authorized to plant colonies and settlements in the East and West Indies under his majesty's letters patent, which they also obtained; and both the English and Hamburg merchants contributing very largely to the enterprize, several ships were equipped, which sailed for the isthmus of Darien in 1698, with forces on board, and every thing requisite to plant a colony. They landed first on Golden Island, at the mouth of the river Darien; but afterwards abandoning this situation, they went over to the continent, and built the fort of Edinburgh with the permission of the natives, calling the country, which they procured from the Indians, New Caledonia. The Indians who favoured this settlement possessed that tract of the isthmus which extends along the north sea, from the gulf of Darien to Port Scrivan, being about a hundred and forty miles; and from Caret Bay, in the south-west part of the gulf, to the head of the river Cheapo in the south, about a hundred and fifty miles: the

breadth in some places was sixty miles, and in others upwards of a hundred.

The Indian princes within those limits, who were eight at least, and all of them then at war with the Spaniards, received the new settlers with great joy, in hopes of obtaining their assistance against their ancient enemy, the Spaniards. For some time the advancement of the infant colony was suitable to the sanguine expectations that had been formed of its success; but the Spaniards remonstrating to the court of England on the subject, as an invasion of their property, and the English East-India company likewise complaining that it was an infringement of their charter, the English parliament thought fit to interpose, and address king William to recall his patent to the Scotch company.

The Scots immediately sent their agents to the court of London, to represent, that the settlement of this colony was no invasion of the rights of the Spanish crown, because the subjects of the latter had never been in possession of that part of the isthmus, or, if they were, had been driven from it by the natives, who were then proprietors of it, and at actual war with the Spaniards. Such, however, was the influence of the court of Spain, and the English East-India company, that every measure was taken by government to impede the success of the colony. The English ministry prevailed on the Hamburgers to draw their money out of the stock, and the parliament of England threatened the London merchants, who had any share in it, with their displeasure, if they did not immediately withdraw their assistance from the settlement. Orders, at the same time, being sent to Jamaica, and the English plantations in the West-Indies, prohibiting them from furnishing the Scots either with provisions or assistance, the latter were reduced to the necessity of abandoning the enterprize, which must otherwise have proved equally advantageous to the British dominions, and prejudicial to the interests of Spain.

Many small islands are scattered along the coast of Terra Firma, both in the north and south sea. In the former, at the entrance of the gulf of Darien, lie three islands almost in a triangle, which form a very commodious harbour. The first of them, towards the east, is Golden Island, a barren territory, but naturally adapted for defence, as being almost surrounded with steep rocks.

The island next to the preceding is marshy ground, and so beset with mangroves, that it is difficult getting on shore. It lies near a point of the isthmus, which is the same sort of ground for a mile or two. It is hardly parted from the main land but at high water, and even then ships cannot pass between them.

The third, called the Isle of Pines, is a small island north of the other two. It is covered with tall trees, fit for building, or any other use, and has in it a fine rivulet of fresh water.

Three leagues north-west of those lie the Samballes Islands, which are very numerous, and at different distances from the shore. They are generally low, flat, sandy islands, but have great variety of fruit and

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forest trees, and the shores afford good shell fish. They are however not inhabited.

Westward from the Samballes, are situated the islands of Bastimento, of which there are four or five, lying about a mile from the continent. They are mostly high land, covered with wood. Farther westward, opposite to Porto-Bello, are two small flat islands without wood or water, and they lie so near the continent, that there is but a very narrow channel between them.

The other islands on the coast of Darien lie in the bay of Panama, in the Pacific Ocean. This bay is of a semi-circular form, made by Point Garrichina on the south-east, and Punta Mala in the south-west; being about a hundred miles over, and three hundred in circumference, including the gulf of St. Michael. Almost in the middle of the Bay, lie the King's or Pearl Islands, which are numerous, low, and woody, stretching from the south-east to the north-west. Some of them are occupied by the citizens of Panama, who keep negroes here to plant and cultivate them. The fruits which they afford are chiefly plantains and bananas, and in a few there is rice. Many of them, however, especially the largest, are wholly uncultivated, though the soil appears to be fruitful. Those unplanted islands shelter the fugitive negroes, who lie concealed in the woods in the day-time, and in the night rob the Spanish plantations.

The pleasantest in the bay of Panama, is the island of Chepelo, situated seven leagues east of Panama, and a league from the continent. It is about seven miles in circumference, partly high land, and partly valleys, the latter of which are planted with the best Indian fruits. The three small islands of Perico lie before the city of Panama, about three miles from it, and are properly the port of the town, all great ships lying here, on account of the shallowness of the water between those islands and the continent.

We formerly cut logwood in the bay of Campeachy, on the northern side of the peninsula of Yucatan; but being expelled by the Spaniards, the logwood-cutters settled upon the gulph of Honduras, on the southern side of the same peninsula, where they were protected by a fort, now demolished, agreeable to an article of the late peace. Those logwood-cutters are mostly fugitives from all parts of North America, who amount to about five hundred, and go always well armed. The country they inhabit is extremely marshy, the air much infested with musquitoes, and the water full of alligators; yet a life of licentiousness and large gains has reconciled them to the unhealthiness of the climate.

In the dry season, when they cut logwood, they advance a considerable way into the country; and in the wet season, when the ground is overflowed, they convey the wood into the river, down which it is brought to the port where the ships lie that come to receive it. This trade is generally carried on by vessels from North-America, which purchase their goods in Jamaica. In some years it employs near six thousand tons of shipping, and consumes a large

quantity of British manufactures; the value of the returns being computed at not less than sixty thousand pounds a year.

OLD MEXICO.

**E**NTERING North America by the isthmus of Darien, we arrive in Old Mexico, otherwise denominated New Spain. This country is bounded on the north by New Mexico, on the north-east by the gulf of Mexico, on the south-east by Terra Firma, and on the south-west by the Pacific Ocean. It is situate between eighty-three and one hundred and sixteen degrees of west longitude, and between eight and twenty-eight degrees of north latitude; extending upwards of two thousand miles in length, and from sixty to six hundred in breadth.

This country is for the most part encumbered with mountains, a huge chain of which runs nearly the whole length of the coast from the south-east to the north-west. The inferior hills, however, are generally covered with wood, and between them are fine fruitful valleys, but hardly any of considerable extent. The lands near the coast, especially on the north-sea, lie under water great part of the year; and upon those morasses are thickets of bamboo-canes, mangroves, thorns, and briars, so closely interwoven, that it is almost impossible to penetrate them without cutting a way through with the hatchet.

The mountains on the west side of Mexico are most of them volcanoes, whence fire and smoke are perpetually issuing. They abound however with great variety of excellent timber, and hardly produce any underwood; but on the east coast, the forests are full of bushes and copse.

The air of Mexico is very hot and unhealthy in the eastern coast, but much more temperate and salubrious on the high land. Earthquakes, occasioned by the volcanoes, are not unfrequent, and sometimes whole towns are destroyed by them.

The seas of Mexico are the north-sea, and the Pacific Ocean. On the former are the gulfs of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; and in the latter are the bays of Nicoya, Acapulco, and Salinas.

The chief lakes are those of Mexico and Nicaragua; and the chief rivers are, the North River, Panuco, Alvaredo, Tobasco, Xagua, and Yara, all which fall into the gulf of Mexico and the north sea.

The year is divided into the wet and dry seasons, the former of which continues during the greater part of the time that the sun is on the north side of the equator.

Near the coast, in the Pacific Ocean, they have moonsoons, with sea and land breezes, as in the East Indies; and 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.

The animals and vegetable produce of this country are so much alike to those in South America, that they require no description.

Mexico

Mexico is divided into three audiences, namely, Galicia, Old Mexico Proper, and Guadalupe. The capital of the country is Mexico, situate in one hundred and two degrees thirty-five minutes of west longitude, and twenty degrees of north latitude. This city stands upon an island, in a lake, which lies in the middle of a valley, surrounded by mountains, at about ten miles distance. The town is of a square form, about two leagues in circumference, with a grand area in the middle of it, in which all the streets center. Some part of it stands upon a morass, and as many rivers discharge themselves into the lake from the adjacent mountains, it is subject to inundations, notwithstanding the vast expence that has been bestowed in making canals, dykes, and sluices, to carry off the water. This inconvenience of the situation is however compensated by two advantages. One is, the agreeable coolness occasioned by the breeze from the lake; and the other the natural strength of the city, which can be approached only by causeways, that have been made between it and the main land. This circumstance was regarded as so great a security by the ancient Mexicans, no less than the Spaniards, that they never inclosed it with walls.

When the Spaniards first came thither, the town was divided into two parts, the one inhabited by the court and persons of distinction, and the other by those of inferior rank. The former was much the largest, and contained many spacious streets. The houses were built of hewn stone, one story high, and had flat roofs, adorned with battlements. The ceilings were of cedar, cypress, or other odoriferous wood; and their hangings were either made of furs and beautiful feathers, or cotton, painted with various figures of birds, beasts, and plants. Their beds, however, were no better than mats, and their chairs only of wood.

The principal buildings were, the palace of Montezuma, the emperor, and the temples, of which it is to be regretted that more accurate and copious descriptions have not been preserved.

The palace was so large that it opened with thirty gates into as many different streets, the principal front forming one side of the square in the centre of the city. This magnificent edifice was built of polished jasper, black, red, and white; and over each gate, in a large shield, were the arms of Montezuma, which was a griffin, with wings extended, and holding a tiger in his talons. The structure consisted of several square courts, so vastly extensive, that it contained apartments for three thousand of the emperor's women, and a proportionable number of other domestics.

The palace assigned to Cortez and his army contained accommodation for five hundred Spaniards, and for several thousand Tlascalans, his Indian allies; the whole being surrounded by a thick stone wall, and flanked with stately towers, at convenient distances.

Montezuma had also several pleasure-houses in and about the city. In one of those were galleries supported by pillars of jasper, in which were every spe-

cies of land-fowls and birds that Mexico produced. Sea-fowls were preserved and fed in reservoirs of salt-water; and those that were bred in lakes and rivers, in others of fresh water. So numerous was the royal collection of fowls, that it is said to have been the business of three hundred men to attend them.

In another square of the palace were kept all kinds of beasts, in their respective dens and cages; nor were there wanting apartments for dwarfs and monsters, of the human species, with fools and idiots, who were constantly retained for the sport and service of the court.

All the palaces had spacious and elegant gardens, laid out in fine shady walks, and parterres of beautiful flowers, with magnificent summer-houses, bagnios, arbours, and fountains, which equalled or exceeded any thing of the kind in Europe at that time.

One building in particular, in the most sequestered part of the gardens, drew more the attention of the Spaniards than any thing they had seen. This mansion was called the House of Sorrow, and thither the emperor used to retire, on the death of his near relations, or any calamity, public or private, that affected him. Its structure was peculiarly calculated to excite melancholy thoughts in all who entered the walls. Every apartment was covered with black, and no more light admitted than was sufficient to discover the dismal obscurity.

The most remarkable of the Mexican temples was dedicated to Vit-Liputzli, the god of war. This stood in a spacious square, surrounded by a wall of hewn stone, which was wrought on the outside with various knots of twisted serpents. At a little distance from the principal gate was a place of worship, built of stone, and ascended on the outside by thirty steps. The roof was flat, and the front of the edifice half covered with the skulls of men who had been sacrificed to the deity.

On either side of the square was a magnificent gate, with four statues over each, supposed to represent some subordinate deities, which seemed to be objects of veneration to all that entered the gates. Under the wall, on the inside, were ranged the apartments of the priests, and their household; yet so extensive was the area, that room was left for eight or ten thousand persons to dance on solemn festivals.

In the middle of the square stood an edifice of a pyramidal form, three sides of which were smooth, and on the fourth were a hundred and twenty stone steps, by which they ascended to the top, where was a flat of forty feet square, laid with jasper of various colours. The balustrades which surrounded the roof, were of a serpentine form, covered with a stone as black as jet, and joined with a red and white cement, which was very ornamental. Within the balustrades, on each side, was a marble statue, supporting a vast candlestick, and between them a green stone, five spans high from the roof, and terminating in a point. On this stone were thrown on their backs the human victims sacrificed by the priests, who, after ripping them open with knives made of flint, tore out their hearts and offered them to their



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of Campechy. Thither the flotilla arrives annually from Spain, to receive the treasures of Mexico, which are brought to this port for exportation. A great fair is held here at that season, but the air being unwholesome the town contains few inhabitants at other times, except Mulattoes and Blacks. It is about two miles in circumference, and surrounded on the land side by a wall of no great strength. The ordinary garrison kept here by the Spaniards consists only of a troop of sixty horse, and two regiments of foot.

In their persons the Indians of Mexico resemble those of Terra Firma. In some places the men wear their hair short, and the women long; but in others it is just the reverse. Particular tribes take much pains to render their countenances deformed, for which purpose they not only press the noses of their new-born infants, but squeeze their heads between two boards, to render them flat and oblong; while others mould their tender skulls into the shape of a sugar-loaf.

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the new Mexico, the issue of such issue; the Terecroons des Indes, the children of the latter intermarried with pure Spaniards; and the Quarterones des Indes, whose posterity enjoys the same privileges as pure Spaniards.

Besides all those, the Blacks are also very numerous, who have been imported hither from Africa, and by some means or other obtained their freedom. The issue of a Spaniard (or other European) by a female negro, is called a Mulattoe. The descendants of this issue, though again intermarried with Spaniards, can never enjoy the privileges of that nation, unless they conceal their descent, which they frequently do by removing from the place of their nativity. There is also a mixed breed of Negroes and Indians, whose descendants are excluded from the privileges of Spaniards, till their ancestors are forgotten; and some commonwealths of Blacks, in several parts of Mexico, that acknowledge no subjection to the Spaniards. Those consist of the Negroes and their descendants, who have run away from their masters into the woods and mountains. These are become so formidable that the Spaniards are obliged to enter into treaties with them, in order to avoid their depredations.

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however, were no better than mats, and their chairs only of wood.

The principal buildings were, the palace of Montezuma, the emperor, and the temples, of which it is to be regretted that more accurate and copious descriptions have not been preserved.

The palace was so large that it opened with thirty gates into as many different streets, the principal front forming one side of the square in the centre of the city. This magnificent edifice was built of polished jasper, black, red, and white; and over each gate, in a large shield, were the arms of Montezuma, which was a griffin, with wings extended, and holding a tiger in his talons. The structure consisted of several square courts, so vastly extensive, that it contained apartments for three thousand of the emperor's women, and a proportionable number of other domestics.

The palace assigned to Cortez and his army contained accommodation for five hundred Spaniards, and for several thousand Tlascalans, his Indian allies; the whole being surrounded by a thick stone wall, and flanked with stately towers, at convenient distances.

Montezuma had also several pleasure-houses in and about the city. In one of those were galleries supported by pillars of jasper, in which were every spe-

covered with the skulls of men who had been sacrificed to the deity.

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idol; which was placed on an altar in an adjoining chapel of exquisite materials and architecture. This image was of human form, and set on a throne sustained by an azure globe, which they called Heaven. On the head was a helmet adorned with plumes of various colours. Its countenance was severe and terrible, and much deformed by two blue bands which bound the forehead and the nose. In the right hand it held a twining serpent, and in the left four arrows, which were revered as the gift of heaven: it also bore a shield, adorned with fine white plumes in the form of a cross. Opposite to this chapel was a similar building, in which was the image of Tlalock, another of their gods, resembling the former in every respect. Those two deities were esteemed intimate friends, and possessed of the same attributes. The walls and altars of the chapels were immensely rich, covered with precious stones, set on feathers of various colours.

There were in Mexico eight temples of the like architecture, and equally rich, besides two thousand less conspicuous, dedicated to as many gods, every street having its tutelary deity. Every distress or calamity had also its particular altar, to which votaries had occasional recourse in their several complaints.

In several of the streets were canals with bridges over them, and many thousand boats piled upon the water, for the service or pleasure of the inhabitants. Two vast aqueducts were also made by the emperor Montezuma, which supplied the city with fresh water from a mountain at three miles distance.

The other chief towns of this province are, Acapulco, situate in one hundred and two degrees twenty-nine minutes of west longitude, and seventeen degrees two minutes of north latitude; and Vera Cruz, lying in one hundred degrees of west longitude, and nineteen degrees ten minutes of north latitude, in the bay of Campeachy. Thither the flotilla arrives annually from Spain, to receive the treasures of Mexico, which are brought to this port for exportation. A great fair is held here at that season, but the air being unwholesome the town contains few inhabitants at other times, except Mulattoes and Blacks. It is about two miles in circumference, and surrounded on the land side by a wall of no great strength. The ordinary garrison kept here by the Spaniards consists only of a troop of sixty horse, and two regiments of foot.

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fine painted cotton-linen, which trailed upon the ground, and was almost covered with jewels and precious stones. That he wore a crown of gold in the form of a mitre, had shoes of hammered gold, and a kind of Roman buskin about his legs. That the high priest wore on his head a crown of beautiful feathers of various colours; his ears adorned with emeralds, set in golden pendants; and that he had on a vest, over which was a fine scarlet robe.

The genius of the people seems to have greatly declined since the subversion of their empire, before which period they made considerable progress in several of the elegant arts. If we except the horrid practice of offering human sacrifices, into which their superstition had led them, they appear to have surpassed, in point of humanity, those of their descendants who are rendered subject to the Spanish power. It is remarked, that the Indians who yet retain their liberty, discover much better dispositions, and are tainted with fewer vices, than those who live in habitual intercourse with the Europeans. Immoderate drinking, however, is the common vice of both. The spirit they use is distilled from the plant called magoy, of a very intoxicating quality, the excise of which, we are informed, amounted to one million one hundred thousand pieces of eight per annum in the city of Mexico. On account of the many outrages committed by the Indians when intoxicated with this liquor, it was prohibited for some time by the Spanish government; but this restraint was afterwards taken off.

The inhabitants of Mexico are distinguished into several classes, viz. the native Indians; the Spaniards and other Europeans; the descendants of the Spaniards unmixed, who are called Creols; the Mestices, or Mestizos, the issue of a Spaniard and an American; the fine Mestices, the issue of such issue; the Terceroons des Indes, the children of the latter intermarried with pure Spaniards; and the Quarteroon des Indes, whose posterity enjoys the same privilege as pure Spaniards.

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The great quantity of the precious metals in this country, was the inducement of the Spaniards to fix in Mexico, as well as in Peru and Chili. By much the greater part of the gold is found in the sands of their rivulets, in the separating of which many thousand Indians are annually employed. Some veins of gold are found in hard stone, particularly the lapis lazuli.

With respect to the silver mines, they are chiefly discovered in barren rocks and mountains, though sometimes they are found in the plain fields.

All the silver dug in the mines of Mexico, is brought to the Spanish exchequer in the capital city, and there entered, except what is run and concealed, which amounts to a great deal. It is affirmed, that in most years, two millions of marks, of eight ounces each, are entered; out of which they coin annually, in that mint, seven hundred thousand marks into pieces of eight.

Any person who discovers a mine of silver in Mexico, is at liberty to work it, paying the tenth of the produce to the king of Spain, whose officers assign the discoverer sixty yards round the place where he chooses to dig. Beyond this boundary another may open a mine, leaving five yards between them as a partition: and as they sink into the ground, one may work into another's division, till he meets with his workmen, but no farther.

The revenues which the king of Spain receives from Mexico are very considerable, and arise chiefly from three sources, viz. the royal share of the treasure dug out of the mines, the duties of excise and custom, and the rents and services by which the proprietors hold their estates. The king has only a tenth of the silver in Mexico, though he has a fifth of that in Peru; because in the former, the charge of purchasing quicksilver to refine the metal, is very great, whereas the Peruvians have mines of quicksilver in their country. In both those provinces, however, the crown receive: a fifth of all gold.

The annual amount of the customs and excise must be very great. The duty paid by the Manilla ship, from the East Indies, is computed to be little short of a hundred thousand pieces of eight; and the ships which arrive from Peru and Europe annually, also pay very great duties to the crown. The excise on magoy, already mentioned, is esteemed at one million one hundred thousand pieces of eight in the city of Mexico.

The third branch of the revenue, viz. the rents and services due to the crown, is reckoned to be equal, if not superior, to either of the former contingents. The poorest married Indian pays four, six, and in some places eight rials (four shillings) a year to the crown; and others in proportion to their estates. Besides which there are lands held immediately of the crown that pay very great rents.

The traffic of Mexico is admitted to be among the richest and most extensive in the world. They trade with the Philippine Islands near the coast of China, through the Pacific Ocean; with Peru and Chili, through the same sea; and with Old Spain and the Spanish Islands, through the North Sea and Atlantic

Ocean; all which trades are held lawful. There is also a very considerable clandestine trade maintained by the Mexicans and Indians on one side, and the English, French, and Dutch, on the other.

The cargo of the Manilla ship alone is of immense value. It consists of diamonds, sapphires, rubies, and other precious stones, found in the East-Indies; of cinnamon, cloves, mace, nutmegs, and pepper; of the rich carpets of Persia; the camphire of Borneo; the benjamin and ivory of Peru and Cambodia; the silks, muslins, and calicoes of India; with the gold-dust, tea, china-ware, silk, cabinets, &c. of China and Japan. The town in Mexico to which this vessel sails, is Acapulco; and it is computed that the Spanish merchants make of profit a hundred and fifty, or two hundred per cent. by the voyage.

The city of Acapulco, though the chief mart of the South Sea, is an exceeding mean village, the houses consisting of nothing but wood, mud, and straw. It is seated at the foot of high mountains, which cover it on the East side. The unwholesome temperature of the air, and the barrenness of its environs, oblige the inhabitants to procure their provisions from a distance, which renders living very dear. The place, besides, is so dirty and inconvenient that it is inhabited only by Blacks and Mulattoes.

Very little maritime traffic prevails on the coast of Mexico; all goods being carried by mules and pack-horses from Acapulco to the city of Mexico, whence they are transported in the same manner to Vera Cruz, on the North Sea, in order to be shipped for Europe.

The trade between Old Spain and the Spanish dominions in America is carried on by thirty or forty large vessels, called galleons, which are of good force. They sail in fleets annually from Cadiz, laden with the merchandize of almost every country in Europe; the property of which belongs to almost as many different nations, but chiefly to the English, Dutch, Italians, and French. In this commerce the Spaniards may be considered only as factors; for when the galleons return from America with the treasure for which those effects have been sold, the greater part of it is distributed among the merchants of the four nations last mentioned, which is said to be done with great fidelity.

A clandestine trade is frequently carried on between Mexico and the settlements of other European powers in America, particularly the English, French, and Dutch, extremely advantageous to the latter, who are always paid for their merchandize in pieces of eight.

The cutting of logwood in the Bays of Campeachy and Honduras, both situated in the south of the gulf of Mexico, has proved the cause of frequent disputes between Britain and Spain, which have been determined by the latter acknowledging the right of British subjects to such a privilege in the Bay of Honduras, if not in the other. Those two bays are formed by the North Sea, in the south side of the gulf of Mexico, and are separated from each other by the province of Iucatan, or Yucatan, a promontory of Mexico, situated between eighty nine and ninety-four degrees of west longitude, and between sixteen and

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and twenty-one degrees of north latitude. It is generally a flat level country, except towards the lithmus; and the land near the coast being usually flooded, as well as the air excessive hot, it is thinly inhabited. The chief town in the Bay of Campeachy is a place of the same name, lying in ninety-three degrees seven minutes of west longitude, and in nineteen degrees twenty minutes of north latitude. It is defended by a wall and forts, but has been repeatedly taken. The chief town in the Bay of Honduras is Valadolid. In this bay the Spaniards have neither any towns nor forts; and the Mosquito Indians, who live in the eastern part of this province, are not only independent of the Spaniards, but have entered into treaties, and maintained for several years an amicable correspondence with the subjects of Great Britain.

Mexico, like Peru and Chili, is governed by a viceroy, appointed by the king of Spain; but notwithstanding the great importance of the province, so inconceivable is the body of regular forces kept for its defence, that in the metropolis there are hardly five hundred soldiers; and at Vera Cruz, the port of the greatest consequence on the North Sea, they have not half that number; to which may be added, that their fortifications are as contemptible as their garrisons; so that the Spaniards maintain the possession of this vast empire with as much facility as they acquired it.

The conqueror of Mexico was Hernan Cortez, who sailed thither in the year 1519, with six hundred Spanish troops and a few pieces of cannon on board, the country having been already discovered, and called by the name of New Spain. In this expedition, a Spaniard, who had been for some time prisoner in Mexico, served him for an interpreter; and he also derived considerable service from an Indian lady, whom he caused to be baptized by the name of Marina. After a variety of adventures, he penetrated as far as Tlafcala, then a republic, where he first experienced any material opposition. But proving successful in his encounters with the Indians, they formed an alliance together, and the latter assisted him in subduing Mexico, of the grandeur of which they were jealous.

After some time spent in negotiation with the emperor Montezuma, Cortez at length advanced towards his capital, which he not only entered without any resistance, but was even received by the emperor with an affected complaisance, and both he and his men were lodged in the city. A succeeding event however discovered the real disposition of the Mexican monarch towards the Spanish adventurers. Some dispute arising between those and the Indians, several of the former were slain on the road to Mexico, and the head of one of them sent to Montezuma, whose approbation betrayed the authority by which the act had been perpetrated. As soon as this transaction was known to Cortez, he obliged Montezuma to surrender the aggressor, making him at the same time a prisoner in his own palace, and constraining him to acknowledge that he held his empire of Charles V. The unfortunate emperor did not long survive this humiliating incident, being killed by a stone, thrown by one of his own

subjects, while he was endeavouring to appease an insurrection which had broke forth among them.

On the death of Montezuma, the people elected Guatimozin their emperor, a prince of a warlike disposition, and who made great efforts for delivering his country from the power of the invaders. After several obstinate engagements, the Spaniards were forced to quit the city, and retreat towards Tlafcala, where rallying their troops, they not only routed the Mexicans in a battle at land, but were also victorious in an action upon the lake, in which nine Spanish boats, with three hundred soldiers on board, defeated five thousand vessels of the natives, containing ten thousand men. Those repeated successes confirmed to the Spaniards the sovereignty of Mexico, and their triumph became complete by taking Guatimozin, as he was endeavouring, by the way of the lake, to make his escape from the city. Their treatment of this unfortunate prince, however, was distinguished by an act of barbarity, among the most atrocious upon record. Being accused of concealing his own gold from the invaders, he was inhumanly burnt alive, by order of the king of Spain's treasurer.

#### NEW MEXICO, CALIFORNIA, AND LOUISIANA.

NEW Mexico, including California, is situated between one hundred and four and one hundred and thirty-six degrees of west longitude, and between the tropic of Cancer and forty-six degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by unknown lands, on the east by Louisiana, on the south by Old Mexico, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. The country is said to be temperate and fruitful, and abounds in rich silver mines, the most considerable of which are those of St. Barba. The chief city of New Mexico is Santa Fe, situated seven hundred and fifty miles north of the city of Old Mexico, and seven hundred miles west of the river Mississippi.

Sir Francis Drake, in the year 1578, on his voyage round the world, took possession of California in the name of queen Elizabeth, and gave it the name of Nova Albion; but the English never availing themselves of this transaction, the country has hitherto been considered as part of the Spanish dominions. Though it was the height of summer when the admiral arrived on this coast, the weather was extremely cold. The houses of the inhabitants were built near the water side; the fire was made in the middle, and the people lay round it on rushes. The women wore about their waist a covering of bull-ruffs, manufactured in the manner of hemp, and they had commonly a deer skin slung over their shoulders; but the men were quite naked.

They sent the admiral a present of some feathers and net-work cauls; after which a larger body waited on him with another present, consisting of several curious feathers and some bags of tobacco. Then one of them having, from the top of a little hill, at the bottom of which the admiral had pitched some

tents,

tents, made a long harangue, which seemed to be addressed to the commander, he descended, accompanied by a numerous assembly, who, after laying down their arms, paid obedience to the admiral. The women however remained above; and by several strange ceremonies, such as tearing their hair, and howling hideously, it was inferred that they were at sacrifice, which proved to be the case.

In the mean time the admiral ordered divine service to be celebrated, with the solemnity of which the natives seemed to be much affected.

A few days after, two persons, in the character of ambassadors, waited upon the admiral, one of whom made a speech for near half an hour; from which it was understood that the king intended to pay him a visit, provided his majesty might, by some particular sign, be assured of a peaceful reception. This being promised, the king soon made his appearance with a large train, which supported a rude, yet respectable dignity, the common people shouting round him the whole way. The king, who was a well made man, of a noble aspect and majestic deportment, was preceded by a person of comely appearance, bearing in his hand a sceptre, to which were appended two crowns, made of net-work, curiously wrought with feathers, and three chains of a bony substance, which were esteemed by the natives marks of honour. He was surrounded by a guard of tall well looking men, adorned on this occasion with rabbit skins. Then followed the common people, in a promiscuous crowd, some with their faces painted black, some white, or other colours, every person, even the children, bearing something by way of present.

The admiral drew up all his men in military order, to receive them, and stood within the fences of his tent, at some distance from which the procession halted, and observed a profound silence. Then the sceptre-bearer, having made a speech of about half an hour's length, struck up a dance, and at the same time began a sort of song, in both which he was followed by the king and the whole assembly. The king then made several speeches to the admiral, who perceiving that they harboured no hostile intentions, allowed them to enter the bulwarks which he erected for defence.

At this interview the king surrendered to Drake his dominions, with the unanimous consent of his people, putting his own crown upon his head, and investing him with other ensigns of royalty.

The respect which the people shewed for the admiral's men, proceeded so far that they even offered them sacrifices, especially to the youngest; nor was it without difficulty that they were restrained from this profanation.

Louisiana, or New France is bounded on the west by New Mexico; on the north by the river and lakes of Illinois; on the east by Florida, Georgia, the two Carolinas, and Virginia; and on the south by the gulf of Mexico. This vast tract is intersected by the Mississippi, a large navigable river, rising in Canada, and running southward into the gulf of Mexico.

The country received its name from the French, who claimed the property of it for several years; but by the peace of 1763, they ceded to Great Britain all that part of it which lies east of the Mississippi; and in the year following, relinquished to Spain the territories on the west of that river. It is said to be a fruitful province, but mostly uncultivated, and thin of inhabitants.

To conclude our account of the Spanish provinces in America: the essential maxim which runs through the whole political oeconomy of the court of Spain, in respect of those territories, is the keeping them in absolute dependence. The natural-born Spaniards are solely vested with command throughout all the Spanish Indies, and they alone enjoy all posts of honour, emolument, or trust. This plan of administration, however greatly weakens their European dominions, by the frequent draughts of subjects sent thither for the purpose of government, at the same time that it occasions an irreconcilable antipathy between the European Spaniards and the Creoles, or those born of Spanish parents, in the West Indies. The former not only discourage agriculture and manufactures, as much as lies in their power, but endeavour to encrease idleness, and even luxury among the natives, with the view of rendering them yet more dependent on Spain. If we add to those considerations the extreme rapacity and oppression exercised by the Spanish governors, the American provinces under their jurisdiction afford an example of the most wretched slavery, and jarring interests, that ever subsisted within so extensive an empire.

#### WEST FLORIDA.

QUITTING the Spanish dominions in North America, we arrive in those of Great Britain, the first of which, in our route, is the country of Florida. This name was originally given by the Spaniards to all that part of the continent, which lies north of the gulph of Mexico, but it is now restricted to the territory on the coast of that sea, so far north as Georgia, and between the river Mississippi and the Atlantic Ocean. It is divided into two provinces, viz. West and East Florida, which are separated from each other by the river Apalachicola.

The face of this country is for the most part level, but extremely well watered. About twelve miles from the mouth of the river Mississippi, a branch of it runs eastward, which, after a course of a hundred and sixty miles, falls into the north-west end of the bay of Spirito Sancto. At first it is very narrow and of little depth; but afterwards, by the accession of other streams, becomes navigable to the largest boats and sloops, and forms several pleasant lakes, particularly that of Pontchartrain.

Eastward of the Mississippi, this province is watered by the Coza, otherwise called Mobile, a large river, rising in the Apalachian mountains, or that great chain of hills, which extends from north to south, on the back of our settlements in North America. The country

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country lying on the sides of the river is reckoned the most pleasant and fruitful of the province, and is also very populous. Here prunes grow naturally in the fields, better than can be produced in Spain by culture; and though there are some vines that creep on the ground, there are others, in almost all the places near the bank of any rivulet, which mount to the tops of the trees.

The principal harbour on the coast of West Florida, is Pensacola, situate in eighty-seven degrees twenty-four minutes of west longitude, and in thirty degrees thirty-five minutes north latitude. It is a large port, well sheltered from all winds, having four fathoms of water at the entrance, and deepening gradually to seven or eight. On the west side of the harbour stands the town of Pensacola, the capital of the province. A fine river, which comes about a hundred miles out of the country, enters the bay of Mexico on the east side of this harbour. The soil here is a barren sand, but produces many pine-trees, fit for ship masts.

Thirty leagues east of Pensacola lies Apalachee, another good harbour.

Along the coast of this province there are vast beds of oysters, that produce pearls. Ambergris also is often found; and, especially after high winds, a sort of stone pitch, which the Spaniards often mix with grease, and use for careening their vessels. They consider it as preferable to pitch for this purpose, in hot climates, on account of its not being apt to melt with the heat of the sun. On both sides of the Mississippi there are many springs and lakes, which produce excellent salt. The country abounds in rich mines of copper, iron, lead, pit-coal, and quick-silver; and in many parts, there are great quantities of orpiment and sandarach.

The land in the interior parts of this province is reckoned very fertile, and its situation for trade extremely good, especially towards the Mississippi. The number of inhabitants are computed at about eight thousand, and they continue to increase fast since the peace. They carry on a great trade with the Indians, and export large quantities of deer skins and furs. From the climate, and the variety of tropical as well as northern productions, that are natives of this country, there is reason to expect that cotton, rice, and indigo, not to mention sugar, might thrive here exceeding well.

#### E A S T F L O R I D A .

**E**AST FLORIDA is bounded on the north by St. Mary's river, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the south and west by the Gulph of Mexico. It stretches from north to south in the form of a peninsula, about three hundred and fifty miles in length; being near two hundred and forty miles broad at the northern extremity, and at the southern, or Cape Florida, between thirty and forty miles.

For several miles towards the coast, the country is low and flat, intersected by a great number of rivers;

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but in the more interior parts it becomes a little hilly; and in some places rocky. The soil in general is a light sand.

This country differs materially from the other parts of America in one circumstance, which is that almost all the uncultivated tracts of the continent are covered with a thick forest; but here the trees are at a distance from one another, and the ground is clear of under-wood.

The temperature of the air in East Florida is the most equable of any in the British dominions. Though lying between the twenty-fifth and thirty-first degrees of north latitude, yet the peninsula not being broad, the climate is more cool, and oftener refreshed with rains, than on the continent; besides that the heat is mitigated in the day-time by a sea breeze, and at night by a land-wind, the winters are so mild, that the tenderest plants of the West Indies, such as the pine-apple, the banana, the alligator pear-tree, the plantain, &c. are hardly ever hurt by any inclemency of the season. Fogs and dark gloomy weather are here unknown. At the equinoxes, especially the autumnal, the rains fall very heavy every day, from eleven o'clock in the morning till four in the afternoon, for some weeks successively; but at the cessation of those periodical rains, the sky always clears up, and the sun shines out again.

This country is reckoned so wholesome on account of the mildness of the seasons, and the purity of the air, that many Spaniards resort thither every year from the Havannah and other places, for the benefit of their health; considering the climate in the same light as the northern nations of Europe regard the south of France.

The productions of the northern and southern latitudes flourish here together, and in no part of the British dominions is there found so great a variety of trees, plants, and shrubs. Among many others, are the white and red pine, the spruce fir, the evergreen oak, the chestnut oak, the mahogany, red bay, walnut, hickory, black cherry, maple, oak, locust, and logwood-trees; the red and white mulberry tree, of which the forests are full, and which grow to a larger size than in any other part of America. Here are also the fustic and brazil-wood, saffras and balsam of Tolu trees, the magnolia, tulip-laurel, and tuffelaw trees, so much admired for their beauty.

All the fruit-trees, except an indifferent sort of plum, and a small black cherry, have been imported from Europe, and thrive exceeding well. The orange here is larger and better flavoured than in Spain or Portugal, and is so well adapted to the climate, that it grows with great luxuriance. Lemons, limes, citron, pomegranates, figs, apricots, peaches, &c. grow also in great perfection.

The myrtle-wax shrub is found in all sorts of soils, in such plenty, that were there hands enough to gather the berries, they could supply all England with wax. The process of obtaining this commodity is very simple. They bruise the berries, and afterwards boil them in water, skimming off the wax, which is naturally of a bright green colour. It may, how-

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ever, be bleached like bees-wax, and, on account of its hardness, is well adapted for candles in hot countries.

The sea shrub, sarsaparilla, china root, wild indigo, water and musk melons, are also indigenous plants of this country.

The domestic animals are in general the same here as in Europe, and there is plenty of all kinds of game that is common to the climate. Here is also a great variety of birds, numbers of which migrate hither in winter, to avoid the cold of the northern latitudes. The woods abound with wild turkeys, better-tasted as well as larger than those in England; nor are the rivers less plentifully stored with their peculiar produce.

Notwithstanding the destitute state in which this country has remained for several years, since the native Indians were exterminated by the Creeks, it is molested by few insects or reptiles of a noxious quality. For the Creek Indians, who are dispersed over the province, are constantly setting the grass on fire, for the convenience of hunting; by which means not only the insects, but also their eggs, are destroyed. There is here, however, an insect unknown in other parts of America. This is a large yellow spider. The hind parts of its body is bigger than a pigeon's egg, and the rest in proportion. Its web resembles a yellow silk, and is so strong as to catch small birds, upon which the insect feeds. The bite of this spider is attended with the swelling of the part, and great pain, but never productive of any more dangerous consequence. Here is likewise a great variety of harmless lizards, some of which are very beautiful, and change their colours like the camelion.

The number of inhabitants being at present but small, no great degree of improvement can as yet be expected to take place; but some good settlements are begun; and it is probable, that in a few years longer the exports of this province will be considerable.

In both the Floridas the lands are not sold as in the ceded islands, but given upon certain conditions, which it is the interest of the grantee to perform. The reservation made to the crown is only a half-penny an acre, after the expiration of three, five, or ten years, according to the extent of the grants. Those two provinces were ceded to Great Britain by the peace of 1763, since which time they have been formed into distinct settlements, and have each their respective governor.

England has an undoubted right to Florida ever since the reign of Henry VII, by whose commission Sebastian Cabot, in 1496, discovered all this coast, sixteen years before it was visited by any other European nation. Afterwards indeed the Spaniards made frequent descents upon the continent, towards the straits of Bahama, but their cruelties so much exasperated the natives that they were totally expelled. From this period Florida remained neglected by Europe till the reign of Charles IX. king of France, when the celebrated admiral Chatillon procured two vessels to be fitted out for discoveries upon this coast, in 1562. In two months the adventurers arrived in

the province of North Carolina, near the river now called Albemarle. The French giving the Indians to understand, in the best manner they could, that they were enemies to the Spaniards; obtained a friendly reception, but were in no condition to make any settlement at this time. In two years after, however, the admiral fitted out five or six ships, carrying as many hundred men on board, with the view of establishing a colony. They directed their course to the same place at which they had landed in the former expedition, where they built a fort about two miles up the river May, now called St. John's, which they named fort Caroline. Next year the Spaniards dispatched a considerable force, under the command of Don Pedro Menendez de Avilez, to attack the infant colony. Not satisfied with reducing the fort, they put all the poor garrison to the sword, after quarter had been given, and farther exasperated the natives by succeeding acts of cruelty. The new invaders, however, took Fort St. Augustine, and once more took possession of the country in the name of the king of Spain.

The French admiral had by this time fallen a sacrifice in the horrible massacre at Paris, and with him expired the project of establishing a colony in America. But a private gentleman, named M. de Gorques, fitted out some ships at his own charge, with the view of revenging the outrages committed by the Spaniards on his countrymen and their allies. The Indians eagerly embracing the opportunity of indulging their resentment, joined their forces with those of the French, and immediately laid siege to some forts which the Spaniards had erected; which as soon as they had reduced, they put the garrison to the sword without mercy.

Satisfied with having accomplished the design of their expedition, the French adventurers returned; and the Spaniards, in some time after, fortified and improved the settlement which they had begun at St. Augustine.

In 1585, some private adventurers in England fitted out a fleet of twenty sail of ships and pinnaces, under the command of Sir Francis Drake and Martin Frobisher, who attacked Fort Caroline, now called Fort St. Juan, which being in a defenceless condition, was abandoned by the Spaniards. In this place Drake found fourteen pieces of brass cannon, and about two thousand pounds in cash, which seem to have been all the fruits of this expedition against Florida. The Spaniards constantly maintained their garrison at St. Augustine, in spite of several attempts to reduce it, by the Carolinians, and afterwards by general Oglethorpe, till the conclusion of the last war, when the whole territory of Florida, including Louisiana, the town and island of New Orleans excepted, was ceded to the crown of Great Britain.

#### G E O R G I A.

GEORGIA is bounded on the south by Florida; on the west by the Indian nations towards the Mississippi; on the north by South Carolina, from which

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which it is separated by the river Savannah; and on the east by the Atlantic Ocean. This is in general a level country, though interspersed with numerous gentle risings; and where the ground has not been cleared by the planters it is covered with trees, but hardly any underwood. Near the sea, its extent from south to north is about sixty miles; but in the inland parts it widens to about a hundred and fifty. Its length from the coast to the Apalachian mountains is near three hundred miles. Like most of the countries in America, the climate is liable to sudden and violent changes, which obliges the inhabitants to be particularly cautious in their dress. Thunder and lightning also happen frequently, and sometimes hurricanes; but the latter are not near so formidable as those in the West-Indies. From about the middle of March till that of June the weather is extremely agreeable; but in July, August, and the greater part of September, the heat is intense. The winter is generally very mild; and though the air is sometimes sharp, especially when the north-west wind blows, this happens only in the mornings and evenings, seldom rising to such a degree as to freeze water of any considerable depth.

The soil of this country varies in different parts of the colony, but in general it produces rice, indigo, cotton, Indian corn, wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, pumpions, melons, cucumbers, peas, beans, and fallads of all kinds, throughout the year. Nectarines, plums, and peaches, grow naturally in great plenty, and by cultivation might be rendered equal, if not superior, to those of Europe. Grapes grow wild, and ripen in June. Apple and pear trees thrive well, as does likewise the apricot. The white and black mulberry-trees are in great plenty, and might afford excellent nourishment for worms, the propagation of which was one of the principal inducements for settling this colony. Orange and olive trees arrive at perfection, especially in the southern parts of Georgia. The chief timber trees are oaks, of six or seven species, pines, hickory, cedar, cypress, walnut, sassafras, and beech, besides many other trees unknown in Europe, and a great variety of flowering shrubs.

From the beginning of November to March game is very frequent. It consists of a small kind of woodcocks and partridges, large wild turkeys, turtle-doves, wild geese, ducks, and teals, with immense quantities of wild pigeons, and other birds peculiar to the country. During the summer the inhabitants kill deer and summer ducks. Tigers, bears, and the opossum, are common here; and the woods abound with cattle, wolves, racoons, and snakes; but none of them are venomous, except the rattle-snake. The rivers, however, are full of alligators and sharks.

The chief town of Georgia is the Savannah, situated on the river which forms the northern boundary of the province, in one hundred and one degrees twenty minutes of west longitude, and in thirty-two degrees of north latitude. It stands about ten miles from the sea, and the river is navigable for large boats two hundred miles farther; at which place is Augusta, the second town in the colony, lying in a fertile

spot, and commodiously situated for the Indian trade.

The bordering Indian nations are, the Upper and Lower Creeks, the Chickesaws, and the Cherokees; some of the most powerful tribes in America. The trade of skins with those people is the greatest we have. We also deal with them for furs, which are of an inferior quality to what are produced in the provinces farther towards the north.

At the first settlement of this colony sanguine expectations were formed with respect to the cultivation of vines and silk; and in 1739 a specimen of Georgian silk was sent to London, and declared by two very eminent merchants, who dealt in that commodity, to be as good as any raw silk imported from Italy. The inhabitants of the province, however, being then but few, and their attention chiefly directed to the cultivation of the ground, this manufacture, which might prove so beneficial, was neglected, nor has any attempt hitherto been made towards reviving the project. This province emerges very slowly from the difficulties which attended its first establishment, and is still but indifferently peopled, though settled upwards of forty years. It exports some corn and lumber to the West-Indies; raises some rice, and has lately applied much to the cultivation of indigo.

There is no commodity from which a planter, with a small capital, derives so great profit as from the manufacture of indigo. The plant, or rather weed, of which this dye is made, is, when young, hardly to be distinguished from lucern-grass, but when come to maturity has much the appearance of fern. It generally grows to the height of about two foot, the leaves are round, of a green colour, inclining towards brown on the upper side, but underneath of a silver colour, and pretty thick. The flowers are red, resembling those of peas; and from them proceed long crooked pods, containing a small seed like that of radish, of an olive colour. The manner of planting it is as follows; the ground being first cleared of all other vegetables, holes are made at the distance of a foot from each other, in every one of which ten or twelve seeds are thrown, and then lightly covered with earth. In three or four days, especially if there has been rain, the plant will appear; and in six weeks, or two months, be ready for cutting and making indigo. The time of sowing is commonly after the first rains which succeed the vernal equinox; and consequently the first cutting, for there are sometimes three, must be about the beginning of July; the second is towards the end of August; and if the season proves favourable, the third and last cutting is obtained about Michaelmas. During all this time the plantation must be attended with the greatest care, the land must be weeded every day, and the plants carefully cleansed from the worms. To a plantation of fifty acres about twenty-five negroes are allotted. Every acre, if the land be good, produces sixty or seventy pounds weight of indigo; the medium is computed at fifty.

The whole apparatus necessary for the manufacture of indigo consists of a pump, and vats or tubs, made of cypress wood. The first vat, called the steeper, is

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from twelve to fourteen feet square, and about four feet deep. In this the indigo plant is laid to the height of fourteen inches; and in about twelve or sixteen hours, after the water has been let into the vat, it begins to ferment. When this process has attained its due pitch, the liquor is conveyed, by means of a cock, into another vat, called the beater. The dregs remaining in the sloop are used for manuring the ground, and new cuttings are put in as long as the harvest continues.

The liquor in the second vat becoming strongly impregnated with particles of indigo, next undergoes the operation of what is called the beating, which is performed with a sort of bottomless buckets, with long handles. During the space of twenty or thirty minutes, more or less, according to the temperature of the air, the liquor is strongly agitated by means of those machines, till it rises above the rim of the vat; but should the fermentation thus occasioned prove too violent, it is instantly allayed by throwing in a small quantity of oil. The salts, and other constituent parts of the plant, being now dissolved in the water, are separated, and a granulation ensues. In order to expedite the process, a certain quantity of lime-water is let in from an adjoining vessel, the workmen gently stirring the mixture all the time. The liquor now assumes a purplish colour, becoming turbid and muddy. After settling, the clear water is gradually drawn off; till nothing remains at the bottom but a thick mud, which is put into bags of coarse linen. Those are then hung up, till the moisture is entirely discharged from them. To finish the drying, this mud is turned out of the bags, and worked upon boards of some porous timber, with a wooden spatula; being also, with the same view, frequently exposed to the morning and evening sun, for a short time. The last operation in the manufacture is performed by cutting the indigo into little square pieces, and putting it into frames, where it is again exposed to the sun in the same cautious manner.

When indigo is ready for the market there are two ways of ascertaining its quality. One is by throwing it into water; if it sinks it is worth little, and the heavier it is, the worse; but if it swims it is good; as it likewise is if it dissolves entirely in the water. The other method of trial is by fire; if it consumes in this element the indigo is good; but that which remains untouched is adulterated.

Three sorts of indigo are cultivated in this country, which owe their difference to the nature of the seed. The first is the French or Hispaniola indigo, which striking a long tap root, requires a deep rich soil, and is therefore little cultivated in the maritime part, which are generally sandy. The second is the false quitimala, or true Bahama; and the third is the indigenous indigo, a native of the country. Both these kinds agree with any soil, and are more advantageous to the planter, in respect of the easiness of culture, as well as the quantity of the produce, but are inferior, in quality, to the first mentioned.

Georgia, like the other provinces of America, is under the care of its respective governor.

The settlement of Georgia was established with the design of rendering it a barrier, to protect our southern provinces from the Spaniards; as well as with the view of raising wine, oil, and silk, for which the nature of the country appeared to be well calculated. On the 9th of June, 1732, this province was therefore vested in trustees for twenty one years; at the expiration of which period, the property in chief was to revert to the crown. The trustees being empowered to collect benefactions for fitting out emigrants, and supporting them till such time as their houses should be built, and the lands cleared, not only received large contributions for this purpose from the bank of England, the nobility, &c. but the parliament also granted them ten thousand pounds. Those subscriptions enabled them to supply with working tools, stores, and small arms, above one hundred labouring people, who offered themselves by the beginning of November following, and were immediately sent over, under the care of Mr. Oglethorpe, one of the trustees, who generously bestowed his time and pains, without any reward, for the improvement of the colony. The new settlers arrived at Charles Town in Carolina, the 15th of January, 1733, where they were received by governor Johnson, and the inhabitants with great marks of kindness, and were presented by the assembly with a hundred breeding cattle, twenty-five hogs, and twenty barrels of rice. Departing thence with a small body of rangers and several scout-boats, they soon reached the river Savannah, on the bank of which Mr. Oglethorpe fixed upon the spot for building their town, in a place originally inhabited by a nation called Yamacraw, of which Tomo Chichi was chief. As soon as the town was erected, they began to clear the ground, and in a short time sowed it with wheat.

The trustees, reflecting that many of our colonies had been endangered, by suffering the negroes to exceed the whites so much in number, prohibited the importation of negroes into Georgia, not only with the view of inuring the planters to a habit of industry, but of exciting a spirit to defend themselves against any incursions of the Spaniards, agreeably to their situation as a frontier province. It was imagined likewise, that the introduction of negroes so near a Spanish fort, would have facilitated the desertion of the Carolinian negroes to St. Augustine.

The trustees likewise observing, what great mischiefs had arisen in other colonies, from vast grants of land, which the grantees either jobbed out again, to the discouragement of settlers, or suffered to lie uncultivated; assigned only twenty-five acres to each inhabitant; and none could by any means arrive at the possession of more than five hundred. Neither were those lands granted in fee-simple, or to the heirs-general of the settlers, but were inheritable only by the male issue, consistently with the military plan on which this colony had been founded. The importation of rum was also prohibited, to prevent the great disorders observed to happen in other colonies, from the abuse of spirituous liquors.

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federated tribes, hearing of this new colony, sent a numerous deputation, composed of their chiefs and warriors, to treat of an alliance with it. At an audience given them by Mr. Oglethorpe, Oucekachumpa, in the name of the whole nation, claimed all the lands from the river Savannah as far as St. Augustine, and up Flint River, which falls into the bay of Mexico; but he acknowledged the superiority of the English, whose arrival in that part he considered as a happy event; and declared that they were welcome to the lands which the Creeks did not use for their subsistence.

Soon after the conclusion of this treaty, Mr. Oglethorpe returned to Charles Town, in order to embark for England. After his departure the fame of the new colony reached the Natchez, who likewise made an alliance with the inhabitants of Georgia. In the middle of May, a ship arrived at the Savannah with passengers and stores, and soon after another with fifty families; the whole embarkation amounting to six hundred and eighteen persons, including women and children. From the trustees accounts, in March 1734, it appeared, that they had received, towards settling the province, near fifteen thousand pounds, of which they had expended about eight thousand two hundred.

In 1734, the ship in which Tomo Chichi, who had visited England, embarked for America, carried over likewise a number of German protestants from Saltsburg, who, with others of their countrymen that afterwards arrived, were fixed at a spot on the Savannah, where they built a town called Ebenezer, which, by their industry and sobriety, soon became a considerable settlement.

The planters of Georgia now made rapid progress in clearing their lands, and the British parliament again granted them a supply of twenty-six thousand pounds, which, with very considerable private donations, was expended upon strengthening their southern frontier. For this service the trustees procured a hundred and sixty Scotch Highlanders, who were sent over in 1735, and settled upon Alamamaha River, sixteen miles, by water, from the island of St. Simon, where they built a fort, mounted with four pieces of cannon, which they named Darien, and a small town, called New Inverness. In February, 1736, Mr. Oglethorpe arrived a second time at Savannah, with about three hundred more emigrants; forty-seven of whom being English, were settled on the island of St. Simon, which, with all the adjacent islands was voluntarily ceded by the Creek Indians. The remainder of this emigration built another town, called Frederica.

In September the same year, it was stipulated between Mr. Oglethorpe and the governor of St. Augustine, that the British should evacuate the fort built upon the island of St. George, forty miles north of Augustine, near the influx of the river St. John; but that this evacuation should not affect his Britannic majesty's right to the said island, or any other of his claims upon the American continent.

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The inhabitants of Ebenezer disliking its situation, requested to be settled nearer the river, where a town was accordingly marked out for them. Mr. Oglethorpe next turned his attention towards completing Fort Frederica, upon the island of St. Simon, which, including its out-works, forms a regular square, with four bastions, surrounded by a ditch. He afterwards marked out another fort, on an island at the mouth of Jeholl's Sound, which he named Cumberland island.

In 1737, the depredations daily committed by the Spaniards on the British by sea, threatening a war between the two nations, the British government, in consequence of advice that the Spaniards were meditating an attack on the infant colony of Georgia, and at the request of the trustees, sent thither a regiment of six hundred men for its protection. As an encouragement to this body of troops, they granted each soldier five acres of land, for his own use and benefit during his continuance in the country, with permission to quit the service at the end of seven years, if desired, and an additional grant of fifteen acres of land. The parliament this year voted the colony a fresh aid of twenty thousand pounds, which enabled the trustees to send over another embarkation of foreign protestants.

It was now found by experience, that some errors had been committed in framing the constitution of the colony. The regulations concerning inheritance, negroes, spirituous liquors, and the quantity of lands assigned to each person, though well intended, seemed neither to answer the nature of the country, nor the disposition of the people, who openly expressed a general discontent at all those restrictions. They remonstrated on this subject to the trustees; but meeting with no satisfaction, many of them quitted Georgia, and retired to some of the other colonies; so that, of above two thousand people, who had migrated from Europe in a little time, not more than seven hundred remained in Georgia. At length the government revoked the charter, and took the province into their own hands, annulling all the regulations that had been made, and leaving the country exactly on the same footing with Carolina.

#### C A R O L I N A .

**T**HIS country is bounded on the south by Georgia, on the west by the Indian nations towards the Mississippi, on the north by Virginia, and on the east by the Atlantic ocean; lying between seventy-five and eighty-six degrees of west longitude, and between thirty-one and thirty six degrees of north latitude. It is divided into two provinces, viz. South and North Carolina. Together they are watered by ten navigable rivers, which run a long course, and are joined by innumerable smaller streams, all abounding in fish. About fifty or sixty miles from the sea, most of the great rivers have cataracts, which become more frequent the nearer we advance towards

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towards their sources; as is the case with almost all the American rivers. At those falls, the traders land their goods, and conveying them by horses or waggons beyond the obstruction, afterwards reship them.

The climate, face, and produce of the country are nearly the same with those of Georgia; and the quality of the soil, in the different parts, may be known from the species of trees which is the most prevalent. The grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile. They consist of a dark sand, mixed with lime; and as here all the land abounds with nitre, the planters never use any manure. The soil distinguished by the name of the pine-barren, is the worst, being almost entirely a white sand; yet it naturally bears the pine-tree, which yields good profit in tar, pitch, and turpentine. When cleared, this kind of land, for two or three years, produces tolerable good crops of Indian corn and peas, and when flooded, answers well for rice. It also affords one of the sorts of indigo, which is so profitable a commodity in those countries. There is another kind of ground which lies low and wet, upon the banks of some of the rivers, called swamps, which, though almost useless in some places, proves in others the richest of all the lands. Those grounds consist of a black fat earth, and bear rice in the greatest plenty and perfection, which is the greatest staple of this province, and requires a rich moist soil.

The country near the sea is the least fruitful, most of the land thereabouts being a species of the pale, light, sandy-coloured ground; but the soil improves in proportion to the distance from the coast; and a hundred miles beyond Charles Town, where the country grows hilly, it is extremely fertile. Here likewise the air is pure and wholesome, and the summer heats much less intemperate than in the flat country.

Wheat grows well in the back country, and yields an extraordinary increase; but in the other parts of Carolina it is little cultivated, being apt to mildew, and spend itself in straw. Those evils the planters take very little pains to prevent, turning their attention chiefly to the culture of rice, which is much more profitable; and they are supplied from New York and Pennsylvania, with the wheat they want, in exchange for this grain.

The land is every where easily cleared, there being little or no underwood. The usual method is to cut the trees at about a foot from the ground, and then saw them into boards, or convert them into staves, heading, or other species of lumber, according to the nature of the wood, or the demands at the market. If they lie too far from a navigable river, they are heaped together, and left to rot. The roots soon decay; and before this happens, little or no inconvenience is found from them, where land is so plenty.

The animals natural to the country, are deer, which are very numerous; a kind of tygers, bears, wolves, foxes, racoons, squirrels, wild cats, and the opossum. All European animals are likewise here in great plenty. About fifty years ago, it was a very

extraordinary thing to possess above three or four cows, but so amazingly have black cattle multiplied, that it is not uncommon for a planter at present to have a thousand, and in North Carolina many more. Those ramble all day in the forests; but their calves being kept in fenced pastures, the cows return to them every evening, where after being milked, kept all night, and milked in the morning, they are again let loose. The hogs, which are vastly numerous, range in the same manner, and like them return, by having shelter and food provided for them at the plantation. The woods also contain many wild cattle, hurses, and swine, though at the first establishment of this colony, none of those animals existed in the province.

The capital of the province is Charles Town, situate in seventy-nine degrees twelve minutes of west longitude, and thirty-two degrees thirty minutes of north latitude. It stands on a peninsula formed by the rivers Ashley and Cooper, the former of which is navigable for ships twenty miles above the town. The harbour has no inconvenience, except that of a bar, which prevents vessels of above two hundred tons from entering. The city is well fortified both by art and nature, and the houses make a handsome appearance. The church, which is large, is built in a good taste, and exceeds every thing of the kind in North America. The town contains about eight hundred houses, and is the seat of the governor, and the place where the assembly meet. Several handsome equipages are kept in the city. The people in general are vain, gay, and expensive in their dress and way of living; and the place may be considered as one of the politest, as well as the richest, in all British America.

The best harbour is Port Royal, on the borders of Georgia, formed by an island in eighty degrees ten minutes of west longitude, and thirty-one degrees forty-five minutes of north latitude, capable of receiving the largest fleets.

The mouths of the rivers in North Carolina form but indifferent harbours, and, except one at Cape Fear, admit no vessels above eighty tons; so that larger ships are under the necessity of lying off in a sound, called Ocacock, between some islands and the continent; an inconvenience which lays a weight upon their trade, by the expence of lighterage.

Edenton was formerly the capital of North Carolina, if a mean village can deserve that appellation; but a late governor projected one farther south, upon the river Neus, which, though more central, is by no means equally well situated for trade. No town, however, in North Carolina, can be reckoned considerable in any degree.

The trade of Carolina, besides lumber, provisions, &c. in common with the rest of America, consists in three staple commodities, which are indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine tree, viz. turpentine, tar, and pitch. The two former of those are the commodities of South Carolina, and the latter is the staple of the northern province.

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For several years after the establishment of the colony, rice formed the staple of South Carolina; but the act of navigation obliging the Carolinians to send all their exported rice first to England, there to be re-shipped for the markets of Spain and Portugal, the charges in consequence of this regulation lay so heavy upon the trade, especially in time of war, that rice hardly answered the expence of the planter. On this account, they have since been permitted by the British legislature to send their rice directly to any place southward of Cape Finislerre; and this prudent indulgence has had the effect of reviving the trade.

In Carolina, the turpentine is obtained by incisions made in the pine tree, from as great a height as a man can reach with a hatchet. Those incisions meet at the bottom in a point, and hence the turpentine runs into a vessel placed to receive it.

Tar requires a more considerable apparatus, and great trouble. For the purpose they make a circular floor of clay, declining a little towards the centre, whence is laid a pipe of wood, which reaches ten foot beyond the circumference. Under the end of this tube, the earth is dug away, and barrels are placed to receive the tar. Upon this floor they erect a large pile of pine wood, split in pieces, and surrounded with a wall of earth, a small aperture being left at the top, where the fire is first kindled. When the fire begins to burn, this aperture is likewise covered, to prevent the flame from issuing out, and to leave only sufficient heat to force the tar downwards to the floor. The heat is regulated at pleasure, by running a stick into the earthen wall, and thus admitting air.

Pitch is made by boiling tar in large iron kettles, set in furnaces, or burning it in round clay holes, made in the earth.

Before the present war with America, the import trade of the Carolinas from Great Britain and the West India islands were very great, and likewise their traffic with the Indians in a flourishing state.

Both the Carolinas have made frequent efforts towards the cultivation of cotton and silk, and the excellent quality of their produce of this kind ought to have encouraged the prosecution of two branches of traffic, which seem so well adapted to the climate.

The paper-currency of South Carolina amounted some years ago, to two hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling; and that of North Carolina to fifty-two thousand pounds. The quantity of British coin in either province is very inconsiderable, the current cash consisting almost wholly of Spanish dollars and pistoles.

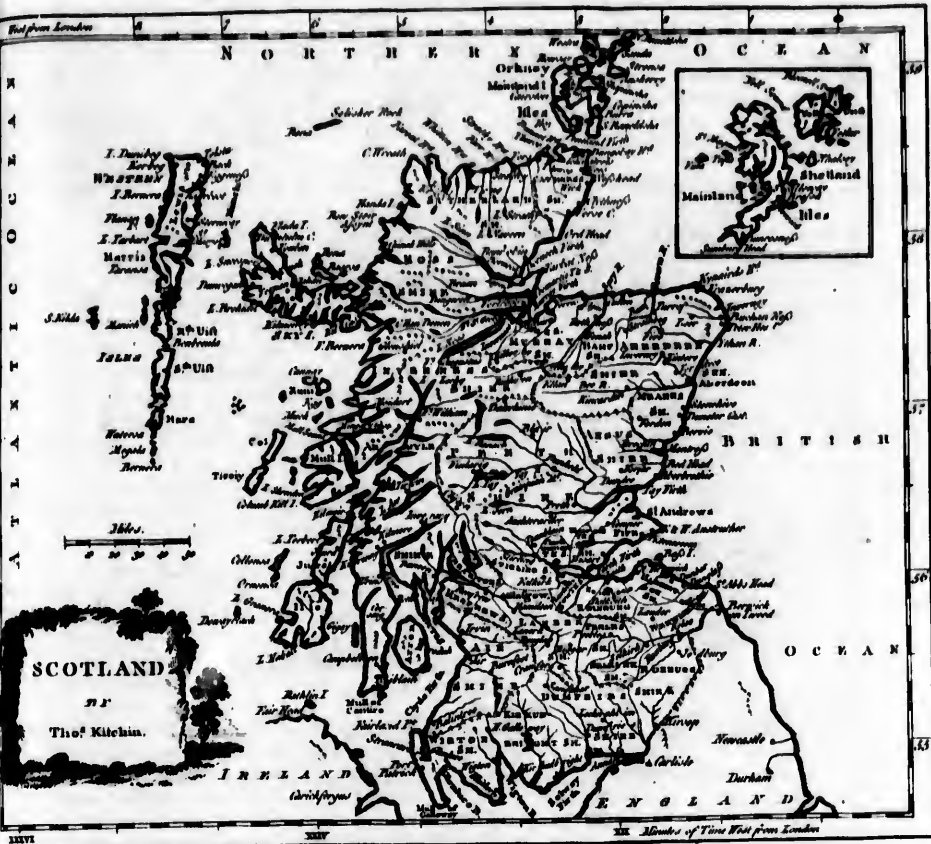
The first attempt towards establishing a settlement in Carolina, was made by sir Walter Raleigh, near the end of the reign of queen Elizabeth; but the adventurers meeting with opposition from the natives, the project was at that time abandoned, and no design of resuming it ever formed, till after the restoration of Charles II. when the ministry, induced by

a favourable representation of this part of America, procured a grant of it from the crown to themselves, by a patent bearing date the 24th of March, 1663. The grantees were Edward earl of Clarendon, lord chancellor of England, George duke of Albemarle, William lord Craven, John lord Berkeley, Anthony lord Ashley, sir George Carteret, and sir William Colliton, who were authorized to plant all those territories in America, between St. Matheo in thirty-one degrees, and Luck Island in thirty-six degrees north latitude; and between the Atlantic ocean on the east, and the South Sea, or Pacific ocean, on the west. The patent conveyed to them full power to settle and govern the country, but little was done by the proprietors towards planting it until the year 1670, when a model of government was agreed upon, which is ascribed to lord Ashley, afterwards earl of Shaftesbury. According to this model, a palatine was to be chosen out of the proprietaries, who was to hold that post during life, and to be succeeded by the eldest of the other proprietaries. This palatine was to act as president of a court, composed of himself and three other proprietors, who were vested with the whole executive power conveyed by the charter. The palatine for the time being was empowered to appoint the governor of the province; but the latter, as a check upon his administration, was to act with the concurrence of a council, consisting of seven deputies appointed by the proprietors. They also created three classes of nobility; the lowest, composed of those who had grants of twelve thousand acres of land, were to be called barons; the next order was to possess twenty-four thousand acres, or two baronies, with the title of caciques; and the third to possess two caciqueships, or forty-eight thousand acres, with the title of landgraves. This body was to form the upper house, and their lands not to be alienable by parcels. The lower house was to be formed as in the other colonies of representatives from the several towns and counties; and the whole was not to be called an assembly, but a parliament, which was to sit once in two years, or oftener, if necessary.

To make this government approach yet nearer to the ancient feudal constitution, all the male inhabitants, from sixteen to sixty years of age, were obliged to take the field with proper arms, if required by the council. Every planter was to pay annually one penny per acre quit-rent to his proprietary, and each county was to have a sheriff, and four justices of the peace.

Though the proprietors expended twelve thousand pounds in attempting to settle the colony, the province owed its establishment to the toleration granted to people of all religious persuasions, and said to have been recommended to the proprietors by the celebrated Mr. Locke. In consequence of this prudent measure, great numbers of dissenters, whom the government at home treated with rigour, were induced to transport themselves, with their fortunes and families, to Carolina. Soon after, the promising aspect of the colony likewise invited thither many





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Here is a great variety of spontaneous flowers, among which are the finest crown imperial in the world, the cardinal flower, so much extolled for its scarlet colour, the moccasin flower, and numbers of others yet unknown to the botanists in Britain. The fields are almost perpetually adorned with flowers of one species or other, and the woods are remarkably fragrant.

The quadrupeds, birds, fish, &c. of this country are almost the same with those of Carolina.

Horned cattle and hogs have multiplied incredibly, though the country was totally destitute of those animals at its first settlement. Deer are very numerous; nor are tigers, bears, wolves, foxes, racoons, and wild cats, unfrequent. Of squirrels there are here two kinds; one larger than a fox, and grey, which

scarlet, green, and gold. It is supposed to live by sucking the dew which adheres to the flowers, and is too delicate to be brought alive to England.

In the month of June, annually, there rise up in the salt vast beds of feeding-worms, which enter the ships, or boats, wherever the coat of pitch, tar, or lime, is worn off the timber, and by degrees eat the plank into cells, in the manner of the honey-comb. Those worms continue upon the surface of the water from this time until the first great rains after the middle of July, subsequent to which period they do little damage, and never penetrate farther than the plank upon which they fix.

The damage occasioned by those worms may be prevented four different ways. The first is by keeping the coat of pitch, lime, and tallow, or whatever else is used, whole upon the bottom of the vessel. The second, by anchoring the large vessels in the strength of the tide, during the worm season. The third, by burning and cleansing immediately after the worm season is over: and the fourth, by running up in the freshes, with the ship or vessel, during the five or six weeks that the worms are above water.



**VIRGINIA** is bounded on the south by Carolina, on the west by the Indian nations, on the north by Maryland, and on the east by the Atlantic Ocean. It lies between seventy-four and eighty degrees of west longitude, and between thirty-six and thirty-nine degrees of north latitude; being in length from north to south about two hundred and forty miles, and in breadth a hundred and twenty, if we comprehend only the lands which are planted.

The face of the country is so extremely low towards the sea, that even within fifteen fathom soundings land can hardly be distinguished from the main head; but sixty or seventy miles to the westward it rises into hills. It is intersected by the Bay of Chesapeak, one of the finest in the world, which entering between Cape Charles and Cape Henry, runs near two hundred miles north within land. This bay is for a considerable space about eighteen miles in breadth, and seven in the narrowest part, the water being nine fathom deep in most places. It receives, both on the eastern and western side, a vast number of navigable rivers, the chief of which are, James River, York River, Rappahanoc River, and the Potowinack,

much like our summer, being mitigated with gentle breezes, that rise about nine o'clock, decreasing from this period till the sun is in the meridian, after which they again increase. In July and August, however, those breezes cease, and the air becomes stagnant, accompanied with a heat which is oppressive. In September it is common for the weather to break suddenly; and great rains happening at this time, the inhabitants are much exposed to cachexies, fluxes, scorbutical dropsies, and gripes.

The soil is of great variety in different parts of the province: in the low grounds it is a dark fat mould, which for many years, without any manure, yields plentiful crops. At a distance from the rivers it is light and sandy, but by the warmth of the climate, yields tobacco and corn extremely well.

The forest-trees are oak, poplar, pines, cedars, cypress, and trees which produce sweet gums. There is also a variety of evergreens, the holly, the myrtle, and the live oak, which during three quarters of the year is constantly dropping its acorns, at the same time that it is budding and bearing others in their stead. Here are likewise elm, ash, and walnut, producing

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aducing no bough to a considerable height, with beech, hazle, elder, willow, fassafra, and saraparilla.

Among other fruits they have grapes that grow spontaneously, and the European grape, which comes to great perfection; besides plums, great quantities of large peaches, and three sorts of cherries, one of which grows in bunches like grapes. No country abounds more with apples and pears, but oranges and lemons do not agree with the soil. Quinces are so plentiful that they make a great deal of marmalade, and liquor of them. Here is a fruit, called the chin-quamine, resembling a chestnut; the macoquer, much like an apple; with the fig and the muttacoeks, which is a species of strawberry.

The chief produce of the country is tobacco, an aboriginal plant in America, of very ancient use, though neither so generally cultivated, nor so well manufactured, as since the arrival of the Europeans. This plant, at its full height, is as tall as a common sized man. The stalk is strait, hairy, and clammy, with alternate leaves, of a faded yellowish green. The seeds of tobacco are first sown in beds, whence they are transplanted, the first rainy weather, into ground disposed into little hillocks, in the manner of a hop-garden.

Tobacco is distinguished by traders into two sorts; one called sweet-scented, the best of which comes from James's and York Rivers, in the southern parts of Virginia; the other named aranookoe, from the northern parts of Virginia and Maryland, is strong and hot in the mouth, but sells well in the markets of Holland, Germany, and the North.

In the course of another month, being grown a foot high, the planters top them, and prune off all the bottom leaves, leaving only seven or eight on the stalks, with the view of rendering them larger. In six weeks those leaves arrive at their full growth; and when, from being green, they begin to turn brownish, and to spot and thicken, it is a sign of their ripening. When they are come to maturity, the planters cut them down, and, after leaving them in the field for half a day, heap them up, and let them lie a night; carrying them next day to the tobacco-house, where the plants are hung up at a convenient distance from each other, for about a month or five weeks. The leaves are then stripped off, and laid aside for exportation.

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is reputed to be good eating; the other, the flying squirrel, which is less than the English. The skin on each side of his belly is so large, that it assists him in skipping from one tree to another, on which account he is distinguished by the epithet of flying.

A reptile similar to the water rat is common here, called the musk rat, from its smelling strong of that commodity.

The beavers are not so frequent as in the more northern parts of the continent; but there are both sea and land tortoises. The frogs are ten times as large as those in England. Lizards are exceeding numerous, and are ate by the inhabitants. The opossum occurs in many places, and the rattle-snake is also an indigenous reptile in this province.

Here are three sorts of eagles, the largest of which is called the grey eagle. The second is the bald eagle: this species is of a dark brown colour, and has the upper part of the neck and head covered with a white down, from which it has received its appellation. The third kind is the black eagle, resembling that of England. They frequently sit on some tall tree by a river's side, whence they may have a view of the fishing hawk. When they see this bird strike a fish, they immediately pursue it, till the hawk, to make its own escape, lets fall its prey, on which the eagle frequently lays hold before it reaches the earth or water. Those eagles will often kill young lambs, pigs, and other animals.

The woods abound with wild turkies of a very large size. The white owl of this province is also much larger than the species known in England, and is all over of a bright silver-coloured plumage, except one black spot upon the breast. The Virginia nightingale is a beautiful bird, with blue and crimson feathers. The mocking bird imitates the notes of every other bird, and is judged to surpass all in its own song. Here is likewise the humming bird, one of the smallest and most beautiful of the feathered race, arrayed in scarlet, green, and gold. It is supposed to live by sucking the dew which adheres to the flowers, and is too delicate to be brought alive to England.

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Virginia

Virginia is divided into the following counties, viz. Richmond, Stafford, Westmorland, Rapahanoc, Essex, Northumberland, Lancashire, and Middlesex, all lying upon, or between, the rivers Potowmack and Rapahanoc; New William's county, New Kent, Gloucester, Prince George county, King and Queen county, Charles county, James county, York county, Warwick county, Elizabeth county, Henrico county, Surry county, Isle of Wight county, Nanfamid county, Princess Anne county, and Norfolk county, lying upon, or near, York and James Rivers; with those of Acomac and Northampton, situated between the Bay of Chesapeake and the ocean.

The only towns in Virginia, built by the English, are James-Town and Williamsburgh.

James-Town, once the capital of the country, is situate in seventy-seven degrees thirty minutes of west longitude, and in thirty-seven degrees thirty minutes of north latitude, on a peninsula, on the north side of James River, forty miles west of its mouth. The number of houses is not above a hundred, and those chiefly for the entertainment of seafaring people.

Williamsburgh, the present capital, stands seven miles from James-Town, between James River and York River. Notwithstanding this be the seat of the government it hardly contains fifty houses; the Virginia planters choosing to live upon their lands.

It is computed that Virginia contains upwards of a hundred thousand white people, and that the number of negroes, exclusive of servants, is considerably greater; the latter being observed rather to increase than diminish here, from moderate labour, wholesome food, and a healthy climate. Many French refugees are likewise settled in this province. The inhabitants are generally cheerful and hospitable, but vain and ostentatious, and for the greater part members of the church of England. The established religion here is that of the church of England. Every parish has its minister, who has a house and glebe, with about the value of eighty pounds per annum, paid in tobacco, which the church-wardens collect for him. There are, however, no bishops, the inspection of the clergy being committed to the ecclesiastical commissary, or superintendant; and though a full liberty of conscience be allowed to all persuasions, the only places of worship, not parochial, are a few meeting-houses of presbyterians and quakers. The country between James River and York River is the best inhabited and cultivated.

The constitution of the government in this province resembles that of the mother-country, and is called a royal government. The governor represents the king; the council answers to the house of peers; and the representatives, who are chosen by the freemen of every county, are their house of commons.

Besides the governor, there are three public officers who have their commissions immediately from the king. Those are, the auditor of the revenue, the receiver-general, and the secretary, in whose office the public records are kept, and where all deeds and other writings are proved. The ecclesiastical commissary receives his authority from the bishop of Lon-

don; and the treasurer of the province is appointed by the general assembly.

The public revenues are, 1. A rent reserved by the crown of all lands granted by patent. 2. A duty of two shillings a hoghead on all tobacco exported. 3. A duty of six pence a-head for every passenger brought into the country. 4. Fines and forfeitures. 5. Duties on foreign liquors, and on slaves and servants imported. Lastly, money raised by acts passed in the assembly, besides the duties laid upon tobacco in the counties that produce it.

There are no other forces in Virginia but militia, of which the governor is lieutenant-general by his commission; and in each county he appoints the colonel, the lieutenant-colonel, and the major. Every freeman, or all who are not servants, from sixteen to sixty years of age, are listed in the militia, and mustered once a year, at a general muster, besides four times a year, by troops and companies, in their respective counties. The number of the whole is reckoned to be about twenty thousand men.

Though there are not many planters very rich in this province, few persons are so poor as to be reduced to a life of beggary; but if any one happens to be disabled from working, by age or sickness, he is quartered upon some substantial planter, where he is plentifully provided for at the public charge.

The county courts have a power of punishing all masters that do not provide their servants good and wholesome diet, clothing, and lodging.

On founding the town of Williamsburgh a proposal was made to build a college at that place, for the education of youth, towards which, in the year 1692, king William and queen Mary gave about two thousand pounds, endowing it with twenty thousand acres of land, and the revenue of one penny in the pound on all tobacco exported. A power was also given to certain gentlemen, and their successors, to build a college; and give it the name of William and Mary college; in which there was appointed a president, with six professors, and a hundred students. The trustees were empowered to take estates to the yearly value of two thousand pounds; and a large donation was likewise made by the Hon. Mr. Boyle to this college, for the education of Indian children.

Before the commencement of the present war, Virginia carried on a great trade with the West Indies, in lumber, pitch, tar, provisions, &c. and sent to England flax, hemp, iron, slaves, and walnut and cedar plank; but of all their exports hither tobacco was far the most considerable. The usual quantity in a year was forty thousand hogheads, each hoghead containing eight hundred weight. It is computed that the revenue drew near three hundred thousand pounds annually from this single article; and the tobacco re-exported from Britain brought almost as large a sum every year into the kingdom. To those advantages ought to be added, the employment of two hundred large ships, and a proportionable number of seamen, in this trade.

Notwithstanding the great benefit derived from this province by the mother-country, the planters were

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far from being in a flourishing condition. As they generally lived to the full extent of their fortunes, any failure in the sale of their tobacco brought them heavily in debt to the London merchants, who got mortgages on their estates at an eight per cent. usury.

The manufactures of Virginia are so insignificant that they hardly merit being mentioned; for the inhabitants were accustomed to take from the mother-country every article either for convenience or ornament.

Though North America was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, for the English, in the reign of Henry VII. it remained for almost a century unclaimed and uncultivated, till some ships were sent out thither, with the view of interrupting the Spanish trade with America, and intercepting their galleons. This expedition took place in the year 1484, when the adventurers landed on an island near the coast of America, and soon afterwards possession was taken of the continent, under the name of Virginia, a title bestowed upon it in honour of queen Elizabeth. No attempts however were made to establish any colony in those parts, until the reign of king James, who by his letters patent, in 1606, authorized sir Thomas Gates, sir George Summers, Richard Hackluit, prebendary of Westminster, and other adventurers, to plant the coast of Virginia (at that time the name of the whole eastern part of the American continent) between thirty-four and forty-five degrees of north latitude. The patents fitting out three small ships, gave the command of them to captain Christopher Newport, who in 1607 arrived in the bay of Chesapeake, and sailing up the river Powhatar, now James river, landed on a peninsula, about fifty miles from the bay, where they built a fort, and afterwards a town, which they called James-Town, in compliment to the king from whom the patent had been obtained.

Some skirmishes happened between the English and the natives at landing; but the latter apprehending that they should not be able to maintain their ground, against a people furnished with fire-arms, pretended a reconciliation with the strangers, till a convenient opportunity of indulging their resentment should offer. The fort being finished, in little more than a twelvemonth, captain Newport returned to England, leaving a hundred and four men in the settlement.

The garrison soon finding themselves in want of provisions, and the natives refusing to furnish them with any, notwithstanding they offered the full value, the English were reduced to the necessity of committing depredations, upon which an open war commenced between the two parties. But fresh supplies and reinforcements, commanded by Lord Delaware, soon arriving, the Indians at length were glad to enter into a treaty of peace. Mean time the English finding a great demand for tobacco in Europe, began to encourage the planting of it, in which they succeeded beyond their most sanguine expectations. A mode of government being established, the first general assembly met at James-Town, in May, 1620, and the same year negroes were first imported to Virginia.

The natives of the country, considering the colonial establishment as founded on the violation of their rights, entered into a conspiracy to massacre all the English, on the twenty-second day of March, 1622, about noon, when the people were abroad at work in their plantations without arms. The design so far succeeded, that three hundred and forty-seven of the planters fell a sacrifice to their fury, most of whom were killed with their own working tools; but an Indian disclosing the conspiracy to his master, one of the English, a little before the execution of it, the latter gave notice to the rest of the planters, who not only saved their own lives, but cut off a great number of the Indians.

The planters soon after falling out among themselves, the natives took advantage of their divisions, and making another effort towards recovering their country, attacked the English by surprize, of whom they killed a great number.

Those misfortunes being imputed to the mal-administration of the company, king Charles I. dissolved it in the year 1626, and reduced the government of Virginia under his own immediate direction; himself appointing the governor and council, ordering all patents and process to issue in his own name, and reserving a quit-rent of two shillings for every hundred acres of land.

The first governor after the dissolution of the company was sir John Harvey, who became in a short time so obnoxious to the inhabitants, from the rigour of his administration, that, in 1639, they sent him prisoner to England. But though the charge against him was supported by two gentlemen, sent over by the Virginians for that purpose, he was reinstated in his government, without their being admitted to an audience. Being removed, however, in a short time after, Sir William Berkeley was appointed to succeed him in that station.

Those disputes between the governor and the colonists encouraged Opeccanough, one of the sachems or chiefs of the Indians, to mediate a fresh war. Having complained of many encroachments upon his lands, contrary to the public faith, without any regard being paid to his remonstrances, collecting a body of the natives, he ordered them to attack the out-settlements, in which encounter they massacred near five hundred English. But pursuing the advantage he had gained within the limits of the colony, and at a distance from his own residence, sir William Berkeley surpris'd him in Henrico county with a party of horse, and proposed to have sent him to England; but a brutal Englishman wounding him mortally in the back, he almost instantly expired; an incident, however, which the governor improved by making a peace with the Indians.

At the time the civil war broke out in England, the settlers of Virginia were computed to amount to fifteen thousand, exclusive of women and children; but a fatal difference then arose between the governor and planters. Berkeley, a man of great resolution, sided with the king, and prohibited all intercourse between the Virginians and the prevailing party

in England, to the no small prejudice of the colony. Their staple commodity, tobacco, of which vast quantities had for some time been taken off in England, lay upon their hands; and though they did not want for provisions, yet being destitute of manufacturers, and the benefits of commerce, they were unable to supply themselves even with tools for agriculture. The English parliament resolved to reduce this colony, as well as the other American plantations, to their subjection. Accordingly, sir George Aycough being sent with a fleet to reduce Barbadoes, detached, agreeable to his instructions, a small squadron, with some land-forces on board, against this province. The Dutch being then on bad terms with England, Berkeley engaged some of their ships to assist him against this armament; which they did so effectually, that Dennis who commanded the English squadron, was obliged to have recourse to stratagem. He acquainted the colony that he had on board a valuable cargo, the property of two leading men of the country; which he would detain, if they did not surrender. The interest of the colony induced them to a submission, which Berkeley being unable to prevent, retired to his own plantation, and thus Virginia fell into the possession of the English parliament.

The republic appointed colonel Digges to succeed Berkeley in the government, during whose administration nothing remarkable happened. Afterwards, the unsettled state of affairs in England seems to have introduced some confusion into the government of this colony, to the superintendance of which one named Bennet, and another Matthews, were successively appointed by Cromwell's orders. On the death of Matthews, the people of Virginia applied to sir William Berkeley to resume the government, who refused to comply, unless they would stand by him in their allegiance to their lawful sovereign, against the power of the usurpation. This they consented to perform, and Charles II. was accordingly proclaimed all over the province. Fortunately for them, during those transactions Cromwell died, and Charles II. was restored.

Berkeley appears to have received no other reward for this attachment to the royal cause, than being continued in his government, and made one of the proprietors of Carolina. Coming over to England, to congratulate the king on his restoration, he substituted colonel Morrison in his government; and the welfare of the colony being at this time a favourite object with the king, Berkeley was admitted to many audiences on that head. In 1662, he returned to the province, and procured an act of the assembly for enlarging James-Town, by each county building a certain number of houses; but the planters were so much disposed to reside on their own estates, that it proved of little effect.

After the Restoration many of the republicans were, in their turn, banished to Virginia, and their principles gaining ground, almost ruined the colony; the servants forming a conspiracy to murder their masters, and assume the government into their own

hands. The plot, however, being discovered by one Birkenhead, the conspirators were intercepted by a party of militia horse as they were marching towards Poplar Spring, the place fixed for their rendezvous. Four of the ringleaders were hanged, and Birkenhead, who had entered at first into the conspiracy, obtained his freedom, with the reward of two hundred pounds.

Sir William Berkeley promoted the manufactures of silk and linen in the province, and was esteemed an excellent governor; but the act of navigation restraining the planters from sending their merchandize to foreign countries, and from receiving cloathing, furniture, and supplies, from any nation but England, occasioned a great deal of discontent. At this time, one Bacon, a popular factious man, incited the people to rebellion, deposed the governor, and compelled him to fly to the eastern shore of the Bay of Chesapeake. The Indians taking advantage of those distractions, under pretence of assisting the governor, fell upon the frontiers, destroying indiscriminately the plantations of both parties, and sparing neither age nor sex in the ebullition of their fury. The whole province was filled with consternation and uproar, when Bacon, the original cause of the tumult, being cut off by a natural death, the people, now deprived of their leader, proposed terms of accommodation, which the governor accepting, peace was restored; and the public tranquility was confirmed by the arrival of a regiment from England, which remained a long time in the country.

From this period no remarkable occurrence has happened in Virginia, and the province enjoyed uninterrupted tranquility till the present insurrection of the colonies unfortunately commenced.

#### M A R Y L A N D.

MARYLAND is bounded on the south by Virginia, on the west by the Indian nations, on the north by Pennsylvania, and on the east by part of Pennsylvania, and the Atlantic Ocean. It is situate between seventy-four and seventy-eight degrees of west longitude; and between thirty-eight and forty degrees of north latitude; extending in length about a hundred and forty miles, and almost as much in breadth. The north end of the bay of Chesapeake divides it into two parts, called the eastern and western shores. This country was formerly a part of Virginia, but in 1632, lord Baltimore obtained it by patent, from Charles I. who gave it the name of Maryland in honour of his queen, Henrietta Maria.

The face of this province resembles that of Virginia, out of which it was taken; the lands being low towards the sea coast, and rising into hills in the western parts of the country.

The chief rivers are, the Potowmac, which separates Maryland from Virginia, running from west to east, and discharging its waters into the bay of Chesapeake; the Pacomac, the Patuxent, the Severn, the Cheptone, the Sassafras, and Vicoma, all falling into the bay of Chesapeake; and the St. George's river,

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river, which, running from north to south, falls into the mouth of the river Patowmac. Most of those rivers are navigable for large ships.

The air and seasons are the same here as in Virginia, and tobacco is also the staple commodity of this province.

Maryland is divided into ten counties, of which six lie on the west side of the bay of Chesapeak, and four on the east. The former are, St. Mary's county, Charles county, Prince George county, Calvert county, Anne Arundel county, and Baltimore county; and the latter, Somerset county, Dorchester county, Talbot county, and Cecil county.

The settlement of this colony was made, under the direction of lord Baltimore, by his brother, and about two hundred persons, Roman Catholics, and most of them of good families. Those adventurers met with an amicable reception from the natives of the country, with whom they continued to live upon good terms, till some ill-disposed persons in Virginia insinuated to the Indians, that the Baltimore colony had designs upon them. The new planters being informed of those suggestions, and apprehensive of what might be the consequence, built a good fort with all expedition, and took every other measure that seemed to be necessary for their defence, continuing however to treat the Indians with their usual kindness; by which prudent behaviour, joined to the awe of their arms, the designs of their enemies were defeated.

The papists being at this time severely treated in England, numbers of that persuasion migrated to the infant colony, which lord Baltimore, the proprietor, who was himself a Roman catholic, encouraged with all his power, and at considerable expence; till the usurpation overturning the government at home, deprived him of his new acquisition. From this time Maryland remained under the governors appointed by the parliament and by Cromwell, until the Restoration, when the proprietor was reinstated in his former possession, which he continued to cultivate with the same assiduous attention as before. He promoted an act of assembly, for allowing a free and unlimited toleration to all who professed the Christian religion, whence a great number, not only of the church of England, but of presbyterians, quakers, and all kinds of dissenters, was induced to settle in the new colony, which before this time had been almost wholly in the hands of Roman Catholics.

Hitherto Maryland was a proprietary settlement, but at the Revolution, lord Baltimore was deprived of the power of appointing a governor and other officers, and the government of this province fell under the same regulations as those of other colonies. The family of Baltimore was likewise in danger of losing their property, on account of the act requiring all Roman Catholic heirs to profess the protestant religion, on pain of being deprived of their estates; but changing their religion to elude the forfeiture, they have ever since continued in the possession of this valuable estate. The proprietor, besides a duty on every hoghead of tobacco exported, enjoys several

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fine manors, and has a rent paid him by every planter, exclusive of other perquisites.

The governor, as has been already observed, is now appointed by the crown, as are also the members of the council. The assembly is chosen by the freeholders of the respective counties, as in Virginia; and in the governor, council, and assembly, the legislative power is lodged. The governor has a negative voice, as the crown has in Great Britain, and every act of the provincial assembly must be confirmed by the king; till whose pleasure be known, they continue in force from the time they have been enacted.

The colonels and other officers of the militia, in every county, are empowered to enlist all persons to serve in the horse and foot from sixteen to sixty (except negroes and slaves), who are obliged to muster in their respective counties from time to time, at such places as the governor shall appoint; furnishing their own arms and horses, and maintaining themselves during such muster. But if they are employed on actual service, their arms, &c. are to be provided out of the public magazines, and they are to be regularly paid by the counties to which they belong.

Any soldier, being wounded, has a provision from the public; as also the wives and children of such as are killed in the service.

The people of Maryland have the same established religion as those of Virginia, viz. the church of England; and the clergy are decently provided for. The exports from this province are also of the same kind with those of the latter. The quantity of tobacco, their staple commodity, is about forty thousand hogheads. The white inhabitants are computed at forty thousand, and the negroes upwards of sixty thousand.

#### P E N S Y L V A N I A .

**P**ENSYLVANIA is bounded on the south and west by Maryland, on the north by the county of the Iroquois Indians, and on the east by the Jerseys. It is situate between seventy-four and seventy-eight degrees of west longitude, and between thirty-nine and forty-two degrees of north latitude; being about two hundred miles in length, and near the same in breadth.

The rivers of this country are, the Delaware, which rises beyond the limits of the province, and, running almost due south, falls into the Atlantic, between Cape May and Cape Henlopen; the Sashquahannah, which rising in the country of the Iroquois, and running south through the middle of Pennsylvania, discharges its waters into the bay of Chesapeak; and the Shuylkill, which issuing from between the sources of the two preceding rivers, and running first to the south, and then eastward, falls into the Delaware at Philadelphia. The first two of those rivers are navigable a great way for large ships, and the latter is navigable so high as the city last mentioned; a circumstance which renders the province extremely convenient for foreign trade.

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Philadelphia,

Philadelphia, the capital of this province, is situated in seventy-five degrees of west longitude, and in forty degrees fifty minutes of north latitude; upon a tongue of land, immediately at the confluence of the rivers Delaware and Shuylkill. This beautiful city is disposed in an oblong form, designed to extend two miles from river to river; but the buildings are hitherto not erected above a mile and a half in length, on the west side of the Delaware, and not more than half a mile in breadth, where the dimensions of the town are greatest. According to the original plan, eight parallel streets were to be built, each two miles in length, which were to be intersected by sixteen others, each a mile in length, broad, spacious, and even; with proper areas for public buildings, and market places. In the centre is a square of ten acres, round which most of the public buildings are disposed. The two principal streets of the city are each a hundred foot wide, and most of the houses have a small garden and orchard. From the river are cut several canals, equally agreeable and commodious. The quays are large and well built. The principal one is two hundred foot wide, and to this a vessel of five hundred tons may lay her broadside. The warehouses are also large, numerous, and commodious, and the docks for ship-building every way well adapted for their purposes. The city contains about two thousand dwelling houses, most of them of brick, and well built. The inhabitants are computed to be about fourteen thousand. A university was established here a few years since.

The town of Bristol stands on the west shore of the Delaware, twenty miles north of Philadelphia; and near the mouth of the same river; likewise on the west side stands Newcastle, which is a fine port, and has the briskest trade of any town in the province, next to Philadelphia.

This part of America being discovered by Mr. Hudson, a native of England, who was about to plant a colony at the mouth of the river which now bears his name, the Dutch purchased his interest in that plantation, and in the year 1608, took possession of it. In virtue of this transaction they considered themselves as entitled to all those territories now denominated New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. But there still remaining some part of them, which the Dutch had neglected to plant, the Swedes sent thither colonies of their countrymen, a measure which the people of the former nation were so far from tolerating, that they fell upon the Swedes, and compelled them to acknowledge the Hollanders their sovereign; permitting them however to enjoy the plantations they had settled, and the privileges of the rest of their subjects.

King Charles II. however, not admitting the claim of either of those nations, because part of the same coast, both on the north and south of those provinces, had been planted by the subjects of England, under a charter from James I. in which the countries in question were comprehended, transferred the several provinces which had been occupied by the Hollanders and Swedes, to his brother, the duke of

York, who sent over Sir Robert Carr, with a squadron of men of war, and land-forces to reduce them. On the appearance of this armament before the city of New-Amsterdam, since called New-York, the governor, in consequence of a summons, surrendered the place, and this example was soon followed by all the other towns in the country.

The Duke of York parcelled out the territory to under-proprietors, among whom was William Penn, son of Sir William Penn, admiral in the Dutch wars. The rest of those proprietors, some time after, surrendering their charters to the crown, New-York, and New-Jersey became royal governments, while Penn remained proprietor of that part of the country which had been granted to him. In the year 1680, he obtained from Charles II. an additional grant of that part of the country which at present constitutes the rest of Pennsylvania, in consideration of money due to his father, Sir William Penn, from the government. To the whole territory which he had obtained, he gave the name of Pennsylvania, and proceeded immediately to planting colonies; the Dutch and Swedish inhabitants choosing still to remain, as they did in New-York and the Jerseys.

Penn, however, notwithstanding those grants, did not look upon himself as the real proprietor of the lands he had obtained, till they should be confirmed to him by the Indians, in consequence of his paying to them what he esteemed a valuable consideration; the principles of his sect (he being a quaker) not permitting him to make use of force in the establishment of the colony.

On his arrival in America, therefore, in 1681, his first object was, to procure a conference with the Indian sachems, or kings, to treat with them for the purchase of the lands. The number of the natives being small, and hardly making any other use of the country than to hunt in it, they readily embraced the proposal, and he purchased countries of many miles extent, for a very moderate sum, which he paid in cloaths, tools, utensils, and toys. The land thus bought was entered upon by the under-purchasers, who purchased by the hundred and thousand acres, what the proprietary had bought by miles.

The government of Pennsylvania is proprietary, the heirs of the grantee appointing the governor and council; and the representatives are chosen by the freemen of the province. The territory was some years since mortgaged to Mr. Gee, and others, for six thousand six hundred pounds sterling. In the year 1713, Mr. Penn, by agreement, made over all his rights in Pennsylvania to the crown, in consideration of twelve thousand pounds sterling; but before the instrument of surrender was executed, he died apoplectic, and the country still remains with the family of the Penns.

The produce and traffic of Pennsylvania consists of horses, pipe-staves, pork, beef, and fish, salted and barrelled up, skins and furs, all sorts of grain, viz. wheat, rye, pease, oats, barley, buck-wheat, Indian corn, pot-ashes, wax, &c. In return for those commodities, they import from the Caribbee Islands, and other

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other places, rum, sugar, molasses, silver, negroes, salt, and wine; and from Great Britain, household goods, and clothing of all kinds, hardware, tools, and toys, as the other American colonies.

The Pennsylvanians are generally an industrious people, and most of them are substantial, though only a few of the landed men can be considered as rich. The inferior people manufacture most of their own wear, both linens and woollens. It is computed, that the number of inhabitants is about twenty thousand, of whom not above the fortieth part are blacks. The first planters were chiefly quakers; but there are now churches, of the established religion, in different parts of the province, whither missionaries are sent by the society for the propagation of the gospel.

#### NEW - J E R S E Y .

**N**EW-JERSEY is bounded on the west by the Delaware bay and river, which separate it from Pennsylvania; on the north by Hudson's River, which divides it from New-York, and on the east and south by the Atlantic Ocean. It is situate between seventy-four and seventy-six degrees of north latitude; being about a hundred and forty miles in length from north to south, and in breadth near sixty.

This province was formerly divided into two parts, by a line drawn almost through the middle of it from north to south, and distinguished by the names of East and West Jersey; but the proprietors of both having surrendered their charters to the crown, the whole now constitutes one royal government.

There are several chains of mountains in this province, but of no considerable extent. The principal rivers are the Delaware, and Hudson's river. The course of the former has been already described: the latter rises near Lake Champlain, in Canada, and running southward, falls into the Atlantic Ocean, a little below the town of New-York. Besides there are some other streams of less note.

The province is divided into several counties, and has for its chief towns Perth-Amboy and Bridlington, commonly called Burlington, distant fifty miles from each other, and at which the general assembly alternately sits.

Perth Amboy is pleasantly situated at the mouth of the river Raritan, and had it been built according to the plan originally intended, would have been one of the finest towns in North America; but the planters have never resorted thither, as was expected, though it is so commodiously situated for traffic that ships of three hundred tons may come up in one tide and lie before the merchants doors.

Bridlington, or Burlington, is situated on an island in the river Delaware, to the north of Philadelphia. This town is handsomely built with brick, and laid out into spacious streets, with commodious quays and wharfs, to which ships of two hundred or three hundred tons may come up. Here is a good market-place, with a town-house, or guild-hall, where the courts of justice were formerly held. There are also

two bridges over the river, one called London Bridge, and the other York Bridge; and the town having an easy communication with Philadelphia and the ocean, by the river Delaware, it carries on a brisk trade.

Elizabeth-Town, situated northward of Perth-Amboy, has also a flourishing commerce; besides which New-Brunswick and Trent-Town are places of considerable note. At the former of these a college was established for the instruction of youth, in 1746, with power to confer all degrees, as in other universities.

New-Jersey abounds much in corn, and is said to raise more wheat than any other of the colonies. The planters likewise raise some flax and hemp. Their chief trade is with New-York and Pennsylvania, whither they send most of their grain. They have also for some years had a considerable trade for provisions with the Antilles; and they export to Spain, Portugal, and the Canaries, tobacco, oil, fish, grain, and other provisions. They trade to England also with furs, skins, and other produce, taking furniture and clothing in return. By means of employing negroes, as the neighbouring colonies do, in cultivating their lands, they have lately more than doubled their value; and they now work a copper ore mine, and manufacture iron ore into pigs and bars.

The province of New-Jersey constituted part of New-Holland when taken from the Dutch. It was, however, not inhabited by the English till long after the country was discovered, and the first Europeans that settled here seem to be the Swedes, who chiefly seated themselves on the side of the Delaware, towards the frontiers of Pennsylvania. Here they built three towns, Christina, Gottenbourg, and Elfsanbourg, of which the latter yet retains its name. The Dutch almost entirely planted the north parts of this province by the name of Nova Belgia, and about the year 1665, Rizing, the Swedish general, sold to them all the possessions which had been occupied by his countrymen.

When the reduction of this province was resolved upon by Charles II. he made a grant of both the property and government of it to his brother, the duke of York, by a deed dated March 12, 1663, and the duke assigned it to the Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret; the former of whom obtained the western division of the country, and the other the eastern. A disposition of the territory was afterwards made by those grantees, with the approbation of the duke of York; and the province fell into the hands of a number of proprietors, who being unable to agree among themselves, either about matters of property, or the right of appointing a governor, determined to resign to the crown the government of the country, reserving only their title to the lands. Accordingly, in 1702, a surrender of the executive power of the province was made to queen Anne, who appointed the lord Cornbury their governor. For many years the government of the Jerseys was annexed to that of New-York, by a distinct commission; but of late they have been assigned to different persons. The constitution of the Jerseys, both in church

and state, is now the same as the other colonies, of which it is at present one of the most flourishing.

### NEW-YORK.

**NEW-YORK** is bounded on the south by Jersey, on the west by Pennsylvania and the country of the Iroquois, on the north by Canada, and on the east by New-England. It is situate between seventy-three degrees thirty minutes of west longitude, and between forty-one and forty-four degrees of north latitude; being upwards of two hundred miles in length from south to north, but hardly sixty broad in any part.

The soil of this province is exceeding fertile. All kinds of black cattle are in great numbers, and the breed of horses is much valued.

The chief towns are, New-York, Schenectida, and Albany; to which may be added West-Chester.

New-York, the capital of the province, is situate in seventy-four degrees thirty minutes of west longitude, and in forty-one degrees of north latitude. This city, which, when the Dutch were in possession of the country, was called New-Amsterdam, stands in the island of Manhattan, in the mouth of Hudson's River; an island about fourteen miles long and three broad. The city contains upwards of two thousand houses, built of brick and stone; and the streets, though not regular, are well paved. There is one large church appropriated for the established worship, besides three others, a Dutch, a French, and a Lutheran. The town stands on an eminence, and is surrounded by a wall. The harbour is commodious, and the trade of the city very considerable.

Schenectida is situated on Hudson's River, a hundred miles north of New-York, and is defended by a fortress.

Within this province are the two forts of Oswego and Ticonderoga; the former of which is situated in seventy-eight degrees of west longitude, and in forty-four degrees twenty minutes of north latitude, on the side of the lake Ontario. There the British trade with the distant Indians for skins and furs.

Ticonderoga is situated at the northern extremity of lake George, in seventy-three degrees twenty minutes of west longitude, and in forty-three degrees fifty minutes of north latitude.

Albany stands likewise on Hudson's River, about a hundred and fifty miles north of New-York. This town is more considerable for its trade with the Indians than for its extent. The commodities received by the people of this province are furs and skins, for which they barter coarse woollen goods, guns, hatchets, knives, hoes, kettles, powder, and shot, besides shirts, and several other articles. At this place the sachems, or kings of the Iroquois, meet the governors of the British plantations, when they enter into any treaties with them.

The trade of New-York consists in wheat, flour, skins, furs, oil of whales and sea calves, iron and copper, of both which the province affords very rich

mines. The inhabitants not only maintain a traffic with Britain, but with Spain, Portugal, Africa, and the West-India Islands, and even with the Spanish continent in America, by which means they are enabled to pay in gold and silver for the manufactures which they import from the mother-country.

The internal trade of the province is chiefly carried on by water-carriage, on Hudson's River, which is one of the finest in America. It is navigable upwards of two hundred miles, and the tide flows a hundred and fifty.

The inhabitants of this country are between eighty and a hundred thousand. There is here a general toleration of all religions; and considering the healthfulness of the climate, and the fertility of the soil, the province is inferior to none of the British plantations. It is a royal government, and administered like others of the same class.

On the arrival of the armament fitted out in 1664, by the duke of York, to take possession of this territory, in virtue of his patent, Nicholls, the commander, marched directly against the town of New-Amsterdam, now New-York, which the Dutch governor being unable to defend, surrendered by capitulation. All the Dutch inhabitants, who were willing to submit to the British government, were permitted to remain, and protected in their persons and effects. Above half the number accepted of these terms.

Soon after the surrender of New Amsterdam, Nicholls marched to Orange Fort, which likewise capitulated; and all the straggling plantations in the country fell under the power of the English. The Dutch, however, recovered New-York in 1672, but restored it a few months after, by the treaty of peace.

After the Revolution, the French found means to excite the Hurons against the inhabitants of New-York; and colonel Benjamin Fletcher, then governor of the province, was ordered to carry thither from England some land-forces for the protection of the colony. Meanwhile, in 1690, colonel Peter Schuyler, an inhabitant of New-York, raised three hundred British subjects, and as many Indians, with whom he marched against Quebec. This expedition appears to have been ill concerted, as it was entirely destitute of heavy artillery. Schuyler, however, advanced into Canada with great intrepidity, and was opposed by a superior army of French, which he engaged; but after killing three hundred of the enemy, perceiving that his force was too small, he returned to New-York.

A similar set of hostility was in a short time after carried into execution by the French, who invaded the province of New-York, took and burnt the town of Schenectida, and put the inhabitants to the sword.

Fletcher not arriving, the government of New-York was at this time in a state of anarchy, when colonel Leslie assumed the direction of the affairs of the province, in conjunction with one Mr. Jacob Milbourne, both vainly imagining that they would be continued in the government, or at least be strong enough to hold out against the governor who had been appointed by king William.

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While affairs were in this situation Fletcher arrived with his troops. He immediately summoned Leslie and Milbourne to surrender the fort, which they not only refused to do, but killed one of his soldiers. The governor, however, reducing the place in a short time, they were both tried for high treason, and executed accordingly.

Besides the island of Manhattan, on which the city of New-York stands, there are two other islands contiguous to the province, and comprehended under its government. One of those is Long-Island, called by the Indians, Matawacks, and by the Dutch, Nassau. It is in length from east to west about a hundred and twenty miles, and, at a medium, about ten miles broad. Its shore is a sandy flat, as is all the east coast of North America, from Cape Cod, off New England, in forty-two degrees ten minutes of north latitude, to Cape Florida. Upon the shore of Long Island are few inlets, and those very shallow. Between it and Connecticut there is a sound, the widest part of which, near the town of New-Haven in that province, does not exceed eight leagues. Two-thirds of this island is a barren sandy soil. It is divided into three counties, viz. Queen's county, King's county, and Suffolk county, and pays more than one fourth of the taxes of the province of New-York. The eastern parts of this island were settled from New England, and the western by the Dutch, where many families to this day understand no other language but that of the latter. The confluence of the east and west tide, in Long-Island sound, is at Hell-gate, about twelve miles from the city of New-York. In the middle of this island is a plain, sixteen miles long and four broad, to which they give the name of Salisbury-Plain, having, as is said, as fine a turf as that on Salisbury-Plain in Old England. There being in the island an excellent breed of horses, there are races here every season, to which there is a great resort of company from New-England and New-York.

Staten-Island is situate about a league westward of Long-Island, and is separated from Perth-Amboy in Jersey, by a creek about a mile over. This island is near twelve miles long and six broad, and makes one county, called Richmond, which pays not so much as a twentieth part of the provincial tax. It is all one parish, but contains an English, French, and Dutch congregation. The inhabitants are mostly of the former nation, and there is only one considerable village, called Cuckold's Town.

#### NEW-ENGLAND.

New-England is bounded on the west by New-York, on the north-west by Canada, on the north-east by Nova Scotia, or Acadia, and on the east and south by the Atlantic Ocean. It is situate between sixty-seven and seventy-three degrees of west longitude, and between forty-one and forty-five degrees of north latitude; being about three hundred miles in length, and from one hundred to two hundred broad.

This country is divided into four distinct governments, viz. New Hampshire, or Piscataway, on the north; the Massachusetts colony in the middle; Rhode-Island, and Providence-Plantation, on the south; and the colony of Connecticut, on the west.

#### CONNECTICUT.

The colony of Connecticut, which comprehends New-Haven, is bounded on the north by the Massachusetts colony, on the east by another part of Massachusetts, and Rhode-Island, on the south by an arm of the sea, which divides it from Long-Island, and on the west by New-York; being about a hundred miles in length, and eighty in breadth. It is divided into the following counties, viz. New-London, Hartford, New-Haven, and Fairfield county.

New-London county is situated on both sides of the river Connecticut, and contains the subsequent towns, namely, New-London, Saybrook, Lyme, Stonington, Preston, Dantzick, Norwich, Lebanon, and Killingworth.

The county of Hartford is contiguous to that of London on the north, and lies also on both sides of the river Connecticut. It contains the towns of Hartford, Farmington, Glastonbury, Hadham, Middletown, Simsbury, Waterbury, Weathersfield, Windsor, Farm, and Windham.

New-Haven county is bounded by that of Hartford on the north, by London county on the east, the sea on the south, and Fairfield county on the west. The towns in this county are, New-Haven, Brainford, Darby, Guilford, Milford, and Wellington.

Fairfield county also lies upon the sea, between the county of New-Haven on the east, and the province of New-York on the west. The towns are, Fairfield, Danbury, Greenwich, Norwalk, Rye, Stamford, Stratford, and Woodbury.

The constitution of this colony is that of a charter government, the people having the choice of their own governor, deputy-governor, council, and assembly.

#### RHODE-ISLAND.

Rhode-Island is situated in Narraganset-Bay, on the south-east of the province of New-England. It is about fifteen miles long, and six broad, and has several smaller islands annexed to it. This colony has also a charter government, under which is comprehended Providence Plantation, containing a district about twenty miles square on the neighbouring continent.

The chief town of Rhode-Island is Newport, situate towards the south-west, in forty-one degrees odd minutes north latitude. It has a very secure and commodious harbour, defended at the entrance by a regular fort, on which are planted thirty pieces of large cannon.

Providence-Plantation has two port-towns, one of which is called Providence, and the other Warwick. Rhode-Island and Providence-Plantation are also a charter government.

## MASSACHUSET BAY.

**T**HE Massachusetts colony, is bounded on the west by Connecticut and New York, on the north by New Hampshire, and on the east and south by the Atlantic Ocean; being about a hundred miles long, and forty broad. This colony is distinguished into Massachusetts Proper, Maine, and Plymouth; the first of which is again subdivided into the counties of Suffolk, Middlesex, and Essex, all situated on the Massachusetts Bay.

The chief towns in Massachusetts Proper are, Boston, Braintree, Dedham, Dorchester, Kinghorn, Hull, Medfield, Menden, Milton, Roxborough, Weymouth, Woodstock, Wrentham, Brooklin, and Needham.

Boston, the capital of this colony, and of all New England, is situate in seventy-one degree five minutes west longitude, and in forty-two degrees twenty-four minutes of north latitude. It stands on a peninsula, about four miles in circumference, at the bottom of a fine bay. In the entrance of the bay are several rocks, that appear above water, and a dozen small islands, some of which are inhabited. The harbour can be approached only by one safe channel, so narrow that three ships can hardly sail through abreast; but within the harbour, there is room for five hundred sail to lie at anchor. The entrance is defended by the castle of Fort William, mounting a hundred guns, twenty of which lie on a platform, level with the water. To prevent any surprise, a guard is placed on one of the rocks, about two leagues distant, on which also is a light house, whence a signal is made to the castle, when any ship comes in sight. There is also a battery of great guns at the end of the town, which commands the harbour.

At the bottom of the bay, is a pier, or mole, near two thousand foot in length, with the merchants warehouses on the north side of it; to which ships of the greatest burden may come up, and unload without the help of boats.

The town of Boston lies in the form of a crescent about the harbour. There are in it several streets not much inferior to the best in London, the chief of which runs from the pier to the Town-House, or Guild-Hall, a handsome building, and rendered more commodious by containing walks for the merchants. Here are also the council-chamber, the house of representatives, and the courts of justice. There are ten churches belonging to people of different persuasions. Six of those are independents, which is here the established church. There is besides an episcopal church, handsomely built and adorned. The number of inhabitants is computed to be about twenty thousand. Behind the town, the country rises gradually into hills, and affords a most delightful prospect from the sea.

Middlesex county lies north of that of Suffolk. Its chief towns are, Cambridge, Billerica, Charles-Town,

Chelmsford, Concord, Lexington, Grottnn, Lancaster, Marlborough, Malden, Framingham, Medford, Newton, Oxford, Reading, Sherburn, Stow, Studdbury, East-Waterton, Weston, Woburn, and Worcester,

The principal of those is Cambridge, commonly called Newton, situated on the northern branch of Charles river, about three miles from Boston. Here are several well-built streets, but it is most considerable for its university, consisting of three colleges. There was also a college built for the education of Indians; but this is now converted into a printing-house, the education of the Indians in the learned languages being found impracticable. The university is governed by a president, and five fellows, with the treasurer, who have each a competent stipend. The number of students resident in all the colleges may be about a hundred and fifty. Their visitors, or overseers, are the governor, and deputy-governor, with the magistrates of the province, and the ministers of six adjacent towns.

The most northerly county of Massachusetts Proper is Essex, which contains the towns of Salem, Amesbury, Salisbury, Haverhill, Newbury, Boxford, Rowley, Ipswich, Topsfield, Bradford, Gloucester, Manchester, Beverley, Marblehead, Lynn, Wenham, and Andover. The chief of those is Salem, which stands in a plain, near the confluence of two rivers, by which it is watered on each side. It has two harbours, one called the Summer, and the other the Winter harbour. A little northward of this town lies the promontory called Cape Anna, esteemed a good station for fishing; and farther north stands Newbury, pleasantly situated at the mouth of Merimack river, where they take a great quantity of sturgeon, and pickle them in the same manner as in the Baltic. Between this town and Salisbury, which lies on the opposite side of the Merimack, there is a constant ferry, half a mile over.

The second division of the Massachusetts government is that of Plymouth, which lies south of Massachusetts Proper, and contains the counties of Plymouth, Barnstable, and Bristol.

The most southerly of those is the county of Bristol, which contains the towns of Bristol, Swansey, Rohoboth, Norton, Dartmouth, Taunton, Dighton, Little Compton, Attleborough, and Free-town. Bristol, the principal town, is situated on a commodious harbour, at the entrance of which lies Rhode Island.

The county of Barnstable lies contiguous to Plymouth on the south-east. In this division is the promontory of Cape Cod, which forms a large commodious bay, capable of containing a thousand sail of ships. The chief towns of this county are, Barnstable, Eastham, Manimay, Truro, Rochester, Sandwich, Yarmouth, Harwick, and Nantucket. The latter of those is situated in an island of the same name, lying south-east of the main land, near which is one of the most considerable fisheries in New England, which renders this town a flourishing place.

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the most northerly, are, New-Plymouth, Bridgewater, Duxbury, Marshfield, Scituate, Middlebury, Pembroke, and Plympton. The chief of those is New-Plymouth, situated on the south side of a large bay, and is the oldest town in the province.

The third grand division of the Massachusetts government is Maine, contiguous to Nova Scotia on the north-east. The chief towns are, Falmouth, Jacob or Scarborough, Wells, Hedeck or Newcastle, Edger Town, York, Katteren, Berwick, and Biddeford.

The government of the Massachusetts colony, including its several diversions, is a compound of the royal and charter governments; the king nominating the governor, but the assembly of representatives appointing the council, or upper house.

#### NEW HAMPSHIRE.

**T**HE province of New Hampshire, or Piscataway, is bounded on the south by that of the Massachusetts's Bay, on the west by New-York, on the north by Nova Scotia, and on the east by the Atlantic Ocean. The soil of this province is not fertile, the greater part of it being yet forest. The chief towns are, Dover, Portsmouth, Exeter, and Hampton, all situated near the mouth of the river Piscataway. Besides those, there are many towns in the inland country, though not of great note.

The country of New England, towards the coast, is generally low, but in the other parts it becomes gradually elevated, and in the north-east is rocky and mountainous. The weather here is not so variable as in Old England, but the seasons are much more intemperate. The north and north-west winds blowing over a long tract of frozen country, render the winter very cold; and the ground is not only covered with snow during several months, but the navigation on the coast is totally obstructed by the ice. The warmth of the summer compensates the shortness of its duration, and is proportionable to the rigour of the preceding season. The climate however appears to be as healthful as that of any of our plantations in North America. Round Massachusetts's Bay, the soil is black, and as rich as in any part of England. The uplands are less fruitful, being for the most part a mixture of sand and gravel, inclining to clay. But even here a sufficient quantity of corn, and culinary vegetables is produced for the subsistence of the inhabitants.

Few colonies are better watered with rivers and lakes than New England, though the latter are not so considerable as those to the west and northward. Seven of the rivers are navigable, all abound in fish, and many of them answer every purpose of commerce. Connecticut river, in particular, is navigable a great way by the largest vessels. It rises in the northern frontier of the province, and runs directly south through the district of its own name, discharging itself between the towns of Saybrook and Line, after a course of two hundred miles. The

other most considerable streams, are the Thames, Piscataqua, Marimech, Saco, Kennebuty, Patucat, and Cusco; to the convenience of which we may ascribe the greatest number of large and populous towns in this province.

Besides river-fish, the coast abounds with cod; and formerly there was a whale fishery between New-England and New-York, which is now entirely engrossed by the Newfoundlanders. The cod taken here are salted and exported, not only to the sugar colonies, but likewise to Europe, constituting a very considerable article in the trade of the province.

The country is fruitful in all kinds of excellent plants, pulse, and corn; but Indian corn, or maize, which the natives call weachin, is the most cultivated, and was the only species known here on the first arrival of the Europeans. The ear of this corn is about a span long, composed of eight or more rows of grain, according to the quality of the soil, and having about thirty grains in each row. By this calculation, every ear, at a medium, produces about two hundred and forty grains, which is an astonishing increase. It is of various colours, red, white, yellow, black, green, &c. and the diversity often appears not only in the same field, but in the same ear of corn; though white and yellow be the most frequent. The ear is included in strong thick husks, which defend it from the cold. In many of the provinces in North America, the stalk grows seven or eight foot high, and proportionably strong and thick. It is jointed like a cane, and is supplied with a juice as sweet as that of the sugar cane; but from the experiments which have been made, it seems not to be accommodated to any useful purpose. Every joint is marked with a long leaf or flag, and, at the top, shoots a branch of flowers like rye blossoms. The usual time of sowing, or, as it is here called, of planting, is from the middle of April to the middle of May; though in the northern countries, the corn is not put in the ground before June. But on account of the extreme warmth of summer, the harvest arrives in due season.

This corn the Indians boil till it is tender, and eat with fish, fowl, or flesh, as bread. Sometimes they previously bruise it in mortars, but the most usual preparatory method is to dry the corn high, without burning. The English bake it into bread in the same manner as flour. But the best food made from it is samri. This is procured by steeping the corn in water for half an hour, after which it is beat in a mortar until it is thoroughly cleared of the husk. It is then sifted, and boiled, and eaten with milk, or butter and sugar, like rice. Good strong beer may also be brewed from it green, without using the expensive European method of malting.

New England produces great variety of fowls, such as geese, ducks, hens, turkeys, partridges, &c. with plenty of all those quadrupeds which are more immediately necessary to human subsistence and convenience. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly. The horses of the province are hardy and mettlesome, but small. Here also are elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, beavers, otters, monkeys,

monkeys, racoons, fables, bears, wolves, foxes, ounces, with many other quadrupeds, both wild and tame.

The most extraordinary of those animals is the moose-deer. The body of this species is about the size of a bull. The buck sometimes measures fourteen spans in height from the withers, reckoning nine inches a span. The moose parts the hoof, chews the cud, and is said to have no gall. Its ears are large and erect. The horns, when full grown, are about five foot from the head to the tip, having branches to each horn, and they generally spread about six foot. This species of deer does not spring or rise, in going, as the other kinds, but shoves along sideways, throwing out its feet like a horse in a rocking pace. The flesh of the moose-deer is reputed excellent food, though not so delicate as the common venison, and will bear salting.

The New England whales are of several kinds. The right, or whalebone whale is very bulky, measuring sixty or seventy foot in length. Instead of scales, it has a soft, smooth skin. On each side is a fin, from five to eight foot long; which they use only in turning themselves, unless when young; and carried by the dam on the flukes of her tail, at which time they clasp their fins about her, to hold themselves firm. This fish, when brought forth, is about twenty foot long, and of little value, but then the dam is very fat. At a year old, when they are called short heads, they are very fat, and yield fifty barrels of oil; at which time the dam, though of greater bulk, will not yield more than thirty. At two years old they receive the name of stunto, being stunted after weaning, and will then yield generally from twenty-four to twenty-eight barrels. After this they are termed scull-fish, their age being unknown, and only guessed at by the length of the bones in their mouths.

The eyes of the whale are not larger than those of an ox, and are placed in the back part of the head where the animal is broadest. In place of ears, it has two small holes, hardly perceptible; but within the head, immediately under those, are organs well formed, by which it has an acute sensation of sound. It has two pipes on the top of the head, that serve the double office of breathing, and discharging the water it has swallowed, which is thence often spouted to a considerable height, and in great quantity.

The mouth is between four and five fathoms wide, and the lips broad and thick, of enormous weight. The animal has no teeth, and its gullet is very narrow. The tongue is about eighteen foot long, and ten broad, covered with thick hairs, like those of a horse, and fastened to those bones in the upper jaw, which are called the whalebone. The privities of the male are on the outside, as in quadrupeds; the yard is near fourteen foot long, and one foot thick. The female seldom brings forth more than one young at a time; the male is between sixty and seventy foot long, but the female of a larger size.

The finback whale is distinguished from the right whale, by having a fin on the back, from two foot

and a half, to four foot long; and the bunch or humpback whale, by having a bunch, in place of the fin in the preceding kind.

The spermaceti whale is nearly of the same dimensions, but is of a greyish colour, whereas the others are black. This species has likewise a hump on the back, but no whalebone in the mouth; instead of which there are rows of fine teeth in each jaw about five or six inches long.

The whales in general are gregarious, but the different species keep separate. They are sometimes found to the number of a hundred in a skull or shoal; and they are great travellers. In the autumn, the whalebone whales go westward, and in the spring eastward.

New England abounds in excellent timber, oak, ash, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypress, beech, walnut, chestnut, hazel, sassafras, sumach, and other woods used in dyeing, or tanning leather, carpenters work, and ship-building. So great was the havoc made in the forests, that an act of parliament was passed to restrain it, by inflicting penalties on those who cut down trees of a certain kind, before they were arrived at a specified growth and age. The pines are equal to those of Norway in growth and straightness; but the oak is reckoned inferior in quality to that of England.

On the first arrival of the English, this country was inhabited by twenty different nations or tribes, independent of each other, and commanded by their respective chiefs. In the year 1606, king James I. by letters patent, erected two companies, which were empowered to send colonies to Virginia, the name at that time of the whole north-east coast of America. One of those companies was called the Plymouth company, which for some years traded only with the natives of North Virginia, or New England, for furs, and fished upon the coast. In 1614, two ships were employed in this fishery, commanded by the captains Smith and Hunt. The former of those returning to England, left orders with Hunt to sail for Spain, and there dispose of the fish which he had taken. But previous to performing this voyage, Hunt enticed twenty-seven Indians on board his ship, whom, sailing to Malaga, he sold for slaves at the rate of twenty pounds a man; an act of treachery which was so much resented by the Indians, that all commerce with them was broken off for some time.

About the year 1619, some persons of the independent persuasion, who were uneasy at their being required to conform to the church of England, purchased the Plymouth patent, and at the same time obtained another from the king, for sending colonies to America. A hundred and fifty emigrants of this class arrived at Cape Cod in New England, in 1620, where they built a town to which they gave the name of New Plymouth, and elected one Carver their governor.

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All the provinces of New England were planted in the space of twenty years, reckoning from the arrival of the first colony at New Plymouth, during which time they met with little interruption from the Indians; till the planters at Connecticut began to

temptable that is to be found in the history of mankind. An unaccountable frenzy possessed those puritans, that they were under the power of witches and evil spirits. The strange infatuation began at the town of Salem, towards the end of the year 1691. A person named Paris was the minister of this place. He had two daughters, both children troubled with convulsions, which being accompanied with some of those extraordinary appearances not unrequent in such disorders, he imagined they were bewitched. This being taken for granted, the next object was to discover the person who had bewitched them. He immediately fixed his suspicion on an Indian woman named Tituba, his servant, and two others; whom he frequently beat, and used with so much severity, that Tituba at last confessed herself the witch, and was committed to jail, where she lay for a long time.

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to Europe, what a powerful people the English were, made Carver a visit the following spring, and entered into an alliance offensive and defensive with the settlers, by whose assistance he hoped to conquer the Narraganset nation, with which he was then at war. He agreed to acknowledge the king of England his sovereign, and made a cession of part of his country to the new planters. Other sachems, or princes, soon followed the example of Massacoit, and desired the protection of the English against their enemies, professing themselves also subjects to the English crown.

More emigrants frequently arriving, the colony soon became well established; but religious differences broke out among them, which had nearly proved fatal. The independents, who were the most numerous, not allowing a toleration to any other sect, several adventurers removed to other parts of the country, and some returned home; by which defection the colony was so much weakened, that had not the Indians been occupied with intestine divisions, the English must have been expelled from this part of America.

In the year 1627, another set of adventurers purchased of the Plymouth company all that part of New England, which lies between the river Merimack and Charles river; and having procured a confirmation of this grant from Charles I. they nominated one Cradock their governor.

This new company fitted out six ships, with three hundred planters, furnished with live cattle, and all manner of necessary stores and provisions; and arriving on the Massachusetts coast, built the town of Salem, between the promontory of Marblehead and Cape Anna. The governor who had been nominated refusing to go, they appointed one Winthrop in his room; and in 1630 built Boston, the present capital of the province.

The same year Charles I. granted part of the country of Connecticut to the Earl of Warwick, which was afterwards purchased of the patentee by the viscount Say and Seale, lord Brook, Sir Nathaniel Rich, Charles Fiennes, John Pym, and John Hampden. The two latter of those were the most strenuous opposers of the king, and are said to have been once on the point of transporting themselves thither, with Oliver Cromwell, Sir Arthur Haslerig, and others, when they were prevented from it by a proclamation, which prohibited people from quitting the kingdom without a licence. Those patentees afterwards sold their interest in the plantations.

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erect fortresses, and extend their settlements westward, without the leave of the natives. Alarmed at this encroachment, the sachem Metacomet, son of Massacoit, dispatched messengers through all the tribes of the Indians, exhorting them to take up arms in defence of their country. A general insurrection ensued, and the natives proved successful in several encounters; but Metacomet being slain, the English at length prevailed. Great numbers of the Indians were massacred, while others abandoning the country, joined the French in Canada, who received them under their protection.

Towards the close of the reign of Charles II. immediately subsequent to those events, a writ of quo warranto was issued against the colony of New Plymouth, and judgment was entered in Chancery. In 1683 and 1684, it met with the same persecution; but when the quo warranto was sent against Connecticut and Newhaven, their governments were given to understand, by a letter from the king, that if they quietly resigned their charter, they might have it in their option to be associated either with the colony of New York, or that of Massachusetts; upon which they chose the latter. About the same period, Rhode Island resigned its charter, as did also the colonies of New Hampshire and Maine; since which time their governor and council have been named by the king, but the governor has generally been the same with that of the Massachusetts.

The affairs of New England remained in a state of tranquility henceforth till the Revolution, when the Indians began to complain of being interrupted in their fishery upon Saco river; that their fields were trespassed upon by the English cattle, and that the government of Boston had given away their lands. It appears that those complaints were not made without sufficient ground, and they proved the foundation of a course of mutual hostilities between the planters and Indians for some time.

Soon after the Revolution in 1688, a number of non-conformists, who had been turned out of their livings by the Bartholomew act, resorted to this province, which they filled with theological disputes; the prelude to a delusion the most ridiculous and contemptible that is to be found in the annals of mankind. An unaccountable frenzy possessed those puritans, that they were under the power of witches and evil spirits. The strange infatuation began at the town of Salem, towards the end of the year 1691. A person named Paris was the minister of this place. He had two daughters, both children troubled with convulsions, which being accompanied with some of those extraordinary appearances not unfrequent in such disorders, he imagined they were bewitched. This being taken for granted, the next object was to discover the person who had bewitched them. He immediately fixed his suspicion on an Indian woman named Tituba, his servant, and two others; whom he frequently beat, and used with so much severity, that Tituba at last confessed herself the witch, and was committed to jail, where she lay for a long time.

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soon spread its pernicious contagion over the province. The next object of accusation was one Mr. Burroughs, a man of unblemished character, who had formerly been minister of Salem; but upon some of the religious disputes which divided the country, he differed with his flock and left them. This man was tried with two others, for witchcraft, by a special commission of oyer and terminer, directed to some of the gentlemen of the best fortunes, and reputed to be of the best understandings in the country. The witnesses against him were five women, who pretended to be bewitched by him, and eight confessing witches; the latter swearing he was the principal actor in their nightly revels, and was promised the sceptre of satan's kingdom, then about to be created. This evidence was corroborated by that of the persons bewitched, who unanimously deposed, that a spectre resembling the prisoner, but invisible to others, tormented them in their fits. One of the witnesses swore that the prisoner pressed her to set her hand to a book, and inflicted cruel pains on her when she refused. Others deposed, that he sounded a trumpet for the witches to rendezvous at a sacrament, and tempted those whom he tormented to partake with them. Another swore that he carried her to the top of a high mountain, and shewed her glorious kingdoms, saying, he would give them all to her, if she would sign his book.

The confessing witches deposed, that he gave them puppets, into which they were to stick thorns, which he also gave them, for the purpose of afflicting all the people of Salem.

Some persons of credit deposed, that he had the strength of a giant, and instanced his lifting great weights; but the defendant urged that an Indian in court had done the same. Others testified he had been cruel to his wives, who often complained to the neighbours that his house was troubled with evil spirits.

The prisoner denied the whole charge, which he farther invalidated by declaring it to be his opinion, that never any person made a formal contract with the devil. He was however convicted, and sentence of death passed upon him.

Being brought to the scaffold, he made solemn protestations of his innocence, and behaved with so much composure and devotion, that the compassion of the people was excited. It was expected that the magistrates who attended him would have respited his execution; but his accusers crying out that he was assisted by the devil, he was turned off, and the body afterwards dragged into a hole, without being permitted a decent burial.

Upon similar evidence, in a little time after, twenty-eight persons received sentence of death; the greater part of them in sentiments of the most exemplary piety, and with the strongest professions of their innocence. One man, refusing to plead, suffered in the cruel manner the law directed on that occasion, by a slow pressure to death. Reason and humanity seemed to be extinguished by the frantic infatuation of the people, and the most ordinary and innocent actions were interpreted into magical ceremonies. Even

children of eleven years old were committed to prison upon the charge of forcery. Women were stripped, in the most shameful manner, to search them for magical teats. The scorbutic spots common on the skin of old persons, were affirmed to be the devil's pinches: this was considered as evidence of the most indisputable nature. As such they also admitted every idle report, and even stories of ghosts, which they distinguished by the name of spectral evidence. To so unaccountable a degree did the delusion operate, that some women acknowledged they had been lain with by the devil.

The unhappy persons who suffered the torture, being not more pressed to own themselves guilty, than to discover their accomplices, unable to give any real account, named people at random, who were immediately taken up, and treated in the same cruel manner, upon this extorted evidence.

Some preventing accusation, charged themselves with witchcraft, and thereby escaped death. Others fled the province; and many more were preparing to fly. The prisons were crowded, people were executed daily, yet the number of the witches and the bewitched increased every hour. A magistrate, who committed forty persons for this crime, fatigued with so disagreeable an employment, and ashamed of his conduct, refused to grant any more warrants. He was himself immediately accused of forcery, and with difficulty saved his life, by making his escape out of the province.

A jury, struck with the affecting manner and solemn protestations of innocence of a young woman brought before them, ventured to acquit her; but the judges refused to accept their verdict, and forced them to find the woman guilty; in consequence of which determination she was immediately executed. The magistrates and ministers, whose prudence ought to have been employed in assuaging the public infatuation, served only to render it more obstinate. They encouraged the accusers, they assisted at the examinations, and they extorted the confessions of those who were the victims of the popular fury.

Upon this occasion, none signalized their zeal more than Sir William Phipps, the governor, a native of the province, of mean birth and education; with Increase Mather, and Cotton Mather, two fanatical members of the New-England church. Several of the most popular ministers, after twenty persons had been executed, addressed the governor with thanks for what he had done, and exhorted him to proceed in so laudable a work. The people began at length to accuse the judges themselves. The nearest relations of Increase Mather were involved in the charge of witchcraft, and even some persons in the governor's own family were criminated. It was now high time to stem the torrent. The accusers were discouraged by authority, and one hundred and fifty persons, who lay in prison, were discharged. The people became ashamed of their infatuation; a general fast was appointed; and the puritans prayed God to pardon all the errors of his people in a late tragedy, raised among them by satan and his instruments.

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Such was the end of this extraordinary madness, which threatened desolation to the whole province, and had well nigh extinguished in every breast the sentiments of nature and humanity. By its tendency to abolish all religious distinctions, however, which had hitherto excited much animosity among the inhabitants, the people of New-England enjoyed henceforth a greater degree of internal quiet than they had experienced since the earliest settlement of the colony.

## NOVA SCOTIA.

**N**OVA SCOTIA, or Acadia, is bound on the west by New-England and Canada, on the north by the river of St. Lawrence, on the east by the bay of St. Lawrence and the Atlantic Ocean, and on the south by the same ocean and the bay of Fundi; extending between sixty-three and seventy degrees of west longitude, and between forty-three and forty-six degrees of north latitude.

This country is one extensive forest, in which are numerous lakes and rivers. A chain of mountains extends along the south bank of the river of St. Lawrence, called the Lady mountains, whence issue several streams, which discharge themselves into the northern boundary of the province. The rivers of St. John, Penobscot, and St. Croix, run to the southward, and fall into the bay of Fundi. The first of those, which is the largest, is navigable for small vessels almost through its whole course.

The weather in Nova Scotia runs upon extremes, the summers being very hot, and the winters excessively cold, the latter of which is likewise of long duration. The ground is generally not fertile, and produces so little corn, that the inhabitants are obliged to supply themselves with this article from other parts. Timber, however, is plentiful here, as well as all sorts of game, and there is an excellent cod-fishery on the sand-banks near the coast.

The chief town is Annapolis, situate in sixty-four degrees five minutes of west longitude, and in forty-five degrees ten minutes of north latitude. It stands on a fine bay, and has an excellent harbour, capable of containing a thousand vessels.

Canso is situated on an island near the south-east point of the peninsula. Other towns in the province are, Nuremberg, inhabited chiefly by Germans, Minnes, Cheneleto, and Halifax, the latter of which has also the advantage of a safe and commodious harbour.

In the year 1621, James I. king of Great Britain, granted this country to Sir William Alexander, secretary of state for Scotland; giving it the name of New-Scotland, and ordaining it to be governed by the laws of that kingdom, of which it was to be considered as a fief. Sir William Alexander inmediately began to establish a settlement; but Charles I. marrying the princess Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France, ceded Nova Scotia to the crown. A war soon after breaking out between that two kingdoms, Sir David Kirk was sent by king

Charles with an armament to recover the country, who not only reduced Acadia, but made a conquest of the territory north west of the river of St. Lawrence, and took the town and castle of Quebec, of which he was constituted governor. At a subsequent treaty the province was again ceded to the French crown; but recovered by Oliver Cromwell in 1654.

Charles II. at the treaty of Breda, in 1667, restored Nova Scotia to France. It was again taken by Sir William Phipps, governor of New England, in 1690; but relinquished by king William at the peace of Ryswick. By the treaty of Utrecht, however, in 1713, it was finally surrendered by the French, and has since continued to form a part of the British dominions in America.

## C A N A D A.

**C**ANADA is bounded on the east by the river of St. Lawrence, which divides it from Nova Scotia and New England; on the south by the Huron and other lakes, which separate it from Louisiana; on the west by parts unknown; and on the north by the country of the Eskimaux, or New-Britain, and Hudson's Bay; extending from sixty-five to one hundred degrees of west longitude, and from forty to fifty degrees of north latitude.

This country abounds in spacious lakes, the chief of which are the Huron and Illinois, each of them measuring several hundred miles in extent. The principal river is that of St. Lawrence, which rises out of the great lake Ontario, or Frontenac, in forty-five degrees of north latitude, and seventy-eight of western longitude, and running to the north-east, discharges itself into the bay or gulph of St. Lawrence; being navigable for large vessels as high as Montreal.

The principal fish inhabiting the river St. Lawrence, from its gulph to the lakes, are a great variety of small whales, particularly the fougueur. Porpoises, dolphins, and sea-cows, are innumerable. The latter is an amphibious animal, of the size of an ox; its skin resembling that of a sea dog, and having a mouth like a cow, with two projecting teeth, crooked, and about half a yard long. The fore-feet are like those of a cow, and the hinder feet webbed in the manner of geese. This animal is strong, wild, and very difficult to be taken on shore. It is said to eat neither flesh nor fish; its food being supposed to consist only of a submarine weed, known by the name of sea-forrel.

The inhabitants catch those animals by the following stratagem; they tie a bull to a stake, fixed near the shore, in the depth of two foot water. They beat and torment him, by twisting his tail, till they make him roar; when, hearing his cries, the sea-cows crawl about him, and are taken.

Here are also salmon, eels, bass, mackarel, herrings, haddock, turbot, &c.

The capital of Canada is Quebec, situate on the west side of the river of St. Lawrence, in sixty-nine degrees

degrees forty-eight minutes of west longitude, and in forty-six degrees forty-five minutes of north latitude. This city consists of two towns, distinguished by the names High and Low Town. They are separated from each other by a steep cliff, which is a natural fortification to almost two thirds of the Upper Town, at the same time that it serves for a shelter to the Lower Town from the cold north-west winds. The houses are in general well built, of a durable greyish stone, of which there is great plenty in the province. The streets of the Higher Town are broad, but uneven, running upon a declivity from the south to the north. Those of the Lower Town are narrow, standing on a confined spot of ground, which is commonly overflowed by the tide to the foot of the precipice. Here are several public buildings, which make a handsome appearance. The citadel, the residence of the governor, is curiously erected on the top of a precipice, whence there is a delightful prospect of the river downwards, and the country on both sides.

The custom-house, which is a splendid building, stands in the Lower Town, and is the only house in that quarter which escaped being damaged by our shells, during the siege in 1759.

The general hospital stands near a mile from the town on the north-west side, and is a stately building. It is agreeably situated on the south side of the river Charles, which meanders under its walls. In this house is a convent of Augustine nuns, who have lands appropriated for their maintenance.

The strength of Quebec consists chiefly in its lofty situation. Ship-guns cannot have sufficient elevation to do it any considerable damage, and it is too hazardous an undertaking for bomb-ketches to attempt to destroy it; because they must be exposed to a furious fire from the several batteries erected above each other down the water's edge; and any ships brought against it must run up with the flood, stand off and on until the tide of ebb, and then retire. The ramparts, or line of fortification towards the country, consist of a wall; there being no batteries here, except a few flank-fires; nor is there any ditch round the town. The ground within the walls, however, is so advantageous for erecting batteries, that this place may be rendered as impregnable on the land-side, as it is naturally, by its singular situation, inaccessible towards the river.

Montreal is situated on an island in the river of St. Lawrence, sixty leagues south-west of Quebec. This island is about fourteen leagues in length, and five in breadth, and is full of fine plantations. The town is strongly situated, and the fortifications have of late been much improved. The river of St. Lawrence is not navigable above this place, on account of some cataracts, and the rapidity of the stream.

Trois Rivieres, a town so named from its situation on the confluence of three rivers, one of which is that of St. Lawrence, lies almost midway between Quebec and Montreal. The town is well built, and is a great mart for the trade with the Indians.

The first European that visited Canada, was Sc-

bastian Cabot, who sailed towards America, under a commission from Henry the Seventh of England. This monarch not availing himself of the discovery, and the accounts of it spreading over Europe, the French began in a short time to form the project of establishing a settlement in the country. After the prosecution of this plan had continued for many years extremely slow and languid, they at length accomplished the design, and seemed even to meditate the reduction of the British Colonies in North America. Their preparations for that purpose gave rise to the last war, at the conclusion of which all the French dominions on the continent were ceded to the crown of Great Britain.

The lower part of Canada, from the mouth of the river St. Lawrence, is wild, uncultivated, and on the south side covered with impenetrable woods, mostly of pine and dwarf spruce, with stupendous rocks and barren mountains, which form a most dismal prospect. The north part, for several leagues, is low, marshy, and covered with strong reeds, and rush-grass. The first settlement, towards the frontiers of Nova Scotia, is St. Barnaby, on the south shore, about thirty leagues within the gulph. Here the sight is entertained with the prospect of an open, and seemingly fertile country, but intermixed with several barren spots. The fields produce corn, flax, and vegetables of various kinds; and the country is stocked with cattle. It is well watered by innumerable rivers and rivulets, which empty themselves into that of St. Lawrence, and are plentifully stored with salmon, eels, and other fish peculiar to those waters.

The appearance of the northern part of the country is not so promising. The first settlement here is the King's Farms at Mal Bay, near the river of Saguenay, and haven of Tadourac. Where the lands have undergone cultivation, the soil is moderately fertile, but the country east and north-east of these farms remains in its original state, with lofty and steep banks to the river. The lands on the north side also are gradually high and steep, after clearing the woody island of Anticosty, with trees and underwood on the sides of the declivities; and the appearance of the country is for the most part the same on both sides of the river, all the way upwards. From Mal Bay to Cape Tourmente, not less than thirty miles, the land is mountainous and barren. At the last mentioned place, however, the eye is agreeably surprised with a pleasant settlement, called St. Paul's; from which parish upwards, the country is in general clean, fertile, and well improved, and likewise intersected by numerous streams, that run into the river of St. Lawrence.

The lands along the river, from Montreal to Lake Francis, are very woody, with a cold and spongy soil; but from hence to Lake Ontario they become much better, producing good grass, with a variety of excellent timber for ship-building, and little or no underwood.

The winter, for about six months, is extremely cold. The vast river of St. Lawrence is early frozen over, to a great depth. The atmosphere is generally clear

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clear and serene, except during a fall of snow, which seldom continues above twenty-four hours. The summers, though short, are pleasant, unless in July and August, when the heat is very great, and accompanied with violent thunder-storms. Such, however, is the influence of this season on the fruits of the earth, that, as in other northern climates, the farmer reaps his harvest within four months after the seed is sown; and the quickness of vegetation is surprising.

Canada produces various kinds of timber, such as red, white, and ever-green oak, and white birch, fir, and pine-trees of different species, maple, elder, cedar, bitter cherry, ash, chestnut, beech, hazel, black and white horn, apple, pear, and plum-trees, with an infinite number of non-descripts.

Here is also great variety of shrubs, particularly the capillaire, which grows like fern, and is found in great plenty in the woods. The merchants of Quebec exported great quantities of its syrups annually to France.

The Canadians have variety of game, both fowl and quadrupeds, in the greatest plenty; fine poultry, vast flocks of wild pigeons, and an excellent breed of black cattle, sheep, swine, and horses, with which the farms in general are plentifully stocked.

The inhabitants have hitherto raised no staple commodity, to answer any considerable demand. Some tobacco has indeed been planted, which is used by the meaner sort of people; but, from not being properly manufactured, it is so insipid as to be unfit for sale. Their trade with the Indians produces all their returns for the European market; and those consist chiefly of the furs of beavers, foxes, and racoons, with deer-skins, and all the branches of the peltry. Furs indeed are more plentiful towards the south, but not so good a staple. Those articles, with corn and timber, which the inhabitants send to the West India islands, furnish what is sufficient to render life easy and agreeable in a plentiful country.

The administration of Canada is in the hands of a governor, who is appointed by the king, and has his residence at Quebec. The constitution of this province is different from that of all the other British colonies, the inhabitants, agreeable to the articles of the peace in 1762, being permitted the free exercise of the Catholic religion, and to be governed by the laws of France.

#### NEW BRITAIN.

New Britain, Terra de Labrador, or Eskimaux, including Hudson's Bay, is bounded on the south by the river and bay of St. Lawrence, on the west by parts unknown, on the north by Hudson's Streight, which separates it from Greenland, and on the east by the Atlantic Ocean. It is situate between fifty-nine and ninety-three degrees of west longitude, and between fifty and sixty-four degrees of north latitude.

The coast from Hudson's Streight to fifty-seven degrees is much incommoded in the beginning of summer by ice, which comes in great quantities from the

several adjacent inlets; but the west of the coast to the southward, from fifty-seven and fifty-two degrees, is free from this obstruction.

One of the chief settlements here is Fort Nelson, situate in ninety-one degrees five minutes of west longitude, and in fifty-seven degrees twenty-five minutes of north latitude, on the west side of Hudson's Bay, and the mouth of Nelson River; in an island of which river stands Fort York, both which are occupied by the Hudson's Bay Company; it is also Fort Churchill, situated on the east side of the Bay.

The winter, which begins here about Michaelmas, and continues till May, is extremely severe; but there is seldom any scarcity of provisions, as hares and partridges are in great plenty. One year, when the French had eighty men in garrison, they killed ninety thousand partridges, and twenty-five thousand hares.

At the end of April, the geese, bustards, and ducks return thither in such numbers, that they kill as many as they please. They also take great numbers of caribou, or rein-deer, in March and April. At this season those animals come from the north sixty leagues along the river, and return thence in the months of July and August. For catching them, the natives make hedges with branches of trees, in the openings of which they place snares; and when the deer swim the rivers in returning north, the people kill as many of them as they please, with canoes and lances.

In summer, the employment of the people is fishing; at which time, with nets they take pike, trout, and carp, with a white fish resembling a herring, and reckoned excellent food. They preserve those, as well as the flesh, by putting them in snow, or freezing them; and they also keep geese, ducks, and bustards in the same manner.

The country about Fort Nelson is very low and marshy, and abounds in woods of small trees.

There generally come thither every year, to trade with the English, near a thousand Indian men, and some women, in about six hundred canoes. In performing this voyage, they are obliged to go ashore every day, to hunt for provisions, which greatly retards their progress; for their canoes are so small, holding only two persons, and a pack of a hundred beaver-skins, that they can carry with them only a very small quantity of provisions.

The Indians west of the Bay lead an erratic life, and subsist entirely upon game, seldom staying longer than a fortnight in one place, and hardly missing a day from the chase, even in the greatest storms of snow. At night they return to their temporary huts, which are made of the branches of trees. The smaller game got by traps, or snares, is generally the employment of the women and children; such as the martins, squirrels, cats, ermins, &c. While the elks, stags, rein-deer, bears, tygers, wild beaves, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, &c. afford employment to the men. When the latter kill any game for food, they leave it on the spot, and send their wives next day to carry it home; strowing the road from place to place with branches of trees, or moss, to serve as a direction.

In winter, before they go abroad, they rub themselves all over with bear's grease, or that of beavers. Their covering is made of beaver's skin, from which the fur has been taken off. They also wear a kind of boots, or stockings of beaver's skins, with the fur inwards, well rubbed with the oil of that animal, which never freezes. So those is an oiled skin, laced about their feet, which not only keeps out the cold, but likewise the water, when there is no ice, nor snow.

In summer they go naked, but always rub themselves with oil or grease, to prevent their being scorched by the sun, or molested by the musquitoes, which would otherwise be very troublesome.

The soil and climate differ greatly in the several countries adjoining to the Bay. The East Main, from Slude River to Hudson's Streight, is the least known, there being no factories established here for trade, although the country abounds with the best sable and black fox-skins. Here the Nodway or Eskimaux Indians live, who are almost perpetually persecuted by the more southern Indians. They are of a white complexion, not copper-coloured as the other Americans, and have beards growing up to their eyes. In winter they live in caves under the snow; they feed upon seals and dried fish, and drink of the same oil that they use for their lamps, with which they also anoint their bodies.

The Hudson's Bay Company has also a settlement at Rupert Fort, situated at the bottom of the Bay, six hundred miles south-east of Fort Nelson, and three hundred miles north-west of Quebec. This place stands in a much better climate than the other settlements. There are fine woods of all kinds of large timber for shipping and building; with plenty of all sorts of fruit and grain, as well as tame cattle, and fowl. In this country the snow and frost breaks up in March, and does not begin again till November.

In this country, coronæ and perhelia, commonly called halos, and mock-suns, appear frequently about the sun and moon. Round the former, they are seen once or twice a week, and about the latter once or twice a month, for four or five months in the winter. If the weather is clear, the perhelia are always accompanied with the coronæ, of which there are sometimes five or six, all concentric with the sun. Those rings are of various colours, and about forty or fifty degrees in diameter.

The Aurora Borealis is also much oftener seen here than in England; seldom a night passing in the winter without its appearance.

The eastern coasts of this country were discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in the end of the fifteenth century, and were afterwards visited by Davis, and others, in their attempts to discover a north-west passage to China; but captain Hudson, who has communicated his name to the Bay and Streights, surrounded almost the whole coast, and went on shore in several places. This active navigator made four voyages to the north upon discovery. The first of those was in 1607, when he set sail from England in the month of May,

and having proceeded so far as the latitude of eighty-one degrees thirty minutes, returned thither in the middle of September the same year.

In the year 1608, he attempted to discover a north-east passage to China; but coming into seventy-five degrees thirty minutes north latitude, on the 9th of June, he found the sea so much obstructed with shoals of ice, that he returned home. The year following, he repeated the same attempt, but was again prevented by ice on the coast of Nova Zembla.

In 1610, Sir Thomas Smith, Sir Dudley Digges, Mr. Wostenholme, and other adventurers, fitted out Mr Hudson again, with instructions to attempt a passage through Davis's Streights to the Pacific Ocean. He accordingly set sail in April, and on the 4th of June arrived on the coast of Greenland, whence proceeding to the island of Desolation, he steered almost due west, till he discovered a part of Terra de Labrador, in the latitude of sixty degrees, and soon after entered the Streights, which have since been denominated from him. Then sailing through fields of ice to the north-west, for upwards of three hundred leagues by computation, he came to a small streight two leagues over, and very deep water, through which he passed between two promontories, one of which he named Cape Wostenholme, and the other Digges's Island, the latter lying in sixty-four degrees forty-four minutes of north latitude. Coming now into a spacious sea, in which he sailed a hundred leagues south, he imagined he had found a passage into the Pacific Ocean, but afterwards perceived, by the shallow water, that he was embayed. The season being too far advanced for attempting to return before next summer, he was now under the necessity of remaining all winter in this frozen country. He therefore brought the vessel to an anchor in a small creek, on the south-west part of the bay, where being in great distress for want of provisions, he was plentifully supplied with wild fowl during the winter, and afterwards in the spring with fish.

So intent was he in prosecuting the object of his voyage, that leaving his men to take and salt up fish, and victual the ship, he searched every creek and corner of the shore in his loop, for a passage to the South-sea. During his absence, however, his men not only neglected to catch fish, but entered into a conspiracy to run away with the vessel, and leave him with the rest of their officers behind; and soon after his return, they carried this project into execution; putting a small stock of provisions into a boat, they forced him and eight more on board, to encounter the dangers of the ocean; in which it is probable they all perished, having never afterwards been heard of. The reason assigned by the mariners for this act of barbarity was, that the captain had threatened to set part of the crew on shore, for not furnishing the ship with fish, when it was in their power.

The conspirators brought the ship to Digges's Island, where, all their provisions being spent, they went on shore, and furnished themselves with a great quantity of wild fowl; but Green, the captain of the mutineers,

neers, with three or four more of the ringleaders, were cut in pieces by the natives. One of the crew, named Prickett, then took upon him the charge of the vessel, and brought her home on the 6th of September, 1611; the crew being all so weak, that they were not able to navigate the ship without the assistance of some fishermen, whom they met in their course; and part of them were actually starved to death in the passage.

The year following, Sir Thomas Button pursued the Discovery. Entering Hudson's Bay, he steered away from the south of it, which the former navigator had visited, and sailing some hundred leagues to the westward, arrived at a large continent, which he named New Wales; but unfortunately losing his vessel at this place, he returned in a sloop which he built in the country.

The next adventurer that entered Hudson's Bay was captain James, who performed the voyage in 1631. He sailed to the bottom of the Bay, and wintered on Charlton Island, in fifty-two degrees odd minutes of north latitude; on which account the south part of the gulph is usually called James's Bay. The hazards which he sustained in this voyage, from the ice, prevented any other navigator from prosecuting discoveries in those parts till 1667, when the Bay was again visited by captain Gillam. He sailed to a river near the bottom of it, in fifty-one degrees of north latitude. This he judged to be a proper place for settling a factory, and called it Prince Rupert's River. Upon his return, the persons who had employed him, applied to king Charles II. for a patent to plant the country, which was obtained in 1670, the chief proprietor being prince Rupert. Since that time the company has carried on a small but profitable trade to those parts, with some interruptions from the French in Canada, before this province was ceded to the British crown.

The first English governor sent thither was Mr. Betty, in 1670. He built a fort on Rupert river, to which he gave the name of Charles Fort; and soon after caused a factory to be settled at Port Nelson, on the west side of the bay; but this place was in a short time betrayed to the French in Canada, by two of their countrymen. In the year 1682, however, the same two traitors, again changing sides, restored the fort to the English.

Two years afterwards the chief factory of the English was removed to Chickwam river, and called Albany; for the defence of which a fort was erected on the south-west part of the bay. It was intended also to have fixed a colony on Charlton Island, and to have built warehouses there for their furs; but the place being found incommodious, this project was abandoned.

The company was now in possession of five settlements, viz. those on Albany river, Hayes Island, Rupert river, Port Nelson, and New Severn; between Port Nelson and Albany, and their trade was in a flourishing condition, when the French, apprehensive that the English would draw all the upland Indians to the Bay, sent a detachment of troops from Canada,

under the command of the chevalier de Troys, who invaded our settlements, and made himself master of Hayes Island, Fort Rupert, and Albany, in 1686, though we were then at peace with France. The English, however, still remained in possession of Port Nelson, and, in 1692, recovered their other settlement in the Bay. During the war, in the reign of queen Anne, the French again reduced all our settlements except Albany; but they were restored to Great Britain by the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, and we have ever since been in possession of them.

With respect to a north-west passage, which was the object that led to the discovery of Hudson's bay, it seems to be the opinion of navigators that it is absolutely impracticable. Captain James observes, that a tide constantly fits into Hudson's Straights from the eastward; that the sea produces hardly any fish; that it is covered with ice, which, in his opinion, is generated by shoals and bays. He thinks it probable, that this ice would have been broken, if there were the free ocean beyond it; as he found this to be the case in passing through the straits into the sea to the eastward. He likewise observed that the ice always drives out to the eastward at Hudson's bay. Even admitting that a north-west passage were practicable, he is of opinion that it could not answer any useful purpose; because the great quantity of ice and shoals in those latitudes, make it unfit for a vessel to try them with any valuable cargo. He farther observes, that to the southward, a thousand leagues may be sooner made than a hundred in those seas, and with less hazard; besides, that to the south, and about the Cape of Good Hope, there are fine opportunities of recruiting the sick, while in the north there is not the slightest refreshment to be obtained. He observes, that even if those straits were free from ice, this circumstance would prove but of little advantage; as the winds, which in August and September are westerly and very boisterous, would cause the vessel to be longer on her voyage than if she went the common course.

Captain Middleton who made many voyages to Hudson's bay, and sailed thither twice with the view of discovering a north-west passage, gives it also as his opinion, that there is no hope of success from any farther trial between Churchill and the latitude to which navigators have already proceeded; and that northward of this latitude, the passage must be impracticable on account of ice, of which he imagines the sea cannot be clear one week in a year, and many years, as he apprehends, not clear at all.

#### OF THE INDIAN NATIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

THE interior and western parts of the continent of North America are occupied by the Indians, the original inhabitants of the country, who are divided into an infinite number of different tribes or nations; such as the Chactaws, Creeks, Cherokees, Iroquois, Hurons, Algonquins, Illinois, &c. Except

cept the Eskimaux, they are generally similar in their persons. They are tall and strait in their limbs, beyond the proportion of most nations. Their bodies are strong, but rather fitted to endure much hardship, than to continue long at any seivile work, by which they are soon exhausted. Their bodies and heads are flattish, the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce. Their hair is long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse. They deprive themselves of their beards by pulling them when they begin to appear. The colour of their skin is a reddish brown, rendered deeper by the constant use of bear's fat and paint.

When the Europeans first arrived in America, they found the Indians quite naked, except those parts which even the most uncultivated people usually conceal. Since that time, however, they generally use a coarse blanket, which they buy of the neighbouring planters.

Their huts or cabins are made of stakes of wood driven into the ground, and covered with branches of trees or reeds. They lie on the floor either on mats or the skins of wild beasts. Their dishes are of timber, but their spoons are made of the skulls of wild oxen, and their knives of flint. A kettle and a large plate constitute almost the whole utensils of the family. Their diet consists chiefly in what they procure by hunting; and sagamite, or pottage, is likewise one of their most common kinds of food. The most honourable furniture amongst them is the scalps of their enemies; with those they ornament their huts, which are esteemed in proportion to the number of this sort of spoils.

The only occupation of the men is hunting and war, agriculture being left to the women. In eating and drinking, they observe neither decency nor bounds. Before they were acquainted with the Europeans they had no spirituous liquors; but those are now the principal inducement to all their treaties with us, and the greater part of their time is spent in a state of intoxication, as often as it is in their power to afford the means.

They are extremely grave in their deportment upon any serious occasion; observant of those in company, and respectful to the old. There is no people among whom the laws of hospitality are more sacred; their houses, their provision, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a guest. To those of their own nation they are likewise very humane and beneficent; but to the enemies of his country, or those who have privately offended, the American is implacable. No length of time is sufficient to extinguish his resentment; but he conceals his passion till a convenient opportunity occurs; when he exercises the most shocking barbarities on the obnoxious person, even to the eating of his flesh.

Liberty, in its full extent, is their darling passion, and their education is directed in such a manner as to cherish this disposition to the utmost. Children are never, upon any account, chastised with blows, and they are seldom even reprimanded. Reason, they say, will guide their children when they come to the use

of it, and before that time their faults cannot be very great; but blows might damp their free and martial spirit, by the habit of a slavish motive to action. When grown up, they experience nothing like command, dependence, or subordination; even strong persuasion is industriously with-held by those who have influence among them.

On the same principle, they know no punishment but death; and this capital retribution, which they sometimes inflict, is rather the consequence of a sort of war declared against a public enemy, than an act of judicial power executed on a citizen. This free disposition is general; and, though some tribes are found with a head whom we call a king, his power is rather persuasive than coercive, and he is revered as a father, more than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice. The other forms of government, which may be considered as aristocratical, and are most common in North America, have no greater power. Among some tribes there is a kind of nobility, who, when they come to years of maturity, are entitled to a place and vote in the councils of their nation. But amongst the Five Nations, or Iroquois, the most eminent commonwealth in North America, and in some other nations, the only qualifications absolutely necessary for their head-men, are age, experience, and ability. For the most part, however, there is in every tribe some particular family, which is the object of peculiar respect.

Their great council is composed of those heads of tribes and families, with such others whose capacities have raised them to the same degree of consideration. They assemble in a house, which they have in each of their towns for the purpose, upon every solemn occasion. Those councils are open to the public, and here all such matters concerning the state are proposed, as have already been digested in the secret councils, at which none but the head-men assist. The chiefs seldom speak much in public assemblies, thinking such a practice beneath their dignity; but on these occasions, they employ a person, who is called their orator. The address of this delegate consists mostly in giving an artful turn to affairs, and in expressing their thought in a bold figurative manner, accompanied with suitable action.

When any business of consequence is transacted, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. At those feasts, if they do not consume all the victuals, the remainder is thrown into the fire; for they regard this element as sacred, and in all probability those feasts were anciently sacrifices.

Before the entertainment is ready, the principal person begins a song, the subject of which is the fabulous or real history of their nation, any remarkable events that have happened; and the rest sing in rotation; the company meanwhile all joining in a dance to the music. No solemnity or public business is conducted without an entertainment of this kind.

To assist their memory, they have belts of small shells, or beads, of different colours, each representing a particular object, which is marked by their

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colour and arrangement. At the conclusion of every subject on which they discourse, when they treat with a foreign state, they deliver one of those belts; for if this ceremony should be omitted, all that they have said passes for nothing. Those belts are carefully deposited in each town, as the public records of the nation; and to them they occasionally have recourse, when any public contest happens with a neighbouring tribe. Of late, as the materials of which those belts are made, have become scarce, they often give some skin in place of the wampum (the name of the beads) and receive in return presents of a more valuable return from our commissioners; for they never consider a treaty as of any weight, unless every article in it be ratified by such a gratification.

The calumet, or pipe of peace, is also an instrument of great importance in public transactions. It is intended for smoking tobacco, or some bark, leaf, or herb, when they enter into an alliance, or on any other solemn occasion; this ceremony being considered by them as equivalent to the most sacred oath. When they treat of war, the pipe and all its ornaments are usually red, or sometimes red only on one side. The size and decorations of the calumet are for the most part proportioned to the quality of the persons to whom they are presented, and to the importance of the occasion. This instrument is regarded by the Indians with the most superstitious veneration. They consider it as the arbiter of life and death, and the god of peace and war. One who carries it may venture among his enemies in the hottest engagement; for they will immediately lay down their arms before the sacred pipe. The calumet of peace is different from that of war. They make use of the former to seal their alliances and treaties, to travel with safety, and to receive strangers; but of the latter, to proclaim war. It consists of a red stone, like marble, formed into a cavity resembling the head of a tobacco pipe, and fixed to a hollow reed. They adorn it with feathers of various colours, and name it the calumet of the sun, to which luminary they present it, in expectation of thereby obtaining a change of weather as often as they desire. They dare not wash themselves in rivers in the beginning of summer, nor taste of the new fruits, without performing the ceremony, which is called the dance of the calumet.

This dance is performed in the winter time in their cabins, and in summer in the open fields. For this purpose they choose a spot among trees to shade them from the heat of the sun, and lay in the middle a large mat, as a carpet, setting upon it the monitor, or god, of the chief of the company. On the right hand of this image they place the calumet, as their great deity, circling around it a kind of trophy with their arms. Things being thus disposed, and the hour of dancing come, those who are to sing take the most honourable seats under the shade of the trees. The company is then ranged round, every one, before he sits down, saluting the monitor, which is done by blowing upon it the smoke of their tobacco. Each person next receives the calumet in rotation, and holding it with both hands, dances to the cadence of

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the vocal music, which is accompanied with the beating of a sort of drum. During this exercise, he gives a signal to one of their warriors, who takes a bow, arrow, and axe, from the trophies already mentioned, and fights him; the former defending himself with the calumet only, and both of them dancing all the while. This mock engagement being over, he who holds the calumet makes a speech, in which he gives an account of the battles he has fought, and the prisoners he has taken, and then receives a cloak or some other present, from the chief of the belt. He then resigns the calumet to another, who having acted a similar part, delivers it to a third, who afterwards gives it to his neighbour, till at last the instrument returns to the person that began the ceremony, who presents it to the nation invited to the feast, as a mark of their friendship, and a confirmation of their alliance, when this is the occasion of the entertainment.

Though the Indian women generally bear the laborious part of domestic oeconomy, their condition is far from being so slavish as it appears. On the contrary, the greatest respect is paid by the men to the female sex. The women even hold their councils, and have their share in all deliberations which concern the State. Polygamy is practised by some nations, but is not general. In most, they content themselves with one wife; but a divorce is admitted in case of adultery. No nation of the Americans is without a regular marriage, in which there are many ceremonies; the principal of which is, the bride's presenting the bridegroom with a plate of their corn.

The women, though before incontinent, are remarkable for chastity after marriage; but they are not prolific, seldom producing more than two or three children.

No man among them is held in great esteem, until he has increased the strength of his country with a captive, or adorned his hut with a scalp of one of his enemies.

When the council resolves upon war, they do not immediately declare what nation they are determined to attack, that the enemy may not be prepared. The war-kettle however is set on the fire; the war songs and dances commence; the tomohawk, painted red, is sent to all the villages of the nation, and its allies, with a belt of wampum. The messenger throws the tomohawk on the ground, which is taken up by the most expert warrior among the people to whom it is sent, if they choose to join in the war; but if not, it is returned, with a belt of wampum suitable to the occasion. The men and women then join in hideous exclamations, lamenting those whom they have lost either in war or by natural death, and demanding their places to be supplied from their enemies, thus stimulating the young men to action in the cause of their country.

When by those means the fury of the nation is raised to the highest pitch, the war-captain prepares the feast, which consists of dog's flesh. All that partake of this entertainment receive little billets, which are considered as engagements to be faithful to each

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other, and obedient to their commander. None are forced to the war; but when any person has accepted a billet, it is death to recede. All the warriors in the assembly have their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermilion; and their hair is plaited up with feathers of various kinds. The chief begins the war-song, which having continued some time, he breaks forth with abrupt vociferation into a sort of prayer, invoking the god of war, whom they call Areskoni, to be favourable to their enterprise, and to pour destruction upon the enemy. All the warriors join him in his prayer with shouts and exclamations. The captain then renews his song, strikes the tomokawk against the stakes of his cottage, and begins the war-dance, accompanied with the shouts of the whole assembly.

The day appointed for their setting out on the expedition being arrived, they take leave of their friends, and exchange their cloaths, or whatever moveables they have, in token of mutual friendship; after which they proceed from the town, their wives and female relations walking before, and attending them to some distance. The warriors march all dressed in their finest apparel, and most showy ornaments, without any order. The chief walks slowly before them, singing the war-song, while the rest observe the most profound silence. When they come up to their women, they deliver them all their finery, and putting on their worst cloaths, proceed on their expedition.

Every nation has its peculiar ensign or standard, which is generally some beast, bird, or fish. Those among the Five Nations are the bear, otter, wolf, tortoise, and eagle; and by these names the tribes are usually distinguished. They have the figures of those animals pricked and painted on several parts of their bodies; and when they march through the woods, they commonly, at every encampment, cut the representation of their ensign on trees, especially after a successful campaign; marking at the same time the number of scalps, or prisoners they have taken.

Their military dress is extremely singular. They cut off, or pull out, all their hair, except a spot about the breadth of two English crown-pieces, near the top of their heads, and entirely destroy their eyebrows. The lock left upon their heads is divided into several parcels, each of which is stiffened, and adorned with wampum beads, and feathers of various kinds, the whole being twisted into a form much resembling the modern pompoon. Their heads are painted red down to the eye-brows, and sprinkled over with white down. The gristles of their ears are split almost quite round, and distended with wires or splinters, so as to meet, and tie together on the nape of the neck. These are also hung with ornaments, and generally bear the representation of some bird, or beast. Their noses are likewise bored, and hung with trinkets of beads; and their faces painted with various colours, so as to make an awful appearance. Their breasts are adorned with a gorget, or medal of brass, copper, or some other metal; and

that dreadful weapon, the scalping-knife, hangs by a string from their neck.

Their principal motives for war are, either the glory of victory, or the benefit of the slaves which it may enable them to add to their nation; and they seldom take any pains to give their wars even the colour of justice. It is not uncommon for the young men to make feasts of dog's-flesh, and dances, in the midst of profound peace; and wantonly fall upon some neighbouring nation, or surprize their hunters, whom they scalp, or bring home as prisoners. The old men overlook those acts of hostility, as tending to keep up the martial spirit of their people, and inuring them to hardship.

The chief qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and avoid a surprize; with patience and strength, to endure the fatigues which attend it. For those nations being at an immense distance from each other, and separated by a vast desert frontier, of almost boundless forests, these must be traversed before they meet with their enemy. They never fight in the open field, but upon some very extraordinary occasions; despising this method as unworthy of an able warrior, and as an affair which is not governed by prudence so much as by fortune. What chiefly assists in discovering the enemy, is their tracks, and the smoke of their fires, which they smell at a distance almost incredible. But as the nations that are attacked have the same knowledge, their great address is to baffle each other in those points. On their expeditions, therefore, they generally light no fire to warm themselves, or prepare their victuals, but subsist on meal, mixed with water; lie close to the ground all day, and march only in the night. As they usually march in files, he that closes the rear diligently covers with leaves his own tracks, and those of all that preceded him. If any stream occurs in their route, they march into it a considerable way, to foil their pursuers. When they halt to rest and refresh themselves, scouts are sent out on all sides to reconnoitre the country, and beat upon every place where they suspect an enemy may lie hid. In this manner they often enter a village, when the strength of the nation is employed in hunting; where they massacre all the old men, women, and children, and make as many prisoners as they can manage.

When they discover the enemy, their way is to throw themselves flat on their faces amongst the withered leaves. They generally let a part pass unmolested, and raising themselves a little, take aim, being excellent marksmen. Then setting up a most tremendous shout, which they call the war-cry, they pour a storm of musket balls upon the enemy: for those nations which have commerce with the Europeans, have long since laid aside the use of bows and arrows. The party attacked returns the same cry; and every man immediately covers himself behind a tree, from which they continue the engagement.

After fighting in this manner some time, the party which has the advantage, rushes out of its cover, bearing in their hands small axes, which they dart with great

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address and dexterity. They then redouble their cries, intimidating the enemy with menaces, and encouraging each other. Being now come hand to hand, the contest is soon decided, and the conquerors satiate their savage fury with the most shocking insults and barbarities to the dead.

The fate of their prisoners is dreadful. During the greater part of their journey homewards, they suffer no injury; but when arrived in the territories of the conquering state, or those of its allies, the people from every village come out to meet them, and think that they show attachment to their friends by the inhuman treatment of the unhappy prisoners, whom they bruise and wound in a shocking manner. The conquerors manage their march so as not to enter their town till towards the evening. Next morning, at day-break, they dress their prisoners in new cloaths, adorn their heads with feathers, paint them with various colours, and put into their hands a white staff, tassel'd round with the tails of deer. The commander of the expedition then gives as many yells as he has taken scalps, or prisoners, and all the inhabitants of the place assemble at the water-side, if situated near a river. As soon as the warriors appear, four or five of their young men, well clothed, get into a canoe, if they come by water, or otherwise march by land; the two foremost carrying each a calumet, and singing all the while, advance towards the prisoners, whom they lead in triumph to the village. The war captain then waits upon the head men, and in a low voice delivers an account of the expedition; which having done, the public orator relates the whole to the people. Before they resign themselves to the joy which the victory occasions, they lament the friends whom they have lost. The parties most nearly concerned, are apparently afflicted with deep sorrow; but, as if disciplined in their grief, upon the signal of rejoicing, in a moment all tears are wiped from their eyes, and they break forth into marks of the most extravagant joy.

Mean while the fate of the prisoner remains undecided, until the old men meet. It is usual to offer a slave to each house that has lost a friend. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the door of the cottage to which he is delivered, and with him gives a belt of wampum, to show that he has fulfilled the purpose of the expedition, in supplying the loss of a citizen. The people belonging to the family take a view of the present which is made to them, and according to caprice, the resentment for the loss they have sustained, or their natural barbarity, either receive him into the house, or sentence him to death. If the latter be his fate, they throw away the belt with indignation, after which it is beyond the power of any person to save him. The whole tribe is then assembled, a scaffold is erected, to which they tie the prisoner, who opens his death-song, and prepares for the ensuing scene of cruelty with astonishing fortitude. The tormentors laying hold of the devoted victim, begin to excite their brutal fury on the extremities of his body, and gradually approach the trunk. One plucks out his nails by the roots; an-

other takes a finger or a toe in his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the mangled parts into the hole of a pipe made red hot, which he smokes like tobacco. They next pound his toes and fingers between two stones; they make circular incisions round his joints, and large gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they afterwards tear with red-hot irons. Then pulling off the flesh, bit by bit, they devour it with great greediness, befouling their faces at the same time with the blood, in a frenzy of enthusiasm. They next proceed to twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, while others are employed in pulling and extending the limbs, in every way that can increase the torment. This scene of horror often continues five or six hours. They then frequently unbind him, to give a pause to their fury, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer. After this interval he is again fastened to the frame, and they renew their cruelty. They stick him all over with small matches of wood, that easily take fire, but burn slowly; at the same time running sharp reeds into every part of his body. They drag out his teeth with pinchers, and thrust out his eyes. After having so mangled the body that it is all but one wound, after having mutilated the face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it, and after having peeled the skin from the head, and thrown red hot coals, or boiling water on the skull, they once more unbind the wretch, who staggering with pain and weakness, and assaulted on every side with clubs and stones, runs hither and thither in all the anguish of torture, until one of the chiefs, either out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or dagger. The body is then put into the kettle to be prepared for a savage feast, with which this shocking tragedy concludes.

If none of the bye-standers are inclined to lengthen out the torments of the prisoners, he is either shot to death with arrows, or enclosed in dry bark, to which they set fire. On the evening succeeding the scene, they run from hut to hut, striking with small twigs the walls, the roof, and the furniture, to prevent his spirit from remaining within their dwellings, to take vengeance of their cruelty.

The prisoners who have the good fortune to please those to whom they are offered, are immediately adopted in the family, and suffer no other restraint than that of not being permitted to return to their own country.

But if they have been unsuccessful against their enemies, things wear a quite different face. They then enter the village without ceremony by day, with grief and melancholy in their countenances, keeping a profound silence; or if they have sustained any loss, they enter in the evening, founding the death-whoop, and naming those they have lost, either by sickness or the enemy. The village being assembled, they sit down with their heads covered, and all weep together, without uttering a word for a considerable time. When this silence is over, they lament aloud for their companions, and every one wears the appearance of mourning during several days.

The loss of any person, whether by natural death or war, is lamented by the whole town to which he belongs. On such an occasion, no business is transacted, however pressing, till all the pious ceremonies due to the dead are performed. The body is washed, anointed, and painted. Then the women lament the loss with hideous howlings, intermixed with songs, which celebrate the great actions of the deceased, and his ancestors. The men mourn in a less extravagant manner. The whole village is present at the interment, and the corpse is habited in their most sumptuous ornaments. Close to the body of the defunct are placed his bows and arrows, with whatever he valued most in his life, and a quantity of provision for his subsistence on the journey which he is supposed to take. This solemnity, like every other, is attended with feasting. The funeral being ended, the relations of the deceased confine themselves to their huts for a considerable time, to indulge their grief. After an interval of some weeks they visit the grave, repeat their sorrow, new clothe the remains of the body, and act over again all the solemnities of the funeral.

Among the various tokens of their regard for their deceased friends, the most remarkable is what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day for this ceremony is appointed in the council of their chiefs, who give orders for every thing which may enable them to celebrate it with pomp and magnificence; and the neighbouring nations are invited to partake of the entertainment. At this time, all who have died since the preceding feast of the kind, are taken out of their graves. Even those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages, are diligently sought for, and conducted to this rendezvous of the dead, which exhibits a scene of horror beyond the power of description. When the feast is concluded, the bodies are dressed in the finest skins which can be procured, and after being exposed for some time in this pomp, are again committed to the earth with great solemnity, which is succeeded by funeral games.

The Americans hold the existence of a supreme Being, eternal and incorruptible: but satisfied with acknowledging this doctrine, which is traditional among them, they pay him no sort of worship. Some nations pay a religious homage to the sun and moon; and most of them believe in invisible beings and demons, who they suppose intermeddle in human affairs, and to whom they make an oblation of their first fruits. They universally hold that the soul is immortal; but that the happiness which it enjoys in the next world is of the sensual kind. In this assurance, they meet death with the greatest indifference and composure.

They are great observers of omens and dreams, and eager priors into futurity; abounding in diviners, augurs, and magicians, upon whom they rely much in all their affairs, and who also discharge the offices of priest and physician.

Almost every disease is here treated in the same manner. The practice most universal is to inclose the patient in a narrow hut, in the midst of which is a stone red hot. On this they sprinkle water, till he

is well soaked with the warm steams, when they hurry from the bagnio, and plunge him suddenly into the neat river. This process is repeated as often as they judge necessary, and extraordinary cures are sometimes performed by it; but it frequently happens likewise, that the person dies under the operation.

They have also the use of some specifics, said to be of great efficacy, but the power of which they chiefly ascribe to the magical ceremonies that accompany their administration.

Controversies among the Indians are few, and quickly decided. When any criminal matter is so flagrant as to become a national concern, it is brought under the jurisdiction of the great council; but in ordinary cases, the crime is either revenged or compromised by the parties concerned. If a murder be committed, the family which has lost a relation prepares to retaliate on that of the offender. They often kill the murderer; and when this happens, the kindred of the last person slain look upon themselves to be as much injured, and to have the same right to vengeance as the other party. In general, however, the offender absents himself; the friends send compliments of condolence to those of the person that has been murdered. The head of the family at length appears, with a number of presents, the delivery of which he accompanies with a formal speech. The whole ends, as usual, in mutual feasting, songs, and dances.

If the murder is committed by one of the same family or cabin, that cabin has the full right of judgment within itself, either to punish the guilty with death, or to pardon him, or to oblige him to give some recompense to the wife or children of the slain; instances of such a crime, however, very seldom happen; for their attachment to those of the same family is remarkably strong, and is said to produce such friendships as may vie with the most celebrated in fabulous antiquity.

Such, in general, are the manners and customs of the Indian nations; but every tribe has something peculiar to itself. Among the Hurons and Natchez the dignity of the chief is hereditary, and the right of succession in the female line. When this happens to be extinct, the most respectable matron of the tribe makes choice of whom she pleases to succeed.

The Cherokees are governed by several sachems or chiefs, elected by the different villages; as are also the Creeks and Chactaws. The two latter punish adultery in a woman by cutting off her hair, which they will not suffer to grow till the corn is ripe the next season; but the Illinois, for the same crime, cut off the women's noses and ears.

The Indians on the lakes are formed into a sort of empire; and the emperor is elected from the eldest tribe, which is that of the Ottowawas. He has the greatest authority of any chief that has appeared on the continent since our acquaintance with it. A few years ago, the person who held this rank formed a design of uniting all the Indian nations under his sovereignty; but he miscarried in the attempt.

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three radical tongues, viz. the Sioux, Algonquin, and Huron. With respect to the first, it is impossible to say how far it extends; nor are we much acquainted with any of the nations that speak it. By means of the Algonquin and Huron languages, a person may travel a thousand and five hundred leagues in this country without an interpreter. For though he may visit above a hundred different nations, each of which has a particular dialect, he can hold conversation with them all.

It is observable, that the three radical languages which have been mentioned, have different properties. The Sioux, so far as the Europeans are acquainted with it, is rather a hissing sound than a distinct articulation. The Huron tongue is distinguished for its energy, pathos, and elevation; but is exceeded by that of the Algonquin in smoothness and elegance.

Few or none of the Indian nations contain above six thousand people, many not two thousand. A traveller may wander over thousands of miles on banks of the finest lakes and rivers in the world, without meeting with any human creature; and those he does meet are generally so stupid, so barbarous, and so averse to society, that they hardly merit that denomination.

#### THE AMERICAN ISLANDS.

##### NEWFOUNDLAND.

**B**EGINNING our survey at the north, the first American island that attracts our attention is Newfoundland, situated in the Atlantic ocean, between 52 and 58 degrees of north latitude. It lies in the mouth of the Bay of St. Lawrence, and is separated from New Britain, or Eskimaux, by the narrow strait of Belleisle. It is of a triangular form, about three hundred and fifty miles from north to south, and its greatest breadth two hundred.

In winter, the climate here is much colder than in England, and the ground is covered with snow to a great depth for almost half the year; but the summers are proportionably hotter. It is a mountainous country, producing great quantities of pine and fir trees, but very little corn or grass. Its importance, however, is chiefly owing to the cod-fishery on the sand-banks along the coast, where many hundred vessels are loaded every season with this commodity.

The principal bank lies about twenty leagues from Cape Riche, or Cape Race, the most southern promontory of the island, about a hundred leagues in length, and twenty-five in breadth. The fishing-season begins in March, and continues till near the end of September. The island has several commodious harbours, to which the ships resort for curing the fish.

The chief towns are those of St. John, Bonavista, and Placentia; the first of which is the capital. It stands in the south-east part of the island, in 47 degrees of north latitude. Exclusive of the garrisons in those towns, and in a few other forts, there are not above four or five hundred families remain on the

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island in winter; but in the fishing-season, the number of persons may be a thousand. Few Indians reside here, though many come over the Straights of Belleisle from New Britain to hunt.

This country was first discovered by the English in the reign of Henry VII. and some voyages were made thither in the succeeding reigns. During several years the Portuguese and French traded thither for furs, and fished on the coast, but were afterwards expelled by the English. King Charles II. however, permitted the French to settle at Placentia, and they took the town of St. John in the reign of Queen Anne; but by the peace of Utrecht the whole island was surrendered to the British crown. The island affords the inhabitants plenty of venison, fish, and fowl; but they receive most of their provision, as well as cloaths and furniture, from England, at the return of the shipping.

The inhabitants of this island, till lately, had no clergyman among them; but now the society for the propagation of the Gospel send thither a missionary, who resides chiefly at Bonavista, but occasionally visits the other settlements.

Between Newfoundland and the mouth of the river St. Lawrence, lies the island of Anticoste, which is subject to Britain, but is a barren country, and contains no settlement.

##### CAPE BRETON.

Cape Breton is situate in the gulph of St. Lawrence, between 61 and 62 degrees of west longitude, and between 45 and 47 degrees of north latitude. It is about a hundred miles in length, and fifty in breadth, a barren country, producing little corn or grass, but a great deal of wood. In winter the climate is excessive cold, and it is subject to great fogs in summer; but here are several good harbours, and an excellent fishery on the coast. This island, on which stood the fort of Louisbourg, was taken from the French in 1745, but restored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. It was, however, retaken by the British forces in 1758, and entirely relinquished by its former masters at the subsequent peace. In those parts lies likewise the island of St. John; but it is a place of little consideration.

##### THE BERMUDA ISLANDS.

The Bermuda Islands are situated in the Atlantic ocean, in 5 degrees 10 minutes of west longitude, and 32 degrees 30 minutes of north latitude. They are a cluster of very small islands, lying in a semi-circular form, and containing about twenty thousand acres of ground, almost entirely surrounded with rocks, which render them inaccessible to strangers.

No part of the world enjoys a purer air, or a more temperate climate, the heat being moderated by constant sea-breezes, so that the whole year resembles the end of a fine May in England. They abound in beef, mutton, poultry, and garden-stuff of all kinds; the sea likewise supplying them with variety of excel-

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lent fish. The employment of the natives is the making joiners work, and hats of palmeto leaves, as well as building of sloops. They also raise corn, which, with other provisions, they export.

Here is one capital town, called St. George, after the name of the principal island, in which it stands. It is one of the finest towns in our plantations, containing above a thousand houses, built of a beautiful white free-stone, peculiar to those islands. It is, besides, very strong both by nature and art. The harbour is inaccessible to strangers, without the assistance of pilots, and is at all times extremely dangerous. It is also defended by seven forts, mounting seventy great guns, all which could be brought to bear upon any vessel that should attempt to force an entrance.

These islands now constitute a distinct royal government; the governor and council being appointed by the crown, and the assembly chosen by the people.

These islands were discovered by John Bermudez, or Bermudez, a Spaniard, in 1522. In the year 1609, Sir George Summers being cast away upon them, found them deserted, and they have since been in possession of the English. Here Dean Berkeley, afterwards bishop of Cloyne, intended to found a university for the education of Indians; but the captain of the ship mistaking his way, carried him to New England, which frustrated the project.

#### THE LUCAYOS, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.

These islands are situated in the Atlantic ocean, between 73 and 81 degrees of west longitude, and between 21 and 27 degrees of north latitude. The number of them is upwards of forty, but of those only twelve are of considerable extent.

Bahama Proper, which gives its name to the rest, is situate between 78 and 81 degrees of west longitude, and between 26 and 27 degrees of north latitude. It lies about thirty leagues east of Florida, and is about sixty miles long and twelve broad.

The island of Providence, which is fortified by the British, is about twenty-five miles long, and nine broad. It is the most inaccessible of all these islands, and thither the English settlers on the adjacent islands retire, with their effects, when they are in danger of being attacked.

Lucayo, the largest and most northerly island, which lies east of Bahama Proper, is about eighty miles long, but scarce twenty broad, and, like many of the rest, is not inhabited.

These islands were discovered by Columbus in 1492, who gave to Guanami, or Cat Island, which was the first he made, the name of St. Salvador, in memory of his deliverance from his mutinous crew, who had conspired to throw him over board, for engaging them in such an enterprise; and were prevented only by his providentially discovering a light on shore, the very night which had been fixed for carrying their design into execution. They found the island well inhabited by people of a middle stature, and olive complexion, who went perfectly naked. Some of them painted their bodies red. Their

principal ornament was a thin gold plate, shaped like a crescent, which hung over the upper lip; and their arms were spears, pointed with the bones of fishes. They were an inoffensive, hospitable people, and brought the Spaniards such provisions as the country afforded. They had no other merchandise to exchange for European goods but cotton and parrots; and there were no four-footed beasts in these islands, except a species of cur dog.

On their first visit, the Spaniards remained here only a short while; but discovering afterwards that there were pearl-fisheries in those seas, and finding the inhabitants of the Bahama islands were excellent divers, they employed them in diving for pearl oysters, and obliged them frequently to continue in the water beyond their strength. By this barbarous oppression the natives were in a few years destroyed, and the islands continued for a long time destitute of inhabitants.

Providence, and the neighbouring islands, afterwards became the refuge of privateers and buccaners; but about the year 1667, Captain William Sayle, being driven thither by stress of weather, and acquainting the proprietors of Carolina with the commodiousness of the station, they obtained a grant of the island from Charles II. and a settlement was soon made upon it. But the Spaniards and French uniting their forces, demolished the forts which had been erected by the colony, carrying off, at the same time, a great many of the inhabitants and their negroes. Those two powers, however, quitting the island afterwards, the English who escaped rebuilt their forts, and receiving a reinforcement, made the island stronger than ever. Providence is now a royal government, and is commodiously situated for commanding the navigation of those seas.

These islands, through which our ships return from Jamaica, form what is called the Windward Passage, and is very dangerous on account of the rocks and shelves. The other passage is by the Gulf of Florida, which is farther about, and more in the way of Spanish cruisers, which makes it to be avoided in time of war.

#### C U B A.

Cuba is situated in the mouth of the Gulf of Mexico, between 65 and 83 degrees of west longitude, and between 20 and 23 degrees of north latitude. It is the largest of the American islands, being eight hundred miles in length, and upwards of a hundred broad in most places. A chain of hills runs along the middle of the country from east to west, whence issue some small streams, but there is hardly a navigable river in the island. The produce here is the same as in the neighbouring continent; and European cattle are vastly multiplied, but European grain does not thrive in this country, on which account the inhabitants make their bread chiefly of cassavi root.

The town of St. Jago, in the south-east part of the island, is esteemed the capital; but the Havana, in the north-west, is much more considerable

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on account of its trade, and the rendezvous of galleons annually from Carthage and Vera-Cruz, on their return to Spain. The harbour, which is of difficult access, is secure and spacious. The town contains about two thousand inhabitants, besides the garrison. Here the governor of the island, the bishop, and most of the men of figure and business reside.

There are several other harbours in the island, particularly at Santa Havannah; and at the town of Baracoa, in the north-east part of the island.

Were it not for its commodious harbours, this island would probably have been long since abandoned by the Spaniards, to whom it belongs; for it is not fertile, and on account of the great heat, and the periodical rains in the summer, the air is very unhealthy.

Cuba was discovered by Columbus in the year 1492; but in all his voyages he never found that it was an island.

### J A M A I C A.

Jamaica is situate between seventy-five and seventy-nine degrees of west longitude, and between seventeen and eighteen degrees odd minutes of north latitude, about thirty-three leagues south of the island of Cuba. The length of it, from east to west, is near a hundred and forty miles, and the breadth about sixty. A chain of mountains, as in the island last mentioned, extends along the middle of the country from west to east, named the Blue Mountains; the highest of which is called Monte Diaboli. Those hills are rocky, but covered with woods of tall and straight timber.

According to Sir Hans Sloane, there are more than a hundred rivers in the island, but none of them navigable; falling precipitately from the mountains, and discharging themselves into the sea, either on the north or south side. They are well stored with fish of various kinds, though they contain none of the European species, except eels and craw-fish.

In dry years, fresh water is very scarce near the sea, and at a distance from rivulets. At Port Royal, particularly, the well-water is brackish, and occasions fluxes, which have carried off many thousands of our seamen. The river-water also tastes of copper, and proves very unwholesome, unless it stands to settle, before it is drank. There are some springs and rivulets that purify in their course, and stop the channel; and many salt-springs under the hills, about two miles from the sea, which uniting their streams, form a salt-river. At Port Morant, near the east end of the island, is a hot-bath, the waters of which is drank, and likewise used externally for the gripes, the common disease of the islanders.

The natural productions of this island are as numerous as perhaps in any spot in the world of the same size. The tree which bears pimento, or allspice, commonly called Jamaica pepper, rises to the height of above thirty foot, is straight, of a moderate thickness, and covered with a smooth, shining, grey bark. It shoots out a vast number of branches

on every side, and its leaves resemble those of the bay-tree. The flowers are formed at the ends of the twigs, each stalk bearing one. The berries are rather longer than those of the juniper, like which, when ripe, they become black and smooth; but before they reach maturity, they are picked off the tree, and dried in the sun. This tree grows mostly upon the mountains.

The island also produces the wild cinnamon-tree, the bark of which is much used in medicine; the manchinal, which bears a beautiful apple, and affords a fine wood for cabinet-makers; but the apple and juice are poisonous. Here are also the mahogany-tree, the cedar, and the cabbage-tree; the latter of which grows about a hundred foot high. This tree is remarkable for the extreme hardness of its wood, and it bears upon the top a substance, which in taste and appearance resembles cabbage. Here grows the palm, whence is drawn an oil much esteemed by the negroes; the white wood, never affected with the worm in which those seas abound; the soap-tree, the berries of which answer all the purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive-bark, useful to tanners; the suttick red-wood; and, lastly, the log-wood, employed in dyeing. The forests also produce the aloes, and cochineal plant, with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, china-root, cassia, and tamarinds.

Salt is made here in ponds, into which the sea has access. The moisture exhaling by the heat of the sun, the salt is left at the bottom, in great plenty. It is not perfectly white, nor in small grains, but in large lumps.

The staple of the island is sugar-cane, besides which it produces the cocoa-nut, oranges, lemons, citrons, cotton, indigo, tobacco, and some other articles.

Jamaica lying several degrees within the tropic, enjoys the trade-wind, which on the south-side of the island is called a sea-breeze. It rises about eight o'clock in the morning, and increases till twelve; after which it gradually abates, till at four it totally ceases. About eight in the evening begins the land-breeze, blowing four leagues into the sea. It continues increasing till twelve at night, and decreases till four. This is the ordinary course; but sometimes the sea-breezes are unusually violent, especially at new and full moon.

As the trade-wind between the tropics comes not directly from the east, but varies from the north-east to the south-east, according to the position of the sun; the sea-breeze here has the like variation, not coming always from the same point. The land-breezes, however, come always from the ridge of hills, and from the same point of them, both on the north and south sides of the island.

The land-wind blowing in the night, and the sea-breeze in the day, no shipping can come into the port except in the day-time; nor go out but soon after break of day.

The winds called the norths come in when the sun is near the tropic of Capricorn. This wind is very cold and unhealthy. It is more violent in the night,

night, having then the additional force of the land-wind. It checks the growth of the canes, and all vegetables on the north side of the island, but is hindered by the ridge of mountains from doing much damage on the south, where it seldom rains with this wind.

As at sea, within the latitude of the trade-winds, one meets with tornadoes; so there happens sometimes here a violent west wind, directly contrary to the monsoon; but this does not occur often, and is only of short duration.

The sea-breeze, when it blows hard, is thought to hinder the rain from coming to the plains, it for the most part then raining on the hills. On this account, there are many springs and rivulets in the mountains, but few or none in the plains; and the rivers sometimes suffer great inundations in the latter, when no rain has fallen in the neighbourhood.

The rains here are more or less violent, and come at different seasons, according to the situation of the places. In general, however, the two great rainy seasons are in May and October; in which months, at new or full moon, they continue incessantly for a fortnight; so that all the low grounds are laid under water some inches, and the roads are almost impassable.

Rain is also usual in the month of January, but it is neither so violent nor of so long continuance as in the two other seasons.

The dews here are so great within land, that the water drops from the trees in the morning, as if it had rained; but there are few if any fogs in the plains, or sandy places near the sea. Neither frost nor snow is ever seen in this climate, but sometimes hail, which is very large. This comes with the north winds, which blow with great violence.

Earthquakes are perceived here almost annually, and there is hardly a day in which thunder does not accompany the rain in the mountains. This, as in other places, is for the most part preceded by lightning; and if it be fair weather, especially in the hottest seasons, it lightens almost the whole night.

The island is divided into nineteen parishes, which send each two members to the assembly. The chief towns are, St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish Town; Kingston; Port Passage; and Port Royal.

Spanish Town, the capital, is pleasantly situated in a fine plain upon the river Cobre, in the south-east part of the island. It consists of near a thousand houses. Here the governor resides, and the general assembly and courts of justice are held.

Kingston is a port-town, situated on the north side of the bay of Port Royal, ten or twelve miles south-east of Spanish Town. Since the repeated misfortunes of the town of Port Royal, it is become a large and populous place, much frequented by merchants, and sea-faring people.

Port Passage is also a sea-port town, situated at the mouth of the river Cobre, seven miles south-east of Spanish Town. It obtained its name from being the greatest thoroughfare in the island, at least between Port Royal and Spanish Town. It is not large, but

consists chiefly of houses of entertainment, and has a fort erected for its defence.

Port Royal, before its destruction by an earthquake, in the year 1692, was situated in the south-east part of the island, at the extremity of a large slip or point of land, running westerly about twelve miles from the main island; having the ocean on the south, and a fine bay of the sea, which forms the harbour, on the north, well defended by several forts and platforms of guns. The harbour is about three leagues broad in most places, and so deep that a ship of seven hundred tons may lay her side on the shore; nor does there want good anchorage in any part of it.

The town contained above fifteen hundred houses, and was greatly frequented by merchants and planters. This was the state of Port Royal in the year of the Revolution; but since that epoch it has been almost totally destroyed three times; first by an earthquake, in 1692; next by a fire, in 1702; and lastly, by a violent storm and inundation of the sea, in 1722.

The first of those calamities was accompanied with extraordinary horror. The earth suddenly opening, swallowed up a great number of houses and people; and water at the same time gushing from the openings of the earth, overwhelmed a multitude of the inhabitants; some of whom had afterwards the good fortune to be saved by boats. Several ships were cast away in the harbour; and the Swan Frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of the sinking houses. In some places the earth opened and shut very quick. Several persons might be seen sunk down to the middle, and others appearing with their heads just above ground, were squeezed to death. The sky, which was clear before the earthquake, became, in a minute's time, as red, and as hot, as an oven. It is computed that fifteen hundred persons perished by this calamity, and as many more by sickness, supposed to be occasioned by the noisome vapours that proceeded from the openings of the earth.

The earthquake was generally felt all over the island, and the noise in the mountains was so terrible, that many slaves, who had before run thither, returned to their masters. Two mountains lying between Spanish Town and Sixteen-miles Walk, united, and stopped the current of a river, which overflowed several woods and savannahs. On the north side of the island, above a thousand acres of land were sunk, with the houses and inhabitants. At Yellows, a great mountain split, and destroyed several plantations, with the people on them. One plantation, in particular, was removed a mile from the place where it stood.

The food of the inhabitants of Jamaica is generally such as in England. There are in the savannahs great plenty of cattle, but beef, though salted, cannot be kept many days, and fresh beef is apt to corrupt in four or five hours. Butchers therefore always kill in the morning just before day, and by seven o'clock the markets for fresh meat are over. They likewise have several kinds of turtle, with the manatee, or sea-cow, and a small quadruped, named



the racoon. Rats are sold by the dozen, and when they have been bred among the sugar-canes, are eaten by the negroes; as are also snakes, and colli, a species of worm.

The most common drink is water. The wine, which agrees best with the climate, is madeira. Besides which, cyder, beer, and ale, are also brought thither from the northern colonies, or from England; but those do not keep well.

The principal commodity of this island is sugars, of which they export twenty thousand hogheads a year, some of those weighing a ton. The most of this produce is sent to the mother-country, but a small part of it goes to North America, in exchange for beef, pork, cheese, corn, peas, slaves, planks, pitch, and tar. Of rum the planters export about four thousand puncheons, which is esteemed better than that of the other West India islands. They also export molasses, in which they make the greatest part of their returns for New England; and likewise cotton, to the amount of two thousand bags. Indigo was formerly much cultivated, but the quantity now made is inconsiderable. Some cocoa and coffee are also exported; but the latter not much esteemed. Besides those articles, the inhabitants of Jamaica send to Britain a considerable quantity of pimento, ginger, drugs, sweetmeats, with mahogany and manchineal-plank, and log-wood; the latter of which is procured from the Bay of Honduras.

The trade which is carried on between Jamaica and the Spanish main, is yet more profitable than that of log-wood, especially in time of war. It is conducted in the following manner: the vessel from Jamaica being furnished with negroes, and a proper assortment of goods, proceeds to a place called Monkey Key, within four miles of Porto Bello. On its arrival, a person understanding the Spanish tongue is immediately sent ashore, to give notice to the merchants of that town. Information is likewise given, with all possible speed, to the merchants of Panama. The traders instantly set out disguised like peasants, and carry their silver in earthen jars, covered with flour, to deceive the officers of the revenue. When they come on board, they are handsomely entertained, and at their departure take with them either negroes, slaves, or dry goods, packed up in such a manner as to be carried by one person, for which they make payment in dollars. They are furnished by the ship with provisions sufficient to serve them on their return. This traffic commonly lasts about five or six weeks. If the whole cargo is not disposed of at this place, they steer to a harbour called the Brins, about five miles distant from Carthagena, where they quickly find a vent for the rest of their goods.

Those are the two principal but not the only places where this trade is carried on. The Caracas, and many other ports upon the coast, have likewise their share. Neither is the British the only nation concerned in it. The inhabitants of Hispaniola, and the Dutch from Curassoa also interfere; and have, within these few years almost cut out the English. This trade is prohibited by the Spaniards under severe pe-

nalties; and the guarda costas, when they catch any of those interlopers, treat them little better than if they were pirates. They also frequently seize, and otherwise maltreat the fair traders, under the pretence of their being concerned in this contraband traffick; a cause from which frequent disputes have arisen between the courts of Great Britain and Spain.

The commerce at all times, and the prizes that are carried into Jamaica in time of war, draw thither a vast influx of treasure, which induces the inhabitants to live in a state of luxury almost exceeding what is known in any other place.

This island was discovered by Columbus in his second voyage to America, and he entertained so favourable an opinion of it, that he marked it out as an estate for himself. Notwithstanding the ingratitude of the court of Spain to Columbus, the government and property of Jamaica was granted to his family; and his son was the first European governor of the island, with the title of Duke de la Vega. The descendants of the great Columbus, however, degenerated from his virtues; and having no idea of any West Indian acquisition that did not produce gold and silver, neglected the improvement of the colony, and studied only to raise the rents, and oppress the planters. Columbus had preferred this island on account of its situation and populousness; but his posterity, or their substitutes, murdered sixty thousand of the natives, under the most exquisite tortures.

Jamaica came into our possession during the usurpation of Cromwell, by means of a formidable armament, fitted out with a view to reduce the island of Hispaniola, under the command of colonel Venables and admiral Penn, who sailed from England with seven thousand land forces on board. Being joined by many of the inhabitants of Barbadoes, and the other leeward islands, the fleet arrived on the 13th of April, 1656, at Hispaniola. The place of their landing was ill chosen; the army had near forty miles to march before it could reach, and the soldiers discouraged by the want of provisions, the excessive heat of the climate, and the ill conduct of their officers, yielded an easy prey to a handful of Spaniards, and reimbarke ignominiously, with great loss. The commanders, afraid to return to England, without striking some decisive blow, resolved to attempt Jamaica, before the inhabitants could receive the news of their repulse from Hispaniola, understanding that the island was in no good posture of defence.

On the second of May the troops were landed on Jamaica, and laid siege to St. Jago, the capital. The inhabitants not being in condition to oppose so strong a force, would have surrendered immediately, had it not been for the unaccountable delays of the English generals and commissioners. At last, however, the town capitulated; but not until the inhabitants had secreted their most valuable effects in the mountains; and the whole island soon shared the fate of the capital.

The English immediately began planting the south and south-east parts of the island, of which colonel d'Oyley was left governor, with three thousand mer-

Mean while the Spaniards at St. Cherenes, having been reinforced with thirty companies, besides artillery and provisions, from Cuba and the continent, had thrown up several formidable works at Rio Nuibo, in the precinct of St. Mary's. D'Oyley attacked them, drove them from their works in a few days, with great loss, and demolished their intrenchments. They next attempted to make a stand at Point Pedro, from which they were likewise driven, and were obliged at last to return to Cuba, leaving the English in quiet possession of their new conquest, which was confirmed by a subsequent treaty between the two nations.

The common distempers in this island are fevers, fluxes, and dry gripes; but notwithstanding the great heat of the climate, those of the inhabitants who carefully avoid exposing themselves to the night dews, are in little danger of incurring any fatal disease, and the climate admits of great latitude in the drinking of punch.

The government of Jamaica is reputed the best in the gift of the crown, that of Ireland excepted. The standing salary is two thousand five hundred pounds a year. The assembly votes the governor as much more; and this, with the great perquisites annexed to the office, makes the whole near the annual value of ten thousand pounds.

The religion of the church of England universally prevails, and the chief ecclesiastical magistrate is the Bishop of London's commissary.

#### HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO.

Hispaniola is situated twenty leagues east of Cuba. It is a large island, being six hundred miles long, and two hundred broad. A chain of mountains run along the middle of it, from which gold sand was formerly washed down into the rivulets; but the island has not afforded any of this commodity for several years. The air and seasons here are the same as in other places between the tropics.

The capital is St. Domingo, situated in the south side of the island, in sixty-nine degrees fifteen minutes of west longitude, and in ten degrees twenty-five minutes north latitude. It is built after the Spanish model, and contains several fine churches and monasteries. Here is the see of an archbishop, to whom the bishop of St. Jago, in Cuba, is suffragan; and at this place the Spanish governor resides.

The island is divided between the Spaniards and French, the former occupying the south-east part of it, and the latter the north-west.

Besides the capital, the other towns subject to Spain are, Higney, situated thirty leagues east of St. Domingo; Zibo, twenty leagues east of St. Domingo; Cotuy, at the east end of the island; Azua, eight leagues west of the capital; and Conception de la Vega, about eighty miles north of St. Domingo.

The towns subject to the French are, Petit Guaves, a port-town situated on a great bay at the west end of the island; Logane, another port-town in the same bay; and Port Lewis.

At the discovery of this island by Columbus, the number of the natives was computed at two millions; but these were extirpated in a few years by the extreme severity of the Spaniards, who themselves abandoned the island, after the gold and pearls, which they found on their arrival, were exhausted. The cattle which were brought from Europe being vastly multiplied, and running wild, after the emigration of the inhabitants, the buccannereers, or free-booters, began to settle here. The Spaniards finding their foreign traffic much interrupted by this people, and jealous that some other power might take possession of the island, sent thither colonies again. They took the capital city of Domingo, and almost the whole south-east coast of the island, but could not entirely dispossess the buccannereers of the north-west part. The latter being chiefly natives of France, they were supported by the French king, who sent thither a governor, obliging the buccannereers to cultivate the lands, and live in subjection to the laws of France.

Hispaniola may be considered as one of the most valuable acquisitions which the French have in America, particularly with regard to their sugar plantations, and the many excellent harbours and forts in this island, which gives them an opportunity of greatly annoying the commerce of other nations in time of war.

There are several small islands near the coast of Hispaniola; the chief of which are, Savona and St. Catalina at the south-east part of the island; Navaza, at the west end; Guanabo, in the bay of Leogane; and Tortuga, on the north-west coast.

The last of these islands is between twenty and thirty leagues in circumference, and has an excellent harbour, of difficult access. Here the buccannereers and free-booters of all nations had their first rendezvous, and fortifying the island, bid defiance for some years to all the world. They consisted chiefly of the French hunters of Hispaniola, who were afterwards joined by numbers of English, Dutch, and other seamen. They continued for some time to be very formidable, and committed depredations in those parts, both by sea and land; till at length they became subject to the crown of France, in the manner which has been mentioned.

#### P O R T O R I C O.

Porto Rico, or Juan de Porto Rico, is situated between sixty-five and sixty-eight degrees of west longitude, and in nineteen degrees of north latitude, fifty miles east of Hispaniola. This island is about a hundred and twenty miles long, and sixty broad. It is agreeably diversified with hills and valleys, woods and open fields, and is plentifully watered with rivulets. The seasons and produce are the same here as in the three islands last mentioned, namely, Cuba, Jamaica, and Hispaniola, which, with Porto Rico, are denominated the Great Antilles.

The town of Porto Rico, or St. John, stands in a little island joined to Porto Rico by a causeway. It is defended by forts and batteries, and has a spacious harbour.

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This island was discovered by Columbus, in 1493, but it was not planted by the Spaniards till the year 1510, when they are said to have exercised extreme barbarity on the inhabitants in establishing this settlement.

#### THE CARIBBEE ISLANDS.

Southward, and to the east of the Great Antilles, lie the Caribbee Islands, of which there is a great number. The first that we meet with is the Virgin Islands, situated on the east side of Porto Rico, and which are very small.

Of those, the island of St. Thomas is a Danish settlement; Saba and Eustatia belong to the Dutch; and the principal in the possession of the British is Tortola. This island is very unhealthy, its chief produce is cotton, said to be of the best quality of any that is raised in those parts of the world.

Barbuda is situated in eighteen degrees of north latitude. It is about twenty miles long, and twelve broad. This island is the property of the Codrington family, and produces the same fruits as the other Caribbees; but the inhabitants, instead of cultivating sugar-canes, apply themselves to breeding of cattle, and raising provisions, for which they meet with a very good market in the other islands.

#### ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.

One of the Caribbee Islands of greater importance is St. Christopher's, vulgarly called St. Kitt's, situated in sixty-four degrees ten minutes of west longitude, and in seventeen degrees thirty minutes north latitude. This island is about seventy-five miles in circumference, and has in the middle a very high mountain, whence issue some rivulets. The principal commodities are sugar and rum, the former of which is said to be the best of any that our islands produce. The towns of greatest note, are Bassé Terre and Sandy Point. There is not a harbour in the whole island; on account of the shore being sandy, and a continual surf beating upon it, which makes landing always inconvenient, and sometimes dangerous. To supply this defect, the inhabitants are obliged to adopt a very peculiar method of shipping and unloading their goods; using for that purpose a small boat, of a particular construction, called a moses. This comes from the ship, manned with the most expert rowers. When they see what they call a lull, or any abatement in the violence of the surge, they push ashore, and lay the broad-side of the moses to the beach, from which the hoghead is rolled in. In this tedious and inconvenient manner the sugar is carried aboard by single hogheads; but accidents frequently happen by which they are lost. Rum, cotton, and other commodities which will bear the water, are generally swam off or ashore. The same method of loading and unloading is, for the same causes, used at Nevis and Montserrat.

The air at St. Kitt's is accounted wholesome, and not so hot as that of Jamaica, being qualified by the sea-breeze. The inhabitants are computed to be seven

thousand whites, and twenty thousand negroes. This island, on account of its being extremely mountainous in the middle, is said to contain not more than twenty four thousand acres fit for sugar, of which it produces ten thousand hogheads annually, and rum in the usual proportion, which is that of three to five.

By an uncommon accident, the English, under Sir Thomas Warner, and the French, under M. Deshambue, arrived on this island the same day, in the year 1626. They made an amicable division of it between them; agreeing, however, that the fishing and hunting, the mines, salt-ponds, and most valuable timber, should remain in common to both nations. After this they fell to planting; in which the English, being more regularly supplied from home, succeeded faster. Three years after the first settlement, they were dislodged by the Spaniards, who beheld with jealousy their progress in the Caribbee Islands; but the latter evacuating the island, the settlers of the two other nations returned, and took possession of their former habitations. The English built for themselves elegant and commodious houses, whilst the French were contented to reside in huts, after the manner of the native Caribbeans. The two colonies seem to have lived together in great harmony, till the war in the reign of Queen Anne, when the French part of the island was conquered by the English, and the whole was finally ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht.

#### N E V I S.

Nevis is separated from the east end of St. Christopher's by a narrow channel. It is about six leagues in circumference, appearing to be one continued mountain, with the plantations lying on the sides of it, near the bottom. Small as it is, it was once in a very flourishing state, containing about ten thousand white, and twenty thousand black inhabitants, which, however, are now reduced to half the number. It produces six thousand hogheads of sugar, with rum in proportion.

#### A N T E G O.

Antego, or Antigua, is situated twenty leagues east of St. Christopher's, in sixty-two degrees five minutes of west longitude, and in seventeen degrees thirty minutes of north latitude. This island having no rivers, and but few springs, or such as are brackish, the inhabitants are obliged to preserve the rain-water in cisterns. The air here is not so wholesome as in the neighbouring islands, and it is more subject to hurricanes; but it has excellent harbours, particularly English harbour, which is capable of receiving the largest man of war in the navy. Here is also a dock-yard, supplied with all stores and conveniences for repairing and careening ships. The principal trade, however, is carried on in the harbour of St. John's, the capital, situated in the north-west part of the island, and which has water sufficiently deep for merchant

chant vessels. The town of St. John's was once in a very flourishing condition, as may be judged by the loss sustained at the late fire, which was computed at the amazing sum of four hundred thousand pounds.

This island was first attempted to be settled by Sir Thomas Warner, about the same time with St. Christopher's and Nevis: but no establishment then took place. It was afterwards granted by Charles II. to lord Willoughby, then governor of Barbadoes, who settled a colony upon it in the space of a few years. In a short time, but by what means is not evident, it became again the public property. It raises, at present, about sixteen thousand hogheads of sugar, which was at first of a very bad quality, unfit for the English market; but the planters have greatly improved their staple since, and it is now as good as in any of the other islands.

#### M O N T S E R R A T.

Montserrat is situated ten leagues south-west of Antego, and so named by the Spaniards, from a mountain in it, resembling that of Montserrat in Catalonia. This island is about eighteen miles in circumference, and likewise produces sugar and rum.

These four islands, of St. Christopher's, Nevis, Antigua, and Montserrat, are all under the government of one captain-general, who enjoys a very considerable appointment, amounting to three thousand five hundred pounds a year. His residence is generally at Antego. Each of these islands has its separate council and assembly, and a distinct governor, whose salary is about two hundred pounds a year.

#### ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S, AND ST. MARTIN'S.

St. Bartholomew's is a small island, situated ten leagues north of St. Christopher's; and St. Martin's is another small island, a little to the northward of the former. They both belong to the French, and produce rum and sugar.

#### G U A D A L U P E.

Guadalupe is situated in sixty-one degrees twenty-five minutes of west longitude, and in sixteen degrees twenty minutes of north latitude. This is one of the largest of the Caribbee Islands, being forty-five miles long, and thirty-six broad; but ought rather to be considered as two islands, divided from each other by a small arm of the sea, not above three hundred foot over in the widest part. One of these is called Grande Terre, the other Guadalupe. The former is almost destitute of fresh water, but in the latter not less than fifty rivers empty themselves into the sea, many of which are navigable for boats nine miles up the country. No place in the West Indies affords more agreeable and romantic scenes. It has many high mountains, one of which, that far overtops the rest, is a volcano, and produces considerable quantities of sulphur. The island also produces hot baths, of great use in medicine. The land in the valleys is extremely

fertile, and produces the usual West Indian commodities, viz. sugar, indigo, coffee, cotton, ginger, &c. and the mountains abound in game. The air is more temperate and salubrious than it is in general between the tropics, and the country is populous and flourishing.

The French began to settle this island so early as 1632; but the colony remained long in a languishing condition, and did not emerge from its difficulties till after the peace of Utrecht. This island was reduced by the British forces in the last war, but was restored to the French at the subsequent peace. The small adjacent islands of Doreada, Santos, Petite Terre, and Marigalante, belong also to the French, and are under the same government with Guadalupe.

#### D O M I N I C A.

Dominica is situated in sixty-one degrees twenty-four minutes of west longitude, and in fifteen degrees of north latitude. The property of this island was disputed by the British and French, but by the last peace it was finally ceded to the former nation. Since that time it has been cultivated with success; but was taken last year by the French.

#### M A R T I N I C O.

Martinico is situated in sixty-one degrees of west longitude, and in between fourteen and fifteen degrees of north latitude. The situation of this island is very advantageous for defence, the shore, on every side, being indented with very deep bays, called Cul de sacs, and the sands, discoverable only at low water, forming in many places a hidden, and almost insurmountable barrier. A ridge of lofty mountains runs north-west and south east, quite through the island; and both sides of the country are intersected, at small distances, with deep gullies, through which, in the rainy season, the water rushes down with great impetuosity. In other respects the island is pleasant and fruitful.

The two principal towns are St. Pierre and Port Royal, both which are considerable for their magnitude, trade, and strength. This island belongs also to the French, and the produce of it is the same with that of the other Caribbees.

#### ST. L U C I A.

St. Lucia is situated in sixty-one degrees of west longitude, and in thirteen degrees thirty minutes of north latitude. It is about twenty-two miles in length, and near half as much in breadth. Some portions of it are hilly, but the greater part is a rich soil, well watered with rivulets, and furnished with timber. It has several good bays, and commodious harbours. To this island the English in Barbadoes formerly resorted to cut timber, and supply themselves with other necessaries; and it was reputed so much the property of Great Britain, that it has been constantly included in the commission of the governor of Barbadoes. In the year 1722, king George I. made a grant of it to

the

the duke of Montagu, who sent thither several ships provided with necessaries for establishing a settlement; but the planters had hardly begun their operations when they were expelled by a party of the French belonging to the island of Martinico: in consequence of which the project was frustrated, and the duke of Montagu lost all the expence he had been at in this expedition, amounting to forty thousand pounds. The court of Great Britain not resenting this outrage, St. Lucia was henceforth considered as a neutral island; but after the peace of Aix la Chapelle the French planted and fortified it, and it was formally ceded to them at the peace in 1763.

## ST. VINCENT.

St. Vincent is situate in sixty-one degrees twenty minutes of west longitude, and in thirteen degrees of north latitude. This island was also comprehended in the commission of the governor of Barbadoes, and shared the same fate with St. Lucia, in the transaction mentioned in the preceding article. It was ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of peace in 1763; but was taken by the French last year. Its produce is the same with that of the other Caribbee islands.

## BARBADOES.

Barbadoes is situate in fifty-nine degrees of west longitude, and thirteen of north latitude, about seventy miles east of St. Vincent. It is nearly of a triangular form, being in length twenty-five miles, from south to north, and at its greatest breadth fifteen miles. It is for the most part a plain level country, except a few hills, of easy ascent. The whole island appears like one continued plantation, interspersed with a vast number of gentlemen's houses. The air is cooler and more healthy than in the large West India islands; it being so small and level that it generates no land wind, and the sea-breeze, or trade-wind perpetually blows. In the summer months, however, it is, like the other islands, subject to tornadoes or hurricanes, which are very destructive to the shipping. For here are no harbours to shelter themselves, but only bays, where they lie at anchor; and in the principal one, named Carlisle Bay, in the south-west part of the island, there is no good anchoring ground, it being foul, and apt to cut the cables.

At the bottom of this bay, where are very commodious wharfs for the shipping and landing of goods, stands the chief town, called Bridgetown, which was once a very flourishing place, consisting of above twelve hundred houses; but a few years ago, it was almost entirely destroyed by two fires, which committed dreadful devastation on account of the houses being built of wood. An act of assembly has since passed, prohibiting such buildings in the town hereafter, and ordering that they shall be of brick. At this place is a college, the only institution of that nature in the West Indies. The founder was colonel Codrington, who endowed it in a very liberal man-

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ner; but it seems not to have fully answered the benevolent intentions of the donor.

The produce of this island is sugar, rum, cotton, indigo, pimento, oranges, citrons, limes, and a variety of fruits. Hence we receive strong waters, called Citron-water, or Barbadoes-water, the finest that are any where to be met with.

Horses and other cattle are imported to Barbadoes from the northern colonies; but of those the number is not great, their being but little food for them.

The white people in the island have been computed at forty thousand formerly, but at present they are supposed not to exceed the half of that number; though the negroe slaves are said to amount to a hundred thousand.

The militia of this island consists of about three thousand foot, and two thousand five hundred horse. With respect to the civil power in Barbadoes, it is a royal government, as are all the other British American islands.

Barbadoes was the first settled, and is still the best peopled, considering its size, of any of the English West India islands. We meet with no certain accounts by whom it was discovered; but the first Englishmen who landed here are said to be some sailors belonging to Sir William Courteen's fleet, which was cruising against the Spaniards, about the end of the reign of James I. On their return to England the favourable report they made of the soil, induced several adventurers to go over, with the view of establishing a settlement. But the island being entirely covered with wood, their attempts, at first, were far from being attended with success.

In the year 1625, the property of this island being granted to the earl of Carlisle, by king Charles the first, several persons purchased plantations of that nobleman, and endeavoured to raise tobacco; but this produce not turning to account, they tried cotton and indigo, which yielded them considerable profit. It was not till the year 1647, that sugar, their present staple, became the principal object of cultivation. At this time, many gentlemen of rank and fortune, who had been adherents to the royal cause, went over to Barbadoes, to avoid the persecution of their enemies; and from this period the island made great advancement, both in produce and population. In the space of about twelve years, the inhabitants were computed at thirty thousand, and the Indian or negroe slaves at double that number. The trade was then in the hands of the Dutch; but soon after, under Cromwell's government, it was confined to the mother-country by act of navigation. The colony continued to improve, and in the year 1676, reached its highest pitch; the white inhabitants, at that time, amounting to fifty thousand, and the slaves a hundred thousand. Four hundred sail of ships, at an average of an hundred and fifty tons each, were employed in the trade; and their annual exports were reckoned to amount to three hundred and fifty pounds. Since that time, however, the trade and population of the island have greatly declined. The first cause assigned

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for

for this event, is the sudden increase of the French islands, and the settlement of others, by the English, particularly Jamaica, which drew away many of the inhabitants from Barbadoes. The next cause is a contagious distemper, which broke out in the island in 1692, and continuing some years, carried off vast numbers of the people. To this may be added the impoverishment of the land, by which, notwithstanding the most assiduous culture, the produce of the island has diminished.

Soon after the Restoration, king Charles the second having purchased the property of the island from the Earl of Kinnoul, heir to lord Carlisle, it became henceforth a royal government; for the support of which, and of the fortifications, the colony has granted a duty of four and a half per cent. on their produce, amounting, one year with another, to above ten thousand pounds. The salary of the governor, including perquisites, is computed to be not less than five thousand pounds a year; and all the other officers of the civil establishment, which is maintained with great credit, have very handsome appointments. The established clergy, who here, as well as in the other West India islands, are those of the church of England, have also a liberal provision assigned them.

#### G R E N A D A,

Grenada is situate in sixty-one degrees thirty-nine minutes of west longitude, and in twelve degrees of north latitude, fifty leagues south-west of Barbadoes, and distant about thirty from the Spanish Main. It is about thirty English miles in length, and its breadth sixteen. The natural heat of the climate is greatly tempered by a constant sea-breeze. The dry and rainy seasons are remarkably regular in their periods; the blast has not hitherto been known in the island; and what is the happiest circumstance of all, it lies out of the track of hurricanes, which, with respect to the security of the settlements on shore, and the safety of the navigation, is an inestimable benefit in this part of the world.

Excepting a few mountains, the country consists of plains and gentle eminences, which are capable of cultivation to the very top. It is extremely well watered by several rivers, which proceed in different directions from a large lake at the top of a high mountain in the centre of the island. Most of the hills likewise furnish smaller streams; and there are almost every where very fine springs near the sea. River and sea-fish, turtles, and wild fowl, are here in great plenty. But the chief excellence of Granada consists in its convenience for anchorage, and in its harbours. There is good anchoring ground all along the coast; and on the east and west several small bays and creeks, commodious for vessels, and for landing and shipping goods. Two of its harbours may be said to be the finest in the world. The first of those lies at the south-east extremity of the island, and is divided into the outer and inner port. The entrance to the former is three quarters of a mile broad, but becomes gradually wider, and is about a

mile extent within. The entrance to the inner-port is about a quarter of a mile in breadth, and also becomes gradually wider. It is for the most part seven fathom deep, and is excellent holding-ground, being every where a soft oozy bottom. The ships here may be alongside of the ware-houses, and take in their loading with great ease; after which they may, with very little trouble, be towed into the outer harbour, which enjoys this peculiar advantage, that vessels can sail either in or out with the common trade-wind.

The other harbour is situated at the north-west end of the island. It is a quarter of a mile broad at the entrance, and so capacious, that it can contain, in the utmost safety, a large fleet of line of battle ships.

Between Grenada and St. Vincent, in a north-east direction, lies a cluster of small islands, called the Grenadilloes. Twenty-three of them are said to be capable of cultivation. One of the largest of those is named Couriacou. It is of a circular form, about seven miles in diameter, and has an excellent harbour. This island, which is now pretty well settled, produces coffee and cotton, and sends three members to the assembly of Grenada.

The island of Bequia is also reckoned among the Grenadilloes, though only two leagues south-west of St. Vincent. This is the largest of them all, being about twelve leagues in circumference, and is also said to be the most fruitful. It has also a good port.

Except Jamaica, Grenada is the only West India colony which the English obtained by right of conquest; being ceded by the French, to the crown of Great Britain, at the peace of 1763. At present, however, it is in the possession of the French.

Grenada is reckoned extremely fruitful in sugar, and the other commodities of the Caribbees. It is, like the other islands, a royal government, under which are also comprehended the Grenadilloes, with Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tobago.

#### T O B A G O.

Tobago is the southernmost island of any belonging to Great Britain, being situate in eleven degrees fifteen minutes of north latitude, and in sixty-one degrees of west longitude. It is about fifty miles long, and twelve broad. In the year 1628, king Charles I. granted this island to the earl of Pembroke and Montgomery; but no settlement appears to have been made in consequence of this donation. During the time of the civil wars, therefore, the Dutch took possession of it, and began to clear the woods, when the Spaniards and savages from some neighbouring islands, entirely extirpated the new colonists. From this time the island remained a desert, till 1664, when it was again settled by other Dutch adventurers, who were extremely successful during the first fourteen years, and had made it one of the most flourishing of the islands. In 1678, however, they were expelled by the French, who entirely demolished the plantations, and though the island was restored at the treaty of Nimeguen, yet the Dutch never after made any attempts to settle it. From

this time it was considered as a neutral island, between the French and British, till by the peace in 1763, it was ceded to the latter. The soil is fertile, and capable of producing the same commodities as the other Caribbees. The government, as has been mentioned in the preceding article, is annexed to that of Grenada.

#### TRINIDAD.

Trinidad, or Trinity Island, is situate between sixty and sixty-two degrees of west longitude, and between nine and eleven degrees of north latitude; separated from the province of New Andalusia in Terra Firma, by a narrow strait, called Bocca de Drago, about three miles over. This island is about ninety miles long, and sixty broad. The soil is fertile, producing Indian corn, the various kinds of tropical fruits, sugar, cotton, and tobacco of the best quality; but the air, like that of the neighbouring continent, is unhealthy. Trinidad was discovered by Columbus, and appears to have been settled by the Spaniards in a short time after. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh, in the year 1595, but quitted again, and became the object of a French invasion in 1676. Those visitants having extorted a heavy contribution from the inhabitants, also quitted the island, and it still continues to be the property of the Spanish nation.

#### MARGARETTA.

Margaretta is situated in sixty-five degrees of west longitude, and in eleven degrees thirty minutes of north latitude, sixty leagues westward of Trinidad. It is about fifty miles in length, and near half as much in breadth, producing Indian corn, and the usual tropical fruits, but affording a very small quantity either of wood or water. This island was also discovered by Columbus, and belongs to the Spanish crown.

#### JUAN FERNANDEZ.

Juan Fernandez is situated in the Pacific Ocean, in eighty-three degrees of west longitude, and thirty-three degrees forty minutes of south latitude. When viewed at a distance, it appears to be surrounded with craggy broken precipices; but upon a nearer approach, the prospect changes into a landscape the most delightful that can be imagined; fields of the loveliest verdure, intermixed with groves, and watered with numerous streams, which in many places issue in the form of beautiful cascades. The northern side of the island is composed of a range of craggy hills, covered with aromatic trees, none of which are of a size to yield any considerable timber. The largest is the myrtle, the top of which grows in a globular shape, with as much uniformity as if it was clipped. Piemento, and cabbage-trees, also grow here in great plenty.

The climate of this island is so mild, that the trees continue green all the year round. The winter lasts no

longer than June and July, and is not then severe; there being only a slight frost and a little hail, but sometimes great rains. The heat of the summer is equally moderate; nor is there much thunder, or tempestuous weather.

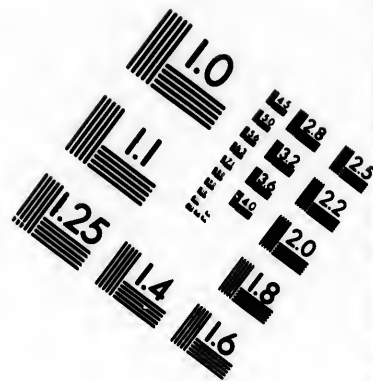
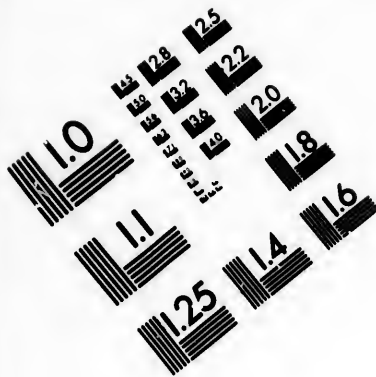
Some of the hills in Juan Fernandez resemble those in Chili, which abound in gold; and there are others of a bright red soil, more beautiful than vermilion. This island is about fifteen miles long, and near six broad, and produces a great variety of antiscorbutic vegetables, which have often afforded great relief to the navigators in those seas. When the Centurion lay at this place, commodore Anson sowed several kinds of garden seeds, and planted the stones of plums, apricots, and peaches, which, according to the accounts of those who have visited the island since that time, have thriven in an extraordinary manner. The conveniences afforded in this island for those that sail in the South-Sea, have lately induced the Spaniards to fortify it. The only safe harbour is on the north side. Juan Fernandez was formerly a place of resort for the buccanniers, or American rovers, who thence annoyed the western coast of the Spanish continent. It then abounded in goats, which have since been greatly diminished by the Spaniards, who purposely set a number of dogs ashore, to deprive the buccanniers of that resource.

Two men are said to have lived several years alone on this island, at different times. One was a Mosquito Indian, and the other Alexander Selkirk, a native of Largo, in the county of Fife in Scotland. He belonged to a ship called the Cinque-Ports, commanded by one Stradling, who, upon some difference, set him ashore here, where he had been before to wood and water, leaving him a firelock, with a pound of powder, ball, a knife, a hatchet, a kettle, some mathematical instruments, a bible, and two or three other books, with a small quantity of tobacco, bed, bedding, &c. At first the solitude of the place rendered him extremely unhappy, but by time and habit he became reconciled to his situation. He had erected two huts, one of which served him for a kitchen, the other for a dining-room and bed-chamber. They were made of piemento wood, which supplied him also with fuel and candle. The roof was of long grass or rushes, and his waincotting the skins of goats, of which he killed near five hundred during his residence on the island.

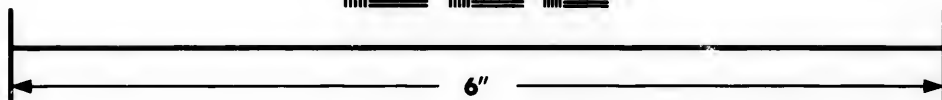
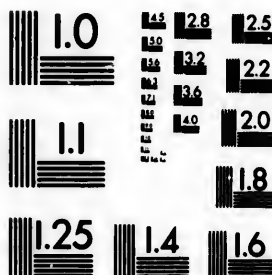
When his ammunition was exhausted, he caught the goats by running, in which he became so practised, that the swiftest of those animals was hardly a match for him. When his cloaths were worn out, he made for himself a covering of goat-skin, joined with thongs. After living in this solitude during almost four years and a half, he was at length taken up by a vessel which accidentally touched at the island. On his return to England, he put his memoirs into the hands of Daniel Defoe, in order to digest them for publication; but the latter basely defrauded him of his expected emolument, by converting the materials into a novel, under the title of Robinson Crusoe.







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## M A S A F U E R O.

Thirty-one leagues westward of the preceding island, lies that of Masafuero, sometimes distinguished by the name of the less Juan Fernandez. It is very high and mountainous, of a triangular form, and about seven or eight leagues in circumference. Here also are many goats, and the coast abounds with cod, cavilliers, hallibut, and cray-fish, besides several other kinds. Captain Carteret's crew caught here a king-fisher that weighed eighty-seven pounds, and was five foot and a half long. The sharks were so ravenous, that in taking soundings, one of them swallowed the lead, by which they hauled him above water; but he regained his liberty by disgorging his prey. By the captain's account, seals are so numerous, that if many thousands were killed in a night, they would not be missed next morning.

## E A S T E R I S L A N D.

This island, which is said to be variously denominated by the natives, lies in 109 deg. 46 min. of west longitude, and in 27 deg. 4 min. of south latitude. It is nearly of a triangular form, its greatest extent from north-east to south-west, is about four leagues, and its greatest breadth about two. It is for the most part barren, and in some places a bare rock, without any covering of earth. From its appearance it is supposed to have lately suffered violence by subterraneous force. When visited by captain Cook in the Resolution, the ground was bespread with rocks and stones of various sizes, and which seemed to have been exposed to great fire, by which they had acquired a black colour, and porous texture. Towards the north was observed a lump of black melted lava, which appeared to contain some iron ore. The soil of the island is a dry hard clay, and though an infinite number of stones is scattered over it, there are several large tracts planted with potatoes and plantains, but no fruit was observed on the trees. The potatoes are of a yellow colour, and as sweet as carrots. The country produces only a few shrubs, and not a tree that exceeds seven or eight foot in height. Here are sugar-canes, bananas, and yams, which thrive extremely well, considering the quality of the ground. The sugar-canes are about nine or ten foot high.

The only quadruped found on the island was black rats, which are common to all the islands in the South Sea. There are a few domestic fowls, of a small breed, and dull plumage; with two or three noddies, so tame as to settle on the shoulders of the natives.

The water here is generally brackish, there being only one well that is perfectly fresh; and this is at the west end of the island. Thither the natives repair to slake their thirst, and likewise to wash themselves all over; which, when the company is large, they perform in succession.

The most remarkable curiosity in this island is a number of Colossal statues, but of which very few

are entire, and to be seen only on the coast. On the east side of the island are seen the ruins of three platforms of stone-work, on each of which had stood four of those statues, but several of them were fallen down. One which lay in this situation measured fifteen foot in length, and six in breadth across the shoulders. Each had on its head a large cylindrical stone of a red colour. Others were found that measured near twenty-seven foot in length, and upwards of eight foot over the shoulders. A yet larger one was seen standing, in the shade of which a company, consisting of near thirty persons, sheltered themselves from the rays of the sun. The workmanship of those statues is rude, but the features of the face are said to be not ill expressed. The ears are long, according to the distortion practised in the country, and the bodies have hardly any thing of the human figure about them. How these islanders, totally unacquainted with any mechanic power, could raise such enormous figures, and afterwards place the large cylindrical stones on their head is naturally astonishing. The most probable conjecture, doubtless is, the stone is facitious, and that each figure was gradually erected by forming a temporary platform around it, and raising the scaffold as the work advanced.

The inhabitants of this island are of a middle stature, and generally thin. Their complexion is a chestnut brown; they have black hair, which curls, and is remarkably strong. The men go entirely naked, and have their bodies marked with punctures, a practice more or less common in all the islands of the South sea. The lobes of their ears almost rest on their shoulders, by the weight of the ornaments which hang from wide holes bored through them. Those usually consist of large rings made of the leaf of the sugar cane, which is very elastic, and is rolled up like a watch spring. The rings are covered either with the white down of feathers, or with a kind of bright cloth, of an orange colour. One of the natives that came aboard the British vessel, wore a belt round his waist, from which a sort of net-work hung down before, but of a texture too thin to answer the purpose of concealment. Round his neck was tied a string, which suspended a slip of flat bone about three inches in length, that hung down on his breast. Being presented by the ship's crew with nails, medals, and strings of beads, he desired to have them fastened round his neck.

The women are small, and slender limbed, and have punctures on the face resembling the patches sometimes used by the European ladies. They paint their face with a reddish brown ruddle, over which they lay a bright orange colour, extracted from the turmeric root; or, instead of this fashion, they variegate their faces with strokes of white shell-lime. Their apparel consists only of a small bit of cloth wrapped round their loins, and another over their shoulders; they sometimes wear their hair tied on the crown of the head.

To defend their heads from the violent action of the sun, they have invented several sorts of covering for that part. That which is most used by the men

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is a round fillet, adorned with feathers; and by the women a straw bonnet that bears some resemblance to a Scotch one. Many of the men wear a ring about two inches thick, strong, and curiously plaited of grass, and fitted close round the head; being likewise ornamented with the long feathers of the man of war bird; others wear huge bushy caps of brown gull's feathers: besides this, some also wear a hoop of wood, decorated with the feathers of the gannet.

By the most exact calculation, the inhabitants of this island do not amount to above seven hundred, and the number of females amounts in no proportion to that of the males; unless we suppose that many of the former were restrained from appearing, during the stay of our voyagers upon the island. That this was the case, however, is probable, though the men discovered no signs of a jealous disposition, nor the women any symptoms of a scrupulous chastity. Such of the latter as appeared are said to have been very liberal of their favours. It is conjectured by the navigators, that all the married and modest females had concealed themselves in the recesses of the island; and what strengthens this supposition is, that many of the inhabitants, instead of huts, retire during the night into caves, which are very common in the lava currents of all countries where an eruption of any volcano has happened. The few women that appeared, are said to have been extremely lascivious.

Their houses are low wretched huts, constructed of sticks set upright in the ground, at six or eight foot distance, and being bent towards each other at the top, are there tied together. To those sticks others are fastened horizontally, and covered with leaves of sugar-cane. The dimensions of the hut in the middle are greater than at the ends; and in this part is the doorway, formed like a porch, and so low and narrow, as just to admit a man to enter on all fours. The largest of the hovels that were seen, seemed not to be more than six foot long, eight or nine foot high in the middle, and three or four at each end; the breadth, at the different places, being generally the same as the height.

The natives appear to be of a mild disposition, and hospitable, but much addicted to thieving. No kind of musical instruments was seen among them. Their offensive weapons are short wooden clubs, and spears about six foot long, crooked, and armed at one end with pieces of flint. They have likewise a weapon made of wood, and shaped like a pointed battledore.

Only three or four canoes were seen in the whole island, and those very mean. They were constructed of many pieces of wood, sewed together with small cord, each piece not more than four or five inches wide, and two or three foot long. The length of the canoes is about twenty foot. They seem not to be capable of carrying more than four persons, and are furnished with out-riggers or balances made of three slender poles. Each of the men works it with a paddle, the blade of which is composed of several pieces of wood.

The inhabitants of this island have a king, whom they style aere, or hareekce. He wore about his waist

a piece of cloth made of the mulberry bark, quilted with threads of grass, and stained yellow with turmeric: his head was covered with a cap of long shining black feathers. Those were all the marks of distinction which he possessed; for the people seemed to pay him but a small degree of homage, and the poverty of the island could not admit of any splendor.

Concerning the religion of those people none of the late navigators received any information; and with respect to what is delivered on this subject in the voyage of Roggevein, the detail is blended with so many circumstances which have been disproved, that it is hardly entitled to the smallest degree of credit.

#### THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS.

The Marquesas consist of five islands, viz. La Magdalena, St. Pedro, La Dominica, Santa Christina, and Hood Islands, occupying one degree of latitude, and half a degree of longitude. They were all discovered by Mendana, a Spaniard, in 1597, except the latter, which was first descried by captain Cook, in 1774.

La Magdalena is about five leagues in circuit, it is supposed to lie in 10 deg. 25 min. of south latitude, and in 138 deg. 50 min. of west longitude; being only seen at the distance of nine leagues.

La Dominica, called by the natives Hœvaros, is a mountainous island, about fifteen leagues in circumference. The north-east part is steep and barren; but farther to the north are some valleys covered with trees, among which a few huts are scattered. Here are many rocks shooting up in the form of spires, and in the center of the island there are several excavated, as if they had suffered violence from volcanoes and earthquakes. The whole eastern side is one continued rock, of great height, and almost perpendicular, forming a sharp ridge shattered into spires and precipices.

St. Pedro, called by the natives Onateyo, lies about four leagues and a half south from the east end of Dominica. It is of a moderate elevation, and about three leagues in circuit.

St. Christina, named by the natives Waitahoo, is the most westerly of the cluster, and lies under the same parallel with the preceding, in 9 deg. 55 min. of south latitude, and 139 deg. 8 min. west longitude. It is about seven or eight leagues in circumference. A narrow ridge of hills of considerable height strikes from north to south the whole length of the island, and is joined by other ridges rising from the sea by a gradual ascent, and interspersed with deep valleys, which are enriched with several streams of excellent water, and adorned with fruit and other trees. Under the mould, in these valleys, were found several volcanic productions, or different kinds of lava, some of which are full of white and greenish shells.

Hood island is the most northerly of the cluster, five leagues and a half distant from the east end of La Dominica.

According to Captain Cook, the inhabitants of those islands in general are the finest race of people in the

South Sea; being in symmetry of shape, and regularity of features, perhaps superior to all other nations. The men are from five foot ten to five foot six inches high, and the women inferior in stature. They are of a tawny complexion, with countenances pleasing and open; but their eyes not so lively, nor their teeth so good, as those in many other countries. Their hair is of many colours, but none red. Some have it long, but the most general custom is to wear it short, except a bunch on each side of the crown, which they tie in a knot. The men wear no other dress but a small bit of cloth about their loins, and their bodies are almost covered with punctures, which are disposed with great regularity. No punctures were observed upon the women, and they wear a piece of cloth made of the mulberry bark, which covered them from the shoulders to the knees.

The principal head-dress of those islanders is a sort of broad fillet, curiously made with fibres of the husks of cocoa-nuts. In the front is fixed a mother-of-pearl shell, wrought round to the size of a tea-saucer; before which are placed, alternately, a fine tortoise-shell of smaller dimensions, perforated into curious figures, with another round piece of mother-of-pearl, about the size of a half-crown, and also a second piece of perforated tortoise-shell, of the size of a shilling. Besides those ornaments in the front, some are likewise decorated in the same manner on the sides, and all are adorned with the tail-feathers of birds, placed in an upright direction. They wear a sort of necklace made of light wood, the outer side of which is covered with small peas, fixed on with gum. They also wear some bunches of human hair fastened to a string, and tied round the legs and arms. These different ornaments, however, are seldom wore at one time by the same person, and that which they most esteem is the bunch of hair, though it be frequently infested with vermin. From the particular predilection for those ornaments, the voyagers think it is probable that they are either wore in remembrance of their deceased relations, or are the spoils of their enemies. All the inhabitants have their ears pierced, though none were seen with ear-rings.

The weather being extremely hot while the voyagers were in those islands, the inhabitants cooled themselves with large fans, which were made of a kind of tough bark, or grass, firmly plaited, and frequently whitened with shell lime. Some used the large leaves of a species of palm, in the manner of an umbrella.

Their dwellings are in the valleys, and on the sides of the hills near their plantations. They are built in the same manner as those at O-Taheitee, which will be afterwards described; but they are much meaner, and covered only with the leaves of the bread-fruit tree. They are commonly erected on a square, or oblong pavement of stone, a little raised above the level of the ground. Of this kind of pavement there is likewise a small area adjoining to each house, on which the inhabitants sit to eat, and amuse themselves. Their canoes also resemble those of O-Taheitee, but are not large, and one end is generally ornamented

with a flat piece of wood, on which the human face is rudely carved. Their sails are made of mats, of a triangular shape, and very broad at the top. The paddles are of heavy hard wood, short, but sharp-pointed, and with a knob at the upper end.

Their weapons are either clubs, or spears, about eight or ten foot long, both made of the club-wood, or casuarinas. They use slings, with which they throw stones to a great distance, but not with a good aim.

The language of those people is said to approach nearer to that of O-Taheitee than any other dialect in the South-Sea, except that they could not pronounce the letter *r*.

No quadrupeds were seen in those islands but hogs and rats. Fowls also were observed, and in the woods were several small birds, the notes of which are said to be extremely melodious. The diet of the inhabitants is chiefly vegetable, though they sometimes eat of hogs and fowls, and also of fish, which seems to be very plentiful upon the coast. Their only drink is water, cocoa-nuts being here very scarce.

Of the customs of the inhabitants in other particulars, and of their religion, we have no account; but are informed that they also have a king.

#### THE LOW ISLANDS.

Those islands lie between 133 and 134 degrees of west longitude, and between 14 and 19 deg. 28 min. of south latitude. They form a string of low islands, connected together with a reef of coral rocks. Some of these are named the Islands of Disappointment. They were discovered by commodore Byron, in 1765, and so named from the shores affording no anchorage for his ships. They are situate in 141 deg. of west longitude, and in 14 deg. 10 min. south latitude. The inhabitants appeared on the beach bearing in their hands spears, which are said to have been at least sixteen foot long. Their manner was hostile, and seemed to threaten death to those who were in the boat, if any of them should come ashore. These islands were observed to produce cocoa-trees in great plenty, and the coast abounds with turtle.

King George's islands, consisting of two, lie in 144 deg. 56 min. of west longitude, and in 14 deg. 28 min. of south latitude; discovered also by commodore Byron in 1765. The voyagers, upon landing, saw many houses or wigwams of the natives, which were entirely deserted, except by the dogs that kept a constant howling all the time the crew were ashore. The wigwams were mean hovels, thatched with cocoa-nut branches, but delightfully situated in a fine grove of stately trees, many of which were cocoa-nut, and several of a species quite unknown. Close by the houses were buildings of a different kind, which the commodore supposed to be burying-places. The sides and top were of stone, and 'in their figure they bore some resemblance to the square tombs with a flat top, which are in our country church-yards. Near them were found many boxes full of human bones; and upon the branches of the trees which shaded them, hung a great number of the heads and

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bones of turtle, with a variety of fish inclosed in a kind of basket-work of reeds. On examining those, nothing appeared to remain but the skin and teeth; the bones and entrails seemed to have been extracted, and the muscular flesh wasted away.

The most easterly of those islands, called by the natives Tiookees, is of an oval form, and about ten leagues in circuit. The inhabitants are of a much darker colour than those of the higher islands, and of a hostile disposition, which is supposed to be the case of the inhabitants of all the low islands. Their bodies are generally punctured with the rude figure of a fish. When some of the voyagers went ashore, the islanders saluted them by touching noses, a mode of civility used in New Zealand, which is distant nine hundred leagues. The soil of Tiookees is extremely scanty, the foundation consisting of coral, but very little elevated above the surface of the water. The other island is two leagues to the westward, being twelve miles in length from north-east to south-west, and from three to five miles broad.

Palliser-Islands, consisting of four, lie in 140 deg. 20 min. of west longitude, and in 15 deg. 26 min. of south latitude. The greatest distance of one from the other is about six leagues. The largest is seven miles long, and not above two broad.

Here also the natives were armed with spears; and the voyagers observed huts, canoes, and places for drying fish. These islands are supposed to be the same that were visited by Roggewein in 1722, and which he named the Fercinious Islands, on account of losing one of his ships in this dangerous navigation.

Dog-Island lies in 15 deg. 12 min. of south latitude. It was discovered by Le Maire and Schouten, in 1616, who gave it this name from having seen three Spanish dogs on the island.

Queen Charlotte's Island is situated in 19 deg. 18 min. of south latitude, and in 138 deg. 4 min. west longitude. It was discovered by captain Wallis in 1767. Here is good water, with plenty of cocoa-nuts, palm-nuts, and scurvy-grass. The inhabitants are described to be of a middle stature, and well made, with dark complexions, and black hair, which hangs loose over their shoulders. They cover themselves with a kind of coarse cloth, or matting, which they fasten about their middle.

Lagoon-Island, discovered by captain Cook, lies in 139 deg. 28 min. of west longitude, and in 18 deg. 47 min. south latitude. It is of an oval form, with a lake in the middle, which occupies the greater part of it. The huts of the natives were seen under some clumps of palm-trees, which formed very beautiful groves. The inhabitants of this island are tall, and their weapons are poles, or spikes, about twice the length of themselves.

About seven leagues north-west of the preceding, lies Thumb-Cap, a low, woody island, of a circular form, and not much above a mile in compass. Here was no appearance of any inhabitants, but the ground was covered with verdure of different hues.

Bow-Island is situated in 141 deg. 12 min. of west longitude, and in 18 deg. 23 min. south latitude. It

was discovered in 1769, by captain Cook, who gave it this name on account of its singular figure. It appeared to be about three or four leagues long, having at each extremity a large clump of cocoa-nut trees, and the greater part of the arch being covered with trees of various kinds. From the smoke that was seen in different parts, it is supposed to be inhabited.

Twenty-five leagues west of Bow-Island are situated the Groupes, which are long narrow strips of land, running in all directions. Some of them are ten miles, or upwards, in length, but none more than a quarter of a mile broad. They abound in trees of various kinds, particularly the cocoa-nut, and are inhabited by people who appear to be well made, and of a brown complexion. Most of them carried in their hands a slender pole, about fourteen foot long, pointed like a spear, and likewise an instrument shaped like a paddle, about four foot long. Their canoes were of different sizes; some so small as to carry only three persons, others six or seven, and some of them hoisted a sail.

Bird-Island, so named by captain Cook on account of the great number of birds seen upon it, is situated in 143 deg. 35 min. west longitude, and in 17 deg. 48 min. south latitude. It is about four miles in circumference, with a piece of water in the middle, but no inhabitants were observed.

Forty-five leagues farther, west-by-north, lies Chain-Island, which seemed to be about fifteen miles long, and five broad. It had the appearance of being a double range of woody islands, joined together by reefs, so as to compose one island, of an oval form, with a lake in the middle. Upon it were woods of large trees, whence issued a smoke, that afforded presumption of its being inhabited. Captain Wallis, who discovered this island, saw likewise others, which he distinguished by the following names, viz. Whit-Sunday, Egmont, Gloucester, Cumberland, and Prince William-Henry. Besides these, Captain Cook discovered other five, which he named Resolution, Doubtful, Furneaux, Adventure, and Chane.

South-east of the preceding lies Osnaburg Island, called by the natives Maitea, and discovered by Captain Wallis in 1767. It is a high round island, not exceeding three miles in circuit. Some parts are only naked rock, but others are covered with trees.

Pitcairn-Island is placed by Captain Carteret, who discovered it in 1767, in 133 deg. 21 min. of west longitude, and in 25 deg. 2 min. south latitude; but Captain Cook could not fall in with it in 1773.

#### O - T A H E I T E E.

O-Taheitee, called by Captain Wallis, King George the Third's Island, lies in 149 deg. 13 min. of west longitude, and in 17 deg. 46 min. of south latitude, being about forty leagues in circumference. This island consists of two distinct kingdoms, united by a narrow neck of land. The larger of these is called by the natives Tierrabou, or O-Taheitee-nue, and the smaller, Opourconu, or O-Taheitee-ete. This island is skirted with a reef of rocks, which afford a most beautiful prospect. From the top of these,



to the distance of three miles from the shore, it is level, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds; but within this boundary it rises into lofty hills, that are covered with wood, whence several large rivers derive their source. On the declivity of the hills are planted, in rows, the bread-fruit and apple-trees; and the cocoa-nut and plantain, that require moisture, are cultivated on the level ground, which is every where rich, and produces plenty of grass, but no under-wood. Even on the tops of the mountains, in some parts, vegetation is said to be luxuriant.

The stones on this island have universally the appearance of being burnt; and the opinion of its having been produced by subterraneous fire, is rendered the more probable, as Mr. Forster observed a rock of the basaltic, which is generally supposed to be the production of volcanoes. Though this country lies within the tropic of Capricorn, yet we are told that it is one of the most healthy, as well as delightful spots in the world. The heat is not oppressive, and the air is so pure, that fresh meat will keep very well for two days, and fish one day. The winds do not blow constantly from the east, but generally a pleasant breeze from east to south-south-east.

The earth here produces a variety of excellent fruits, almost without any culture; such as the bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, bananas of many sorts, plantains, potatoes, yams, a fruit known by the name of jambu, and reckoned most delicious; sugar-canes, which the inhabitants eat raw, ginger, turmeric, a root of the salop kind, called by the natives pea; a plant called ethee, of which the root only is eaten; a fruit which grows in a pod, like that of a large kidney-bean; a tree called wharra, that produces fruit resembling the pine-apple; a shrub called nono, another named theva, with the morinda, which also yields fruit; and a species of fern. Besides these, there is a great number of other plants, among which is the Chinese paper mulberry-tree, of the bark of which the natives make their cloth. Here is also a species of fig, the branches of which bending down, take fresh root in the earth, and thus form a congeries of trunks, which being very close to each other, seem as one trunk, and measure not less than six yards in circumference.

There are no quadrupeds in the island but hogs and dogs, except rats; for the latter of which, we are told, the inhabitants have so great a regard, that they will not kill them. But Captain Cook having turned loose fourteen cats, the number of those vermin will probably be soon reduced. Here are domestic poultry, as in Europe, with wild ducks, green turtle-doves, and large pigeons, of a deep blue plumage, and excellent taste. There is a small kind of paroquets, remarkable for the mixture of blue and red in their feathers; and another species of a greenish colour, with a few red spots. Here is a king-fisher of a dark green, with a white neck, variegated by a collar of the former hue; also a large cuckoo, and a blue heron. The fruit-trees abound in a variety of small birds, that have a very agreeable note. By the account of Aitourou, a native, who embarked with M. de Bougainville, there

are on the shore of the island sea-fowls, the bite of which is mortal; but none of those appear to have been seen by any of the voyagers. Excellent fish of various kinds is in great plenty, to catch which is the chief employment of the natives.

The inhabitants of O-Tahitee are of a good stature, and well-made. The common size of the men is from five foot seven inches to five foot ten. The tallest man seen by captain Wallis measured six foot three inches and a half; and captain Cook, in his second voyage, describes the king of the island to be of the same height. The women in general are much smaller, especially those of the lower rank, which is imputed to their early and promiscuous intercourse with the other sex; but such of the females as are not so dissolute are above the middle stature of Europeans. Their noses are somewhat flat, and their mouths rather large; but their teeth are fine, and their eyes, which are black, remarkably full of expression. The most common complexion is a pale brown, but the men that are accustomed to go upon the water have a colour more red. In the children of both sexes the hair is generally flaxen; but in adults it is often of other colours. According to the accounts of all the voyagers, they are a very comely people, and particularly graceful in their motions.

Both sexes stain their bodies in a manner which they call tattowing. Their loins, and the hinder part of their thighs, are marked very thick, with black lines, in various forms, which are made by perforating the skin with the teeth of an instrument somewhat resembling a comb, and rubbing into the punctures a kind of paste, composed of soot and oil, which leaves an indelible stain; but none undergo this painful operation before they are twelve years of age. A few men, who appeared to be of superior rank, had their legs marked in chequers by the same method.

The dress of those islanders consists of two pieces of cloth. One of those, which is fitted with a hole in the middle, to put the head through, hangs down from the shoulders before and behind, to the mid-leg. The other, which is between four and five yards long, and about one yard broad, they wrap round the body in a careless manner. The dress of the better sort of women consists of three or four pieces of cloth; one of which, about two yards wide, and eleven long, they fold several times round their waist, so as to hang down like a petticoat, as low as the middle of the leg.

Their cloth is not woven, but is made of the inner bark of a shrub, macerated and beaten together, and very much resembling coarse China paper. Its texture disposing it to be injured by rain, in such weather they cover themselves with matting.

Their ornaments are, feathers, flowers, pieces of shells, and pearls; the latter of which are worn chiefly by the women.

Their dwellings consist only of an angular roof, resembling that of the thatched houses in England, not quite four foot from the ground, erected over a space in the form of an oblong square, and supported by three rows of pillars, one on each side, and another

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in the middle. The materials of the thatch are palm-leaves, and the floor is covered with hay, over which they spread mats. The size of the shed is proportioned to the number of persons in the family.

But though this be the general form of their dwellings, a few, constructed for greater privacy, are inclosed with a wattling of reeds, connected together by transverse pieces of wood. The entry to this kind of houses is by a hole, which they sometimes close with a board.

Almost the only furniture in these erections is a few blocks of wood, which they use as pillows, their ordinary apparel always serving them for a cover in the night. Some, however, are furnished with a stool, which is appropriated solely to the use of the master of the family.

Those houses are all built in the wood between the sea and the mountain; and, unless it rains, are used for no other purpose than reposing in the night. The general custom is, for the master and his wife to sleep in the middle; round them are ranged the married people; in the next circle the unmarried women; from whom, at a little distance, lie the unmarried men; and in the extremity of the shed the servants; in fair weather the latter sleep in the open air. They commonly retire to rest about an hour after it is dark.

Their candles are made of the kernels of a kind of oily nut, which they stick one over another on a skewer. They burn a considerable time, and afford a pretty good light.

The food of the common people consists entirely of vegetables; but the better sort eat of hogs, dogs, fowls, and fish; and the appetite of all is voracious. In general, their principal support is the bread-fruit, of which they make three sorts of dishes, by putting to it water, or the milk of the cocoa-nut, then beating it to paste with a stone, and afterwards adding ripe plantains, bananas, or a paste composed of all those ingredients, that has undergone a fermentation, and distinguished by the name of mahie, in the making of which they are superstitiously attentive that no person touch it.

The flesh of dogs, which have been fed upon vegetables, is here preferred to pork, but that of the fowls is not well tasted. They generally eat the smaller fish raw; and every produce of the sea, even that which is called blubber, they devour with great satisfaction.

They kill the animals they intend for food, by suffocating them, which is done by stopping the mouth and nose with their hands. They next singe off the hair, by holding the animal over a fire; and scraping it with a shell. In order to dress their food, they dig a pit about half a foot deep, and two or three yards in circumference, the bottom of which they pave with large pebble stones. Here they kindle a fire, by rubbing the end of one piece of dry wood against the side of another; using for fuel the same materials, with leaves, and the husks of cocoa-nuts. When the stones are sufficiently heated, they remove the embers, covering the stones with a layer of green cocoa-nut leaves, and wrapping up the meat that is to be dressed in the leaves of the plantain. Being placed in the pit, they

cover it with the hot ember, over which are laid bread-fruit and yams, also wrapped up in the leaves of the plantain. This being covered with the remainder of the embers, and some hot stones, to which are added some leaves of the cocoa-nut tree, the whole is overspread with earth.

They are totally unacquainted with the method of boiling water, having no vessels among them that will bear the fire.

Instead of knives, they carve their meat with shells, which they are said to use very dexterously. The common sauce to their food is salt-water, which those who live at a distance from the sea keep in large bamboos for the purpose. Another sauce likewise frequently used, is made of the kernels of cocoa-nuts, beaten up with some salt water, and wrought into the consistence of butter.

Their general drink is water, or the milk of the cocoa-nut. They have a plant called *ava-ava*, from which is procured a liquor of an intoxicating quality; but this they use with great moderation, and shewed a dislike to all the strong liquors with which they were presented by the voyagers.

Except in wet weather, they always eat in the shade of a spreading tree, with no other accommodation than broad leaves spread upon the ground. The men and women eat separately, and always alone, or with no more company than a single guest. If a person of rank, he is constantly fed by his women, who seat themselves round him. Before he begins his meal, he washes his mouth asid huds, and the operation he frequently repeats during the time of the repast; often drinking a small quantity of salt water, either out of a cocoa-nut shell, in which it is placed by him, or out of the palm of his hand. He concludes his repast by sipping a quantity of bread-fruit pounded, and mixed with water, till it is brought to the consistence of an unbaked custard. He again washes his mouth and hands, and the dishes are removed by his attendants. The quantity of food which those people eat at a meal is prodigious. Captain Cook saw one man devour two or three fishes as big as a peach; three bread-fruits, each larger than two fists; fourteen or fifteen plantains, or bananas, each six or seven inches long, and four or five round, with near a quart of pounded bread-fruit.

The women not only eat apart from the men, but have their victuals separately prepared by boys kept for that purpose, and by whom they are attended at their meals.

After meals, and in the heat of the day, the middle-aged people of the better sort generally sleep. Those of a greater age are less drowsy, and the younger are kept awake by their natural sprightliness and activity. In general, however, the people are greatly disposed to indolence, taking very little exercise, and having no occasion for labour. Notwithstanding this way of life, it is observed that those amongst them who sleep in open huts, are remarkably healthy and vigorous. The most frequent diseases in the island are colics, and cutaneous eruptions of the leprous kind; both which is probably owing to their

their intemperance in eating. Coughs are also not unknown, and some of those who fare the most luxuriously are subject to an arthritic inflammation of their legs.

The general method used to restore the sick to health, is by pronouncing a set form of words, after which the exorcist applies the leaves of the cocoa-tree plaited, to the extremities of the patient. With the cure of wounds, however, they seem to be better acquainted. The venereal disease is said to have been introduced among them by the crew of M. de Bougainville's ships. In 1769, more than the half of those in captain Cook's ship had contracted it in this island, during a stay of three months. The natives distinguished this disease by a name of the same import with rottenness, but of more extensive signification. On its first appearance it spread an universal consternation among them, and the sick were abandoned by their nearest relations, from the dread of the contagium.

The inhabitants of O-Taheitee, in their transactions with the navigators, discovered a great propensity to theft, but were otherwise obliging and good-natured. They annex no indecency to the commerce of the sexes, which they indulge in the most public manner, without any shame; nor were they less attentive to the gratification of the voyagers in that respect. Among the seamen, the price of beauty here was generally an iron nail, of which the natives are particularly desirous.

The usual way of expressing their respect to strangers, is by uncovering themselves to the middle, but a different ceremony was used by a woman of distinction who visited Mr. Banks. After laying down several young plantain-leaves, a man opened a large bundle of cloth, containing nine pieces. Three of those being laid one upon another, between Mr. Banks and his visitants, the lady, whose name was Oorattooa, stepped upon them, and taking up her garments all round her to the waist, she with an air of great simplicity turned about three times, which having done, she dropped the veil. Three other pieces being spread, she practised the same ceremony; which she also repeated with the three remaining pieces. The cloth was then rolled up, and delivered to Mr. Banks, as a present from the lady, who, with her attending friend, came up and saluted him.

Those islanders wash their bodies three times a-day, and are very cleanly in their cloaths, which are generally perfumed. Both sexes also are remarkably expert at swimming, to which they are accustomed from their childhood. One of the most common diversions is wrestling, besides which they have music, dances, and shooting with the bow, as well as the exercise of throwing a lance. With the bow they shoot not at a mark, but for distance; and with the lance, the reverse. This weapon is about nine foot long; the mark is the bowl of a plantain, and the distance about twenty yards. Their flute has only two stops, and therefore sound no more than four notes by half tones. It is sounded as the German flute, only the performer, instead of applying the in-

strument to his mouth, blows it with one nostril, stopping the other with his thumb. To the stops they apply the fore-finger of the left hand, and the middle-finger of the right. Those flutes are made of hollow bamboo, about a foot long. They have also a kind of drum, made of a hollow block of wood of a cylindrical form, solid at one end, and covered at the other with shark's skin. This instrument is beaten with their hands instead of sticks. Both the flute and drum are accompanied with songs, which are generally for the most part extempore, and in rhyme.

One of their dances is called *timarodee*, and is performed by eight or ten young girls, who are industriously taught it from their childhood. It consists of the most lascivious attitudes and gestures, accompanied with the grossest language; but the regularity of their motions are said to be hardly inferior to that of the best performers upon the stages of Europe.

A considerable number of the principal people of O-Taheitee have formed themselves into a society, in which all the men and women are common to each other. In this infamous assembly, which is distinguished by the name of *Atreey*, the passions are studiously excited in the most indelicate and brutal manner, and indulged to the greatest excess. If any woman should prove with child by this promiscuous commerce, and she cannot procure a man to adopt the infant as his own, she inhumanly smother it as soon as it is born. But should any man be found to co-operate with the mother in rescuing a child from death, they are henceforth excluded from the society, and considered as man and wife, the woman being ever after distinguished by the appellation of *whannunuwew*, or, "bearer of children," as a term of reproach. Notwithstanding the extreme depravity of those assemblies, we are informed that the members of them enjoy several privileges, and are greatly respected in all the Society-islands, as well as at O-Taheitee.

It is observed, that the government of O-Taheitee bears some resemblance to the ancient feudal system in Europe, the people being distinguished into four orders. The first of those, named *Earee-rahia*, answers to that of king; the second, or *Earee*, to that of baron; the third, termed *Manahouni*, corresponds to the rank of vassal; and the fourth, or *Tow-tow*, to that of vassal. There are two *caree-rahias*, or kings in the island, who are the respective sovereigns of the peninsula of which it consists. Each of those is treated with great deference by all ranks of the inhabitants, but they seem not to be invested with so much power as is exercised by the *Earees* in their several subordinate districts. Of this class there are forty-three in the larger peninsula, who parcel out their territories to the *Manahounis*, under whom the *Tow-tows*, or lower order of the people, cultivate the ground, as well as perform all other menial services. Each of the *carees* keeps a sort of court, and has a great number of attendants, consisting chiefly of their relations.

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succeeds to his father's titles and authority. Therefore when such an event happens in the royal family, a regent is chosen, and the father, who is usually the person nominated, retains his power only under that title, until his child becomes of age. The kings have no military force, nor any guard for their defence, even the few eunuchs that attend them never being seen to go armed. The kings and the nobility have liveries for their servants, who wear their fasces more or less high according to the rank of their master. The servants belonging to the two former wear this sash close under their arms, and those of the latter round their loins. All marriages are prohibited between the children of chiefs and the common people. Adultery is reckoned criminal, and may be punished with death by the husband in the first emotion of his rage; but in general the woman only undergoes a severe beating, and the gallant passes unnoticed. Few actions here are denominated crimes, and with respect even to those, the execution of justice is not committed to any particular persons, every man being allowed to take vengeance of an offender in what manner he chooses, except in extraordinary cases, where the chiefs interpose.

When any person dies, all the relations immediately resort to the house of the deceased, and join the people of the family in the expression of their sorrow, which is generally testified by loud lamentations. Those, however, who are in the nearest degree of kindred, and are really affected by the event, are often silent, when the rest are alternately pouring forth passionate exclamations, and laughing and talking without the least appearance of concern. This inconsistent behaviour is continued till next morning, when the body is shrouded in cloth, and conveyed to the sea-side upon a bier, supported by the bearers upon their shoulders, and attended by the priest, who having prayed over the body, repeats his sentences during the procession. When they arrive at the beach, the body is set down, and the priest renewing his prayers, sprinkles with his hands some water from the sea towards the body, but not upon it. It is then carried back to the distance of forty or fifty yards, and soon after brought again to the beach, where the prayers and sprinkling are repeated. It is thus removed backwards and forwards several times; during which ceremonies a house of corruption, or tupapow, has been built, where the body is placed upon a bier, and remains in this situation till the flesh is wholly wasted from the bones.

The bier is a frame of wood, like that on which the sea-beds, called cots, are placed, with a matted bottom, and supported by four posts, at the height of about four foot from the ground. The body is first covered with a mat, and over which is laid a white cloth. Close by its side is placed a wooden mace, one of their weapons of war, and near the head of it two cocoa-nut shells. At the feet, which are placed towards the open end of the shed, a bunch of green leaves, with some dried twigs, all tied together, are stuck in the ground. Near those is laid a young plantain-leaf, used as the emblem of peace, and close

by it a stone ax. At the open end of the shed also is hung a great number of palm-nuts, in several strings. Without the shed is stuck in the ground a stem of a plantain-tree, about six foot high, upon the top of which is placed a cocoa-nut shell full of fresh water. Against the side of one of the posts hangs a small bag, containing a few bits of bread-fruit roasted, which is designed as an offering to their gods.

Those houses of corruption are of a size proportioned to the rank of the person whose body they contain. Such as are allotted to the lowest class are just sufficient to cover the bier, and are open all round. The largest that was seen measured eleven yards in length. They are ornamented according to the abilities and inclination of the surviving kindred, who never fail to lay a profusion of cloth about the body, and sometimes almost cover the outside of the house. Garlands of the fruit of the palm-nut, and cocoa-leaves, twisted by the priest in mysterious knots, with a plant called by them *ethu-ne-moral*, appropriated to funeral solemnities, are deposited about the place; provision and water being also left at a little distance.

As soon as the body is deposited in the tupapow, the mourning is renewed. The women assemble, and are led to the door by the nearest female relation, who strikes a shark's tooth several times into the crown of her head. Having thus caused the blood to flow copiously, she carefully receives it upon pieces of linen, which are thrown under the bier. The other women follow her example, and the ceremony is repeated at the interval of two or three days, as long as the parties are disposed to testify their sorrow. The tears also which are shed on those occasions, are received upon pieces of cloth, and offered as oblations to the dead. Some of the younger people cut off their hair, which is likewise laid under the other offerings. This custom is founded on a notion, that the soul of the deceased is hovering about the place where the body is deposited, and is gratified by such testimonies of their affection.

Whilst these ceremonies are carrying on by the women, the men seem to be wholly insensible of their loss, but two or three days after, they also begin to perform a part. The chief mourner carries in his hand a long flat stick, the edge of which is set with shark's teeth. As if rendered frantic through grief, he violently runs at all he sees, and whom he happens to overtake he strikes most unmercifully with this instrument, which often wounds them in a dangerous manner. The processions continue during five moons at intervals, which become gradually less frequent towards the close of that period. When the time is expired, what remains of the body is taken down from the bier, and the bones, having been scraped and washed very clean, are buried according to the rank of the person, either within or without a morai, which are places used for interment, as well as for worship. If the deceased was an eunuch, or chief, his skull is not buried with the rest of his bones, but being wrapped up in fine cloth, is put into a kind of box made for that purpose, which is also deposited in the morai. The mourning then ceases, unless

any of the women continue to be afflicted with the lofs, in which case they wound themselves occasionally with the shark's teeth. The ceremonies, however, do not terminate with the mourning; for prayers are still repeated by the priest, and offerings made at the morai.

Some of the things deposited at the place of interment are emblematical. For instance, a young plantain is said to represent the deceased, and a bunch of feathers the deity which is invoked. The priest, accompanied by some of the relations, who are furnished with a small offering, places himself over against the symbol of the god, and repeats his orison in a set form, consisting of several sentences; at the same time twisting the leaves of the cocoa-nut into various shapes, which he afterwards lays upon the ground where the bones have been interred. The deity is then addressed in a shriek, which is used only upon this occasion. When the priest retires, the tuft of feathers is removed, and the provisions left to putrify, or to be devoured by the rats.

The mourning worn here is a head-dress of feathers, the colour of which is consecrated to the purpose, and a veil over the face. This habit is called *ava*. On the death of a king, the whole nation appears in this dress. The mourning for fathers is very long. The women mourn for their husbands, but not the latter for their wives.

The people of O-Tahetee suppose every thing to have been produced either immediately or in a secondary manner, from one first cause. The Supreme Being, whom they call Tettow Matatayo, they imagine to have impregnated a rock named Tepapa, whence issued a daughter, which according to them is the year; and this daughter afterwards, from the embraces of her father, produced the thirteen months; which months, in conjunction with each other, generated the days. By another intrigue which Tettow Matatayo had with Tepapa, they suppose some stars were produced, which afterwards propagated other stars. To other subsequent amours of the same parties they ascribe the production of an inferior order of deities, called Eatuas; some of which being male, and others female, they also became fruitful, and two of them inhabiting the earth, were the parents of the human race. The first man, when born, they say, was round like an apple, but that his mother with great care drew out his limbs, and having a length moulded him to the present form of mankind, she called him Eotha, or finished. This Eotha, out of gratitude to his mother for her plastic art, begot on her a daughter; but afterwards, leaving the embraces of his mother for those of his own offspring, he begot on the latter many daughters, and at length a son, who, in conjunction with his sisters, peopled the world.

Their Supreme Being is supposed not to have finished his labour till he had begotten a son, whom they call Tanc, to whom they direct their worship; without believing, however, that the good or bad conduct of mankind here on earth makes them more or less acceptable to this divinity.

They believe the existence of the soul after death,

and that various degrees of happiness in proportion to the rank which individuals hold on the earth, will then be enjoyed; but they seem to have no conception of any future punishment. We are, however, not informed of the idea they entertain respecting the nature of his happiness, which it is probable they suppose to consist in the enjoyment of sensual pleasures.

The priesthood seems to be hereditary in one family or tribe, and is a numerous body. Their learning consists in being acquainted with the names and rank of the different Eatuas, or subordinate divinities, and the traditional opinions concerning the origin of things, which they relate in a phraseology unintelligible to the common people, whose admiration of their knowledge is on this account greatly increased. The priests are likewise the only persons who practise the medical art, by which, with the exclusive right they have to perform the operation of tattawing, and a sort of circumcision which the males undergo, their employment is lucrative. They are also accounted to have some skill in astronomy and navigation.

It appears from the account delivered by Omai, the native of an island adjacent to O-Tahetee, who was lately in Britain, that on some occasions, they sacrifice to their gods a human victim. The unhappy person that is to undergo this fate, is singled out by the high priest, who, after retiring alone into the marai, or place of worship, and staying some time, under the pretext of conversing with the great God, comes out, and informs the people that the great god has asked for a human sacrifice, whom he also names. The words are no sooner spoken, than the devoted wretch, who had probably rendered himself obnoxious to the ghostly father, is put to death.

The people of O-Tahetee offer up their prayers regularly morning and evening, and practise many superstitious ceremonies to conciliate the favour of the evil genii, who they imagine have an influence on human affairs.

On this island was seen the figure of a man constructed of basket-work, rudely made, but not ill designed. It was something more than seven foot high, but bulky in proportion to its height, and completely covered with feathers. This image was called manioe, and was a representation of one of their eatuas, or gods of the second class. They did not however pay it any divine honours, and seemed to have no visible object of worship among them; but both in O-Tahetee and the adjacent islands, they discover a particular regard for a certain bird, some a heron, and others a king-fisher, concerning which they entertain many superstitious notions.

The number of inhabitants in this island, according to Captain Cook's computation, amounts to two hundred and four thousand, including women and children.

#### THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.

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Captain Cook in 1769; but among the natives they bear the names of Ulitea or Raitea, Otaka, Holo-bola, Huakine, Tubai, and Maurica. They are situated between one hundred and fifty degrees fifty-seven minutes and one hundred and fifty-two degrees of west longitude, and between sixteen degrees ten minutes and sixteen degrees fifty-five minutes of south latitude; the nearest island being about forty leagues to the westward of O-Tahitee.

The island of Ulitea is about sixty miles in circumference. Its productions are plantains, coconuts, yams, hogs, and fowls, the latter of which are not in great plenty. Here was seen a place of worship, which the natives call a tapobostes, consisting of four walls about eight foot high, raised of coral stones, and inclosing an area of about twenty-five yards square, which was filled with smaller stones. Upon the top stood many planks, in a perpendicular direction, and carved all over. At a small distance from this inclosure was an altar, where a large hog, well roasted, was deposited as a sacrifice.

The women wore upon their heads a considerable quantity of plaited hair, which was brought several times round and adorned with the flowers of the cape-jessamine. Their necks, shoulders, and arms, were naked, but their waists were covered with black cloth. Upon their hips rested a quantity of cloth, plaited very full, which reached up to the breast, over the under garment, and hung down to their feet in the manner of petticoats. The plaits were brown and white alternately, but the petticoats of the latter colour. In this dress several of them advanced sideways towards the voyagers, in a measured step, keeping time to the music of drums. Soon after they began to shake their hips, giving the folds of cloth that lay upon them a very brisk motion. Their bodies were thrown into a variety of postures, sometimes standing, sometimes sitting, and at others resting on their knees or elbows, moving their fingers at the same time with amazing quickness; but their dexterity consisted chiefly in the wantonness of their gestures and attitudes, which are said to exceed all description.

In this island they cultivate great quantities of the root called ava ava, or the pepper plant, making of it an intoxicating liquor, in the use of which several of the men are intemperate. Here also the inhabitants venerate some species of birds; and both in this island and in Huakine, they are said to worship the rain-bow. The priest, or heiva, is clothed in a feathered garment, ornamented with round pieces of mother-of-pearl. He wears on his head a high cap, made of cane or bamboo, the front of which is feather-work, and the edges surrounded with quills, stripped of the plumage. He likewise wears a breast-plate, of a semi-circular shape, wicker-work, covered with alternate rows of shark's teeth and pigeon's feathers, the edge being fringed with white dog's hair.

They believe in the existence of several deities, some of which they reckon to be inimical to mankind. To the superior divinities they offer hogs and poultry roasted, and other sorts of eatables, but

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they venerate the malevolent spirits only by a kind of fasting.

The island of Huakine is about twenty miles in circumference, and its surface uneven. It is divided by a deep inlet into two peninsulas, connected by an isthmus, which is entirely overflowed at high water. From the appearance of this island, it is supposed to have been once the seat of a volcano.

The natives of Huakine are not of such dark complexions as those of O-Tahitee, but equally handsome, and use the same language and dress.

Some of the voyagers were present at a dramatic entertainment on this island. The piece represented a girl running away from her parents, and seemed to be levelled at one of the company, who was so much affected with the representation that she shed tears.

Otaha contains nothing remarkable. It lies about two miles from Ulitea, like which, it is inclosed with a reef of coral rocks.

Bolabola is situated north-west and by west of O-tahitee, about four leagues distant. It is also surrounded by a reef of rocks, with several small islands.

Tubai produces nothing but coconuts, and is said to be inhabited only by three families. The coast however abounds with fish, on which account it is frequently visited by the natives of the other islands.

Maurica is a small island, surrounded like the others with a reef of rocks, and without any harbour for shipping. In the middle of it rises a high round hill, which may be seen at the distance of ten leagues.

#### THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

These islands amount to more than twenty, exclusive of a number of sand banks and breakers, with which they occupy about three degrees of latitude, and two of longitude. They are the same that were named by Tasman, Middleburg, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Pylstart, and received the general appellation from the British voyagers, on account of the amity which seemed to subsist among the inhabitants, and their courteous behaviour to strangers.

Middleburg, called by the natives Ea-oo-whe, is sixteen miles in length from north to south, and about eight miles broad in the widest part. The skirts of the island, especially on the west side, are chiefly laid out in plantations, the interior parts being little cultivated, though capable of it. The face of the island is delightfully variegated with groves of coconut trees and lawns, and the air is extremely salubrious; but, unfortunately, water is very scarce. Besides yams and bananas, here are several odoriferous trees and shrubs, particularly a species of lemon; with a few hogs and fowls.

The natives are of a middle size, well made, and of a clear brown complexion, with short frizzled hair. The men in general go almost naked, with only a piece of cloth round their loins. This cloth is of the same kind with that of O-Tahitee; but being overspread with a strong glue, it resists the wet. The women cover themselves from the waist downwards. They mostly wear loose necklaces, consisting of fe-

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veral strings of small shells, reeds, fishes teeth, with a shell in the middle as large as a crown piece. The men likewise often adorn their necks with a string, from which a piece of mother-of-pearl hangs down upon the breast. Some of the women had their ears perforated with two holes, in both of which was stuck a cylinder of tortoise-shell, or bone. It was observed, that most of this people wanted the little finger on one, and sometimes on both hands. Another singularity remarked by the voyagers, was a round spot on each cheek, which appeared to have been burnt or blistered. The women here are said to be more reserved than in the other islands.

The island of Amsterdam, called by the natives Tongotabu, is about twenty miles long, and thirteen broad, lying six leagues to the west of Middleburg, in twenty-one degrees eleven minutes of south latitude, and in one hundred and seventy-five degrees of west longitude. This island is entirely laid out in plantations of cocoa-nut trees, plantains, bananas, yams, and other roots, with sugar-canes, and a fruit resembling a nectarine, besides many others. The only domestic animals seen here were fowls and hogs, the former of which are as large as any in Europe, and their flesh equally good, if not better. The land birds are pigeons, turtle-doves, parquets, parrots, bald coots with blue plumage, and a variety of small birds. There are also many bats, some of which measured from three to four foot between the expanded wings.

The inhabitants are of the common size of Europeans, and their colour is that of a lightish copper. They are well shaped, have regular features, and are very active. The women in particular are remarkable for mirth and loquacity, but in general they appear to be modest.

The dress of both sexes consists of a piece of cloth or matting, wrapped round the waist, and hanging down below the knees. From the waist upwards they are generally naked. The practice of tattooing, or puncturing the skin, prevails here, as in O-Tahitee. The men are tattooed from the middle of the thigh to above the hips; but the women only on their arms and fingers, and but slightly. Their ornaments are amulets, necklaces, and bracelets, made of bone, mother-of-pearl, tortoise-shells, &c. which are worn by the men as well as women. The latter wear also on their fingers neat rings made of tortoise-shells, with pieces of the same substance, about the size of a small quill, in their ears. They likewise have a curious apron, made of the out feathers of the cocoa-nut shell, wrought into various forms. Their cloth and utensils are much the same here as in O-Tahitee. Besides a large flute, which they blow with the nostrils, they have another instrument composed of ten or eleven slender reeds, about three inches long, bound together, side by side, with the fibres of the cocoa nut core, and resembling the Doric pipe of the ancients. This instrument they blow with their mouths. It had commonly not above four or five different notes, and none was seen which included a whole octave. They also beat upon a drum made out

of a log of wood. The burning of the cheek prevails likewise in this island.

Here were seen many houses of a peculiar construction, which seemed to serve not only as repositories of the dead, but as places of worship. They are built on a mount, raised about sixteen or eighteen foot above the level of the ground, in an oblong form, inclosed by a wall or parapet of stone, about three foot high. From this wall they mount by a gradual ascent, which is covered with green turf. On the top of it stands the house, of the same shape as the mount, of about twenty foot in length, and fifteen or sixteen broad. The house, like their common dwellings, is built with posts and rafters, and covered with palm thatch.

We are informed, that as far as the religious notions of this people could be known by the voyagers, they had no particular veneration for any birds, nor seemed to practise idolatry, but to worship a supreme invisible Being. Their usual method of saluting strangers is by touching noses.

The island of Rotterdam lies in one hundred and seventy-four degrees thirty-one minutes of west longitude, and in twenty degrees fifteen minutes of south latitude. It is of a triangular form, each side about four miles in length, and has in the middle a salt water lake. The productions of this island, and the natives, resemble those of the preceding, only the people seem to be much poorer in clothing and ornaments.

The island of Pylfiart is about two miles in circumference, high, steep, and barren.

About eleven or twelve leagues from Rotterdam lies an island, named Amattafoa, near which is another remarkable for a high peak. The former of those is supposed to have a volcano. They are both inhabited, but appear not to be fertile.

#### THE NEW HEBRIDES.

Those islands are situate between one hundred and sixty-six degrees forty-one minutes and one hundred and seventy degrees twenty-one minutes of west longitude, and between fourteen degrees twenty-nine minutes and twenty degrees four minutes of south latitude; extending a hundred and twenty-five leagues in the direction north-north-west, and south-south-east. Some of the most northern of those islands were discovered in 1606, by de Quiros, who considered them as part of a southern continent. They were next visited by M. de Bougainville, and afterwards by captain Cook, who gave them the general name of the New Hebrides. This cluster consists of the following islands; viz. Tierra del Espiritu Santo, Mallicollo, St. Bartholomew, Isle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitsundie, Ambrym, Immer, Apru. Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorramanga, Ironan, Annatom, and Tanna.

Tierra del Spiritu Santo, the most western, is also the largest of those islands, being sixty miles long. The land on the west side is high and mountainous; but, except the cliff and beaches, every other part is

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either covered with wood, or laid out in plantations. The inhabitants appeared to be numerous. They were strong made, of a dark complexion, and had woolly hair. They used no covering but a belt round their loins, from which two slips of matted work hang down to the knees, one before, and another behind. Some of them had a bunch of feathers on the top of their head; others wore a white shell tied on the forehead; and on their arms they had bracelets of shell-work.

The next most considerable island is Mallicollo, upwards of fifty miles long, and near half as much in breadth in the widest part. It appeared to be fertile and well inhabited. The south coast, which was the part examined by Captain Cook with the greatest attention, is covered with luxuriant wood and other productions; such as cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, bananas, sugar canes, yams, addoes, and turmeric. The domestic animals are hogs and poultry.

The natives of this island are described as ugly and ill proportioned, differing in every respect from the other islanders of the South Sea. They are of a short stature, with long heads, flat faces, and monkey countenances. Their complexion is very dark, and their hair, which is generally either black or brown, is short and curly. They wear round their waists a rope as thick as a man's finger, which is tied so extremely tight, that their belly protrudes considerably both above and below. From this belt a piece of matting hangs down, in the same way as has been mentioned of the preceding island. Many of them paint their faces and breasts of a black colour; and some wear on their heads a small cap of matted-work. They use bracelets of black and white shells, which press the arm so closely, that it was imagined they must have been put on at an early age.

Some of the women (supposed to be those who are married) wear a piece of matting round their waists, reaching almost to their knees; but others were observed to have only a string round the middle; under which, before, was a wisp of straw; and none of the female sex appeared to use any ornaments, either in their ears, or on their necks and arms. It is here a common practice, however, to perforate the cartilage of the nose between the nostrils, and wear in it a piece of white stone about an inch and a half long, in the form of a bow. The houses of the natives were generally like those in the other islands; but some were inclosed with boards, and had a one end a square hole, which served as an entrance.

Their weapons are bows and arrows, with a club of casuarina wood, about two foot and a half long, well polished. The latter they hang on their right shoulder, by a thick rope made of a kind of grass. On the left wrist they wear a circular wooden plate, about five inches in diameter, neatly covered with straw, which is intended to guard their arm from the violence of the recoiling bow-string.

As they apply themselves to agriculture, their food is chiefly of the vegetable kind; but they also eat of hogs and fowls, and, it is supposed, likewise of fish.

St. Bartholomew is about twenty miles in circum-

ference, situate in fifteen degrees twenty-three minutes of south latitude.

Aurora presented to the voyagers the prospect of a fine beach, and luxuriant vegetation. The island appeared to be woody, and a beautiful cascade was seen to precipitate itself through the forest. It is upwards of thirty miles in length, but not more than five broad in any part; the middle of it lying in one hundred and sixty-eight degrees twenty-four minutes of east longitude, and in fifteen degrees six minutes of south latitude.

Whitfuntide Isle lies about four miles to the southward of the preceding, and is nearly of the same size, but appears to be better inhabited, and contains more plantations.

The Isle of Lepers, so called by M. de Bougainville, from the number of people that he saw here afflicted with the leprosy, lies between Esprit Santo and Aurora, at the distance of eight leagues from the former, and three from the latter. It is of an oval form, very high, and about sixty miles in circumference. Here were seen many beautiful cascades pouring down the hills. It was observed, as an uncommon circumstance, that in this island the palms grow even on the hills. The natives are of two colours, some being black, and others molattoes. They are of small stature, ill proportioned, and ugly, with thick lips, and woolly hair, which is sometimes of a yellowish cast. None of the men have any beards. They generally wear some ornament in their nose on their arm, in the form of a bracelet, they carry the tooth of a babyrousa; and their neck is ornamented with pieces of tortoise-shell. Their weapons are bows and arrows, with clubs of iron-wood, and stones, which they use without slings.

Ambrym is situated two leagues and a half from the south end of Whitfuntide island, and is about fifty miles in circumference. Its shores are low, but the land rises by a gradual ascent to a mountain in the middle, whence issued a great smok, which gave the voyagers reason to conjecture that it was the seat of a volcano.

Apru is about sixty miles in compass; it of considerable height, and has an uneven surface, diversified with woods and lawns.

Sandwich is upwards of seventy miles in circuit, and round it are several small islands, to which Captain Cook gave the names of Shepherd's Islands, Three Hills, Two Hills, the Monument, Montagu, and Hinchinbrook.

Eighteen leagues to the southward of Sandwich Island, lies Eorramanga, about seventy miles in circumference. The middle of it is situated in one hundred and sixty-nine degrees nineteen minutes of east longitude, and in eighteen degrees fifty-four minutes of south latitude. The natives of this island are of a middle size, well shaped, and have tolerable good features. Their complexion is very dark, and they paint their faces, some of a black, and others of a red colour. Their hair is for the most part crisp and curly. The men wore only a belt about their waist, with a bit of cloth or a leaf appended. The few

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women that were seen were not near so handsome as the other sex. They wore a petticoat, made of the leaves of some plant. The natives live in houses covered with thatch, and their plantations, which are regularly laid out, are likewise fenced round.

Tanna lies six leagues southward of Eorramanga; it is upwards of twenty miles long, and about half so much in breadth. The soil, in some parts, is a rich black mold; in others it seemed to be composed of decayed vegetables, and the ashes of a volcano, which was seen burning with great fury. The country is, in general, so covered with trees, shrubs, and plants, as to choke up the bread-fruit and cocoa-nuts. The houses and inhabitants are thinly scattered. The plantations on this island consist chiefly of bananas, yams, eddoes, and sugar-canes, with a variety of other plants unknown at the Society and Friendly Islands. The bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, and plantains, are not so good here as at O-Taheitee, but the sugar-canes and yams are not only more plentiful, but larger, and of superior quality. Here are plenty of hogs, but very few domestic fowls.

The natives are of a middle size, and tolerably well proportioned, with large features, broad noses, and full eyes. Their complexion is a dark brown, and their hair, which is commonly of the same colour, grows to a considerable length. This the men separate into small locks, which they cue with the rind of a slender plant; but the women wear their hair cropped, as do the boys, till they attain the age of manhood. They carry in the middle cartilage of their nose a piece of alabaster, two inches long, in the manner of the natives of Mallicollo. With a bamboo, or sharp shell, they make incisions on their arms and belly, applying to them afterwards a particular plant, which forms an elevated scar in the shape of the incisions, which are made to represent flowers, or other fanciful figures. Their ears are loaded with tortoise-shell rings, and necklaces of shells hang down on their bosom. They also wear bracelets, and nose jewels; and it was observed, that the number of those ornaments is generally increased with the person's age.

The women here, as in some others of those islands, perform all the laborious work, the men, for the most part, indulging themselves in ease.

Their houses resemble the roof of a cottage: some were open at both ends, but others partly closed with reeds, and all were covered with palm-thatch. A few of them were thirty or forty foot long, and fourteen or sixteen broad; but the dimensions of the greater number were much more small.

The music of those islanders is said to be in greater perfection than any in the South Sea, though their instruments are nearly of the same kind; but their weapons are inferior in point of neatness. Among others they use darts, with three bearded edges, which they throw by means of a piece of stiff plaited cord, about six inches long, with an eye in one end, and a knot in the other. The eye is fixed on the forefinger of the right hand, and the other end is hitched round the dart, at the middle. They hold

the weapon between the thumb and the remaining fingers, which serve only to give it direction.

Circumcision is practised in this island, and the inhabitants gave strong indication of their eating human flesh. They either roast or broil their viands, like the people of O-Taheitee, having no vessels in which water can be boiled. They seem to use no other drink than water and the juice of the cocoa-nut.

They appeared to have chiefs among them, but such as had little authority. Of their religion nothing could be learned; only every morning at day-break was heard a slow solemn song or dirge, sung on the eastern side of the harbour, and which lasted more than a quarter of an hour. As this was supposed to be a religious act, some of the voyagers were excited by curiosity to inform themselves more particularly concerning it; but upon advancing towards the place, the natives crowded about them, and intreated them with the greatest earnestness to return. Their importunities not being much regarded, they at last made signs, that if the voyagers persisted in their purpose, they would kill and eat them; on which the latter returned to the ship. On all other occasions, however, the natives conducted themselves with great civility. When they happened to meet any gentlemen belonging to the ship in a narrow path, they always stepped aside into the bushes or grass, to make way for him. If they knew his name, they pronounced it with a smile, which was understood as a salutation; and if they had not seen him before, they commonly enquired his name, that they might distinguish him again.

Immer is situated four leagues from Tanna, and is the most eastern of all those Hebrides. It appeared to be about five leagues in circuit, of a considerable height.

The most southerly of this cluster is Annatom, situate in twenty degrees three minutes of south latitude, and in one hundred and seventy degrees four minutes of east longitude, twelve leagues from Tanna.

#### NEW CALEDONIA.

This island, which received its name from Captain Cook, is the largest that has been discovered in the Pacific Ocean, New Zealand and New Holland excepted. It is situate between one hundred and sixty-three degrees thirty-seven minutes, and one hundred and sixty-seven degrees fourteen minutes of east longitude, and between nineteen degrees thirty-seven minutes and twenty-two degrees thirty minutes of south latitude; being about two hundred and forty miles long, but not more than thirty broad in any part.

This island is beautifully diversified with hills and plains, and well watered with rivulets, which render it extremely fertile. The winding streams, the variety in the woods, with the fragrant villages and plantations, render the whole delightfully romantic; and this island differs from all the others that have yet been discovered in the South Sea, by being entirely destitute of volcanic productions.

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Several new species of plants were observed here by the voyagers, besides those which had been seen in the other islands; and also a great variety of unknown birds. Among this class is a beautiful kind of parrot unknown to zoologists. The coast abounds with turtle, but hogs, goats, dogs, and cats, are animals of which the natives had no conception.

The people of this country are of good stature and proportion. Their hair is black, and so much frizzled in some individuals as to be almost woolly. In others, however, it is long, and they wear it tied up to the crown of the head, though some permit only a large lock to grow on each side, which they tie up in clubs. Some men, likewise, and all the women, wear their hair cropped short. Many use a kind of comb made of hard wood, from seven to nine or ten inches long. Of those near twenty fastened together at one end, and spreading at the other like the sticks of a fan, are generally wore on the side of the head by such as have their hair of considerable length. Some had a black cap, stiff, and of a cylindrical form, which appeared to be a mark of distinction, and to be used only by chiefs and warriors. The men go naked, only tying a string round their neck, and another round their middle, whence hangs a small piece of brown cloth made of the bark of a fig-tree, but which they wear tucked up as often as pendulous. Coarse garments were seen among them made of a sort of matting, but those they never wore except in their canoes, and unemployed.

The dress of the women is a short petticoat, or fringe, consisting of small cords about eight inches in length, and fastened to a string which goes several times round their waist. The fringe is formed of a number of layers, of which those on the outside are coloured black, the rest being grey. Both sexes have ear-rings and bracelets, with ornaments of shells and nephritic stones; and some had three black lines longitudinally from the under-lip to the chin, which had been punctured according to the method practised at the Friendly and Society Islands. The women here, as in Tanna, perform every servile employment, and seem to be held in great subjection.

The houses, or huts, here are circular, resembling a bee-hive in figure, as well as in the closeness of their texture. They are made of small spars, reeds, &c. and both the sides and roof are covered with a thatch of coarse long grass. The sides are about a foot high, but the roofs lofty, and terminate in a point at the top; above which is a post, generally ornamented with carving and shells. The entrance to the hut is by a square hole, just big enough to admit a man bent double. In the inside are set up posts, to which cross beams being fastened, platforms are made. Some houses have two floors, both spread with dried grass, over which are laid mats for the principal people to sleep or sit on. In most of those dwellings was no fire-place, as there being no passage for the smoke but the door, they were intolerably suffocating and hot. It has been conjectured that the smoke is meant to drive out the musketoes which swarm here. Two or three of those huts generally

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stand near each other, under a cluster of lofty fig-trees, whose foliage is impervious to the rays of the sun. Those trees are remarkable for shooting forth roots from the upper part of the stem into the ground, ten, fifteen, or twenty foot from the trunk.

The only musical instrument seen here was a kind of whistle, of a peculiar construction. It was of brown wood, polished, about two inches long, shaped like a bell, and apparently solid, with a rope fixed at the small end. Two holes were made in it near the base, and another near the insertion of the rope, all which had a mutual communication, and by blowing the uppermost, a shrill sound, like whistling, was produced.

Their weapons of war, canoes, and utensils, were almost the same as in the other islands.

The people of this country deposit their dead in the ground. The grave of a chief who had been slain in battle resembled a large mole-hill, and was decorated with spears, darts, paddles, &c. all stuck upright in a circle encompassing the verge of the grave.

The Isle of Pinas lies to the south-west of New Caledonia, in twenty-two degrees forty minutes of south latitude, and in one hundred and sixty-seven degrees forty minutes of east longitude, being only about a mile in circumference.

Botany Island is six leagues distant from the south end of New Caledonia, and about two miles in compass, entirely flat and sandy.

Norfolk Island lies in twenty-nine degrees twenty-one minutes of south latitude, and in one hundred and sixty-eight degrees sixteen minutes of east longitude. The rocks here consist of a yellowish clayey stone, with small bits of porous reddish lava, which seemed to be decaying, and indicated that this island had been a volcano. It is about three miles long, very steep, covered with cypress-trees, and supposed never to have been touched before by any of the human species. Here were parrots, parroquets, and pigeons, with a variety of small birds peculiar to the spot, some of which were very beautiful.

Of the small scattered islands that have been discovered between the equator and the southern tropic, and from one hundred and fifty degrees of west to one hundred and sixty degrees of east longitude, the principal are Eimeo, or Captain Wallis's Duke of York's Island, O-Heteroa, Howe, Harvey, Palmerston, Savage, Boscawen, Keppel, Islands of Danger, Byron's Duke of York, Queen Charlotte's Isles, and Byron's Island.

Eimeo, or York Island, is about twenty leagues distant from O-Tabeitee, west-north-west, and was discovered by captain Wallis, in July 1767.

Ohateroa, which lies in twenty-two degrees twenty-seven minutes of south latitude, and in one hundred and fifty degrees forty-seven minutes of west longitude, is thirteen miles in compass. It does not shoot out into high peaks like most of the other islands in those parts, but is more even and uniform, overspread with small hillocks. It is however neither fertile nor populous, and has not a harbour or anchorage

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chorage for shipping. The natives are of a hostile disposition, and were armed with lances near twenty foot long, made of a very hard wood polished, and sharpened at one end. Their habit consists of a short jacket of cloth, reaching down to their knees. It is one piece, with a hole in the middle, through which the head is put. It is tied round the body by a piece of yellow cloth or sash, which passing round the neck behind, is crossed upon the breast, and encloses the waist like a belt; having over it another girdle of a red colour. Their cloth here is more neatly painted than in the other islands. Some of the natives wear caps made of the long feathers of the tropic bird. They bestow great pains in ornamenting their canoes with carved work and feathers.

Howe Island, discovered by captain Wallis, and called Mopeha by the inhabitants of the Society Islands, lies in sixteen degrees forty-six minutes of south latitude, and in one hundred and fifty-four degrees eight minutes of west longitude.

Harvey Island, discovered by captain Cook, lies in nineteen degrees eight minutes of south latitude, and in one hundred and fifty-eight degrees fifty-four minutes of west longitude.

Palmerston Island is situated in one hundred and sixty-three degrees ten minutes of west longitude, and in eighteen degrees four minutes of south latitude.

Savage Island lies in nineteen degrees one minute of south latitude, and one hundred and sixty-nine degrees thirty-seven minutes of west longitude. This island is about seven leagues in circuit, of a round form, and elevated. The natives here betrayed such a hostile disposition, that captain Cook soon left the coast. The interior parts of the island, however, are supposed to be barren.

Boscawen's Island is situated in one hundred and seventy-five degrees of west longitude, and in fifteen degrees fifty minutes of south latitude. It was first visited by Le Mair and Schouten, who called it Cocos Island; but captain Wallis, who touched here in 1767, gave it the name of Boscawen. It is nearly of a circular form, about nine miles in compass.

Keppel's Island lies in fifteen degrees fifty-five minutes of south latitude, and in one hundred and seventy-five degrees three minutes of west longitude. This was also first visited by Le Mair, and afterwards by captain Wallis. It is near three miles long, and two broad. The natives, who were peaceably inclined, were covered with a sort of matting, and had the first joint of their little finger taken off.

The Islands of Danger, consisting of three, are differently laid down by commodore Byron and captain Cook; the former placing them in one hundred and sixty-seven degrees forty-seven minutes of west longitude, and in twelve degrees thirty-three minutes of south latitude; while according to the latter the longitude is one hundred and sixty-three degrees forty-three minutes, and the latitude ten degrees fifty-one minutes. The south-easternmost of those islands is about three leagues long; from each extremity a reef running out, upon which the sea breaks to a prodigious height. On the north-west and west sides,

innumerable rocks and shoals stretch near two leagues into the sea, and are exceeding dangerous. The islands have a fertile, as well as beautiful appearance, and swarm with inhabitants.

Duke of York's Island lies in eight degrees forty-one minutes of south latitude, and in one hundred and seventy-three degrees three minutes of west longitude. It is near thirty miles in circumference, but uninhabited. A dreadful sea-break upon almost every part of the coast, and no sounding could be found. It was discovered by commodore Byron, in 1765, and had probably never received any human visitant before that time. The boats landed with great difficulty, and procured about two hundred cocoa-nuts. Thousands of sea-fowl were seen sitting on their nests, which were built in high trees; and these were so tame that they suffered themselves to be knocked down without leaving their nests. The ground was covered with land-crabs, but no other animal was seen.

Turtle Island, so called by captain Cook, on account of the great number of turtles seen here, lies in nineteen degrees forty-eight minutes of south latitude, and in one hundred and seventy-eight degrees two minutes of west longitude.

Queen Charlotte's Islands are situated in eleven degrees of south latitude, and one hundred and sixty-four degrees of west longitude. They were discovered by captain Carteret, in 1767, and are supposed to be the Santa Cruz of Mandana, who died in one of those islands, in 1595. Seven islands were counted, and more were supposed to exist. The natives are black, with woolly heads, and go quite naked. They are extremely vigorous and nimble, and said to be almost as well qualified to live in the water as upon land, continually leaping in and out of their canoes. Here is fine fresh water, but no esculent vegetables.

Byron's Island is situated in one hundred and seventy degrees fifty minutes of east longitude, and in one degree eighteen minutes of south latitude. It was discovered by Commodore Byron, in 1765; but no part of the coast being favourable for a ship to anchor, he could not go on shore to procure any refreshment. The island is supposed to be about four leagues in length, and appeared to be very populous. The natives are tall and well proportioned, of a bright copper colour, with long black hair. Some had long beards, some only whiskers, and others nothing more than a small tuft at the bottom of the chin. They use no covering, but wear a variety of ornaments about their necks, wrists, and waists. Their ears, though bored, had no ornaments in them; but it is probable that they wear such occasionally, as the lobes hang almost down to their shoulders, and some had their ears split quite through. Some of the natives were unarmed, but others carried a sort of spear, very broad at the end, and its sides, for about three foot of its length, were stuck full of shark's teeth, which are as sharp as a lancet.

#### NEW ZEELAND.

This country was first visited in 1642, by Abel Jansson Tasman, a native of Holland, who sailed thither from

from Batavia, but meeting with opposition from the natives, did not go on shore. This has been supposed to form part of a southern continent, but it is now found to consist of two large islands, separated from each other by a strait about four or five leagues broad. Those islands, which have been several times visited by Captain Cook, are situate between thirty-four degrees twenty-two minutes, and forty-seven degrees twenty-five minutes of south latitude, and between one hundred and sixty-six and one hundred and eighty degrees of east longitude. The northernmost is called by the natives Eahinomauwe, and the southernmost Tovy, or Tova-Poenamoo. The southern part of the former is of considerable breadth, running out from the thirty-eighth degree of latitude to the north-west in a narrow neck of land for near a hundred leagues, and terminating in Cape Maravan Diemen, and North Cape. From North Cape to its most southern point, called by Captain Cook Cape Palliser, it extends from thirty-four degrees twenty minutes to forty-one degrees thirty-six minutes of south latitude. The greatest breadth of Tova-Poenamoo is from Dusky Bay on the west to Cape Saunders on the east side, which comprehends four degrees and twenty minutes of longitude. In the narrowest part, it is something more than one degree. Tova-Poenamoo is a mountainous country, appearing to be neither fertile nor well inhabited; but the other island, though likewise mountainous, is covered with wood, and every valley has a river. The soil of the valleys, of which there are many not overgrown with wood, is in general light but fertile, in so much, that all kinds of European grain, plants, and fruit, would flourish here in great perfection. From the vegetables found in this island, the winters are supposed to be milder than in England; and the summer is described to be not hotter than with us, though more uniformly warm. A ridge of mountains is supposed to extend from north to south, nearly the whole length of Tova-Poenamoo. Towards the southward a narrow ridge of hills, covered with wood, rises directly from the sea; and close behind are mountains extending in another ridge of stupendous height, consisting of barren rocks, in many places covered with snow. From the quantities of iron-ore, which is brought down by every rivulet, the navigators reasonably suppose that there is iron-ore at a small distance up the country, though the inhabitants are wholly unacquainted with the use of this mineral. A large piece of pumice-stone was picked up on Eahinomauwe; by which it evidently appears that there either is, or has been, a volcano on that island. A shock of an earthquake was felt at Tova-Poenamoo, in May, 1773, by the crew of the Adventure.

In one of the bays of this island was seen a rock, perforated quite through, so as to form a stupendous arch, or cavern, opening directly to the sea. Its aperture was seventy-five foot long, twenty-seven broad, and forty-five foot high.

Near Mercury Bay are several insulated rocks, some of which are said to be as small as the Monument in

London, but of a much greater height. Others of those are inhabited.

The shores of another bay, towards the north, are lined with a great number of islands, which form several harbours equally safe and commodious. On the west side of this bay were seen several villages, both upon islands and the main land.

On the south-west coast is a remarkable high peak, towering above the clouds, and covered with perennial snow. Its height is supposed to be not much inferior to the peak of Teneriff, from the space which the snow occupies upon it. Behind it, the country has a pleasant appearance, of woods interspersed with verdant plains.

On the western side of Tova-Poenamoo the voyagers found the soil to be a deep black mould, composed of decayed vegetables, and so loose as to sink with the slightest impression of the foot. Not only the climbing plants and shrubs obstructed their passage, but numbers of rotten trees, either blown down by the wind, or decayed through age, lay also in their way; a variety of plants sprouting out of the rich mould to which the old timber had been reduced by length of time; and a deceitful bark sometimes covered the interior rotten substance, on which if any person attempted to step, he sunk to the waist. The trees gradually diminished in height and circumference, and dwindled to shrubs as they receded from the shore, contrary to what is observed in other parts of the world. It is conjectured with probability, that the forests here have remained in the rude state of nature since their first existence. About a league from the place where the ship lay, was seen a fine cascade falling into the sea, over a steep rock covered with thick bushes and trees. In this part of the island are also several others, which fall from vast heights, and present the spectator with scenes that are beautifully romantic. The climate, however, is supposed to be rather unhealthy; as during upwards of six weeks that the voyagers remained here, in the months of March and April, 1773, only one week of continued fair weather was experienced, the rain predominating so much the rest of the time, that there never happened more than two fair days in immediate succession.

In Queen Charlotte's Sound, a little more to the eastward, the voyagers found a stream of excellent water, and wood in the greatest plenty, the land being one continued forest of vast extent. The number of inhabitants here hardly exceeded four hundred. They live dispersed along the shore, subsisting chiefly on fish and fern-roots, and appear to maintain a state of constant warfare.

No country which the voyagers had seen abounded so much with trees and plants unknown to the naturalists of Europe as New Zealand, or produced such fine timber of various kinds. On the bank of a river which they named the Thames, was found a tree nineteen foot eight inches in girth, at the height of six foot from the ground; and on measuring it with a quadrant, it was found to be eighty-nine foot high; and others, of yet larger dimensions, were afterwards met with.

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A sort of little crane-fly was particularly troublesome in the southern parts of Tavaï-Poenammoo during bad weather. Their bite caused a swelling, and so intolerable a titillation that it was impossible to refrain from scratching, which at last brings on ulcers like the small pox. Here are a few butterflies and beetles, with some flesh-flies. The woods abound with birds exquisitely beautiful, and of unknown kinds; the only one which resembles any in Europe being the gannet. Here also are ducks and shags, but different from those of Europe. The hawks, owls, and quails, however, have less of an exotic appearance, and the song of the small birds is enchanting. The latter, particularly in the woods in Dusky Bay, were so little acquainted with mankind, that they familiarly lighted on the ends of the fowling-pieces, and looked with great curiosity at those who carried them. Here are great numbers of petrels, which are common over the whole South Sea. They have a broad bill, with a blackish stripe across their bluish wings and body, and are not so large as the common sheer-water, or Manks petrel of Europe. They burrow holes in the ground for their young, and will roam several hundred leagues over the ocean in quest of food for them. The water-hens here are of a large species, and there is great plenty of almost every sort of aquatic bird. Of the small bird called the fan-tail, there are three species, the body of one of which is hardly larger than a good filberd, yet it spreads a tail of most beautiful plumage, full three quarters of a semi-circle of at least four or five inches radius.

The only quadrupeds known to be in this country, are dogs and rats; the former of which are eaten by the natives. They are of a rough long-haired sort, with prickled ears, much resembling a shepherd's cur. They are of different colours, some black, some white, and others spotted. They are kept tied with a string round their middle: their food is fish, of which they partake in their own with their masters; but they also eat of their own species.

Many sorts of fish were caught here, which have a very delicious taste, and are entirely unknown in Europe. Mackrel of various kinds are in great plenty, and the lobsters are of an excellent species.

The natives of New-Zeeland are generally equal to the tallest Europeans in stature; they are stout, well limbed, and fleshy, but not fat. Their legs and feet, however, are distorted, from their manner of sitting cross-legged in their canoes. Their complexion is brown, but hardly deeper than that of the inhabitants in the southern parts of Europe. But this description is chiefly applicable to the natives of the northern island; for in the other, they are not near so handsome, and many of them are stunted in their growth. In general, the New-Zeelanders have the aquiline nose, with dark coloured eyes, and black hair, which is tied up to the crown of the head. The principal men among them use the practice of tattowing themselves in spiral and other figures. In many places, their skin is indented in such a manner as to look like carving; but servants and women are

content with befouling their faces with red paint or ochre. The faces of the old men are almost covered with indentations, painted black, which make a most frightful appearance; but those who are young blacken only their lips like the women, and gradually extend their decorations as they advance in years. The marks upon the face are generally spiral, and performed with great regularity.

Their cloathing consists of a girdle of plaited grass, from which some leaves hang down before, with a kind of grass-rug cloak thrown over their shoulders, and ornamented at each corner with a piece of dog's skin. Some wear in their ears white feathers and pieces of bird's skins; but others had the teeth of their parents, or a bit of green stone worked very smooth, and of different shapes. They also use a kind of shoulder-knot, of the skin of a sea-fowl with the feathers on. The women wear their hair hanging down, and adorn it with leaves. Their winter dress is shaggy cloaks, which hang round their necks like a thatch of straw. They dress various in different parts of the country, according to the rank and affluence of the persons, but all the natives that were seen appeared to be greatly infested with vermin.

The chief food of the New-Zeelanders is fish, which they catch at all seasons of the year in sufficient quantity, but generally dry them for their winter subsistence, when the exercise of fishing is less agreeable. Their only drink is water.

Their houses consist of a frame of wood, wattled with dried grass, which is very neatly entwined. They are commonly eighteen or twenty foot long, eight or ten broad, and five or six high. Some are lined with the bark of trees, which renders them very warm. The roof is sloping, and the door, which is made at one end, will only admit a man into it upon his hands. Near the door is a square hole, which serves both as a window and chimney.

Notwithstanding the natives are accommodated with those houses, they frequently sleep in the open air. On those occasions, the women and children are ranged farthest from the sea; while the men lie in a kind of half circle round them, with their arms set up against the adjacent trees.

Here are some fortified villages, or strong holds erected on rocks. Two of those were seen near the river to which the voyagers gave the name of the Thames. Five or six houses stood on the summit of a rock, which was fenced round, and was accessible only by one very narrow and steep path. The other was larger, and well fortified towards the land, whence only it is accessible. A third of those *hippas* was situated on a very high rock, which was hollow underneath, forming a very grand arch, one side of which was connected with the land, and the other rose out of the sea. One of those fortifications in Queen Charlotte's sound was seated on a steep insulated rock, accessible only in one place by a narrow difficult path, where two persons could not go abreast: at the top it was surrounded by pallisadoes. The huts stood promiscuously within the inclosure, and consisted only of a roof which rose in a steep

ridge. These places seem to be occasional dwellings, to which the natives resort in time of danger from an enemy.

Their tools are adzes, axes, and chisels, which serve them also for the boring of holes. Having no metal, their adzes and axes are made of a hard black stone, or of a green talc, which is not only hard but tough. Their chisels are of human bone, or small fragments of jasper. They have baskets of various kinds and sizes, made of wicker-work. The making of fishing nets seemed to be the staple manufacture in those parts of the country which the voyagers visited, almost all the people in the houses being more or less employed in this way. Those nets are of a circular form, extended by two hoops, and about seven or eight foot in diameter. The top is open, and they fasten sea-ears to the bottom as a bait, which they let down so as to lie on the ground.

Their weapons are spears, darts, battle-axes, and the patoo-patoo. The spear is fourteen or fifteen foot long, pointed at both ends, and sometimes headed with bone. In using those they grasp them by the middle. The patoo patoo is made of green talc, shaped like a pointed battledore, with a short handle and sharp edges.

The canoes of this country are long and narrow, some of them so large as to carry a hundred men. One of them, which Captain Cook measured, was sixty-eight foot and a half in length, five foot broad, and three foot and a half deep. She had a sharp bottom, consisting of three trunks of trees hollowed, of which that in the middle was the longest. The side planks were sixty-two foot long in one piece, and not delicately carved in bas-relief. At Mercury Bay the canoes were no other than trunks of trees hollowed by fire, without either convenience or ornament. Their paddles are about six foot long, and the blade of an oval shape, which they use with great exactness and activity. They are however but indifferent sailors, having no knowledge of going otherwise than before the wind. Their sails are made of the same materials as their cloathing.

From what the voyagers observed of the men and women of this country, it seemed that the former till the ground, make nets, catch birds, and fish with nets and lines, while the employment of the latter is to dig up fern roots, gather lobsters, and other shell-fish in the shallow waters near the beach, dress the victuals, and weave cloth.

The same kind of circumcision is practised here as in O-Tahitee. Their chiefs are strong active young men; but the aged among the inhabitants are held in the greatest respect, on account of their experience.

Their war dance consists of a great variety of violent motions and contortions of the limbs, accompanied with grimaces. The tongue is frequently thrust out to a considerable length, and the eye-lids forcibly drawn up in a frightful manner. At the same time they brandish their spears, shake their darts, and cleave the air with their patoo-patoos. This horrid dance is always accompanied by a song, which is wild, but not disagreeable, and every strain concludes

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with a loud and deep sigh, which is uttered in concert.

The New-Zeelanders avow the horrid practice of eating their enemies, and several fragments were seen of human bodies which they had been devouring.

The licentious commerce between the sexes, so frequent in the other islands of the South Sea, is not tolerated here, the women being generally modest. They wear their under garment always tied fast round them, except when they go into the water to catch lobsters, and then they are particularly careful not to be seen by the men. The virtue of chastity, however, is held inviolable only in married women; for a girl may gratify a plurality of lovers without any stain on her character. Notwithstanding the indulgence shewn to the women in this respect, they are in general treated with great brutality by the men; nothing being more common than for a husband to beat his wife unmercifully on the slightest occasion.

Their musical instruments consist of a trumpet, about four foot long, its small mouth being about two inches, and the larger five in diameter. Another was seen of a large whelk, mounted with wood, curiously carved. A third kind was a hollow tube, widest about the middle, where it had a large opening, as well as at each end. A hideous bellowing was all the sound that could be produced by those instruments.

The music of the natives, however, is described as far superior in variety to that of the Society and Friendly Islands. Some of the natives who visited the ship, exhibited a dance on the quarter-deck. For this purpose they placed themselves in a row, and laying aside their shaggy upper garments, one of them sung some words in a rude manner, while the rest accompanied the gestures he made, alternately extending their arms, and stamping with their feet, in a frantic manner. They all joined in the last words of the song, and some sort of metre is said to have been distinguished, but whether accompanied with rhymes, was not discovered.

Their manner of treating their dead could not be exactly known, as the natives affected a mysterious secrecy in regard to this subject. But according to the slight information which the voyagers could obtain, the people in the northern parts bury the dead in the ground, and those in the southern quarter throw them into the sea, with no other appendage to the body than a stone, to cause it to sink. Notwithstanding this summary manner of disposing of their deceased relations, they are not insensible to the tender feelings of consanguinity on these events; but in testimony of their sorrow, wound themselves in several parts of the body, and particularly the face. To this barbarous practice are said to be owing the numerous scars, with which the old people among them were observed by the voyagers to be covered. In one family, a woman was seen, who had cut her arms, legs, and thighs, in a shocking manner, in token of grief for the loss of her husband, who had been lately killed and eaten by their enemies.

For eighty leagues along the eastern coast of

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Eacnomauws, the country appears to be under the government of a king. But there are also many subordinate chiefs; and of the nature of the constitution no positive information could be procured. About Mercury Bay the people acknowledge no sovereign, but live in a kind of savage commonwealth. Tuvai-Poenamoo is much less populous than the northern island. Here, in Queen Charlotte's Sound, the natives seem to be under no regular form of government; only particular respect was observed to be paid to the head of each tribe or family.

The notions entertained by these people of the origin of the world, appear to be nearly the same as at O-Taheitee. According to Mr. Forster, they acknowledge a Supreme Being, and believe also in the existence of inferior divinities. No ceremonial, however, was observed by the voyagers which they could suppose to be in any degree connected with religion; nor did there seem to be an order of priesthood in either of those islands.

#### NEW HOLLAND.

This country, which received its name from having been chiefly explored by Dutch navigators, lies between one hundred and ten and a one hundred and fifty-four degrees of east longitude, and between ten and forty-four degrees of south latitude. This immense island, which many have styled a continent from its great extent, has been explored on the eastern coast with great perseverance, and no small danger, by Captain Cook, who gave it the name of New South-Wales. The country is not mountainous, but consists chiefly of valleys and plains, rather barren than fruitful. In the southern parts, both the trees and herbage are more luxuriant, but no underwood was seen in any place. The whole eastern coast is well watered by brooks and springs, but there are no great rivers. Only two sorts of timber trees were observed, viz. the gum-tree, and a kind of pine. Here are three species of the palm-tree; and though the country affords few excellent plants; it abounds with such as exercise the curiosity of the naturalist. Here is an animal resembling a pole-cat: its back is brown, spotted with white, and the belly unmixed white. Many bats were seen by the voyagers, as well as gull's shaggs, soland geese, or gannets, of two sorts, boobies, noddies, curlews, ducks, pelicans of an enormous size, crows, parrots, paroquets, cockatoes, and other birds of the same kind, of exquisite beauty, pigeons, doves, quails, bustards, herons, cranes, hawks, and eagles. Here are serpents, some of which are venomous, others harmless, with scorpions, centipeds, and lizards. The most remarkable insect found in this country is the ant, of which there are several kinds. One is green, and builds its nest in trees. This it forms by bending down several leaves, each of which is as broad as a man's hand, and gluing the points of them together, so to form a purse. The substance used for this purpose is an animal juice which nature has enabled them to elaborate. Thousands of those busy insects

were seen uniting all their strength to hold the leaves in this position, while other multitudes were employed within in applying the gluten that was to prevent their returning back. Another kind burrows in the root of a plant which grows on the bark of trees in the manner of the mistletoe. This root is commonly as big as a large turnip: when cut, it appears intersected by innumerable winding passages, all filled with those animals, notwithstanding which, the vegetation of the plant suffers no injury. Those insects are not more than half the size of the common red ant in England. Another sort resembles the white ants in the East Indies. It is also on the branches of trees that this kind builds their nests, which are generally three or four times as big as a man's head. The materials consist of small parts of vegetables, united with a glutinous matter, with which nature has probably furnished them. They have also other nests built upon the ground, for the most part at the root of a tree. This is formed like an irregularly sided cone, is sometimes more than six foot high, and near as much in diameter. The outside is of clay, about two inches thick, and within are the cells, which have no opening outward. Between those two dwellings, one of which is their summer, and the other their winter residence, there is a communication by a large avenue, or covered way, leading to the ground, and by a subterranean passage.

The fish here are of various kinds unknown to Europe, except the mullet, and some of the shell-fish. Upon the shoals and reef are great quantities of the finest green turtle, and oysters of various kinds; particularly the rock and pearl oyster. In the rivers and salt creeks sligators were seen.

This extensive country appears to have but few inhabitants, and the interior parts perhaps none; as no marks of cultivation were to be seen along the coast, where the miserable natives drew all their subsistence from the sea. The only tribe with which any intercourse was maintained, consisted of twenty-one persons, twelve men, seven women, a boy and a girl. The women were never seen but at a distance, the men always leaving them behind when they visited the ship. The men are of a middle size, in general well made, and remarkably vigorous, but their voices were effeminate. They encrust their bodies with dirt, which makes them appear as black as negroes. Their hair, which naturally grows long and black, they crop short. Their beards grow bushy and thick, but they likewise keep them short by singeing. Neither sex appear to have any shame in discovering the whole body. In the middle cartilage of their nostrils they wear a bone, which is as thick as a man's finger, and between five and six inches long. It reaches quite across the face, and so effectually stops up both the nostrils, that they are forced to keep their mouths wide open for breath, and snuffle so when they attempt to speak, that they are hardly intelligible even to each other. They have also necklaces made of shells, very neatly cut and strung together; and bracelets of small cord, wound two or three times about the upper part of their arm; a string of human hair

hair plaited, about as thick as a thread of yarn, being likewise tied round their waist. Besides those, some had gorgets of shells hanging round the neck, so as to reach across the breast. They paint their bodies white and red, and draw a circle of red round each eye. They have holes in their ears, but were not seen to wear any thing in them. They were so attached to their own ornaments as to prefer them to any beads and ribbons that were offered them by the voyagers. The bodies of many were marked with large scars, apparently occasioned by wounds which they had inflicted on themselves with some blunt instrument, and which they signified by signs to be memorials of grief for the dead.

There was no appearance of a town or village in the whole country, and their houses are formed without any art. They are made of pliable rods about the thickness of a man's finger, formed into the shape of an oven, by sticking the two ends into the ground, covering them afterwards with palm leaves and broad pieces of bark. The door is nothing but a large hole at one end. Those huts are just so high as to let a man stand upright, but not to admit of his extending on the ground in any direction; and under them three or four persons will sleep together, coiled up with their heels to their head. Towards the northward, as the climate becomes hotter, the huts were constructed much more slightly, one side being entirely open, and none of them were more than four foot high. These hovels are erected occasionally by a wandering hord, in any place where they can procure a temporary subsistence; but when they mean to continue only a night or two on any spot, they seek no other shelter than the bushes and grass, the latter of which is here near two foot high.

To fetch their water from the springs, they use a vessel made of bark, only by tying up the ends with a withy, which not being cut off, serves for a handle. Another piece of furniture is a small bag, about the size of a moderate cabbage-net, which the men carry upon their back, by a string that passes over their heads. It generally contains a lump or two of paint and resin, some fish-hooks and lines, with a shell or two, out of which their hooks are made, a few points of darts, and their usual ornaments. This is an inventory of the whole treasure of the richest person among them.

Their fish-hooks are neatly made, and some of them extremely small. For striking turtle they have a peg of wood, about two foot long, and very well bearded, which fits into a socket at the end of a staff of light wood, about seven or eight foot long. To the staff is tied one end of a line about three or four fathom in length, the other end of which is fastened to the peg. To strike the turtle the peg is fixed into the socket. One entering his body, where it is retained by the barb, the staff flies off, and serves for a float to trace the motion of the fish, which it also contributes to fatigue, till those who are in pursuit of the prey can overtake it with their canoes, and haul it ashore.

Their lines are made of the fibres of a vegetable,

and are from the thickness of a half inch rope to the fineness of a hair. They are totally unacquainted with the use of nets in fishing.

They bake their provisions by the help of hot stones, like the inhabitants of the South Sea Islands; and to produce fire, which they do with great ease in less than two minutes, they rub two pieces of wood against each other.

Their weapons are spears or lances, some of which have four prongs pointed with bone, and barbed. To the northward the lance has but one point: the shaft is made of cane, very light, and from eight to fourteen foot long, consisting of several pieces firmly connected together. The points are either of hard heavy wood, or bones of fish. The former are also sometimes armed with sharp bits of shells. The canoes to the southward are made of bark, but in the northern parts, of the trunk of a tree probably hollowed by fire. The only tools seen among them were, an adze, wretchedly made of stone; some small pieces of the same substance in form of a wedge; a wooden mallet, with some shells and fragments of coral.

It is difficult to account for the small number of the human species dispersed in this extensive country. If the increase of the inhabitants is not prevented by some natural cause, perhaps it arises from the horrid appetite for devouring each other, which prevails in New Zealand. From the extreme ignorance of the natives, however, with respect to those arts that are generally found to be more or less cultivated by the most uncivilized people, there is reason to place them among the lowest of the human kind.

The most southern point of land discovered by Captain Cook, he supposes to lie in thirty-eight degrees fifty-eight minutes of south latitude, and in one hundred and fifty degrees of east longitude. To this he gave the name of Point Hicks, but he could not determine whether it was joined to Van Diemen's land. Some of the Indians here made a singular appearance. Their faces seemed to have been dusted with a white powder, and their bodies were painted with streaks of the same colour which passed obliquely over their breasts and backs, in the manner of the cross belts worn by our soldiers. Streaks of the same kind were also drawn round their legs and thighs. Each man held in his hand a weapon resembling a scymeter, about two foot and a half long. The place where the ship had anchored was abreast of a small village, consisting of about six or eight houses; and while the boat was hoisting out, the voyagers saw an old woman, followed by three children, come out of the woods. She was loaded with fuel, and each of the children had also its little burden. When she reached the huts, three more children, younger than the others, came out to meet her. She often looked at the ship, but expressed neither fear nor surprise. In a short time she kindled a fire, and four canoes came in from fishing. The men, upon landing, hauled up their boats, and began to dress their dinner, without discovering the smallest concern at the sight of the voyagers. They all were entirely destitute of any covering.

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When Captain Cook first landed at Botany Bay, in thirty-four degrees of south latitude, and one hundred and fifty-two degrees thirty-seven minutes of east longitude, two of the natives came towards the vessel, each armed with a lance about ten foot long, and a short stick which appeared to be used in throwing that weapon. They seemed determined to defend the coast, though the party that landed consisted of forty persons. The voyagers addressed them by signs for about a quarter of an hour, at the same time throwing them nails, beads, and other trifles, which they seemed to be much pleased. The captain then made signs that he wanted water, and endeavoured to convince them that they should suffer no harm; but on putting the boat to the shore, the natives again opposed his landing. One appeared to be a youth about nineteen or twenty, and the other a man of middle age. The captain having now no other resource, fired a musket between them. The younger immediately dropped a bundle of lances upon the rock, but recollecting himself in an instant, he snatched them up again. A stone being then thrown upon the voyagers, the captain ordered a musket to be fired with small shot, which struck the older upon the legs, who immediately ran to one of the huts, which was distant a hundred yards. Imagining that the contest was now over, the voyagers landed, which they had no sooner done than the man returned with a shield or target for his defence. Upon his coming up, he threw at the voyagers a lance, and his companion another, but happily no person was hurt by them. A third musket with small shot was then fired at the assailants, upon which one of them threw another lance, and both immediately ran away. The voyagers now repaired to the huts, in one of which they observed some children concealing themselves behind a shield and a small heap of bark, whom they did not disturb. At coming away, they threw into the house some beads, ribbons, pieces of cloth, and some other trifles, to procure the good-will of the inhabitants when they should return; but took with them the lances which they found lying, to the number of about fifty. They were from six to fifteen foot long, all armed with prongs in the manner of a fish-gig, each pointed with fish-bone, which was very sharp. They were smeared with a viscous substance of a green colour, which seemed to favour a suspicion of their being poisoned; but this conjecture was afterwards found to be groundless.

The canoes which lay upon the beach were the worst the voyagers had ever seen. They were between twelve and fourteen foot long, and made of the bark of a tree in one piece, which was drawn together, and tied up at one end, the middle being kept open by sticks placed across. There was seen a tree, the fruit of which resembled a cherry. Only two sorts of timber-wood were observed, both which were fully as large as the English oak, and one of them had a similar appearance. The latter of those is hard and dark coloured, and yields a reddish gum resembling sanguis draconis. The other grows tall and straight, something like the pine, but the wood of it is also

hard and heavy. Here are a few shrubs, and several kinds of the palm. Mangroves likewise grow in great plenty near the head of the bay. The country in general, as far as it was observed, is level, low, and woody. The woods abound with birds of exquisite beauty, particularly the parrot kind. Here are also crows exactly of the same kind as those in England. About the head of the harbour, where are large flats of sand and mud, great plenty of water-fowl, mostly of unknown species, was observed. One of the most remarkable was black and white, much larger than a swan, and in shape bearing some resemblance to a pelican. On the sand-banks are also great quantities of oysters, mussels, cockles, and other shell-fish, which seem to be the chief subsistence of the inhabitants, who do not always go on shore to dress them, but have often fires in their canoes for that purpose. They do not however subsist entirely on this food, but catch many other kinds of fish, some of which they strike with gigs, and some they take with hook and line.

All the inhabitants were quite naked. They did not appear to be numerous, or to live in societies, and were dispersed along the coast, and in the woods. Of their manner of life little could be known; for so averse were they to any connection with the voyagers, that they abstained from touching every thing which had been left by the voyagers at their huts, and other places, for their acceptance.

Thirty Bay lies in twenty-two degrees ten minutes of south latitude, and in one hundred and fifty degrees eighteen minutes of east longitude. Upon the branches of gum-trees here were found ants nests, made of clay, as big as a bushel, something like those described in Sir Hans Sloane's Natural History of Jamaica, but not so smooth. The ants which inhabited those nests were small, and their bodies white. On another species of the tree was found a small black ant, which perforated all the twigs, and having worked out the pith, occupied the cavity. Here also were such swarms of butterflies, that the air was crowded with them for the space of three or four acres. A small fish of a singular kind was likewise here observed. It was about the size of a minnow, and had two very strong breast fins. It was found in places quite dry, but did not seem to become languid from the want of water; for upon being approached, it leaped away, by the help of the breast fins, as nimbly as a frog; and when it was found in the water, it frequently leaped out, and pursued its way upon dry ground. From the great difference in the needle when brought on shore, and from other observations which were made, Captain Cook conjectures that there is iron-ore in the hills.

Along the coast of New South Wales, the sea in all parts conceals shoals, which suddenly project from the shore, and rocks that rise abruptly like a pyramid from the bottom, for more than thirteen hundred miles.

At the Endeavour River, which the voyagers reached after escaping an imminent danger of being shipwrecked, the bats are as large as a partridge. Here was seen an animal of a new species. It was

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it was of a light mouse colour, in size and shape much resembling a greyhound. The head, neck, and shoulders, are very small in proportion to the other parts. The tail is almost as long as the body, thick at the root, and tapering towards the end. The fore-legs of this animal, which was a young one, were only eight inches long, and the hind-legs twenty-two. Its motion is performed by successive leaps, or hops, of a great length, in an erect posture. The fore-legs are kept bent close to the breast, and seemed to be of use only for digging. The head and ears have a slight resemblance to those of a hare, and its skin is covered with a short fur. This animal was called by the natives Hanguroo. A wolf was also said to be seen in this part of the country. On the shore were found cockles of so enormous a size, that one of them was more than two men could eat. The natives are of the common stature, but their limbs are remarkably small: their skin is of a dark chocolate colour: their hair is black, but not woolly, generally short cropped, but in some lank, and in others curled. They paint some parts of their bodies red; and one of those that were seen had his upper-lip and his breast painted white. Their voices are soft, and they repeated several words after the voyagers with great facility. They frequently wear a fish-bone thrust through the middle cartilage of the nose, but make use of no garment.

Here was found a female opossum, with two young ones. Several species of serpents were seen here, of which some are venomous. The land-fowls are, crows, kites, hawks, cockatoes white and black, a beautiful kind of paroquet, some parrots, pigeons of different sorts, and several small birds, unknown in Europe. The water-fowl are, herons, whistling ducks, wild geese, and curlews.

The face of the country is agreeably diversified with hills and valleys, lawns and woods. The whole abounds with ant-hills, some of which are six or eight foot high, and twice as much in circumference. The country is well watered by rivulets and springs, and the woods consist chiefly of the gum-tree mangrove.

#### NEW GUINEA, NEW BRITAIN, NEW IRELAND, and NEW HANOVER, with other ISLANDS.

New Guinea is a long and narrow island, very imperfectly known. It was supposed to be connected with New Holland, until Captain Cook discovered the strait which separates them. Including Papua, its north-western part, it reaches from the equator to the twelfth degree of south latitude, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees of east longitude. In one part its breadth appears not to exceed fifty miles. When Capt. Cook made the coast of New Guinea, he observed a body of the Indians, to the number of between sixty and a hundred, on the shore, as they rowed the boat along the coast, who made nearly the same appearance as the New Hollanders, being quite naked, and their hair cropped short. They

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were all the while shouting defiance, and throwing something out of their hands which burnt exactly like gun-powder, but made no report. What those fires were, or for what purpose intended, could not be guessed at. The persons who discharged them had in their hands a short piece of stick, supposed to be a hollow cane, which they swung sideways from them, and immediately fire and smoke issued, exactly resembling the visible circumstances that accompany the discharge of a musket, and of no longer duration. After looking attentively at them for a little time, the sailors fired some muskets over their heads, when the latter, on hearing the balls rattle among the trees, walked leisurely away. Upon examining some weapons which the natives had thrown, they were found to be light darts, about four foot long, very ill made, of a reed or bamboo cane, and pointed with hard wood, in which were many bars. They were discharged with great force, but by what means could not be exactly seen. It was the opinion of the voyagers, however, that they were thrown with a stick, in the manner practised by the New Hollanders.

This part of the country lies in one hundred and thirty-eight degrees of east longitude, and in six degrees fifteen minutes of north latitude. The land here, as all along the coast, is very low, but covered with such a luxuriance of wood and herbage, as can hardly be conceived. The cocoa-nut, plantain, and bread-fruit flourish in the greatest perfection.

New Britain was thought to connect with New Guinea, until Dampier found that they were divided by a strait. It is situated to the northward of the eastern end of New Guinea. Its most northern point is in four degrees of south latitude, whence it extends to six degrees thirty minutes of south latitude. Its eastern extremity, called by Dampier Cape Orford, lies in one hundred and fifty-one degrees thirty-four minutes of east longitude, but its western limits have not yet been accurately surveyed. In passing between New Guinea and New Britain, Dampier saw several islands to which he gave names; and from one hundred forty-four to one hundred forty-eight degrees of east longitude, he saw four with volcanos, emitting smoke and fire. This country appeared to be high land mixed with valleys, every where abounding with stately trees, and well inhabited by a strong race of people of a dark complexion.

When M. Bougainville navigated the north-east shore of this island, several canoes came off, each containing five or six black men, with frizzled woolly hair, which in some was powdered white. Their beards were of considerable length, and they had white ornaments round their arms, in form of bracelets. Their nudities were but indifferently covered with leaves of trees. They were tall, active, and robust.

New Ireland, the southern coast of which was discovered and named by Captain Carteret, had been considered by Dampier, who failed round its northern coast, as a part of New Britain. It is a long narrow slip of land, lying north-west and south-east. When Captain Carteret first made the harbour at this

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place,

place, the crew was perishing with sickness. The refreshments which they procured here were some rock-oysters, and cockles of a very large size, with some cocoa-nuts produced on a tree of which the upper-part is called the cabbage. This is a white, crisp, juicy substance, which eaten raw tastes somewhat like a chesnut, but when boiled, is superior to the best parsnip, and proves a most powerful antiscorbutic. For every one of those cabbages they were obliged to cut down a tree. The navigators also received great benefit from the fruit of a tall tree that resembles a plum, and particularly from that which in the West Indies is called the Jamaica plum. The shore at this place is rocky, and the country high and mountainous, but covered with trees of various kinds, some of which are of enormous growth. Among others the nutmeg-tree was found in great plenty. The nuts were not ripe, and did not appear to be of the best sort, but this circumstance Captain Carteret imputes to their growing wild, and being too much in the shade of the taller trees. Here are many species of the palm, with the beetle-nut tree, and various kinds of the aloe, besides canes, bamboos, and rattans, with many shrubs and plants unknown to the voyagers; but no esculent vegetables. The woods abound with pigeons, doves, rooks, parrots, and a large bird with black plumage, which makes a noise somewhat like the barking of a dog. The only quadrupeds seen were two of a small size, supposed to be dogs, which were very wild, and ran with great swiftness. Here also were seen centipeds, scorpions, and a few serpents of different kinds, but no human inhabitants. The voyagers, however, met with several deserted huts, about which were scattered shells that seemed not to have been long taken out of the water. Those hovels are said to have been the most wretched that the navigators had ever seen.

In the harbour of English Cove Captain Carteret took possession of the country in the name of his Majesty, and nailed upon a high tree a piece of board, faced with lead, on which was engraved an English Union, with the name of the ship and her commander, as well as that of the cove, and the time of her coming and sailing out of it. About a twelve-month afterwards M. de Bougainville happened to touch at the same harbour, to which he gave the name of Port Praslin. Here he found part of Captain Carteret's inscription, which had probably been taken down and maimed by the natives. To the animal productions of the country enumerated by the English commander, the French officer adds, that five or six wild boars were seen. They killed some large pigeons of great beauty: their plumage was green and gold; their necks and bellies of a greenish colour, with a small crest on the head. Here are also turtle-doves, widow-birds larger than those of the Brazils,

parrots, and crown-birds. Enormous ants are said to have swarmed in such numbers about the thatch-palm and cabbage-trees, as to oblige the people to quit several trees after they had felled them. Here was found a very extraordinary insect of the mantis genus, about three inches long: almost every part of its body is of such a texture as to appear like a leaf, even when closely viewed. It has two antennæ, and six legs. Here is a prodigious cascade precipitated over vast rocks. While M. de Bougainville remained on shore, on the 23d of July, 1768, several shocks of an earthquake were felt, which lasted about two minutes.

In the western part of St. George's Channel lies Sandwich Island, on which coast the Swallow anchored. Soon after ten canoes put off from New Ireland, with about a hundred and fifty men on board. They exchanged some trifles, but none of them would venture upon the side of the ship. One of those canoes was not less than ninety foot long, and formed of a single tree. About it were some carved ornaments, and it was rowed or paddled by thirty-three men. The Indians were black and woolly-headed like negroes, but without their flat noses or thick lips. They were all naked, but had ornaments of shells about their legs and arms. Their hair, as well as their beards, was profusely covered with a white powder. They were armed with spears and long sticks or poles. They had with them some fishing-nets, which, with their cordage, seemed to be very well made.

Having reached the western point of New Ireland, a large island presented itself, to which Captain Carteret gave the name of New Hanover. The land is high, and well covered with trees, among which are many plantations. About eight leagues to the westward appeared six or seven small islands, which received the name of Duke of Portland's Islands.

Admiralty Islands lie in about two degrees eighteen minutes of south latitude, and one hundred and forty-six degrees forty-four minutes of east longitude. Between twenty and thirty islands of great extent are said to be scattered hereabouts. The largest is near sixty miles in length, in the direction of east to west. Capt. Carteret, by whom they were discovered, describes them as clothed with beautiful woods, which are lofty and luxuriant, interspersed with spots that have been cleared for plantations, groves of cocoa-nut trees, and huts of the natives, who seemed to be very numerous. The discoverer thinks it highly probable, that those islands produce several valuable articles of trade, very probably spices, as they lie in the same latitude with the Moluccas; and he is the more inclined to this opinion, as he found the nutmeg-tree on a soil comparatively rocky and barren, upon the coast of New Ireland.

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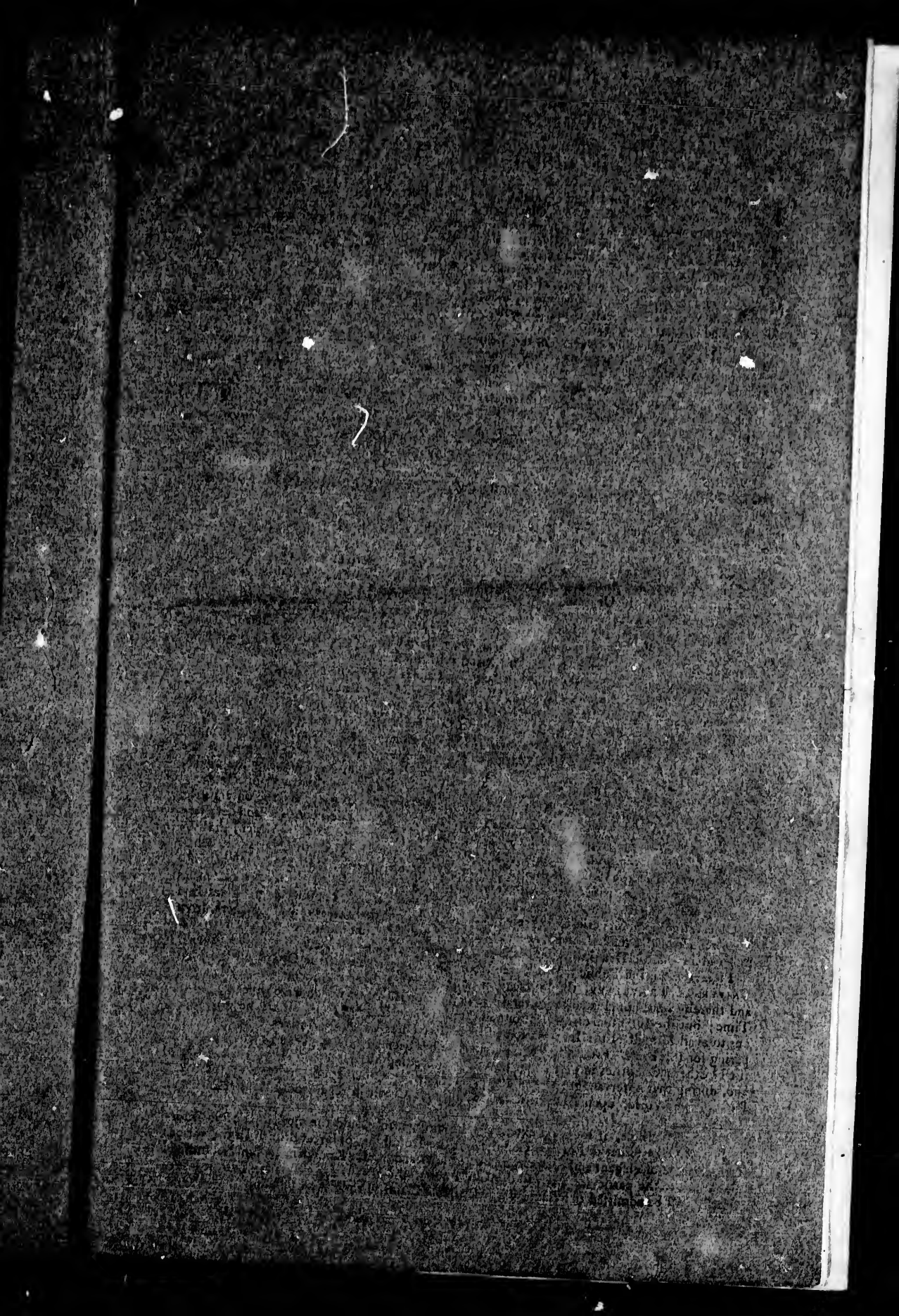
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The Climate and Seasons of each Country will next be described, the Nature of the Soil examined, and its various Produce, whether Animal, Vegetable, or Mineral, will be distinctly specified.

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An interesting View will be exhibited of the Manners and Customs of every Nation, under the several Heads of Dress, Salutations, Marriages, Funerals, &c.

A copious Account will be given of the Constitution and Government of every Country; its Manufactures, Commerce, Revenues, and Military and Naval Force. The State of Learning and of the Arts, both useful and ornamental, will be described; and the various Superstitions, as well as the established Religion of every People, placed in the clearest Point of View.

The Chief Towns, and all eminent Public Buildings, will likewise be the Objects of Description; and a particular Account will be given of the celebrated Remains of Antiquity. To all which will be added an accurate History of every Nation from the earliest Periods.



## To the P U B L I C.

**N**OTwithstanding the various and extensive Information relative to Foreign Countries, communicated by different Authors, no Work has hitherto been published, that comprises an Account of the Universe upon such a Plan as is calculated to convey an adequate Idea of the Subject. Books of Travels and Voyages, though the great Repositories of useful Observation, generally abound with tedious and uninteresting Details, which, at the same Time that they preclude the Entertainment of the Reader in one of the most delightful Provinces of human Inquiry, never fail to impress his Mind with such a Disgust; as, if it does not extinguish the Ardour of Research, at least relaxes his Efforts in the Pursuit of Improvement.

While the Narratives of Travellers and Voyagers consist of a Profusion of Materials injudiciously collected, those Writers who have abridged their Works, have not proved more happy in their Compilations. Averse, for the most Part, to the Duty of examining Facts, and of collating the Recitals of different Travellers with each other, they often sacrifice Truth indiscriminately to the Illusion of plausible Error; and if they sometimes venture to reject the Marvellous, they frequently exclude essential Objects of Attention, by contenting themselves with the Information of a single Authority, and even that perhaps not the most respectable.

But neither Redundance nor Defect, neither Prejudice nor Inaccuracy, are the only Faults conspicuous in Works of this Kind. The Arrangement is often no less confused and desultory than the Materials are frivolous, if not likewise liable to Refutation. Add to which, that the most unimportant Circumstances frequently form the chief Subject of the Narrative, while the Government of the various Nations, their Polity and commercial Interests, as not being so obvious to Inquiry, are passed over with very little Notice, or at least so imperfectly treated, as to afford only faint and unsatisfactory Information. From these Circumstances the great End of Observation is almost entirely frustrated, and the Relations of Travellers and Voyagers, from being rendered a valuable Miscellany of Instruction and Entertainment, are degraded to Vehicles of inaccurate Description, unauthentic Intelligence, and useless and impertinent Detail.

To lay before the Public a Work free from these Objections, is the Object of the *New UNIVERSAL TRAVELLER*, the Publication of which might have commenced two Years ago, and thereby have anticipated the several Productions of the Kind which have appeared in that Time; but the Intention of the Editor being to render it superior to all others, he was desirous to avail himself of the Information of some Travellers whose Narratives were then preparing for the Press. From these Publications he has been enabled to give a fuller Account of the Northern Countries in particular, than any preceding Writer could obtain; and he has also, during that Interval, greatly enlarged his Fund of Observations, respecting the other Parts of the World, upon Authorities of the highest Credit in regard both to Veracity and Judgment.

Upon the Whole, if the most extensive, the most curious, and the most interesting Information, relative either to Foreign Countries or the Dominions of Great Britain, in the various Departments of elegant and ornamental, or of solid and useful Knowledge, can recommend any Work to the particular Attention of the Public, the *UNIVERSAL TRAVELLER*, it is presumed, will be admitted to have an unquestionable Claim to their Approbation.

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