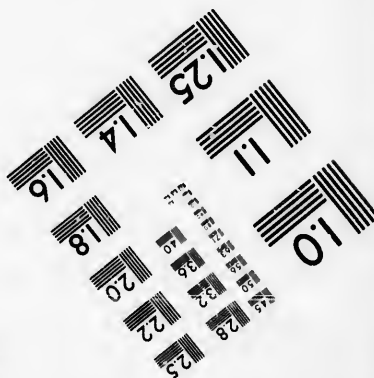
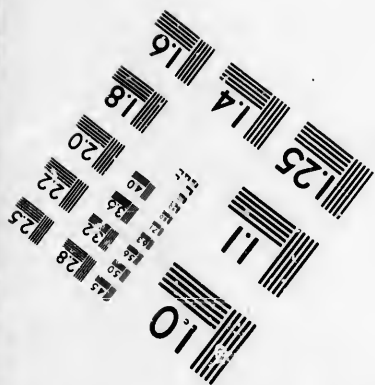
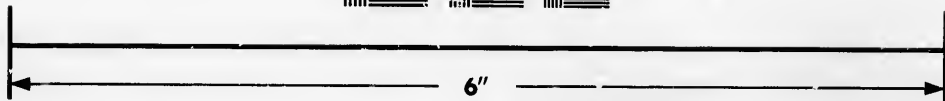
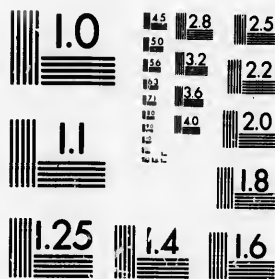


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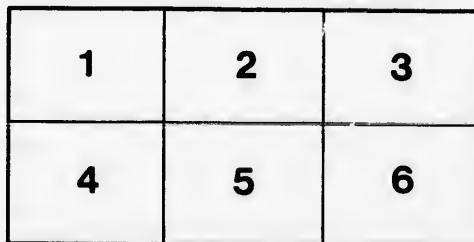
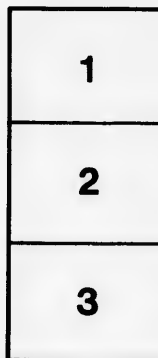
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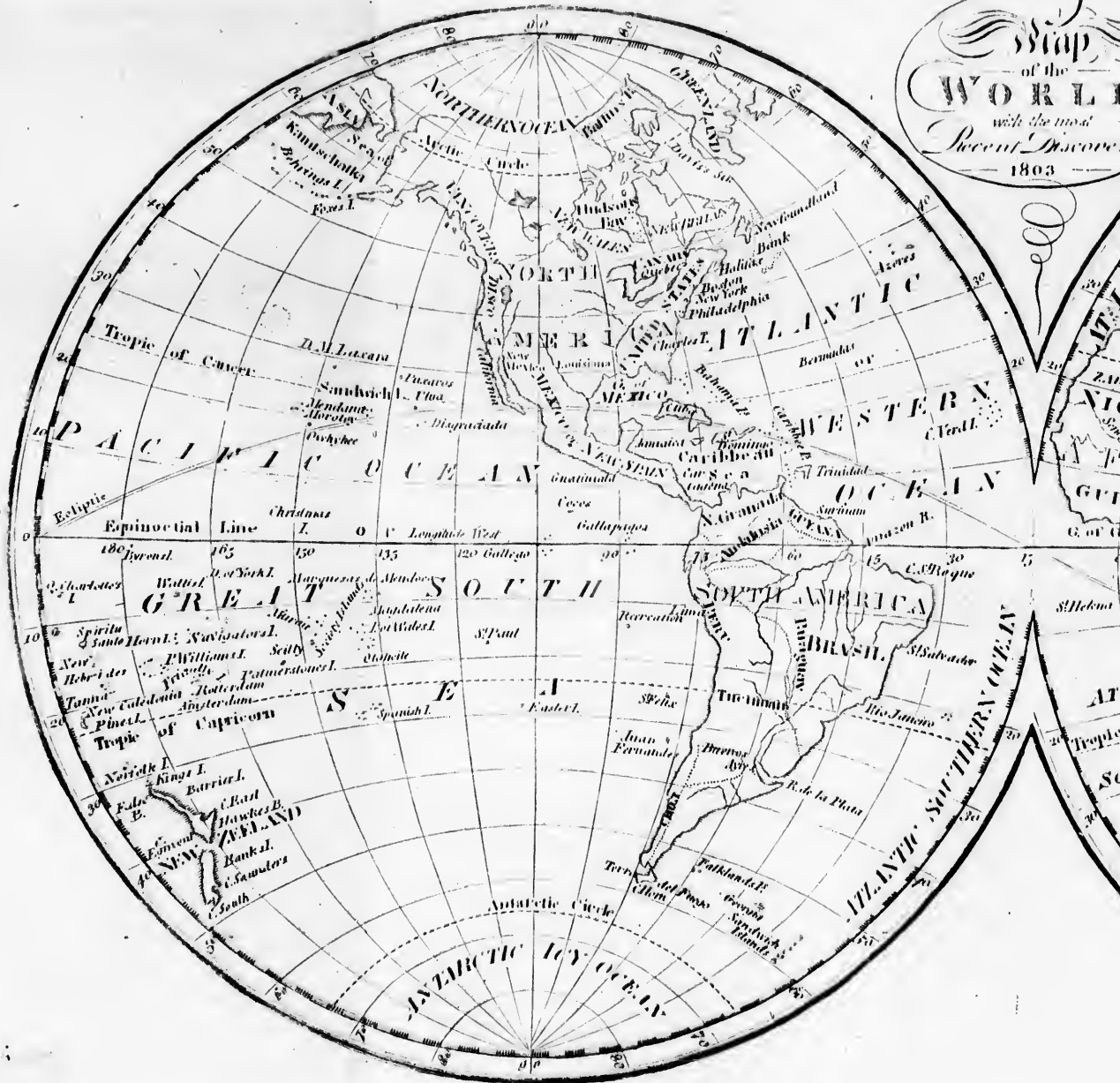
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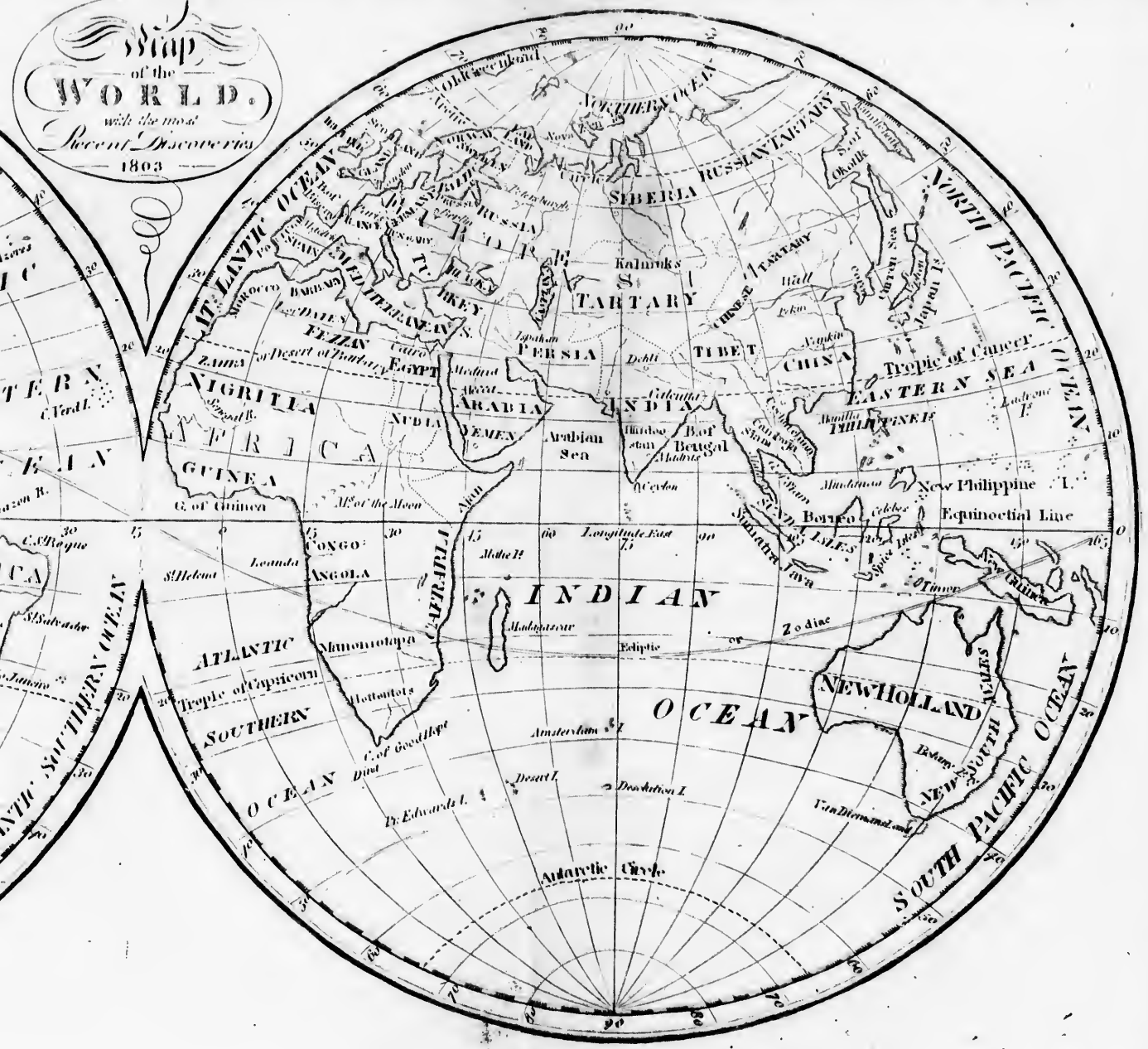
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## *District of Pennsylvania, to wit:*

BE IT REMEMBERED, that on the fourth day of September in the Twenty-ninth year of the Independence of the United States of America, A. D. 1804. Jacob Johnson of the said District has deposited in this Office the Title of a Book the right whereof he claims as Proprietor in the words following to wit :

“ A New System of Modern Geography, or a General Description of  
“ the most remarkable countries throughout the known world. Their  
“ respective situations, extents, divisions, cities, rivers, mountains,  
“ soils, and productions; their commerce, manners, customs, laws, and  
“ religion; together with their principal historical events, and political  
“ importance in the great commonwealth of nations. Compiled from the  
“ most modern systems of Geography, and the latest Voyages and Tra-  
“ vels, and containing many important additions to the Geography of  
“ the United States that have never appeared in any other work of the  
“ kind. Illustrated with eight Maps, comprising the latest discoveries,  
“ and engraved by the first American Artists. By Benjamin Davies.”

In conformity to the Act of the Congress of the United States, intituled “An Act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of Maps, Charts, and Books to the authors and proprietors of such copies during the times therein mentioned.” And also to the Act entitled “An Act supplementary to an Act entitled “An Act for the encouragement of learning by securing the copies of Maps, Charts, and Books to the authors and proprietors of such copies during the times therein mentioned,” and extending the benefits thereof to the Arts of designing, engraving, and etching, historical and other prints.

D. CALDWELL,  
*Clerk of the District  
of Pennsylvania.*

## P R E F A C E.

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TO recommend the study of GEOGRAPHY, or a knowledge of the terraqueous globe, to the inquisitive and enlightened citizens of the United States would be trite and useless. What has been sanctioned by the approval of literary men in every other country, has in this deservedly become the subject of general cultivation. All that seems to be required of the Editor, is briefly to premise a few remarks on the treatise now offered to the public, with the reasons that induced him to undertake the compilation.

Observing a frequent demand in the book-shops for a system of Geography, more instructive and entertaining than the dry epitomes used in the schools, as elementary books, and yet less voluminous and expensive than Pinkerton's, Guthrie's, or Walker's Geographical Grammars, the Editor thought that such a treatise might be compiled by judicious extracts from these, with the help of Modern Travels and Voyages. Something more too might be introduced, in describing our own country, its moral and physical state, than is to be found in those volumes, without encroaching on the right, or swelling the treatise to the size, of Morse's American Geography.

To accomplish this intention Pinkerton's abridgement has been recurred to, principally, in detailing the Geography of foreign countries; with the introduction of a few interesting articles which more recent publica-

tions have furnished. This seemed necessary to accommodate the work to the existing state of Europe and Asia, those leading parts of the system with which we now entertain such frequent commercial intercourse. In arranging the materials before us, the perspicuous order of Pinkerton has been adhered to, as closely as the nature of our task would permit.

The freedom that has been indulged, in discriminating the various constitutions of the American states, and the characters of their inhabitants, will perhaps be esteemed rather assuming by some readers; but as truth and justice has been uniformly our rule, as well as independence of judgment, we presume the number will be but small, and that those few will perhaps see cause to change their opinions. But should any material errors be discovered by readers which they will be so obliging as to communicate, in the topography or constitutions of any of the states, or the character of the people, they shall be rectified in the next impression of the work, and the communication will be accepted with grateful sensibility.

In compliance with our engagements to the subscribers, the volume will be preceded by an Alphabetical Catalogue of the most common names of Ancient Geography, explained by the modern appellations of the same places—which can hardly fail to be acceptable to the readers of ancient history, as it is not to be met with in any modern system that we have seen.

Those of our subscribers who have been displeased with the delay that has occurred in this publication, will, we hope, be disposed to pardon us, when they are informed that it has been occasioned, in a great measure, by the increased size of the work; which contains at least one hundred and fifty pages more than was promised or expected when our Prospectus was published.

INT

EUR

ASIA

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*Acberon**Actium**Acrocer**Adriatic**Albion,**Alleman**Allobrog**Ammon**Angles,**na**Arcadia**Armorica**Armenia**Arbela,**Pe**Assyria,**Atbos, a**Atlantis,**Auronia,**Babylon,**Bactrian**Baleares**Batavia,**Belgium,**Bitbynia,**Boristhen**Bosphoru**Byzantin*

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THE

*Common Names of Ancient Geography,*

Explained by the synonymous modern names, and  
arranged in alphabetical order.

A.

- Acheron*, a river in Albania, now called Velechi.  
*Actium*, capital of Livadia, now called Figala.  
*Acroceraunæ*, mountains in Albania, now mount Chimera.  
*Adriatic Sea*, now gulf of Venice.  
*Albion*, now England.  
*Allemania*, now Franconia and Suabia.  
*Allobroges*, now Savoy and Dauphiné.  
*Ammon*, now Barca in Africa.  
*Angles*, ancient inhabitants of Holstein, the progenitors of the English nation.  
*Arcadia*, now a part of Zaconia in Morea.  
*Armorica*, now the province of Bretagne in France.  
*Armenia Major*, now Turcomania, in Asia.  
*Arbela*, a place in Diarbeck, where Alexander routed Darius king of Persia.  
*Assyria*, a part of modern Persia and Diarbeck.  
*Atbos*, a famous mountain of Macedonia, now Monte Santo.  
*Atlantis*, supposed by some to be America.  
*Ausonia*, now Terra di Laboro, in Apulia.

B.

- Babylon*, now Bagdad, the capital of Diarbeck.  
*Bactriana*, now Zagati, or Usbecks, a province on the borders of Persia.  
*Baleares*, now the islands of Majorca, Minorca, and Ivica.  
*Batavia*, now Holland.  
*Belgium*, now Flanders.  
*Bitynia*, now Becsangil in Natolia.  
*Boristhenes*, now the river Dnieper, in Russia.  
*Bosphorus Thraciæ*, now the straits of Constantinople.  
*Byzantium*, now Constantinople.

*Betica*, part of Spain, now containing Granada, Andalusia, part of Castile and Estramadura.

*Brigantes*, inhabitants of Yorkshire, Lancashire, Durham, Westmoreland and Cumberland. (O. E.)

## C.

*Campania*, now part of Calabria, in the kingdom of Naples.

*Canna*, in the province of Bari in the kingdom of Naples, famous for the destruction of a Roman army by Hannibal.

*Cantabria*, now Biscay and Asturias.

*Cappadocia*, now Amasia, in Natolia.

*Carthago*, now ruins, about nine miles from Tunis, in Barbary.

*Caspianæ Januæ*, famous mountain in Persia, near the Caspian sea.

*Caucasus*, part of Mount Taurus, between the Black and the Caspian seas.

*Cibalæ*, now Negropont, or the capital of that island.

*Cattuellani*, people of Buckingham, Bedford, and Hertfordshire. (O. E.)

*Casaraugusta*, a town of Spain, now Saragossa.

*Cbersonesæ (Cimbriæ)* now Jutland.

*Cbersonesæ (Tauricæ)* now Crimea.

*Cyclades*, islands of the Archipelago.

*Cilicia*, now Caramania, in Natolia.

*Cimbri*, the inhabitants of Jutland.

*Complutum*, now Alcalá de Henares, in Spain.

*Clusium*, a town of Tuscany, now in ruins.

*Colchides*, now Mingrelia and Georgia, in Asia.

*Corcyrum*, now Corfu, an island off the coast of Albania.

*Creta*, now Candia, an island, at the entrance of the Archipelago.

## D.

*Dacia*, now part of Upper Hungary, of Transylvania, Vallachia and Moldavia.

*Delphos*, now Castria, in Livadia or Achaia.

*Delos*, now Scille, an island of the Archipelago.

## E.

*Ecbatana*, now Tauris, a large city in Persia.

*Eleusis*, now Lospina, a town near the Egean sea, famous for the temple of Ceres.

*Elides*, that part of Morea, now called Belvedere.

*Emathia*, a part of Macedonia.

*Ethiopia*, now Abyssinia, and Nubia.

*Etolia*, a part of Livadia, in Greece.

*Etruria*, now Tuscany.

*Eubæa*, now the island of Negropont, in Turkey.

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*Hannoni*  
*Helicon*,

*Hellespont*  
*Helvetii*,  
*Herules*,

*Hesperid*  
Spa

*Hircania*  
*Hirpini*,  
*Hispania*,

*Euphrates*, now Frat, a famous river of Asia, on which once stood the city of Babylon.

*Euripus*, an arm of the sea, between Negropont and Livadia.

F.

*Falérna*, a mountain in the kingdom of Naples, now Monte Massico, once famous for its grapes.

G.

*Galatia*, now Chiangara, a province of Natolia.

*Gallia*, now France and Lombardy, divided into Cisalpine and Transalpine, as it was more or less distant from Rome.

*Gallia Cisalpina*, now Lombardy, was divided into Transpadana and Cispadana, as it was on one or the other side of the river Po, in respect of Rome. Cispadana was called also Togata, on account of the toga, or long gown worn by the inhabitants.

*Gallia Transalpina*, was likewise divided into two parts, one called Comata, on account of the long hair of the inhabitants, comprising the Lionese, part of Normandy, the Isle of France, the Orleannois, Touraine, Maine, Bretagne, Franche Compté and all its dependencies, Guienne, Gascoigne, Roussillon, Triers, Spire, Worms, Strasbourg, Mentz, Toul, Verdun, and all the country between the Sein, the Maese, and the Rhine, from Coblenz down to the sea; the other called Braccata, on account of the Bracca, a sort of breeches worn in that country, comprehending Languedoc, Provence, Dauphiné and Savoy.

*Gades*, now Cadiz, a city of Spain.

*Garamantes*, now Zara, or Nigritia, in Africa.

*Gennabium*, now Orleans, a city of France.

*Getes*, people of Moldavia and Vallachia.

*Gnosse*, now Candia.

*Getulia*, now Bildulgerid in Africa.

*Granicus*, now Lazzara, a river of Natolia, famous for a victory obtained by Alexander over Darius, near its banks.

*Græcia Magna*, now the south part of Italy.

H.

*Halicarnassus*, now Tobia, a city of Caramania.

*Hannonia*, now Hainault in Flanders.

*Helicon*, now Zagara, a mountain of Livadia.

*Hellespontus*, now the straits of Dardanelles.

*Helvetii*, the inhabitants of Switzerland.

*Herules*, a people in the north of Germany.

*Hesperides*, a name given by the Greeks to Italy, and by the Italians to Spain.

*Hircania*, now Tarabistan, a province of Persia.

*Hirpini*, a people settled in a part of the kingdom of Naples

*Hispalis*, now Seville, a town of Spain.



## I.

- Iberia*, now Spain.  
*Idumea*, a small country between Judea, Egypt, and Arabia.  
*Illyria*, now Slavonia, Dalmatia, and Croatia.  
*Insubria*, now part of Lombardy, towards Como.  
*Ionian sea*, washes the western shore of Greece up to the gulf of Venice.  
*Iturea*, a small country, along the river Jordan, opposite Tyrus.  
*Itius portus*, now Boulogne, a sea port of France, the rendezvous of gun-boats intended for invasion of England.

## L.

- Lacedemon*, or *Sparta*, now Misitra, a city of Morea.  
*Laconia*, the country of which Sparta was the capital.  
*Laodicea*, now Licha, or Ladikia in Syria, about seven leagues from Antioch.  
*Latium*, now Campania di Roma.  
*Laurentum*, now San Lorenzo, in Campania di Roma.  
*Lemnes*, now Stalimene, 7 islands of the Archipelago.  
*Lesbos*, now Mitilene, 5 islands of the Archipelago.  
*Lybia*, now Nigritia and Farca.  
*Liburnia*, a part of Dalmatia and Croatia.  
*Licaonia*, now the district of Cogni in Natolia.  
*Liguria*, now the Republic of Genoa.  
*Loerin*, the lake of Averno, in the kingdom of Naples.  
*Lothbartingia*, the duchy of Lorraine.  
*Lucania*, now the Basilicate, in the kingdom of Naples.  
*Lusitania*, now Portugal.  
*Lutetia*, now Paris, the capital of France.

## M.

- Marathon*, now a village of Livadia, where the Greeks routed the Persians.  
*Massagetes*, now Turquestan, in Asia.  
*Marcomanni*, peopled the country which lies in the south-west of Bohemia.  
*Mauritania*, now Algiers, Tunis, Fez and Morocco.  
*Media*, now part of Persia, towards Aderbeitzan.  
*Meander*, now Mandre, a river of Natolia.  
*Melita*, now Malta, an island in the Mediterranean.  
*Mempbis*, now Grand Cairo, the capital of Egypt.  
*Mesopotamia*, now Diarbeck, in Asia.  
*Miletus*, now Palatcha, in Anatolia, a town of ancient Ionia famous for its fine wool.  
*Masia*, now Servia and Bulgaria, in Europe.  
*Miscenia*, now St. Adrian, a town of Morea, near Corinth.  
*Moguntia*, now the city of Mentz, in Germany.

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*Monabia* now the Isle of Man.  
*Mona*, now Anglesea, in Wa'es.

N.

*Nicomedia*, a city of Natolia, formerly the capital of Bythia and destroyed by an earthquake in 356.

*Niniveb*, now a heap of ruins, near the city of Mosul on the river Tigris.

*Noricum*, now part of Austria, Styria, Carinthia and Bavaria.

*Numantia*, now Garrai, upon the Duro, a city of Spain.

*Numidia*, now Biledulgerid, in Africa.

O.

*Olympus*, a mount in Thessaly, near the gulf of Thessalonica.

*Olympia*, now Longanico, in Morea, where the Olympic games were celebrated.

*Orcbades*, now the Isles of Orkney.

*Orontes*, now Oronz, or Tarfar, a river of Natolia in Asia.

P.

*Padus*, now Po, a river of Italy.

*Pannonia*, now part of Styria, Carniola, Carinthia, Hungary and Bosnia.

*Parthenope*, now Naples, in Italy.

*Partbia*, now Arac, in Asia.

*Peloponnesus*, now Morea, part of Turkey in Europe.

*Pelusium*, near the ruins of which stands Damietta, in Egypt.

*Phenicia*, now a part of Suria, or Syria, in Asia.

*Piccnium*, now Ancona, in Italy.

*Pontus*, now part of Aladulia, in Natolia.

*Propontis*, now the sea of Marmora.

*Ptolemais*, now St. John D'Atre, in Syria, famous for the defeat of Buonaparte and his eastern army by a handful of English sailors, under Sir Sidney Smith.

R.

*Rbetia*, now the Grisons, as far as Trent.

*Rbodopus*, now Basilissa, a mountain in Romania.

*Rbegium*, now Rezgo, a town in the promontory of Italy that is nearest to Sicily.

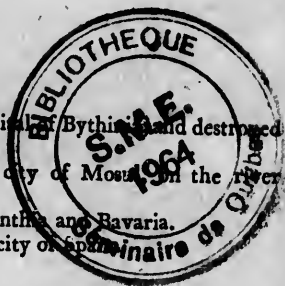
*Rubicon*, now Pisatello, a river that divided Italy from Cisalpine Gaul.

*Rutuli*, inhabitants of the country now Campania di Roma.

S.

*Saba*, now Zibit, the metropolis of Arabia Fœlix.

*Saguntum*, now Morvedro, a city of Valcacia, in Spain.



- Samnites*, inhabitants of the country now called Capitanate in Italy.  
*Sarmatia*, now Poland, Muscovy and part of Tatarry.  
*Sinus Adriaticus*, now the gulf of Venice.  
*Suenones*, ancient inhabitants of Sweden.  
*Scandinavia*, now Denmark, Norway and Sweden.  
*Scythia*, an extensive region, now Tatarry.  
*Seguani*, inhabitants of Burgogne, or Franche Comté.  
*Sicambria*, part of Germany near to where the Main unites with the Rhine.  
*Sidon*, now Said in Syria.  
*Sogdiana*, now a part of Tatarry, bordering on Persia.  
*Styx*, a fountain in Morea, the water of which is extremely cold.  
*Suevia*, now Swabia, in Germany.

## T.

- Tanais*, now the Don, a river that divides Europe and Asia.  
*Thebes*, now Stives, a city of Livadia, in Turkey.  
*Thracia*, now Romania.  
*Trinacria*, now the island of Sicily.  
*Tyrrbene sea*, now the sea of Tuscany.  
*Tyrus*, now Sur, in Syria.

## V.

- Vandalia*, now that part of Germany which lies along the Baltick.  
*Vindelici*, now a country between the Danube, the Inn, and the Alps.  
*Volsci*, inhabitants of Calabria, in the south of Italy.  
*Vindobona*, now Vienna, capital of Austria.

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## INTRODUCTION.

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**A**MONG all the liberal arts and sciences that are taught in schools, there is not one, perhaps, that has more to recommend it to general cultivation than GEOGRAPHY, or a knowledge of the globe we inhabit.

To understand the theory of this science, with as much of Astronomy as respects the annual revolution of our planet round the sun, and its diurnal motion on its own axis; to be acquainted with its component parts; its various inhabitants; its physical and political divisions; is a delightful study, considered only as a subject of amusement.

But if we take into view the utility of the science, when applied to the purposes of navigation and commerce—with the knowledge it unfolds of the laws, religions, manners, customs, arts, and improvements of our fellow-men, in all their various dispersions, and the tendency it has to remove local prejudices, and to render the families of the earth more useful to one-another, it will be esteemed as one of the most useful branches of a liberal education.

To have a perfect comprehension of GEOGRAPHY, it is necessary to begin the work with a summary view of Astronomy, as far at least as a knowledge of one is proper to render the other plain and intelligible.

Of all the heavenly bodies that fall under our observation, the most conspicuous is that glorious luminary, the sun, the fountain of light and heat to the several planets which move round it, and which together with it form what is called the solar system. The path by which the planets move round the sun, is called their orbit; and it is now

fully proved by Astronomers, that there are seven planets that revolve round it, each in its own orbit. The names of these, in the order of their approximation to the centre of the sun, are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus. The two first, because they are nearer the sun, and move within the earth, are called *interior* planets, and the four last, because they move without the orbit of the earth, are called *exterior* planets. To assist the memory, and form an idea of the proportional distance of each planet from the sun; if the greatest extent of the Georgium Sidus from the sun were divided into 190 parts, the proportional distance of the rest of the orbits would be: Mercury 5, Venus 7, Earth 10, Mars 15, Jupiter 52, and Saturn 95. We shall only consider the two-fold motion of the Earth, or the planet on which we live.

The spherical figure of the Earth being fully proved by the voyages of many navigators who have sailed round it, as well as by many other well known facts, the hypothesis of its motion is evidently rendered the more probable. For if it move not round the sun, not only the sun, but all the stars and planets, must move round the Earth, with a velocity that exceeds all conception: whereas all the appearances in nature may be easily explained by imagining the earth to move round the sun in the space of one year, and to revolve on its own axis once in 24 hours.

To form a conception of these two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a billiard-table, or a bowling-green: the ball proceeds forward upon the green or table, not by sliding along like a plane upon wood, but by turning round its own axis, an imaginary line drawn through its centre, and ending on its surface. The earth, in twenty-four hours, revolves from west to east, while the inhabitants on the surface may conceive that the sun and stars move from east to west; like men on the deck of a ship, who are insensible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them, in a contrary direction. This diurnal motion of the earth clearly conceived, will enable us more easily to comprehend its annual motion round the sun. For as that lu-

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inary seems to have a diurnal motion round the earth, which is really occasioned by the diurnal motion of the latter round its own axis, so, in the course of the year, he seems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to rise and set in different points, which is really caused by the annual motion of the earth, in its orbit round the sun, which it completes in the space of one year....As to the first of these motions we owe the succession of days and nights, so, to the second we are indebted for the seasons of the year, and the difference in the length of days and nights.

But it is necessary to observe that the axis of the earth is not exactly parallel to, or in a line with, the axis of its orbit; because then the same parts of the earth would be turned toward the sun in every diurnal revolution, which would deprive mankind of the grateful vicissitudes of the seasons, arising from the difference in the length of days and nights. This is therefore not the case:....In the earth's whole annual course round the sun, its axis is  $23\frac{1}{2}$  degrees inclined from a perpendicular to its orbit.... Of this we may conceive some idea, by supposing a spindle put through a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball forward, while one end of the spindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards some quarter of the heavens, we may form an idea of the inclination of the earth's axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the spindle to the ground; and, of course, may comprehend the cause of the vicissitude of the seasons, and of the difference in the length of the days and nights.

## OF THE GLOBE.

By the globe is meant a representation of the different places and countries on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball. Geographers have represented the situation of one place with regard to another, or with regard to the earth itself, by certain artificial circles. After that circle in the heavens, which is called the equator, was known to astronomers, nothing was more easy than to transfer it to the earth, by which the situation of places was determined, as they lay on one side of the

equator or the other. The reader having obtained a clear idea of this leading principle, we may proceed to consider the description of our earth, as represented by the artificial globe.

**FIGURE OF THE EARTH.** Though in speaking of the earth with the other planets, it may be sufficient to consider it as a spherical, or globular body, yet Sir Isaac Newton has demonstrated, from mathematical principles, that it is an *oblate spheroid*, or that it is flatted at the poles, and jutted out towards the equator....and he computed the difference to be in the ratio of 229 to 230... The reason of this may be easily understood by a familiar proof. If a ball of soft clay be fixed on a spindle, and whirled round, we shall find it will jut out, or project toward the middle, and flatten towards the poles.

**CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH.** According to the best observations, the diameter of the earth has been computed to be 7,990 miles, and its circumference 25,038 miles, English measure. This circumference is conceived, for the conveniency of measuring, to be divided into 360 parts, or degrees, each degree containing 60 geographical miles, or  $69\frac{1}{2}$  English miles. These degrees are subdivided; each degree into 60 minutes, and each minute into 60 seconds, and are marked thus  $d^{\circ}$ .  $m'$ .  $s''$ . in geographical calculations.

**AXIS OF THE EARTH.** The axis of the earth is that imaginary line, passing through its centre, on which it is supposed to revolve once in 24 hours. The extreme points of this line are called the poles, one in the North, and the other in the South, and are of great use in determining the distance, and situation of places, as they approach to, or recede from, the equator.

**CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE.** These are commonly divided into *greater*, six in number, and *lesser*, which are only four. The former pass through the centre of the earth, and divide it into two equal parts or hemispheres; the latter are parallel to the greater, but cannot pass through the centre, or divide the earth into two equal parts.

**EQUATOR.** The first great circle is the equator, or equinoctial line; because the sun, when moving in it,

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makes the days and nights of equal length, all over the world. It passes through the east and west points of the globe, and divides it into northern and southern hemispheres, and is itself divided into 360 degrees.

**HORIZON.** This great circle is represented on the globe, by a broad circular piece of wood encompassing the globe, and dividing it into *upper* and *lower* hemispheres. It is distinguished also into *sensible* and *rational*. The first is that which bounds the utmost prospect of our sight, when we view the heavens around us, and determines the rising or setting of the sun and stars, in any particular place. The second encompasses the globe exactly in the middle, and its poles are called the *zenith* and *nadir*; the former exactly over our heads, and the latter under our feet.—The broad wooden circle on the terrestrial globe that represents the horizon has several circles drawn upon it, exhibiting the signs of the zodiac, the number of degrees in each, and the days of the month, &c.

**MERIDIAN.** This circle is represented by the brass ring on which the globe hangs and turns: it cuts the equator at right angles, is divided into 360 degrees, and serves to divide the earth into eastern and western hemispheres. It is called the *meridian*, because when the sun comes to the south part of it, he has reached his meridian altitude, and it is then *meridies*, or mid-day.—There are commonly marked on the globe 24 meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

**ZODIAC.** The Zodiac is a *broad circle*, which cuts the equator obliquely; in which the twelve signs are represented. In the middle of this circle, is supposed another called the *ecliptic*, in which the sun never deviates in his annual course, advancing 30 degrees in every month.—The twelve signs are,

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



**COLURES.** If we imagine two great circles, both passing through the poles of the world; one of them through the equinoctial points aries and libra, and the other through the solstitial points cancer and capricorn, we have an idea of the colures....the one is called the equinoctial, the other the solstitial colure.—These are all the *great circles*.

**TROPICS.** These are two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, distant from it  $23\frac{1}{2}$  degrees: one towards the north, called the tropic of cancer, the other towards the south, called the tropic of capricorn.

**POLAR CIRCLES.** If two other circles are supposed to be drawn at the same distance of  $23\frac{1}{2}$  degrees from the polar points, these are called the polar circles. The northern is called the *arctic*, and the southern the *ant-arctic*....These are the four lesser circles.

**ZONE.** The Zones are 5 in number: the torrid zone, or that portion of the earth lying between the tropics, which by the ancients was erroneously supposed to be uninhabitable, on account of its heat....two temperate, or that portion comprised between the tropics and the polar circles—and two frigid, that are inclosed within the polar circles and the poles, and are the most unfit for human habitation of any part of the earth.

**CLIMATES.** These are certain divisions of the earth, determined by the various lengths of the day; and there are 30 of them between the equator and either pole. In the first 24, the days increase by half hours: and in the remaining six, which lie between the polar circle and the pole, the days increase by months. Georgia, and the Carolinas are comprised within the 5th climate, and the longest day about 14h. 30m.; the middle states within the 6th, longest day about 15h. New York and the eastern states within the 7th, the longest day about 15h. 30m.

**LATITUDE.** The latitude of any place is its distance from the equator, either north or south, but can never exceed 90 degrees either way, as such is the distance from the equator to either pole.

**PARALLELS OF LATITUDE.** These are imaginary circles, parallel with the equator which are drawn to in-

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intersect the meridian of any place, and to designate its true situation.

**LONGITUDE.** The longitude of any place is its situation with regard to the first meridian, reckoned toward the east or west. Modern globes and maps fix the first meridian in the capital city where they are made. In England, the first meridian is fixed at London or Greenwich; in France, at Paris; and in the United States, at Philadelphia. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude. The degrees of longitude are not equal like those of latitude, but diminish as the meridians approach the poles. Hence, in sixty degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree at the equator, and so of the rest.

PROBLEMS PERFORMED ON THE GLOBE.

1. *To find the Latitude of a place.*

Bring the place under that semicircle of the brazen meridian where the divisions begin at the equator, and observe what degree the place is under, and it is the latitude required.

2. *To rectify the Globe to the Latitude of a place.*

Elevate the pole above the horizon till its altitude, observed on the brazen meridian, be equal to the latitude of the place, and it is then said to be rectified to the latitude, and it so far stands right for the solution of all problems for that latitude.

3. *To find the Longitude of a place from Philadelphia.*

Bring the place to the graduated edge of the brazen meridian, and observe the point of the equator which lies under it, and the distance of that point from the point where the meridian of Philadelphia cuts the equator, is the longitude required.

4. *Given the Latitude and Longitude of a place, to find where the place is.*

Bring the given degree of longitude to the brazen meridian, and then under the given degree of latitude upon that meridian, you have the place required.

5. *When it is noon at any place A, to find the hour at any other place B.*

Bring A to the meridian, and set the index to XII; then turn the globe till B comes under the meridian, and the index will shew the hour at B. If it be not noon at A, set the index to the hour, and proceed as before, and you get the corresponding hour at B.

6. *To find the distance of A from B.*

Bring A to the meridian, and screw the quadrant of altitude over it, and carry it to B, and you get the number of degrees between A and B, which multiply by 69,2, the miles in one degree, and you get the distance required.

7. *To find the bearing of B from A.*

Rectify the globe for the latitude of A, and bring A to the meridian, and fix the quadrant of altitude to A; then direct the quadrant to B, and the point where it cuts the horizon shews the bearing required.

8. *At an hour of the day at B, to find the place A, to which the Sun is vertical.*

Find the sun's place in the ecliptic, and bring it to the brazen meridian, and you find its declination on the meridian; then bring B to the meridian, and set the index to the given hour, and turn the globe till the index comes to XII at noon, and the place under the sun's declination upon the meridian is that required.

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9. *To know the length of the day and night at any place at any time of the year.*

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

10. *To explain, in general, the alteration of the lengths of the days, and the difference of the seasons.*

Put patches upon the ecliptic from aries both ways to the tropics, and let them represent so many different situations of the sun; and then, the globe being rectified to the latitude of the place (by art. 2), turn it about and you will see, for north latitude, that as the patches approach the tropic of cancer, the corresponding diurnal arcs will increase; and as the patches approach the tropic of capricorn, the diurnal arcs will decrease; also, the former arcs are greater than a semicircle, and the latter less; and the patch in the equator will describe a semicircle above the horizon. When therefore the sun is in the equator, the days and nights are equal; as he advances towards the tropic of cancer, the days increase, and the nights decrease, till he comes to the tropic, where the days are found to be longest, and the nights shortest; then as he approaches the equator, the length of the days diminishes, and that of the nights increases, and when the sun comes to the equator, the length of the days and nights is equal. Then as he advances towards capricorn, the days continue to diminish and the nights increase till he comes to that tropic, where the days are shortest and the nights are longest; and then as he approaches the equator, the days increase and the nights diminish; and when he comes to the equator, the days and nights are

equal. And whatever be the latitude, when the sun is in the equator, days and nights are equal. To an inhabitant at the pole, the sun will appear to be half a year above the horizon, and half a year below. To an inhabitant at the equator, the days and nights will appear to be always equal; also, all the heavenly bodies will be found to be as long above the horizon as below. At the arctic circle, the longest day will be found to be 24 hours, and the longest night 24 hours; this appears by rectifying the globe to that latitude, and observing the patches at the tropics of cancer and of capricorn. Lastly, it will be found that all places enjoy equally the sun in respect to time, and are equally deprived of it; the length of the days at one time of the year being found exactly equal to the length of the nights at the opposite season. This appears by putting patches upon the ecliptic, at opposite points of it.

11. *To find at any Day and Hour, the Places where the Sun is rising, setting, or on the Meridian; also, those Places which are enlighten'd, and where the Twilight is beginning and ending.*

Find (by art. 8) the place to which the sun is vertical at the given hour, and bring the same to the meridian, and rectify the globe to a latitude equal to the sun's declination. Then to all those places under the *western* semicircle of the horizon, the sun is *rising*; to those under the *eastern* semicircle, the sun is *setting*; and to those under the *meridian* it is *noon*.

Also, all places above the horizon are enlighten'd, and all those below are in the dark hemisphere.

Lastly, in all those places  $18^\circ$  below the western horizon, the twilight is just beginning in the morning, and in those  $18^\circ$  below the eastern horizon, is just ending in the evening.

12. *To find all the Places to which a Lunar Eclipse is visible at any Instant.*

Find the place to which the sun is vertical at any time, and bring that place to the zenith, and the eclipse will be

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visible to all the hemisphere *under* the horizon, because the moon is then opposite to the sun:

#### ON THE DIVISIONS OF THE SURFACE OF THE EARTH.

1. The surface of the earth contains *land* and *water*. The great collection of water is called the *sea*, or the *ocean*; and this is divided into three principal parts; the *Atlantic Ocean*, which divides *Europe* and *Africa* from *America*; the *Pacific Ocean*, or *great South Sea*, which divides *Asia* from *America*; and the *Indian Sea*, which lies between *Africa* and *Malacca*, *Sumatra*, *Java*, *New Holland*, &c. Besides these, there are others which take their names from the countries against which they are situated: as the *Irish Sea*, the *German Sea*. There is also the *Mediterranean Sea*, dividing *Europe* from *Africa*; the *Black Sea*; the *Caspian Sea*, which is not connected with the other Seas; the *Red Sea*, &c. &c.

2. A *bay*, or *gulf*, is a part of the sea running into the land, so as to have a considerable proportion of it, more or less according to circumstances, bounded by shores; as the bay of *Biscay*, the bay of *Bengal*, *Hudson's bay*, *Cardigan bay*; the gulf of *Venice*, the gulf of *Mexico*, the gulf of *Japan*, &c. &c. If the extent into the land be but small, it is called a *creek*, a *haven*, or a *road*.

3. A *strait*, or *straight*, is a narrow part of the sea running between two countries, and connecting two seas; as the straits of *Dover*, the straits of *Gibraltar*, the straits of *Sunda*, the straits of *Magellan*, &c. &c.

4. A considerable body of inland fresh water is called a *lake*; as the lake of *Geneva*, lake *Ontario*, lake of *Derwent*, &c. &c.

5. A considerable stream of inland water which runs to the sea, is called a *river*; and smaller streams which run into a river, are called *brooks*.

6. A *current* is a stream of water upon the sea. Under the equator there are some very violent ones, against which a ship cannot make any way. There is one which carries a ship very swiftly from *Africa* to *America*, but cannot return the same way. Governor Pownall ob-

serves that this current performs a continual circulation, setting out from the coast of *Guinea*, crossing over the *Atlantic*, setting into the gulf of *Mexico* by the south, and sweeping round by the bottom of the gulf, it issues on the north side, and goes along the coast of *North America* till it arrives at *Newfoundland*, where it is turned back across the Atlantic to the coast of Europe, and thence southward to the point from which it sets out.— In *St. George's Channel* there is a current which usually sets in eastward. From the *Baltic* a current sets into the *British Channel*. It is generally allowed, that there is always a current setting round the Capes of Finisterre and Ortegual into the bay of Biscay; and Mr. RENNELL has discovered that this current is continued, and passes about N. W. by W. from the coast of France, to the westward of Scilly and Ireland. In crossing the Atlantic therefore for the English Channel, he advises the navigator to keep in the parallel of  $48^{\circ} 45'$ , at the highest, lest the current should carry him upon the rocks of Scilly. From an ignorance of this current, many ships have been lost on those rocks.

7. A very great extent of land is called a *continent*, of which there are two; one contains *Europe*, *Asia*, and *Africa*; and the other contains *America*; and these are called the four quarters of the world; the former is called the *Eastern*, and the latter the *Western* continent.

8. A small extent of land surrounded by the sea, is called an *Island*.

9. If land run out from the main and be joined to it by a narrow slip—the first is called a *peninsula*, and the latter an *isthmus*.

10. If land jut out into the sea, without an isthmus, it is called a *promontory*, and the point of it is called a *cape*.

MAPS. A map is a representation of the Earth, or a part of it, on a plane surface. It differs from a globe in the same manner as a picture does from a statue. The globe truly represents the earth, whereas a map, being a plane surface, cannot represent a spherical body. The *cardinal points* are the north, south, east and west. The north is considered as the upper part of the map, and the south the bottom; the east is on the right hand, and the

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west on the left. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or *lines of longitude*; and from side to side, *parallels of latitude*. The outermost of the meridians, and parallels, are marked with degrees of latitude and longitude, by means of which, and the scale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the situation, distance, &c. of places may be found, as on the artificial globe.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.  
Agreeably to Dr. Halley's calculations.

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

The Russian Verst is little more than  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an English mile.

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

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

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

The Indian is almost 3 English.

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

The German is more than 4 English.

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

The French common league is near 3 English; and

The English marine league is 3 English miles.



# GEOGRAPHY.

## EUROPE:

AS EUROPE is the seat of letters and arts, and the greatest exertions of mental energy in every department; and is besides the native region of the chief modern geographers, it is generally the region first treated. But before we proceed to consider the several kingdoms and states comprised in this division of the globe, it may be proper to offer a brief and general description of the whole.

**EXTENT.** This part of the globe is smallest in extent, yielding considerably to Africa. From the Portuguese cape, called by our mariners the Rock of Lisbon, in the west, to the Uralian mountains in the east, the length may be about 3,300 British miles; and the breadth from the North Cape in Danish Lapland, to Cape Matapan, the southern extremity of Greece, may be about 2,350. The contents in square miles have been calculated at two millions and a half: the inhabitants 150,000,000.

**LIMITS.** On the south, the continental part, is limited by the Mediterranean sea, on the west by the Atlantic, which contains the furthest European isle that of Iceland, Greenland being regarded as a part of North America. In the opinion of several geographers, the Azores or Western Isles are clearly European, being nearer to Portugal than to any other continental land, while the Madeiras, for the same reason, belong to Africa. On the north, the boundary is the Arctic Ocean, embracing the remote isles of Spitzbergen and Novaya Zemlia, or the New Land. On the east, it is bounded by Asia.

**ANCIENT POPULATION.** The ancient population of Europe consisted of the Celts in the west and south: the Fins in the north-east, and the Laps or Laplanders, in the furthest north. Those ancient inhabitants, who seem to have been thinly scattered, were driven towards the west and north by the Scythians or Goths from Asia, whose descendants occupy the greater part of Europe; by the Sarmatians or Slavonic tribes, also from Asia, the ancestors of the Russians, Poles, &c. and who were

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**EUROPE.**

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accompanied by the Heruli, using what is now called the Lettic speech, to be found in Prussia, Lithuania, Samogitia, Courland, and Livonia, being a-kin to the Slavonic language, yet with many shades of distinction. From Afriou the colony of Iberi, and northern Maurtani, passed into Spain at a very early period. The later accession of Hungarians, and Turks from Asia may likewise be commemorated.

**RELIGION.** The Christian Religion prevails throughout Europe except in Turkey, where however at least one half of the inhabitants are attached to the Greek church. Wherever the Christian faith has penetrated, knowledge, industry, and civilization have followed: among the barbarous tribes in the north the progress was unhappily slow, Scandinavia remaining Pagan till the eleventh century; and some Slavonic tribes on the south of the Baltic till the thirteenth; nay, it is not above a century ago since the Laplanders were converted by missions from Denmark. The two grand distinctions are Catholics and Protestants: the former in the south, where the passions are more warm and the imagination more delighted with splendour; the latter in the north, where the operations of the judgment predominate.

**CLIMATE.** This fair portion of the globe is chiefly situated in the temperate zone: if such distinctions have not vanished from geography since modern discoveries have evinced, that the climate often depends on local causes; that the Alps in a southern latitude present mountains of ice unknown in Lapland; that the torrid zone is a waste of sands with water and habitations, and may perhaps contain mountains covered with snow. Yet freedom from the excessive heats of Asia and Africa has contributed to the vigour of the frame, and the energy of the mind.

**INLAND SEAS.** In a general view of Europe one of the most striking and interesting features is the number and extent of the inland seas; justly regarded as chief causes of the extensive industry and civilization, and consequent superiority to the other grand divisions of the globe. Among inland seas the Mediterranean is justly pre-eminent, having been the centre of civilization to ancient and modern Europe. The columns of Hercules marked its western boundary; being the mountain or

rock of Abyla, now called Ceuta, and Kalpe in Spain, the Gibraltar of modern fame. The length of the Mediterranean is about 2000 miles to its farthest extremity in Syria; but in ancient maps the length has been extended to about 2500 miles. On its northern side open two large gulfs, that of Venice and the Archipelago; the former being the Adriatic, the latter the Egean sea of the ancients. From this last a strait called the Hellespont conducts to the sea of Marmora, the classical Propontis: and another now styled the strait of Constantinople, the ancient Thracian Bosphorus, leads to the Euxine or Black sea; which to the north presents the shallow Palus Mæotis, or sea of Azof, the utmost maritime limit of Europe in that quarter.

The second grand inland sea of Europe is the Baltic, by the Germans called the Eastern sea. This extensive inlet opens from the German sea by a gulf pointing N. E. called the Skager Rack; and afterwards passes south in what is called the Cattegat, to the S. E. of which is the Sound of Elsinore, a strait where vessels pay a tribute of courtesy to Denmark. The Baltic afterwards spreads widely to the N. E. and is divided into two extensive branches called the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, both covered or impeded with ice for four or five months of the northern winter.

The third and last inland sea of Europe is that called the White Sea in the north of Russia.

To the north of Europe is the Arctic ocean, the dismal and solitary reservoir of myriads of miles of ice; yet this enormous waste is in the hand of Providence a fertile field of provisions for the human race. Here the vast battalions of herrings seem to seek a refuge from numerous foes, and to breed their millions in security. About the middle of winter emerging from their retreat they spread in three divisions; one towards the west, which covers the shores of America as far as the Chesapeake and Carolina, while another more minute squadron passes the strait between Asia and America, and visits the coasts of Kamtschatka. The most memorable, the central, division reaches Iceland about the beginning of March, in a close phalanx of surprising depth and such

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extent that the surface is supposed to equal the dimensions of Great Britain and Ireland.

**RIVERS AND MOUNTAINS.** The chief rivers and mountains will be described under the heads of the particular countries to which they belong.

**GOVERNMENTS.** The kingdoms and states of Europe may be considered, 1. As despotic monarchies, as those of Russia and Turkey: 2. Absolute monarchies, as Spain, Denmark, &c. or, 3. Limited monarchies, as the empire of Germany, kingdom of Great Britain, &c. Since the fall of Venice, and the subversion of Switzerland and Holland, scarcely an example occurs of permanent and fixed aristocracy, or the hereditary government of nobles. Of democracy, or more strictly speaking, elective aristocracy, a few cities and some Swiss cantons may preserve a semblance; while France at the present hour is a military despotism, under the assumed name of the *French Empire*, and the ferocious tyranny of a daring usurper.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century the European states comprised in the first order are: 1. The united kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland: 2. France: 3. Russia: 4. The Austrian dominions: 5. Those of Prussia: 6. Spain: 7. Turkey: which last cannot be so justly reduced to the second order; for though perhaps approaching its fall, still it boasts the name and weight of an empire.

Under the second order have been arranged: 1. Holland or the United Provinces now called the Batavian Republic: 2. Denmark: 3. Sweden: 4. Portugal: 5. Switzerland. In the third are considered the chief states of Germany, that labyrinth of geography, and those of Italy. The kingdoms of Sicily and Sardinia might perhaps, if entire and unshaken, aspire to the second order; and an equal station might be claimed by the junctive Electorate Palatine and Bavarian, and by that of Saxony. But as such states only form rather superior divisions of Germany and Italy, it appeared more advisable to consider them in their natural intimate connexion with these countries.

This explanation being premised, the first description shall be that of the British dominions.



# ENGLAND.

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## CHAP. I.

### NAMES, SITUATIONS, EXTENT, &c.

**NAMES.** THE Phenicians are generally supposed to have discovered Great Britain and Ireland at a period of very early antiquity; and some suppose that the name of Britain originates from a Phenician word, while others with more probability infer it to have been an indigenal term derived from the Brets, tribes of which appellation may be traced in Gaul and Scythia. Among the first objects of the Phenician intercourse was tin, whence the Greek name of Cassiterides or the islands of tin.

The name of Anglia or England is well known to have originated from the Angles, a nation of the Cimbric Chersonese or modern Jutland, who settled in the northern parts in the fifth century.

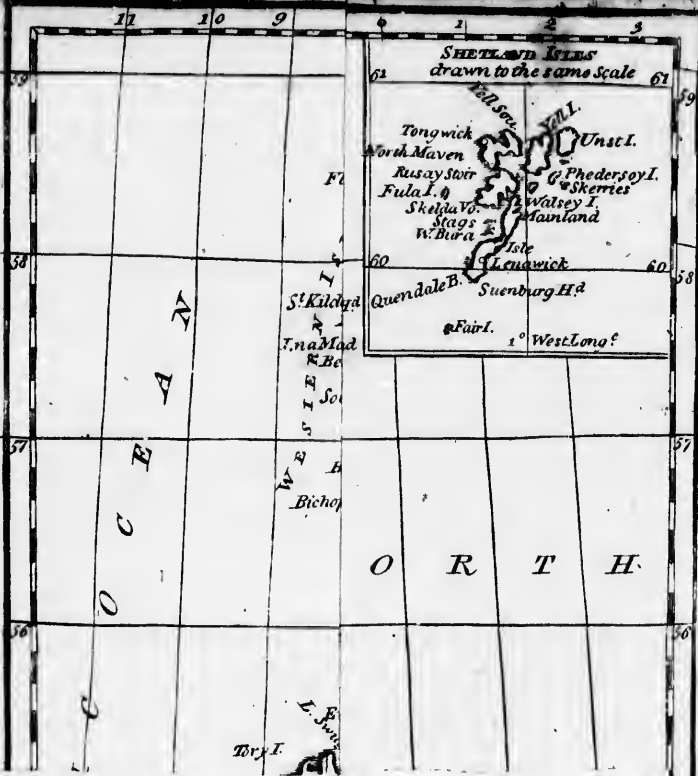
**EXTENT.** The island of Great Britain extends from fifty to fifty-eight and a half degrees of north latitude, being of course about 500 geographical miles in length. Its greatest breadth, from the Land's End to the North Foreland in Kent, 320 geographical miles.

England is bounded on the east by the German Ocean; on the south by the English Channel; on the west by St. George's Channel; on the north by the Cheviot Hills, by the pastoral river Tweed, and an ideal line falling south-west down to the Firth of Solway. The extent of England and Wales in square miles is computed at 49,450; and the population being estimated at 8,400,000, the number of inhabitants to a square mile will of course be 169.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The earliest inhabitants of England are supposed to have been the Gael or Southern Celts, called Guidels by the Welch, who regard them

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as their predecessors. Those tribes seem to have arrived from the nearest shores of France and Flanders, and were followed by the Cimri, or Cimbri from the same regions whence the Angles afterwards proceeded. But the Cimbri were northern Celts, the ancestors of the modern Welch. The Scythians or Goths from Asia having seized on Germany and a great part of Gaul, gradually repelling the Celts towards the west, appear to have sent colonies into England three or four centuries before the Christian era; for Cæsar found many tribes of the Belgæ, a German or Gothic nation, established on the south and east of Britain. Those Belgæ may be justly regarded as the chief ancestors of the English nation; for the Saxons, Angles, and other northern invaders, though of distinguished courage were inconsiderable in numbers, and the English language bears more affinity to the Frisic and Dutch than to the Jutlandic or Danish.

Under the dominion of the Romans even the Belgic colonies, unaccustomed to the use of arms, had forgotten their former valour in the course of four centuries of subjection. Pressed by ferocious invaders, they seem to have invited to their assistance dangerous allies from the continent. The Jutes arrived in the year 449, and founded the kingdom of Kent about the year 460; they also took possession of the Isle of Wight. In 477 the Saxons first appear, and the kingdom of the South Saxons commences at that epoch. The West Saxons arrived in the year 495. The sixth century was considerably advanced when those barbaric colonies were increased by the East Saxons in the year 527; but the first appearance of the great branch of the Angles, who were to perpetuate their name in the country at large, did not occur till the year 547, when the valiant Ida led his troops to Bernicia. The East Angles taking possession of Norfolk in the year 575, the southern and eastern coasts were almost wholly in the power of the invaders, who soon extending their conquests into the interior of the country founded in the year 585 the kingdom of Mercia, the last of the Heptarchy.

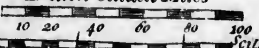
England proper is divided into forty counties, and the principality of Wales into twelve, thus making the whole number of counties in South Britain fifty-two.





**GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND**

British Statute Miles



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**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** The principal epochs of the English history, are,

1. The population of England by the Celts.
2. The Belgic colonies, who introduced agriculture.
3. The Roman conquest. Britain was only seen by Julius Cæsar. The Roman conquest began in the reign of Claudius, and in that of Domitian the Roman Eagle had been displayed as far as the Grampian mountains.
4. The arrival of the Saxons and Angles in the fifth century.
5. The Danish conquest A. D. 1016. The Danish monarchs of England were Canute, Harold, and Hardicanute; but the sceptre returned to the Saxon line A. D. 1042.
6. The Norman conquest, A. D. 1066.
7. The great charter granted by John at Runymede.
8. Not to mention the conquest of Wales and the temporary subjugation of Scotland, the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster may be regarded as the next memorable epoch.
9. The Reformation introduced by Henry VIII. and Elizabeth.
10. The civil wars under Charles I.
11. The Revolution.
12. The war with the American colonies forms not only an epoch of singular novelty, but of the most important consequences.

**ANTIQUITIES.** Those of the first Celtic inhabitants were probably as usual among savage nations, constructed of wood, and of course there can be no remains. Some rude barrows and heaps of stones may perhaps belong to the Druidic tribes, but Stonehenge, the large barrows or tumuli, &c. more properly belong to the Belgic colonies. Stonehenge is situated near the capital of the ancient Belgæ, and there is a similar monument, but said to be of far greater extent, near Vannes, a town on the French coast which was possessed by the Belgæ. At Stonehenge there appear to be three principal circles of stones, the outer connected together by an uniform pavement as it were at the top, to which the chiefs might ascend and speak to the surrounding crowd. A second cir-

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cle consists of detached upright stones about five feet in height, while the highest are eighteen. Within this is a grand oval, originally consisting of five trilithons of two huge stones crossed by another at the top and inclosing smaller stones, which seem to have been seats, and a large flat stone commonly called the altar, but which seems to have been the throne or seat of judgment. There is besides a very high stone towards the north-east or rising sun, and near this a large flat stone encompassed with a mound, which is probably the real altar on which human victims were sometimes sacrificed. There are also two other stones at a considerable distance to the E. and W. and the whole seems to be in the midst of a very extensive circle, marked by an eastern embankment almost effaced by the lapse of years, and affording sufficient space for all the males of the tribe or nation. These rude structures were probably erected for the purpose of judiciary proceedings, as well as the immolation of human sacrifices.

The Roman antiquities of England have been repeatedly illustrated. The greatest number of Roman inscriptions, altars, &c. has been found in the north, along the great frontier wall, which extended from the western Sea, to the estuary of Tyne. The Roman roads were also striking monuments of their power.

The Saxon antiquities in England are chiefly edifices, sacred or secular; many churches remain, which were altogether, or, for the most part, constructed in the Saxon period, and some are extant of the tenth, or, perhaps, the ninth century. The vaults erected by Grimbald, at Oxford, in the reign of Alfred, are justly esteemed curious relics of Saxon architecture. The oldest castles seem to consist of one solitary tower, square, or hexagonal: one of the rudest specimens, is Coningsburg Castle, in Yorkshire: but, as that region was subject to the Danes, till the middle of the tenth century, it is probably Danish.

The Danish power in England, though of considerable duration in the north, was in the south, brief and transitory. The camps of that nation were circular, like those of the Belgae and Saxons, while those of Ro-



man armies are known by the square form: and it is believed that the only distinct relics of the Danes are some castles to the north of the Humber, and a few stones with Runic inscriptions.

The monuments styled Norman, commenced after the conquest, and extended to the fourteenth century; when what is called the pure Gothic began to appear, which in the sixteenth century was supplanted by the mixed; and this in its turn yielded to the Grecian. In general the Norman style far exceeds the Saxon in the size of the edifices and the decoration of the parts. The churches become more extensive and lofty, and the windows larger, and more diversified. Uncouth animals begin to yield to leaves and flowers. This improvement is visible in King's College, Cambridge, and many other grand specimens in the kingdom.

**RELIGION.** Christianity was planted very early in this Island, perhaps by St. Paul, or some of his immediate disciples; for it is certain that in the year 150, the professors of our holy faith were numerous.—By degrees, the papal authority, and the corruptions of the church of Rome spread themselves here, as well as in all the other nations of Europe. Jno. Wickliffe, (an Englishman) in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the first person in Europe who had firmness enough publicly to expose the corruptions of the Romish church. After passing through a flood of persecution, the nation at length shook off entirely the shackles of papal domination, and established a religious system, and an ecclesiastical government for itself.—The present constitution of the Church of England is *Episcopal*; and it is governed by bishops, every one of whom has a seat and vote in the house of peers, as all their benefices were converted into temporal baronies by the Norman conqueror. Ever since the time of Henry VIII. the sovereigns of England are heads of the church; but this is very little more than nominal, as the kings never intermeddle in the affairs of the church.

The Church of England is now, beyond any other national established church, tolerant in its principles. No religious sect is prevented from worshipping God in that

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manner which their consciences approve.—Of course religious sects have multiplied here beyond the example of any other country in Europe. But it would certainly be wise policy in the government to provide for the support of the Episcopal clergy, by some other means than by tythes and church rates collected by distraint from dissenters; as they are the source of more just and general discontent in the nation, than any other law or custom. Although the great bulk of the inhabitants is Protestant; still there are many families in England who profess the Roman Catholic religion, and exercise it under very mild and gentle restrictions. None perhaps are more peaceable and loyal subjects.

**GOVERNMENT.** The government is a *limited monarchy*, counterpoised by two senates, one of hereditary peers, the other of representatives, who are, or ought to be, chosen by the people, though I am far from recommending *universal* suffrage, which would be the greatest scourge that could befall that nation.

The acknowledged prerogatives of the monarch are chiefly to declare war and make peace; to form alliances and treaties; to grant commission for levying men and arms, and even for pressing mariners. To the king also belong all magazines, ammunition, castles, forts, ports, havens, and ships of war; he has also the special management of the coinage, and determines the alloy, weight, and value. The prerogative likewise extends to the assembling, adjournment, prorogation, and dissolution of parliament, and to its removal to any place. The sovereign also enjoys the nomination of all officers on sea or land; of all magistrates, counsellors, and officers of state; of all bishops, and other great ecclesiastical dignitaries; and is not only the fountain of honour, but of justice, as he may pardon any offence, or mitigate the penalty. But he cannot enact new laws, or impose new taxes, without the consent of both houses of parliament.

This grand national council claims the next consideration. Originally both the Nobles and the Commons met in one house, and the division into two houses, a legislative check unknown in any other country, may be regarded as the sole foundation of English liberty. The

House of Peers may be said to have existed from the earliest period of the English history, but concerning the origin of the Commons there is a dispute between the tory and whig writers. The present constitution of the parliament of England, may, however, be traced with certainty, to near the middle of the thirteenth century. The peers are hereditary senators in their several degrees, of duke, marquis, earl, viscount and baron. When summoned to parliament, every peer, in his lawful absence, may constitute a *proxy* to vote for him, which no member of the House of Commons may do.

The House of Commons consists of knights, citizens, and burgesses, chosen by counties, cities, and burghs, in consequence of royal writs directed to the sheriffs. The members have certain privileges, as exemption from arrest in civil causes, on their journey to parliament, during their attendance, and on their return; nor can they be questioned out of the House for any sentiment there uttered. The Commons form the grand inquest of the realm, and may impeach or accuse the greatest peers; but their chief privilege, and upon which their whole power depends, is the levying of money, in which they are deservedly so jealous, that they will not permit the smallest alteration in a money bill. Since the union with Ireland, the House of Commons consist of six hundred and fifty-eight members. A speaker or president is chosen at the meeting of every new parliament.

Acts of parliament are first presented in the form of *bills*, and, after having gone through various and exact forms, generally observed with great minuteness, become law, on receiving the sanction of the crown. Adjournments may happen in one session; but a prorogation terminates the session.

Such are the three grand component parts of the English constitution; but perhaps its most beneficial and popular effects arise from the mode of administering justice, and other ramifications.

The *Privy Council* formerly possessed great power, but at present is chiefly employed in deliberations on affairs of sudden emergency, on peace and war, and special provinces of the royal prerogative.

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In later times since the management of the House of Commons became the chief object of the crown, the Chancellor of the Court of Exchequer, as superintendant of the public revenue, is the officer generally considered as prime minister. The distribution of fifty millions a year, joined with the royal support, has recently carried his power to the highest elevation.

**JUDICATURE AND LAWS.** The judicature of England is worthy of the highest applause with regard to precision and purity; and bribes, so frequent in other countries, being totally unknown, the saving of this expence must be candidly poised against other legal disbursements. The trial by jury is another glorious feature of English jurisprudence, handed down from the Saxon times, and is justly respected as the very safeguard of the lives, liberties, and properties of the nation.

*The forest laws* relate chiefly to offences committed in or near the precincts of the royal forests. *Martial law* may be proclaimed by the king, regent, or lieutenant general of the kingdom; and even in time of peace, though the prerogative be rarely employed except during war. It is in fact a dictatorial power never exerted except on great emergencies. The trials are summary and severe as the necessity of the case authorises.

Among the courts of law the next in dignity to the House of Lords is the *Court of King's Bench* so called, because the sovereign was understood to judge in person. The Court of Chancery judges causes in equity to moderate the rigour of the law, and defend the helpless from oppression. The Court of *Common Pleas* determines as the name imports, the common suits between subject and subject, and tries all civil causes, real, personal, or mingled, according to the precise precepts of the law. The Court of *Exchequer*, so termed from the ancient mode of accounting upon a chequered board, decides all causes relating to the royal treasury or revenue.

The judges perform their circuits in the spring and autumn, and in the mean while more minute cases are determined by the justices of the peace, who may be traced to the fourth year of Edward III. Every three months the justices of the county meet at what is called the quarter sessions, and the grand inquest or jury of the

county is here summoned, which inquires concerning crimes, and orders the guilty to jail till the next circuit or assizes.

Such are the chief magistrates and officers in the country. Cities and towns are generally ruled by a mayor and aldermen, or by similar magistrates under different appellations, whose judicial power little exceeds that of justices of the peace.

**POPULATION.** The population of England and Wales by the late enumeration amounts to nine millions three hundred and forty-three thousand five hundred and seventy-eight, containing 4,715,711 males, 4,627,867 females, 1,896,723 families, and 1,575,923, inhabited houses. That of Ireland is generally computed at three millions, while that of Scotland has been lately found to equal one million six hundred and seven thousand seven hundred and sixty. The various colonies in America, &c. will not perhaps be found to amount to one million; but the American states boast a British progeny of six millions, and the English language is probably diffused to the extent of twenty millions of people.

**ARMY.** The army during the late war was supposed to exceed 170,000 with 30,000 fencibles, and 78,000 militia, the volunteers being supposed to be 60,000.

**NAVY.** But the great rampart and supreme glory of Great Britain consist in her navy, in size, strength, and number of ships, far exceeding any examples on record.

There are 195 ships of the line, 27 fifties, 251 frigates, and 314 sloops.—Total 787. For this immense fleet the number of seamen amounts to between one hundred and one hundred and twenty thousand.

**REVENUE.** The excise forms one of the most productive branches of the revenue, amounting to between seven and eight millions. Next stand the customs, which produce about half that sum. The stamps and incidental taxes, as they are termed, arise to near three millions. The land tax has recently been rendered perpetual, and sold to proprietors of estates and other individuals. But instead of the land tax, now appear those on sugar, tobacco, and malt, amounting to two millions seven hundred and fifty thousand pounds; the other supplies arise from the East India Company, lotteries, &c. In the year 1799,

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it was supposed that the additional sums raised by loans, and other methods, swelled the national expenditure to near sixty millions sterling.

Of the permanent taxes the greater part is employed in discharging the interest of the national debt, which after the American war amounted to more than 239 millions, while the interest exceeded 9,000,000. At present the national debt is about 480,000,000, and the interest about 19,000,000.

To alleviate this growing burthen, a sinking fund was instituted in 1786, by which between 20 and 30 millions may be considered as already redeemed.

**POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS.** With such a prodigious command of national treasure, the political importance and relations of Great Britain may be said to be diffused over the world; for wherever money influences man, there may her power be perceived. She can afford the most effectual aid to her allies, or inflict the greatest injury on her enemies, by means of her navy, and her pecuniary resources, of any power in Europe.—Her principal commercial relation is with the *United States of America*; and the interest of the two countries is connected by so many strong ties, that nothing but extreme folly can interrupt their harmony and mutual good offices. Closely united, they might not only secure their own peace, but promote the tranquillity of Europe.—Russia, the Germanic Empire, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Portugal are all interested in preserving a good understanding with Britain, as she is in cultivating their friendship and commerce.—Her principal, and most formidable enemy is France, against which she cannot exercise too much vigilance,—not only as her own implacable foe, but as the enemy of all the nations of Europe that refuse to submit to her dictation, and to co-operate with her in annihilating the British empire.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** The English, generally speaking, are a plain, honest, humane, and brave people. In manufactures they are ingenious, and excel all other nations. In navigation and trade, they are bold, enterprising and liberal. Among foreigners they are accused of a cold restraint in their manners, but this perhaps will

be found to exist, more in appearance than reality, on a closer acquaintance.

The simplicity of the English cookery strikes foreigners as much as that of the dress, which even among the great is very plain, except on the days of court gala.

The houses in England are peculiarly commodious, neat, and cleanly; and domestic architecture seems here arrived at its greatest perfection.

The amusements of the theatre and of the field, and various games of skill or chance, are common to most nations. Boxing and prize fighting, the beating of bulls, and bears is, it is believed, nearly discontinued: one of the most peculiar amusements of the common people is, the ringing of long peals, with many changes, which deafen those who are so unhappy as to live in the neighbourhood of the church.

**LANGUAGE.** From the situation of the country, and other causes, the English language participates of two grand sources of origination; and unites in some degree the force of the Gothic with the melody of the Latin dialects. The ancient ground, and native expression originate from the Gothic divisions of the Belgic, Saxon, and Danish; but particularly from the Belgic, as will appear from comparison with the Dutch and Frisic. The languages of Latin origin have, however supplied a vast wealth of words, sometimes necessary, sometimes only adopted because they are more sonorous, though not so emphatic as the original Gothic.

The construction of the English language is peculiar, and renders the study of it very difficult to foreigners. The German and other Gothic dialects present declensions of nouns, and other correspondencies with the Latin, while in English all such objects are accomplished by prefixes. Anomalies also abound, and are too deep rooted to be easily eradicated.

**LITERATURE.** The grand feature of English literature is original genius, from Roger Bacon to Shakspeare, Milton, Newton and Locke. The reign of Queen Anne has generally been accounted the Augustan age in England. To the names aforementioned there were added in that reign those of Addison, Prior, Pope, Swift, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other eminent

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writers. But perhaps superior abilities to those which distinguish the reign of the present king, in almost every department of literature and arts, and a more general and liberal patronage of intellectual labour, were never known in any age or nation of the world.

**ARTS.** The present state of the arts in England is worthy of so opulent and refined a country, and the progress has been rapid beyond example. Until the beginning of the eighteenth century England was obliged to import her chief painters from abroad. But the patronage and exertions of the reign of George III. have not only been crowned with a great perfection of the arts, but has been exuberant in the production of artists of deserved reputation. In painting, engraving, architecture and sculpture, England can boast native names, not inferior to the most celebrated in Europe.

**SCHOOLS.** The education of the lower classes in England has been too much neglected, before the institution of Sunday schools. The middle and higher ranks of English spare no expence in the education of their sons, by private tutors at home, or at what are called day schools and boarding schools. The most eminent public schools are, those of St. Paul's, Westminster, Eaton, and Winchester; and from them have risen some of the most distinguished ornaments of their country. The scholars in due time proceed to the universities of Oxford and Cambridge; foundations of an extent and grandeur that impress veneration. In Oxford there are 17 different colleges, and 16 in Cambridge, besides several halls, or smaller colleges. Of the two, Oxford is the more majestic, from the grandeur of the colleges and other public buildings, and the superior neatness of the streets; but the chapel of the King's college at Cambridge is supposed to excel any single edifice of the other university.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** In giving an account of the cities and towns in England, our plan will admit of only a brief sketch of a few, that are most noted for their dignity, wealth and population.

**LONDON**, the metropolis of England, is situated in an extensive plain or valley watered by the Thames, and only confined on the north by a few small elevations. It now includes Southwark, a borough on the other side of the



Thames, and Westminster, another city on the west. The noble river Thames is here about 440 yards in breadth, crowned with three bridges, crowded with a forest of masts, and conveying into London the wealth of the globe, forming an excellent port, without the danger of exposure to a maritime enemy. London presents almost every variety which diversifies human existence. Upon the east it is a sea port, replete with mariners, and with the trades connected with that profession. In the centre, it is the seat of numerous manufactures and prodigious commerce; while the western or fashionable extremity presents royal and noble splendour, amidst scenes of the highest luxury and most ruinous dissipation.

Few cities can boast a more salubrious situation, the subjacent soil being pure gravel; by which advantage, united with extensive sewers, the houses are generally dry, cleanly, and healthy. Provisions and fuel are poured into the capital, even from distant parts of the kingdom; the latter article being coals, from the counties of Northumberland and Durham, transferred by sea, and thence denominated sea-coal. London requires in one year 101,075 beeves, 707,456 sheep, with calves and pigs in proportion: the vegetables and fruits annually consumed, are valued at a million sterling.

The population of London has by some been exaggerated to a million of souls; but by the late enumeration, it does not contain above 885,577. Its length from Hyde-park corner on the west to Poplar on the east, is about six miles; the breadth unequal, from three miles to one and less; the circumference may be about sixteen miles. The houses are almost universally of brick, and disposed with insipid similarity; but the streets are excellently paved, and have convenient paths for foot passengers. Another national feature, which is the most conspicuous in the metropolis, is the abundance of charitable foundations; the multitude and rich display of shops, the torrent of population constantly rolling through the streets; the swarm of carriages; and the blaze of nocturnal illuminations which extend even to four or five miles of the environs. The churches and chapels exceed 200 in number. There are three noble bridges across the Thames within the limits of the Bills of mortality. There are 4050

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seminaries of education; between 13 and 14 thousand vessels (besides river craft) arriving and departing; which carry between 60 and 70 millions sterling, annually, to and from this great metropolis.

**YORK.** Next to the capital in dignity, though not in extent nor opulence is York: which is not only the chief of a large and fertile province, but may be regarded as the metropolis of the North of England. The name has been gradually corrupted from the ancient Eboracum; by which denomination it was remarkable even in the Roman times, for the temporary residence and death of the Roman Emperor Severus. This venerable city is divided by the river Ouse; and the Gothic cathedral is of celebrated beauty, the western front being peculiarly rich, the chief tower very lofty, and the windows of the finest painted glass. York divides with Edinburgh the winter visits of the northern gentry. Its inhabitants, according to the late enumeration, amount to 16,145.

**LIVERPOOL.** But Liverpool, in Lancashire, is now much nearer to London in wealth and population. In 1699, Liverpool was admitted to the honour of being constituted a parish. In 1710, the first dock was constructed; and the chief merchants came originally from Ireland. Thenceforth the progress was rapid, and in 1760 the population was computed at 25,787 souls. In 1773, they amounted to 34,407; in 1787, to 56,670; and by the enumeration in 1801, they were found to have increased to 77,653. Its increase has been equal to that of Philadelphia in the United States.

The number of ships which paid duty at Liverpool in 1757, was 1371; in 1794, they amounted to 4265. In the African trade, a distinguishing feature of Liverpool, there was only one ship employed in 1709; in 1792, they amounted to 132. In the recent act for the contribution of seamen to the royal navy, according to the ships registered in each, the estimate is as follows:

London,	5725	Hull,	731	Bristol,	666
Liverpool,	1711	Whitehaven,	700	Whitby,	573
Newcastle,	1240	Sunderland,	669	Yarmouth,	506

BRISTOL is still a large and flourishing city, though much of its commerce with the West Indies and America have passed to Liverpool: The trade with Ireland has centered chiefly in this city. It is pleasantly situated at the confluence of the Froome with the Avon. The hot-wells in the neighbourhood appear to have been known in 1480: but the water was chiefly used externally, till about the year 1670; when a baker dreaming that his diabetes was relieved by drinking the water, he tried the experiment and recovered. Since that period its reputation has increased, and many commodious and elegant erections have contributed to recommend these wells to invalids. In 1787, Bristol employed about 1600 coasting vessels, and 416 ships engaged in foreign commerce. Its population in 1801 was 63,645.

MANCHESTER, celebrated for its extensive cotton manufacture, and the machinery of Arkwright, in 1708 contained but 8000 inhabitants. At the present time they amounted to 84,020.

BIRMINGHAM was originally a village belonging to a family of the same name. It is now famous for its various and extensive manufactures of hardware, and fancy articles of every kind. Between 1741 and 1790, Birmingham has experienced an augmentation of 72 streets, 4172 houses, and 23,320 inhabitants: the population in 1801, amounted to 73,670.

SHEFFIELD, though distinguished as early as the thirteenth century for its manufacture of cutlery, had not risen to any degree of celebrity till about the middle of last century. At that period, all its manufactures were conveyed weekly to the metropolis, on pack horses. In 1615, the population did not exceed 2152 persons, at present it is equal to 31,314.—There are many other towns in England of considerable fame, but those already mentioned are the most distinguished for their extensive trade and manufactures, and the bounds of this epitome will not permit us to enlarge.

WALES, which is a part of South Britain, and gives a title to the Heir apparent, is a country that abounds with the sublime and beautiful features of nature, but does not contain many towns of considerable note or magnitude. Yet it may not be improper to take notice of Caernarvon,

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esteemed the chief town of North Wales, and famous for the grandeur of its castle, one of the most magnificent in Europe. Here was born Edward II. surnamed of Caernarvon, who was immediately created Prince of Wales; his father having promised to the vanquished Welsh a prince born in their own country, and who could not speak a word of English.

**EDIFICES.** In a brief enumeration of the principal edifices in England, the royal palaces demand of course the first attention. *Windsor* castle, situated on an eminence near the Thames, has an appearance truly grand, and worthy of the days of chivalry. The view extends as far as the cathedral of St. Paul's; and the whole scene strongly impresses the circumstances so vividly delineated in Gray's pathetic Ode on Eaton College. This palace contains many noble paintings, particularly the cartoons of Raphael. *Hampton-Court* is in a low situation, ornamented with aqueducts from the river Colne. This palace is also replete with interesting pictures. The royal gardens of *Kew* are truly worthy of a great and scientific prince; the ground, though level, is diversified with much art; and the collection of plants from all the regions of the known world, fills the admirer of nature with delight and surprise. They are so disposed, that every plant finds, as it were, its native soil and climate; even those that grow on rocks and lava having artificial substitutes.

The royal palace at *Greenwich* has been long abandoned, but the observatory still does credit to science. It is a plain edifice well adapted to astronomical observations, and at present is superintended by Dr. Maskelyne. Dr. Herschell's observatory, instead of containing his telescope, is suspended from it in the open air, at Slough, near Windsor, where he is continually extending the bounds of astronomical knowledge.

Among the houses of the nobility and gentry, or palaces, as they would be termed on the continent, the first fame, perhaps, belongs to Stowe, the seat of the Marquis of Buckingham; which, for its enchanting gardens, has been long celebrated. When Mr. Beckford's magnificent erections at Fonthill are completed, that fame will be far surpassed. Our intention, however, will be better ac-

complished by a brief enumeration of some of the most celebrated country seats.

Hagley, the seat of Lord Littleton: the Leasowes of the late Mr. Shenstone; Penshurst, near Tunbridge, a famous seat of the Sidneys; Wanstead, of the Earl of Tiltney; Blenheim of the Duke of Marlborough; the seat of the Earl Spenser, at Wimbleton; Wooburn Abbey, of the Duke of Bedford; Louthers-hall of Lord Lonsdale; Chatsworth, of the Duke of Devonshire, and many other splendid edifices, equally honourable to the country, as to their opulent proprietors.

**BRIDGES.** The bridges are worthy the superiority of the English roads; and a surprising exertion in this department, is the recent construction of bridges in cast iron, an invention unknown to all other nations. The first example was that of Colebrook-dale, in Shropshire, erected over the Severn, in 1779. Another stupendous iron bridge was thrown over the harbour at Sunderland, about six years ago; the height of which is 100 feet, and the span of the arch 236. It is composed of detached pieces, any of which, if damaged, may be withdrawn, and replaced by others. When viewed from beneath, the elegance, lightness, and surprising height of the arch, excite admiration, and the carriages appear as if passing among the clouds.

**INLAND NAVIGATION.** The earliest inland navigation that can be authenticated, is the Sankey canal, began in 1755, leading from the coal-pits at St. Helens in Lancashire, to the river Mersey, and constructed in order to convey coals to Liverpool. The length of the canal is twelve miles, with a fall of ninety feet.

But the Duke of Bridgewater is justly venerated as the grand founder of inland navigation; his spirit and opulence were happily seconded by Brindley, than whom a greater natural genius in mechanics never existed. It was in the year 1758 that the first act was obtained for these great designs. The first canal extends from Worsley mill, about seven computed miles from Manchester, and reaches that town by a course of nine miles. In this short space almost every difficulty occurred that can arise in similar schemes. There are subterraneous passages to the coal in the mountain, of near a mile in length, with

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air-funnels to the top of the hill, some of them thirty-seven yards perpendicular. This beautiful canal is brought over the river Irwell, by an arch of thirty-nine feet in height, and under which barges pass without lowering their masts. The Duke of Bridgewater soon afterwards extended a canal of twenty-nine miles in length, from Longford-bridge, in Lancashire, to Hempstones, in Cheshire.

After this deserved tribute to the father of inland navigation in England, it will be eligible to review the other canals in a geographical manner, proceeding from the north to the south.

First in order is the Lancaster canal, from Kendal to West Houghton, a space of about seventy-four miles.

The canal from Leeds to Liverpool, winds through an extent of 117 miles; and from this canal a branch also extends to Manchester.

From Halifax to Manchester is another considerable canal; length thirty-one miles and a half, begun in 1794.

Another from Manchester towards Wakefield; and another which stretches from the former, south-east, about fifteen miles.

Another joins the river Dun, several miles above Doncaster, to the river Chalder, near Wakefield.

To pass several of smaller note, the Chesterfield canal extends from Chesterfield to the Trent, at Stockwith, a course of forty-four miles and three quarters.

In Lincolnshire, one canal extends from Lincoln to the Trent, and another from Horncastle to Sleaford. Grantham canal reaches from that town to the river Trent, a course of thirty miles.

Liverpool is connected with Hull by a canal from that long navigable river the Trent, and proceeding north to the Mersey. The canal which joins these two rivers is styled the Grand Trunk; the length is 99 miles. It was attended with great difficulties, particularly in passing the river Dove, in Derbyshire, where there is an aqueduct of twenty-three arches, the tunnel through the hill of Harecastle, in Staffordshire, is in length 2880 yards, and more than 70 yards below the surface of the ground.

From the Grand Trunk five or six branches extend in various directions: among which must not be omitted that to the river Severn, near Bewdley, which connects the

port of Bristol with those of Liverpool and Hull; the length is 46 miles.

From the city of Chester one canal extends to the Mersey, and another to Namptwich: another proceeds south to Shrewsbury, uniting the Mersey and the Severn; with north-west, and south-east branches of considerable length.

From Coventry, in the centre of the kingdom, canals extend to the Grand Trunk; to Ashby-de-la-Zouch, and to the Braunston, or Grand Junction canal.

What is called the Staffordshire canal, extends from the Grand Trunk to the river Severn; and is met by the Kingston canal, which reaches from Kingston in Herefordshire, so as almost to join the rivers Trent and Wye.

Several inland navigations pass by Birmingham. The Union canal completes a course of forty-three miles and three-quarters, from Leicester to Northampton, whence the river Nen is navigable to the sea.

Another canal extends from Gloucester to Hereford: and the south of Wales presents several navigations of considerable length, particularly that from Brecon, in Brecknockshire, to Newport, in Monmouthshire.

The Severn is not only joined with the Trent and the Humber, by various courses of navigation, but is united with the Thames, by a canal extending by Stroud to Lechlade, a course of near forty miles.

Other canals from the Thames branch in various directions; that of Oxford joins the Coventry canal, after a course of 92 miles. The Grand Junction canal reaches from Brentford, on the Thames, and joins the Oxford canal at Braunston, after a course of 90 miles. On the south of the Thames, a canal proceeds from Reading to Bath; another from Weybridge to Basingstoke; and a third from Weybridge to Godalming. There are some other smaller canals which we have not room to detail.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** The earliest staple commodity of England was tin, a metal rarely found in other countries. The Phœnicians first introduced it into commerce, at least five or six hundred years before the Christian æra; and their extensive trade soon diffused it among the Oriental nations. The Romans upon their conquest of these regions did not neglect this source of wealth. Yet even in the reign of John, the product was

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so inconsiderable, that the mines were farmed to Jews for 100 marks; but in that of Henry III. they began again to yield a large profit, which has since gradually increased to a great amount.

Wool had been regarded as a grand staple of England, as early as the twelfth century, but was chiefly exported in a crude state, till Edward III. encouraged settlements of Flemish manufacturers. Wool soon became the standard of private property, and the prime article of commerce. Taxes and foreign subsidies were estimated by sacks of this commodity. Great quantities of raw wool continued to be exported to the Netherlands and Hanse Towns; but in the reign of Elizabeth it began to be chiefly manufactured at home, and the exportation of woollen cloths was then valued at a million and a half annually. The exportation of raw wool was at length prohibited; and the woollen manufactures preserve great importance, though they no longer attract such particular regard, amidst the exuberance of English manufactures.

In recent times the manufactures of iron and copper, native minerals, have become great sources of national wealth; nor must the new and extensive exportation of elegant earthen-ware be forgotten. The cotton manufacture is diffused far and wide, forming a grand source of industry and prosperity. That of linen, except of sail-cloth, is not much cultivated in England. The manufactures of glass and fine steel, clocks, watches, &c. are deservedly eminent and extensive. As the nation is indebted to Wedgewood for converting clay into gold, so to Boydell for another elegant branch of exportation, that of beautiful prints.

The English manufactures have been recently estimated at the annual value of 63,600,000*l.* and supposed to employ 1,585,000 persons. Of these, the woollen manufacture is supposed to yield in round sums, 15,000,000*l.* the leather 10,000,000*l.* the iron, tin, and lead 10,000,000*l.* the cotton 9,000,000*l.* The other chief manufactures, which yield from 1 to 4,000,000*l.* may be thus arranged, according to their consequence; steel, plating; &c. copper, and brass, silk, potteries, linen and flax, hemp, glass, paper.



The commerce of England is, at the present period, enormous, and may be said to extend to every region of the globe. The trade with the West Indies is one of the most important, and that with the East Indies alone, would have astonished any of the celebrated trading cities of antiquity.

From the states of North America, are chiefly imported tobacco, rice, indigo, timber, hemp, flax, iron, pitch, tar, and lumber: From the West Indies, sugar, rum, cotton, coffee, ginger, pepper, guaiacum, sarsaparilla, mancinella, mahogany, gums, &c. From Africa, gold dust, ivory, gums, &c. From the East Indies and China, tea, rice, spices, drugs, colours, silk, cotton, salt-petre, shawls, and other products of the loom. From the British settlements in North America, are imported furs, timber, potash, iron; and from the various states of Europe, numerous articles of utility and luxury.

The annual income of Great Britain was estimated in 1799, by Mr. Pitt, at 102,000,000*l.*; and including the money, of which the estimate is far from certain, the whole capital of Great Britain may perhaps be calculated at more than one thousand two hundred millions.

In the year 1797, the amount of the exports, according to Custom-house accounts, was 28,917,000*l.*, and of the imports, 21,013,000*l.*, yielding, as is supposed, clear profits on foreign trade, to the amount of at least 10,000,000*l.* The number of merchant vessels amounts probably to 16,000; it is calculated that 140,000 men and boys are employed in the navigation.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The climate of Great Britain is very variable, the vapours of the Atlantic Ocean being opposed to the drying winds from the eastern continent. The western coasts in particular are subject to frequent rains; and the eastern part of Scotland is of a clearer and dryer temperature than that of England.

In consequence of the mutability of the climate, the seasons themselves are of uncertain tenour, and the year might properly be divided into eight months of winter, and four of summer. What is called the spring dawns in April; but the eastern winds prevalent in May, seem commissioned to ruin the efforts of reviving nature, and destroy the promise of the year. June, July, August, and

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September, are usually warm summer months; but a night of frost is not unknown, even in August, and sometimes a cold east wind will blow for three days together; nor of late years are summers unknown of almost constant rain. The winter may be said to commence with the beginning of October, at which time domestic fires become necessary; but there is seldom any severe frost till Christmas, and January is the most stern month of the year. Yet as the summers often produce specimens of winter, so now and then gleams of warm sunshine illuminate the darker months. March is generally the most unsettled month of the year, interspersed with dry frost, cold rains, and strong winds, with storms of hail and sleet.

**SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.** The soil is greatly diversified, but in general fertile; and in no country is agriculture more thoroughly understood, or pursued in a grander style, except, perhaps in Flanders and Lombardy. I mean before these countries were visited with the scourge of French fraternity. The nobility and gentry, mostly residing upon their estates in summer, often retain considerable farms in their own hands, and practise and encourage every agricultural improvement.

The cultivated acres of England and Wales are computed at upwards of 39,000,000; the uncultivated about 8,000,000. Of the latter about half a million is supposed to be unimproveable.—Gardening is also pursued in England with great assiduity and success. From the high prices given in the capital for early produce, each acre thus employed, in its vicinity, is supposed to yield about 120*l.* annually. England is deservedly considered as the standard of ornamental gardening, just to the beauties of nature, and free from the uncouth affectations of art.

**RIVERS.** England is intersected by four important rivers, the Severn, the Thames, the Humber, and the Mersey; besides a considerable number of minor streams. None of the largest extend much above 150 miles into the country.—In general it may be observed of the British rivers, that the length of their course is inconsiderable, when compared with that of the Continental streams. The length of the Thames compared with that of the Danube, is only as 1 to 7; and with that of the Nile, as 1 to 21

The Kian Ku of China, and the river of Amazons, in South America, extend through a progress of more than fifteen times the length of that of the Thames. The rivers of the southern and middle parts of England, present a striking contrast to those of the north; the former pursuing a slow and inert course over mud, between level banks, amid rich and extensive meadows; while the latter roll their clear torrents over beds of gravel, between elevated banks, and rocky precipices; and even when verdant levels occur, the stream still retains its banks and beds of gravel.

**MOUNTAINS.** While Bennevis, the highest mountain in Scotland, is not much above one quarter of the height of Mont Blanc, the sovereign of the Alps, the English and Welsh summits aspire to heights still less considerable; Snowdon being only 3568 English feet above the sea, while Bennevis is 4387, or, by other accounts, 4350. Wharn, or Wharnside, in Yorkshire, was estimated at 4050. Ingleborough at 5280 feet. A late accurate measurement has, however reduced this latter to 2380 feet, and probably Wharnside ought also to be diminished in the same proportion.

In the northern and western mountains and hills, chalk is unknown, while it forms a chief material of those in the south and east. The northern are mostly composed of limestone, free-stone, and slate, with mines of lead or coal. Those of Derbyshire present vast masses of lime-stone. Those on the west, or Mendip hills, in Somersetshire, are wholly calcareous. The Granite begins at Dartmoor, in Devonshire, and runs through Cornwall, where it presents a variety of colours.—The mountains in Wales abound in slate, horn-stone, and porphyry, with large masses of quartz.

**METALS AND MINERALS.** Among the British minerals are the tin mines of Cornwall already mentioned. They are said to employ 100,000 persons. Gold has been discovered in various parts of England, but the metal has never re-paid the labour and expence. The mines of rock salt must not be omitted: those of Norwich are the most remarkable, the annual produce of which has been estimated at 65,000 tons. But the most valuable mines of England are those of coal, found in the central,

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northern, and western parts, but particularly in the northern, around New-Castle : 600,000 chaldrons are sent annually to London, and 1500 vessels are employed in carrying them to that harbour along the eastern coast of England. —Cornwall also produces copper, so does Yorkshire and Staffordshire, but this metal is found in the greatest abundance in the north-western parts of Anglesea. Lead is found in Derbyshire, Somersetshire, and on the verge of Cumberland. The mines at the latter place alone employ about 1100 men.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** Although among the numerous species of vegetables which are the *natives* of Britain, there are scarcely any that are adequate to the sustenance and clothing of man ; yet the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, and oats produced are so great, that in some years large quantities are exported. In nothing, however, have the English been so successful in cultivating, and meliorating, as the various grasses. Their climate is peculiarly adapted to grasses of every kind. They reckon no fewer than 27 genera, and 110 species of grass, that are natives of the island. They have a plenty of excellent fruits : apples, pears, plumbs, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooseberries, raspberries, and other hortulan productions grow here. The cyder of Devon and Herefordshire has been preferred to French wine. Their kitchen gardens abound with all sorts of greens, roots, and salads in perfection.—

Mr. Pennant, in his *British Zoology*, has treated that subject at due extent, and with his usual ability. Of animals, that celebrated author enumerates twenty genera, from the horse down to the seal and bat. The birds extend to forty-eight, the reptiles to four, and the fish to forty genera, besides the crustaceous and shell fish.

That noble and useful animal, the horse, is found in England of many mingled breeds, while most other kingdoms produce only one kind. Their race-horses descend from Arabian stallions, and the genealogy faintly extends to their hunters, The great strength and size of the English draught-horses are derived from those of Germany, Flanders, and Holstein ; and other breeds have been so intermingled, that native horses may be found adapted to

every purpose of pomp, pleasure, or utility. Those of Yorkshire are particularly celebrated for their spirit and beauty; and the grooms of that country are equally noted for their skill in the management of this valuable animal.

The indigenous horned cattle are now only known to exist in Neidwood-forest, in Staffordshire, and at Chillingham-castle, in Northumberland. They are long-legged and wild like deer, of a pure white colour, with black muzzles, ears, and tails, and a stripe of the same hue along the back. The domesticated breeds of their cattle are almost as various as those of their horses; those of Wales and Cornwall are small, while the Lincolnshire kind derive their great size from those of Holstein. In the North of England we find kyllies, so called from the district of Kyle, in Scotland; in the South we find the elegant breed of Guernsey, generally of a light brown colour, and small size, but remarkable for the richness of their milk.

The number and value of sheep in England may be judged from the ancient staple commodity of wool. Of this most useful animal several breeds appear, generally denominated from their particular counties or districts: those of Herefordshire, Devonshire, and Cotswold-downs, are noted for fine fleeces, while the Lincolnshire and Warwickshire kind are remarkable for the quantity. The Teesdale breed of the county of Durham, though lately neglected, continue to deserve their fame. The wool is beautiful, but the length of their legs lessens their value in the eyes of the butcher. The mutton of Wales, on the contrary, is esteemed, while the wool is coarse, yet employed in many useful and salutary manufactures.

The goat, an inhabitant of the rocks, has, even in Wales, for the most part yielded to the more useful sheep; that country being, like Scotland, more adapted to the woollen manufacture. The breeds of swine are various and useful.

England also abounds in breeds of dogs, some of which were celebrated even in Roman times; nor have their modern descendants, the mastiff and bull-dog, degenerated from the spirit and courage of their ancestors.

Of their savage animals the most fierce and destructive is the wild cat, which is three or four times as large as the domestic, with a flat broad face, colour yellowish white,

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mixed with deep grey, in streaks running from a black list on the back; hips always black, tail alternate bars of black and white; only found in the most mountainous and woody parts. The wolf has been long extinct, but the fox abounds.

The chief of their birds of prey are, the golden eagle, sometimes found on Snowdon: the black eagle has appeared in Derbyshire; the osprey, or sea eagle, seems extinct in England. The peregrine falcon breeds in Wales; and many kinds of hawks in England. An enumeration of the other birds would be superfluous. The nightingale, one of the most celebrated, is not found in North Wales, nor any where to the North, except about Doncaster, where it abounds; nor does it travel so far west as Devonshire and Cornwall. Their poultry seem to originate from Asia; peacocks from India, pheasants from Colchis; the guinea-fowl are from Africa. Their smallest bird is the golden-crested wren, which sports on the highest pine-trees; and largest the bustard, some of which weigh twenty-five pounds, and are found in the open countries of the south and east.

The reptiles are frogs, toads, several kinds of lizards: of their serpents the viper alone is venomous; other kinds are the snake, sometimes found four feet in length; and the blind worm, seldom exceeding eleven inches.

Of fish, the whale but seldom appears near the English coasts, the porpoise, and others of the same genus are not uncommon. The basking shark appears off the shores of Wales. Numerous are the edible sea-fish. Some of the most celebrated are the turbot, dorce, soal, cod, plaice, smelt, and mullet. The consumption of herrings and mackerel extends to most parts of the kingdom: but pilchards are confined to the Cornish coasts. The chief river fish are the salmon and the trout, which are brought from the northern parts in prodigious numbers, generally packed in ice. It is said that not less than 30,000 salmon are brought from one river, the Tweed, to London, in the course of a season. The lamprey is chiefly found in the Severn, the charr in the lakes of Westmoreland. The lobster is found on most of the rocky coasts, particularly off Scarborough; and the English oysters preserve their Roman reputation.

**ENGLISH ISLES.** In the southern or English channel first appears the Isle of Wight, by the Romans called *Vectis*; about 20 miles in length and 12 in breadth. The principal town is Newport—and one of the most remarkable buildings is Carisbrook-castle, where Charles I. was imprisoned by his rebellious subjects.

At the distance of about 70 miles from Wight arises the little island of Alderney, off Cape la Hogue; which is followed by the more important islands of Guernsey and Jersey, Sark being a small island interposed between the two latter. Guernsey, the largest of these isles, is about 36 miles in circuit.

Returning to the English shore, we first descry Eddystone light house, beat by all the fury of the western waves. This edifice has repeatedly been overthrown, but the present erection by Mr. Smeaton, composed of vast masses of stone, grooved into the rock, and joined with iron, promises alike to defy accidental fire, and the violence of the ocean, though the waves sometimes wash over the very summit in one sheet of foam.

About 30 miles west of the land's end appears a cluster of small islands, 145 in number, called the islands of Scilly. The largest (St. Mary's) is about five miles in circuit, and has about 600 inhabitants.—On the coast of Wales is the island of Anglesea, being the *Mona* of Tacitus; about 25 miles in length and 18 in breadth; is fertile and populous, and enjoys a considerable trade with Ireland.

The last English island worth mentioning is that of Man, —it is about 30 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. The sovereignty formerly belonged to the Earls of Derby, but is now annexed to the English crown.

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## SCOTLAND.

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SCOTLAND was first discovered to the Romans by Agricola, and was distinguished from South-Britain by the special appellation of Caledonia.

This name continued to be used till the Roman power expired. Bede, the father of English history, calls the inhabitants of the country by the name of Picti, which had also been used by the later Roman writers as synonymous with that of Caledonii.

These distinctions continued till the eleventh century, when the new name of Scotia was taken from Ireland, its former object, and applied to modern Scotland.

**EXTENT.** That part of Great Britain called Scotland, is about 260 miles in length, by about 160 at its greatest breadth; it extends from the 55th degree of latitude, to more than  $58\frac{1}{2}$ . The superficial contents have been computed at 27,793 square miles, a little exceeding that of Ireland, and considerably more than half that of England. The population being estimated at 1,600,000, there will, of course, be only 57 inhabitants for every square mile, a proportion of about one-third of that of Ireland. This defect of population arises solely from the mountainous nature of the country, amounting, perhaps, to one-half, little susceptible of cultivation.

**DIVISIONS.** The territory of Scotland is unequally divided into thirty-three counties: six of which may be called the Northern; fourteen, the Midland; and thirteen, the Southern division.



**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** So far as historical researches can discover, the original population of Scotland, consisted of Cimbri, from the Cimbric Chersonese. About two centuries before the Christian æra, the Cimbri seem to have been driven to the south of Scotland by the Caledonians, or Picti, a Gothic colony from Norway.

On the west, the Cumraig kingdom of Strath Clyde continued till the tenth century, when it became subject to the kings of North-Britain; who, at the time, extended their authority, by the permission of the English monarchs, over the counties of Cumberland and Westmoreland. From the Picti originates the population of the Lowlands of Scotland, the Lowlanders having been, in all ages, a distinct people from those of the western Highlands, though the Irish clergy endeavoured to render their language, which was the most smooth and cultivated of the two, the polite dialect of the court and superior classes. About the year of Christ 258, the Dalraids of Bede, the Attacotti of the Roman writers, passed from Ireland to Argyleshire, and became the germ of the Scottish Highlanders, who speak the Irish, or Celtic language, while the Lowlanders have always used the Scandinavian, or Gothic.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** 1. The original population of Scotland by the Cimbri, and by the Picti, forms the first historical epoch.

2. The entrance of Agricola into Scotland, and the subsequent conflicts with the Romans, till the latter abandoned Britain.

3. The settlement of the Dalraids, or Attacotti, in Argyleshire, about the year 258, and their repulsion to Ireland about the middle of the fifth century.

4. The commencement of what may be called a regular history of Scotland, from the reign of Drust, A. D. 414.

5. The return of the Dalraids, A. D. 503. and the subsequent events of Dalraidic story.

6. The introduction of Christianity among the Caledonians, in the reign of Brudi II. A. D. 565.

7. The union of the Picti and Attacotti, under Kenneth, A. D. 843.

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8. The reign of Malcolm III: A. D. 1056 : from which period greater civilization began to take place, and the history becomes more authentic.

9. The extinction of the ancient line of kings, in the person of Margaret, of Norway, grand-daughter of Alexander III. A. D. 1290. This event occasioned the interposition of Edward I. king of England, which was the source of the enmity which afterwards unhappily prevailed between the kingdoms.

10. The accession of the house of Stuart to the Scottish throne.

11. The establishment of the Protestant religion, A. D. 1560.

12. The union of the two crowns, by the accession of James VI. to the English sceptre, A. D. 1603.

13. The civil wars, and the subsequent disputes between the Presbyterians and Independants; causes that extinguished all sound literature in Scotland, for the space of twenty years, A. D. 1640-1660.

14. The revolution of 1688, and the firm establishment of the Presbyterian system.

15. The union of the two kingdoms in 1707, which laid the first foundation of the subsequent prosperity in Scotland.

**ANTIQUITIES.** There are no monuments of antiquity, worth mentioning, of an earlier date than the arrival of the Romans. The remains of these conquerors appear in the celebrated wall, built in the reign of Antoninus Pius, between the Firths of Forth and Clyde, in the ruins of which many curious inscriptions have been found. Another striking object, is a small edifice, called Arthur's Oven, supposed to be a temple of the god Terminus. The most northerly Roman camp yet discovered is in Aberdeenshire, the periphery of which is about two English miles. Roman roads have been traced a considerable way, in the east of Scotland. The smaller remains of Roman antiquities, such as coins, utensils, &c. are numerous. The places of judgment, or what are called Druidic temples, are to be traced in many places. Those rude round piles of stone, constructed without any cement, called Pils Houses, deserve to be noticed. They seem to have consisted of a vast hall, open to the

sky in the centre, while the cavities in the wall present in-commodious recesses for beds, &c. These buildings are remarkable, as displaying the first elements of the Gothic castle.

**RELIGION.** Since the revolution, 1688, the Ecclesiastical government of Scotland is of the Presbyterian form. The number of parishes in Scotland is 941; contiguous parishes unite in what is called a Presbytery, of which denomination there are 69. The provincial synods amounting to fifteen, are composed of several adjacent Presbyteries; but the grand Ecclesiastical court is the general assembly, which meets every year, in the spring; the king appointing a commissioner to represent his person, while the members nominate their moderator, or president.

To this Ecclesiastical council laymen are also admitted, under the name of Ruling Elders, and constitute about one-third of this venerable body. This court discusses and judges all clerical affairs, and admits of no appeal, except to the parliament of Great Britain.

As whatever establishment is effected in a free country, opposition will always arise, the establishment of the Presbyterian system, was, in the space of one generation, followed by the secession, which took place in 1732. The seceders being the most rigid in their sentiments, and animated by persecution, soon formed a numerous party.

About the year 1747, they were themselves divided into two denominations, called the Burghers, and the Anti-burghers, because the division arose concerning the legality of the oaths taken by the burgesses of some of the royal boroughs; the former allowing that the oath is proper, while the latter object; the former are the more numerous, the number of their ministers being computed at about 100, and at a medium each has a congregation of about 1000.

Many respectable families in Scotland embrace the Episcopal form of the Church of England. The other descriptions of religious professions are not numerous. There are but few Roman Catholics, even in the remote Highlands, the scheme of education being excellent, and generally supported with liberality.

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**GOVERNMENT.** The government of Scotland, since the union, has been blended with that of England. The most splendid remaining feature of government in Scotland, is the general assembly, already mentioned. Next to which may be classed the high courts of justice, especially that styled the session, consisting of a president, and fourteen senators. The lords of session, as they are styled in Scotland, upon their promotion to office, assume a title, generally from the name of an estate, by which they are known and addressed, as if peers by creation, while they are only constituted lords by superior interest, or talents. This court is the last resort in several causes, and the only appeal is to the parliament of Great Britain.

The judiciary court consists of five judges, who are likewise lords of session; but, with a president, styled lord justice clerk. This is the supreme court in criminal causes, which are determined by the majority of a jury, and not by the unanimity, as in England. There is also a court of exchequer, consisting of a Lord Chief Baron, and four Barons; and a high court of admiralty, in which there is only one judge.

**LAWS.** The law of Scotland differs essentially from that of England, being founded, in a great measure, upon the civil law. Of common law, there is hardly a trace, while the civil and canon laws may be said to form the two pillars of Scottish judicature. The modes of procedure have, however, the advantage of being free from many of those legal fictions which disgrace the laws of some other countries. The inferior courts are those of the sheriffs, magistrates, and justices of the peace.

**POPULATION.** The population of Scotland, in 1755, was computed at 1,265,600; according to the documents furnished by Sir J. Sinclair's statistical account, the numbers in 1798, were, 1,526,492; and by the government enumeration in 1801, the inhabitants appeared to amount to 1,599,068.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** The manners and customs of the Scots begin to be much assimilated with those of the English. In their religious ceremonies, attending baptism and marriages, there are variations arising from the Presbyterian form, which does not admit of god-

fathers or god-mothers, but renders the parents alone answerable for the education of the child. The clergyman does not attend at funerals, nor is there any religious service, but generally great decency.

In the luxuries of the table, the superior classes rival the English; several national dishes, originating from the French cooking, in the reign of Mary, being now vulgar or neglected. The diet of the lower classes passes in a gradual transition from the north of England. The chief food is *parich*, or thick pottage, formed with oat-meal and water, and eaten with milk, ale or butter; in a hard lumpy form it is called *brose*. With this the labourer is generally contented twice or thrice in a day, with a little bit of meat for Sunday; nor does he repine at the bacon of the English poor, there being a theological antipathy to swine, which also extends to eels, on account of their serpent-like form.

The sobriety of the lower classes is in general exemplary; the Scottish manufacturer or labourer is ambitious to appear with his family in decent clothes on Sundays, and other holidays. This may be regarded as a striking characteristic of the Scottish peasantry, who prefer the lasting decencies of life to momentary gratifications. To this praise may be added the diffusion of education, which is such, that even the miners in the south possess a circulating library.

The houses of the opulent have been long erected upon the English plan, which can hardly be exceeded for interior elegance and convenience. Even the habitations of the poor have been greatly improved within these few years; instead of the thatched mud hovel, there often appears the neat cottage of stone, covered with tile or slate.

The dresses of the superior classes is the same with that of the English. The gentlemen in the Highlands, especially in the time of war, use the peculiar dress of that country. Among the other classes, the Scottish bonnet is now rarely perceived, except in the Highlands.

**LANGUAGE.** The Scottish language falls under two divisions; that of the Lowlands, consisting of the ancient Scandinavian dialect, blended with the Anglo-Saxon; and that of the Highlands, which is Irish. The

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*Orkney* Islands being seized by the Norwegians, in the ninth century, the inhabitants retained the Norse language till recent times. They now speak remarkably pure English.

**SCHOOLS.** . The mode of education pursued in Scotland, is highly laudable, and, to judge from its effects, is perhaps, the best practical system pursued in any country in Europe. The plan which is followed in the cities is nearly similar to that of England, either by private teachers, or at large public schools, of which that of Edinburgh is the most eminent. But the superior advantage of the Scottish education consists in every country parish possessing a schoolmaster, as uniformly as a clergyman; at least the rule is general, and the exceptions rare. The schoolmaster has a small salary, or rather pittance, which enables him to educate the children at a rate easy and convenient, even to indigent parents. In the Highlands the poor children will attend to the flocks in the summer, and the school in the winter.

The universities of Scotland, or rather colleges, (for an English university includes many colleges and foundations,) amount to no less than four, three on the eastern coast, St. Andrew's, Aberdeen and Edinburgh; and one on the western, that of Glasgow.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** Edinburgh, the capital is comparatively of modern name and note, the earliest that can be applied to it, occurring in the *Chronicon Pictorum*, about the year 955, where mention is made of a town called Eden, as resigned by the English to the Scots, then ruled by Indulf. Holyrood-house was the foundation of the first David.

The population of Edinburgh including the port of Leith, was in 1678, computed at 35,500; in 1755, at 70,430; and in 1801, was found by actual enumeration to amount to 82,560.

The arrivals and clearances at Leith harbour, exceed the number of 1700 vessels of various descriptions. Of these 165 belong to the town. The commerce has been stated at half a million annually.

The houses in the old town of Edinburgh, are sometimes of remarkable height, not less than thirteen or fourteen floors, a singularity ascribed to the wish of the an-

cient inhabitants, of being under the protection of the castle.

The new town of Edinburgh is deservedly celebrated for regularity and elegance, the houses being all of free-stone, and some of them ornamented with pillars and pilasters, and it contains several public edifices which would do honour to any capital.

The second city in Scotland is Glasgow, of ancient note in ecclesiastic story, but of small account in the annals of commerce, till the time of Cromwell's usurpation. The population of Glasgow, in 1755, was computed at 23,546, including the suburbs; the number in 1791, was estimated at 61,945; and the amount of the enumeration in 1801, was 77,385. The ancient city was rather venerable than beautiful, but recent improvements have rendered it one of the neatest cities in the empire. Its commerce has arisen to great extent since the year 1718, when the first ship that belonged to Glasgow crossed the Atlantic. The number of ships belonging to the Clyde, in 1790, was 476, the tonnage 46,581; but before the American war it was supposed to have amounted to 60,000 tons. Though the manufactures scarcely exceed half a century in antiquity, they are now numerous and important. That of cotton in 1791, was computed to employ 15,000 looms; and the goods produced were supposed to amount to the yearly value of 1,500,000*l*.

Next in eminence are the cities of Perth and Aberdeen, and the town of Dundee. Perth is an ancient town, supposed to have been the Victoria of the Romans. Linen forms the staple manufacture, to the annual amount of about 60,000*l*. There are also manufactures of leather and paper. Inhabitants 14,878.

About eighteen miles nearer the mouth of the Tay, stands Dundee, in the county of Angus, a neat modern town. The Firth of Tay is here between two and three miles broad; and there is a good road for shipping to the east of the town, as far as Broughty-castle. On the 1st of September, 1651, Dundee was taken by storm by General Monk; and Lumisden, the governor, perished amidst a torrent of bloodshed. The population is however, now equal to 26,084; the public edifices are neat and commodious. In 1792, the vessels belonging to the port

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amounted to 116, tonnage 8,550. The staple manufacture is linen, to the annual value of about 80,000*l.* canvass, &c. about 40,000*l.* Coloured thread also forms a considerable article, computed at 33,000*l.* and tanned leather at 14,000*l.*

Aberdeen first rose to notice in the eleventh century, and continued to be chiefly memorable in ecclesiastical story. The population in 1795, was computed at 24,493, but the enumeration in 1801, reduced it to 17,597. Though the harbour be not remarkably commodious, it can boast a considerable trade, the chief exports being salmon and woollen goods. In 1795, the British ships entered at the port, were sixty-one, the foreign five; and the British ships cleared outwards, amounted to twenty-eight. The chief manufactures are woollen goods, particularly stockings, the annual export of which is computed at 123,000*l.*

Greenock, by sharing in the trade with Glasgow, has risen to considerable celebrity; it contains 17,458 inhabitants. Paisley, in the same county is famous for its manufacture of muslins, lawns, and gauzes to the annual amount of 660,000*l.* Population 31,000. Scotland has many other considerable towns, but it would exceed our limits to be more particular.

**EDIFICES.** Scotland abounds with remarkable edifices, ancient and modern; we shall only mention a few in the vicinity of the capital, viz.

Hopeton-house, the splendid residence of the Earl of Hopeton; Dalkeith-palace, a seat of the Duke of Buccleugh; Newböttel, the seat of the Marquis of Lothian; Melville-castle, the elegant villa of the Rt. Hon. Henry Dundas, and the splendid mansion of the Marquis of Abercorn.

**INLAND NAVIGATION.** The most remarkable inland navigation in Scotland, is the excellent and extensive canal from the Forth to the Clyde, commenced in 1768, from a survey by Smeaton four years before.

“The dimensions of this canal, though greatly contracted from the original design, are much superior to any work of the same nature in South-Britain. The English canals are generally from three to five feet deep, and from twenty to forty feet wide, and the lock gates from ten to twelve feet. The depth of the canal between the Forth and Clyde is seven feet; its breadth at the sur-



face fifty-six feet: the locks are seventy-five feet long, and their gates twenty feet wide. It is raised from the Carron by twenty locks, in a tract of ten miles, to the amazing height of 155 feet above the medium full sea-mark. At the twentieth lock begins the canal of partition on the summit between the east and west seas; which canal of partition continues eighteen miles, on a level, terminating at Hamilton-hill, a mile N. W. of the Clyde, at Glasgow. In the fourth mile of the canal there are ten locks, and a fine aqueduct bridge, which crosses the great road leading from Edinburgh to Glasgow. At Kirkintullock, the canal is carried over the water of Logie, on an aqueduct bridge, the arch of which is ninety feet broad. There are in the whole eighteen draw bridges, and fifteen aqueduct bridges, of considerable size, besides small ones and tunnels."

The supplying the canal with water, was of itself a very great work. One reservoir is above twenty-four feet deep, and covers a surface of fifty acres, near Kilsyth. Another, about seven miles north of Glasgow, consists of seventy acres, and is banked up at the sluice, twenty-two feet.

The distance between the Firths of Clyde, and Forth, by the nearest passage, that of the Pentland Firth, is 600 miles, by this canal scarcely 100. On the 28th of July, 1790, the canal was completely open from sea to sea, when a hogshead of the water of Forth was poured into the Clyde, as a symbol of their junction.

**COMMERCE.** The commerce of Scotland, though on a smaller scale, is similar to that of England, and partakes of the national prosperity. The chief exports are linen, grain, iron, glass, lead, woollens, &c. The imports are wines, brandy, rum, sugar, rice, indigo, cotton, tobacco. The fisheries are a growing part of the national wealth. The principal manufactures are linen of various kinds, to the value, it is said, of 750,000*l.* annually. Of woollens, Scotch carpets seem to form the most conspicuous branch. The iron manufactures of Carron are deservedly famous.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The climate of Scotland is such as might be expected from its insular situation, and high latitude. In the east there is not so much humidity as in England, as the mountains on the west arrest

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the vapours from the Atlantic. On the other hand, the western counties are deluged with rain. Even the winter is more distinguishable for the quantity of snow, than the intensity of the frost. In the summer, the heat in the valleys is reflected with great power. These observations apply chiefly to the north and west. In the east and south, the climate differs but little from that of Yorkshire.

**SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.** For a minute account of the various soils that prevail in Scotland, and the different modes of Agriculture, the reader must be referred to the Statistical Accounts, published by Sir John Sinclair. The excellence of the English agriculture, has justly entitled it to an imitation almost universal. But this advantage is of recent date; and, for a long period of time, Scotland was remarkable for producing the best gardeners and the worst farmers in Europe.

**RIVERS.** The three chief rivers of Scotland, are the Forth, the Clyde, and the Tay. The chief source of the Forth is from Ben Lomond, or rather from the two lakes, Con and Ard: and about four miles above Sterling, it forms a noble stream.

The Clyde is said to issue from a hill in the S. E. corner of Tweeddale, called Arrik Stane, which is undoubtedly the chief source of the Tweed, and one source of the Annan; but the Clyde has a more remote source in Kirshop, or Dair water, rising about six miles further to the south, in the very extremity of Lanarkshire.

The principal source of the Tay, is the lake of the same name, or the river may be traced to the more westerly sources of the Attrick and the Dochart, and the smaller stream of Locy; which fall into the western extremity of Loch Tay. The streams of Ericht and Ilay, swell the Tay, about nine miles to the north of Perth; after passing which city it receives the venerable stream of the Ern, and spreads into a wide estuary.

Next in consequence and in fame, is the Tweed, a beautiful and pastoral stream, which, receiving the Teviot from the south, near Kelso, falls into the sea at Berwick.

**LAKES.** Scotland abounds in lakes, by the inhabitants called lochs: the principal of which are the loch Tay, the loch Lomond, and the loch Du. They also give the name of loch to an arm of the sea, of which loch Tin

is one, and is 60 miles long and 4 broad. On the top of a hill near Lochness, accounted near two miles perpendicular, is a lake of fresh water, about sixty yards in length, and thought to be unfathomable; this lake never freezes, whereas the loch-an-wyn, or green lake, about 17 miles from it, is perpetually covered with ice.

**MOUNTAINS.** One of the most striking features of Scotland is its numerous mountains: the chief of which are the Grampian Hills forming the southern boundary of the Highlands: the Pentland hills; Lamermoor; and the Cheviot hills. Ben Nevis is the highest mountain in Great Britain, being 4,350 feet above the level of the sea—and yet this is not much above the quarter of the height of Mont Blanc. This mountain on the N. E. presents a precipice almost perpendicular, of 1500 feet in depth; and affords from its summit a grand view of the circumjacent country, to the extent of about eighty miles.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** The soil varies in different parts of the country. It is not in general as fertile as that of England, but as the spirit of improvement has spread through the country, its aspect is changing fast for the better. Many spots which were formerly nothing but barren heath, now exhibit thriving plantations. The vegetable productions of the low-lands are much the same as those of England, but they do not arrive so early at maturity. The high-lands still contain many extensive sterile tracts; the soil indeed in many places seems only adapted to the propagation of firs.—The animals of Scotland are pretty much the same as those of England. The high-lands are stocked with red-deer, roe-bucks, hares, rabbits, foxes, wild cats, and badgers; and the hills in general are covered with black cattle and sheep. Grouse and the heath-cock, the capperkailly and parmacan are found here. The two latter are esteemed great delicacies.—The horses in Scotland are exceedingly small, and great pains have been taken formerly to improve the breed, by importing a large and more noble kind from the Continent, but the soil and climate are so unfavourable, that the cattle always degenerated.—Scotland abounds in its seas, rivers and lakes with fish of all kinds, and contributes great supplies to the English market, particularly in lobsters and salmon.

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**MINERALS.** The chief minerals of Scotland are lead, iron, and coal. The lead-mines in the south of Lanarkshire have been long known. Those of Wanlockhead are in the immediate neighbourhood, but in the county of Dumfries. Some slight veins of lead have also been found in the western Highlands, particularly Arran. Iron is found in various parts of Scotland; the Carron ore is the most known, it is an argillaceous iron-stone, and is found in slaty masses, and in nodules, in an adjacent coal-mine, of which it sometimes forms the roof. At the Carron-works this ore is often smelted with the red greasy iron ore from Ulverston, in Lancashire, which imparts easier fusion, and superior value. Calamine, or zinc, is also found at Wanlock-head; and it is said, that plumbago and antimony may be traced in Scotland.

But the chief mineral is coal, which has been worked for a succession of ages. Pope Pius II. in his description of Europe, written about 1450, mentions that he beheld with wonder, black stones given as alms to the poor of Scotland. The Lothians and Fifeshire particularly abound with this useful mineral, which also extends into Ayrshire; and near Irwin is found coal, of a curious kind, called ribbon coal.

**SCOTISH ISLANDS.** The northern and western sides of Scotland are begirt with numerous small islands; on the west lie the Hebrides, or western Islands; on the north, the Orkneys, or Orkades, and still farther north the islands of Shetland, where the hardy inhabitants derive much of their sustenance from climbing the stupendous rocks, in search of birds and their nests, which multiply there in astonishing abundance.

## IRELAND.

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THE large and fertile island of Ireland, being situated to the west of Great Britain, was probably discovered by the Phœnicians as early as the sister island; and it appears that the island was known to the Greeks by the name of Juverna, about two centuries before the birth of Christ. When Cæsar made his expedition into Britain, he describes Hibernia as being about half the size of the island which he had explored. As the country had become more and more known, the Romans discovered that the ruling people in Ireland were the Scoti, and thenceforth the country began to be termed Scotia; an appellation retained by the monastic writers till the eleventh century, when the name Scotia having passed to modern Scotland, the ancient name of Hibernia began to reassume its honours.

**EXTENT.** The extent of this island is about 300 miles in length, and about 160 at the greatest breadth. The contents in square miles are about 27,457, which reckoning the population at 3,000,000, will be about 114 persons to a square mile.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** It is probable this island was first peopled by adventurers from Gaul, who were followed by their brethren the Guydill from England. About the time that the Belgæ seized on the south of England, kindred Gothic tribes passed into Ireland. These are the Firbolg of the Irish traditions, and were denominated Scoti by the Romans, as they had made themselves

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known, not only by extending their conquests in Ireland, but by invading the Roman province of Britain.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** The first historical epoch of Ireland is its population by the Celtic Gauls, and at a subsequent period, by the Belgæ.

2. The conversion of Ireland to Christianity in the fifth century, which was followed by a singular effect; for while the mass of the people retained all the ferocity of savage manners, the monasteries produced many men of such piety and learning, that Scotia or Ireland became celebrated all over Christendom.

3. The lustre diminished by the ravages of the Scandinavians, which began with the ninth century, and can hardly be said to have ceased when the English settlement commenced. The island split into numerous principalities, or kingdoms. The constant dissensions of so many small tribes rendered the island an easy prey.

4. In the year 1170, Henry II. permitted Richard Strongbow Earl of Pembroke to effect a settlement in Ireland, which laid the foundation of the English possessions in that country.

5. Ireland began to produce some manufactures about the fourteenth century, and ker-sayes or thin woollen cloths were exported to Italy.

6. Richard II. king of England, attempted in person the conquest of Ireland, but being imprudent and ill-served, nothing of moment was effected.

7. In the reign of James I. Ireland became entirely subjugated; and colonies of English and Scotch were established in the north.

8. The Irish, instigated by their fanatic priests, executed a dreadful massacre of the English settlers in 1641. This insurrection was not totally crushed till Cromwell led his veterans into Ireland.

9. The appearance of James II. in Ireland to reclaim his crown, may also deserve a place.

10. The amazing progress of Ireland in manufactures and commerce, within these twenty years, may be classed as the most illustrious of its historical epochs.

11. Its union with Great Britain.

**RELIGION.** The *legal* religion of Ireland is that of the church of England; but it is computed that two-

thirds of the people are Catholics; and of the remaining third the Presbyterians are supposed to constitute one half.

The ecclesiastical discipline of the established church is the same as in England. The Catholics retain their nominal bishops and dignitaries, who subsist by the voluntary contributions of their votaries; but notwithstanding the blind superstition and ignorance of the latter, Protestantism increases every year. The institution of the Protestant-working schools has contributed much to this salutary purpose.

The Arch-Bishoprics in Ireland are four; Armagh, Dublin, Cashel and Tuam.—The Bishoprics are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dro-more, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Kilmore, Killaloe, Leigh-lin, Limerick, Meath, Ossory, Raphoe and Waterford.

**GOVERNMENT.** Ireland being now happily united with England, the form of government of course is identically the same, except in some minute variations between the statute and common laws of the two islands.

**CIVIL DIVISION.** Ireland is divided into four provinces, viz. Ulster to the north, which contains nine counties; Connaught to the west, five counties; Leinster to the east, twelve counties; and Munster to the south, six counties.

**POPULATION.** Agreeably to the most authentic documents, the population of Ireland is about three millions, of which near two-thirds are Roman Catholics, although these latter do not possess one-third of the property real and personal.

**MILITARY STRENGTH.** In consequence of the late rebellion, and the threats of a French invasion, a very considerable military force is now kept up in Ireland, viz.

Regulars,	45,839.
Militia,	27,104.
Yeomanry,	53,557.

126,500.

**REVENUE.** The public revenues of Ireland were computed by a late intelligent traveller at about one million sterling, or about 6*s.* 8*d.* per head, when those of England were as high as 29*s.*—But a great proportion of

the emigrants who have made their escape to the United States, and have clamoured so loudly of their oppressions, never paid any public taxes whatever in their native country.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** With respect to the present descendants of the old Irish, they are generally represented as an ignorant, uncivilized and blundering people. Impatient of abuse and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections; but quick of apprehension, courteous to strangers, and inured to hardships. Some of the old uncouth customs still prevail among them, particularly their funeral howlings, and the placing a dead corpse before their doors, laid out on tables, having a plate on the body to excite the charity of passengers. Their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more often quarrelling among themselves, are offensive to every civilized traveller. Their diet consists chiefly of buttermilk and potatoes; and their cottages are wretched hovels of mud. The manners of the superior classes of people now nearly approach to the English standard, and will be more assimilated by the influence of the union.

**SCHOOLS.** The literature of Ireland has a venerable claim to antiquity. The Anglo-Saxons, in particular, derived their first illumination from Ireland; and in Scotland literature continued to be the special province of the Irish clergy, till the thirteenth century: but the nation sunk again into the grossest ignorance.

It is to be hoped that one consequence, and not the least important of the union, will be the introduction of parochial education into Ireland, as the surest mean of preventing the ebullitions of ignorant discontent, of drunkenness and rebellion.

With four archbishoprics Ireland only possesses one university, that of Dublin. This institution was first projected by archbishop Leech, about the year 1311; but death having interrupted his design, it was revived and executed by Bicknor his successor, and enjoyed moderate prosperity for about forty years, when the revenues failed.

In the reign of Elizabeth, the university was refounded by voluntary contribution, under the auspices of Sidney



the Lord Deputy. It consists of a chancellor, vice-chancellor, provost, vice-provost, twenty-two fellows, and thirteen professors of various sciences. The number of students is commonly about four hundred, including seventy on the foundation. The building consists of two quadrangles, and it contains a library of some account, and a printing-office.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** Dublin the capital city of Ireland seems to be the Eblana of Ptolemy; but continued little known till the tenth century, when it was mentioned in the Saxon Chronicle; and in the beginning of the next century, we have coins of Canute struck at Dublin. The situation is delightful, in a bottom, between ranges of hills on the south and north. It is pervaded by the river Liffy, and by some rivulets. The inhabitants have been estimated at 150,000; this capital being justly accounted the second in the British dominions.

In proceeding to give an account of the other principal towns and cities of Ireland, Cork, and Limerick attract the first attention. Cork is a city of considerable importance, situated on the south-east side of the island, and supposed to contain about 70,000 inhabitants. It is the grand market of Irish provisions; and it was computed that not less than a hundred thousand cattle were here annually killed and salted between the months of August and January. The duties of the harbour, in 1751 were 62,000*l.* and in 1779, 140,000*l.* a prodigious improvement in twenty-eight years.

Limerick unites the fortunate situation of being almost central to the south of Ireland, with an excellent haven, formed by the long estuary of the river Shannon. The city is accounted the third in Ireland, and was formerly fortified with great care. There are three bridges over the river, one of which consists of fourteen arches. The number of inhabitants has been computed at 50,000. The chief exports are beef and other provisions.

Galway is a town of considerable note, and carries on an extensive trade with the West Indies. The port is commodious and safe, but distant from the city, which can only be reached by vessels of small burden: the number of inhabitants is computed at 12,000.

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Londonderry is more remarkable for its ancient and military fame than for its present commerce, though not unimportant. It stands on the river Foyle, over which a wooden bridge of singular construction, one thousand and sixty-eight feet in length, was thrown in 1791.

Belfast on the north-east is in the centre of the linen manufactures, and may almost be regarded as a Scottish colony. The inhabitants are computed at 18,000. The chief manufactures, cotton, cambric, sail-cloth, linen, with glass, sugar, and earthen-ware. It maintains considerable intercourse with the commercial city of Glasgow; and the grand exports are to the West Indies and America.

Waterford is a city of considerable importance, situated on the river Suir, and is supposed to have been founded by the Danes. It suffered greatly in the late disorders; and the inhabitants cannot now be supposed to exceed 30,000. The chief exports are beef, pork, &c. and linen. Packet-boats sail regularly betwixt Waterford and Milford Haven.

**EDIFICES.** The chief edifices of Ireland are confined to the capital. The cathedrals seldom aspire to great praise of architecture; and the villas of the nobility generally yield in splendour to those of England, and even of Scotland.

**INLAND NAVIGATION.** The advantages derived by England from inland navigation soon attracted the attention of Ireland; and not many years after the example set by the Duke of Bridgewater, a grand canal was begun from the city of Dublin to the river Shannon, and was actually carried on to the bog of Allen, at the expence of 77,000*l.* But the engineer's want of ability occasioned great errors in the original plan and survey; and the work was interrupted in 1770.

A canal is completed from the town of Newry to the sea, which was, however, intended to have passed that town towards the collieries of Drumglass and Dungannon. This attempt, however, to supply Dublin with Irish coals, has hitherto been only successful in part, though the beds of coals are said to be very abundant.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** Though we find that Ireland was distinguished at an early period for her manufacture of woollen-stuffs, yet the spirit of industry

made little progress, and the chief Irish manufactures are of recent institution. But the linen manufacture was not unknown in Ireland in more early times, as appears from the acts of parliament in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth. The annual produce of the linen manufacture is computed at about 2,000,000*l.* sterling: and the average of all the exports of Ireland is between four and five millions.

**CLIMATE.** Ireland lying nearly in the same parallel with England, the difference of climate cannot be supposed to be very important. The mean temperature of the north is about 48; of the middle 50; of the south 52 of Fahrenheit.

**SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.** Mr. Young observes, that the quantity of the cultivated land exceeds, in proportion, that of England. The most striking feature is the rocky nature of the soil, stones generally appearing on the surface, yet without any injury to the fertility; even in the most flat and fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath. The climate being more moist than that of England, the verdure never appears parched with heat. Tillage is little understood, even in the best corn counties; turnips and clover being almost unknown. The farmers are oppressed by a class of *middle men*, who rent farms from the landlords, and let them to the real occupiers. Lime-stone gravel is a manure peculiar to Ireland; having, on uncultivated land, the same wonderful effects as lime, and on all soils it is beneficial.

**RIVERS.** Among the chief rivers of Ireland must be mentioned the Shannon, which rises from the lake of Allen; and passing through two other large lakes, extends below Limerick, into a vast estuary or firth, about sixty miles in length, and from three to ten in breadth. This noble river is, almost through its whole course, so wide and deep, as to afford easy navigation. The other principal rivers are the Barrow, Nour, Suir, Banna, Lee, Liffy and Boyne.

The *lakes* of Ireland are numerous, and some of them extensive. The chief lake of fresh water is that of Earn, which exceeds thirty British miles in length, and twelve in its greatest breadth; it is divided by a narrow outlet from the southern part into the northern, of about four miles in length.

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Next in magnitude is Neagh, about twenty-two miles in length, and twelve in breadth. Both these lakes are studded with small islands; and the latter is said to possess a petrifying quality.

The lake of Corrib, in the county of Galway, is about twenty miles in length, and from two to five wide.

Among the lakes of the second magnitude we will only mention the beautiful and interesting Lough of Killarney in the S. W. abounding with romantic views, and fringed with the arbutus, no where else a native of the British dominions.

**MOUNTAINS.** Among the highest mountains in Ireland are the mountains of Carlingford, the Curlious, which separate the counties of Sligo and Roscommon; those in the county of Donegal; the Manguton mountains in the county of Kerry; Croah Patrick in the county of Mayo; and the Galtee mountains, in the county of Tipperary.

**Bogs.** These are numerous in Ireland, and are of different kinds. Some are grassy, in which the water being concealed by the herbage, they are extremely perilous to travellers; others are pools of water and mire; and others are hassocky bogs, or shallow lakes studded with tufts of rushes—and lastly the peat moors. Ornaments of gold, and other relics of antiquity have been found, from time to time, in the bogs at great depths.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** There is little under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being mostly similar to those of England and Scotland.

**MINERALS.** The mineralogy of Ireland has been recently celebrated for the discovery of considerable masses of native gold, in the county of Wicklow, to the south of Dublin. It is reported that a jeweller who lately died in Dublin, often declared that gold taken from that spot, had passed through his hands to the value of 30,000*l.* It is now worked for government, and it is said that a very massy vein has been recently discovered. The silver found in the Irish mines mingled with lead deserve more attention. One of these mines in the county of Antrim, yielded a pound of pure silver to thirty pounds of lead. Ireland

likewise possesses some mines of copper, and some of coal, the latter perhaps as pure as any in the world.

**NATURAL CURIOSITIES.** What is called the Giant's Causeway, must be distinguished as the most remarkable curiosity in Ireland. This surprising collection of basaltic pillars is about eight miles N. E. from Coleraine; and projects into the sea to an unknown extent. The part explored is about 600 feet in length; the breadth from 240 to 120 feet; and the height from 16 to 36 feet above the level of the strand. It consists of many thousand pillars, mostly of a pentagonal form, in a vertical position, all of them separate, though close together, so as to form a pavement, of gradual ascent. In the days of ignorance, this was considered as a stupendous work of art, but it is now more justly viewed as a rare natural phenomenon.

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## FRANCE.

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FRANCE is deservedly considered amongst the most eminent European states.—In the year 600 before Christ the Phocæans, sailing from Ionia, founded Massilia, now called Marseilles. The more ancient inhabitants were Celts, the aborigines of great part of western Europe.—The southern parts of Gaul (the original name of the country) became known at an early period to the Romans, who entered that region about 120 years before the Christian æra, and soon afterwards founded the province termed Gallia Bracata, from bracca, a sort of breeches worn by the inhabitants; but the remainder of this extensive and fertile country was reserved for the conquering arms of Julius Cæsar. On the decline of the Roman empire it was over-run by the Franks, an assemblage of tribes from lower Germany, and from them it received its present denomination.

**EXTENT.** The extent of France before the recent acquisitions, was computed at 148,840 square miles; and supposing the then population to be 26,000,000, would render 174 inhabitants to each mile square. The boundaries were, on the west, the Atlantic ocean; on the south, the Mediterranean and Pyrenees; on the east, Savoy, Swisserland, and Germany; on the north, the Austrian Netherlands, the German sea, and English Channel. It extends from about the 42d to near the 51st degree of N. latitude; from about the 7th degree of longitude west from Paris, to about the 5th on the east; being in length,

N. to S. about 600 British miles, and in breadth, W. to E. about 560

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The primitive inhabitants were the Celts, to whom no anterior people can be traced in the western regions of Europe; but on the S. W. the Aquitani, of African descent, had passed from Spain; and on the N. E. the warlike German tribes, known by the name of Belgæ, had seized on a third part of the country, where they introduced the Gothic language and manners. On the S. also the German Gauls had diffused themselves into what was called Gallia Braccata: nor must the Greek colonies be forgotten. The solidity and duration of the Roman conquests diffused the Latin language through all ranks, together with their laws and government.

**DIVISIONS.** Before the revolution this kingdom was divided into provinces. The national assembly, intent on destroying every ancient vestige, thought proper to parcel it out into eighty-three departments. The recent conquests have been moulded to a similar form, under the name of re-united departments, making an addition of eighteen, besides the latter annexation of Piedmont and the isle of Elba.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** 1. The primitive population of the Celts, and the conquests of the Aquitani, and Belgæ.

2. The complete conquest of the country by Julius Cæsar.

3. Its reduction by the Franks under Clovis, about the year 490, and the conversion of the Franks to the Christian faith, five years after that period.

4. The obscure and distracted history of the Merovingian race, till its final extinction in the middle of the eighth century.

5. The Carolingian race, which ascended the throne in the year 752, and was followed, twenty years afterwards, by the celebrated reign of Charlemagne, who carried the power of France to the utmost extent and splendour, having in particular, subdued the greatest part of Germany, where he became the founder and first sovereign of what has since been styled the German Em-

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pire, A. D. 800, and which remained with his descendants for near a century.

6. The accession of the house of Capet in the year 987.

7. The crusades in which the French bore the chief sway.

8. The wars with England. The acquisition of France by Henry V. and its deliverance by the Maid of Orleans, or rather by Charles VII. styled the victorious.

9. The reign of Lewis XI. who, crushing such powerful princes as were left after the English shock, may be regarded as the father of absolute monarchy.

10. The reign of Francis I. called the father of the arts and letters, during which the French, who had been regarded as barbarians by the more civilized people of Italy, began, on the contrary, to be distinguished by superior refinement. This is also the first epoch of a standing army in Europe.

11. The intestine commotions with the Protestants, and massacre of St. Bartholomew.

12. The reign of Henry IV.

13. That of Louis XIV. too much extolled by the French, and too much degraded by other nations.

14. The recent revolution, or revolutions which have followed one another with a rapidity that has astonished Europe, and which in the singularity and importance of the events, rival the pages of ancient history.

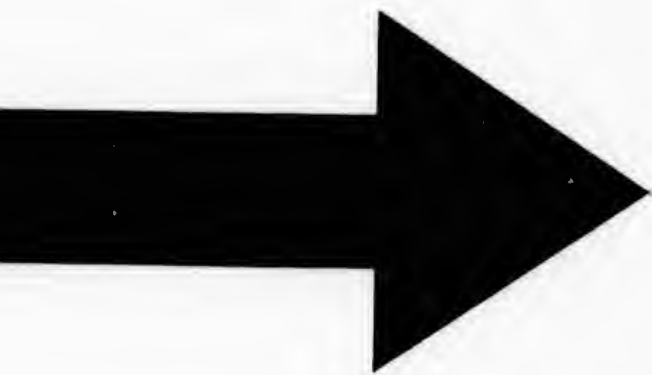
**ANTIQUITIES.** Several ancient monuments exist in France which are ascribed to the first epoch. The Greek colony at Marseilles seems to have imparted some degree of civilization to the country, and the rude Gallic coins are evidently an imitation of the Grecian model.

The Roman antiquities in France are numerous, and some of them in excellent preservation. Those at Nismes are particularly celebrated, consisting chiefly of an amphitheatre, and the temple called La Maison Carré.

The disclosure of the grave of Childeric, near Tournay, in the last century presented some of the most curious fragments. In an old tower of St. Germain du Fré are representations of several of the first monarchs of the Franks, and many of their effigies were preserved on their tombs at St. Dennis and other places, till the late revolution.









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The monuments of the Carlovingian race are yet more numerous, and Roman mosaics have illustrated the fame of Charlemagne. Of the later periods one of the most singular is the suit of tapestry, preserved in the Cathedral church of Bayeux, representing the beginning and termination of the grand contest between William and Harold, which led to the conquest of England by the Normans. It is said to have been the work of Matilda, wife of William ; and bears every mark of that remote antiquity.

**RELIGION.** The religion of France is the Roman Catholic, but the Gallican church, since its re-establishment by Bonaparte, has been considerably modified and rendered almost wholly independent on Roman influence.

**GOVERNMENT.** To attempt to describe the present government of France would be as vague as writing on the sands of a troubled ocean. Equally futile would be the attempt to describe laws, where there is no code ; and which fluctuate according to the despotism or clemency of the rulers. At present the government, both in form and spirit, is a mere military despotism, the two senates being the passive instruments of the commander in chief, who has styled himself Emperor of the French.

**POPULATION.** The population of France was formerly computed at 26,000,000, but the recent acquisitions, if durable, would swell it to the formidable extent of 34,000,000. At all events France is a country teeming with population, and quickly resumes her vigour after stupendous losses, as Europe has repeatedly experienced.

**COLONIES.** The French colonies are at present unimportant, and it is probable will be lost for ever, if the war which now rages, should continue a few years ; and of course the maritime importance of the nation will be almost annihilated.

**ARMY.** The political convulsions which have agitated this unhappy country, and yet more the despotism of its rulers have occasionally, within these few years, swelled the French armies to the amazing computation of upwards of a million. By a statement lately published, in the *Etat Militaire*, they now consist of 110 demi-brigades of 3,200 each ; of 30 light demi-brigades of the same compliment ; eight regiments of foot artillery, each of

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20 companies ; eight of horse artillery, each of 466 men ; 26 regiments of cavalry ; and 20 regiments of dragoons, each of 800 men ; 25 regiments of chasseurs, and 12 regiments of hussars, of the like number. The whole exclusive of engineers, miners, &c. forming a force of 413,728.

**NAVY.** The maritime power of France was formidable even to England, till the battle of La Hogue, since which the British flag has reigned triumphant on the ocean, and the struggles of France, though often energetic, have encountered the fixed destiny of inevitable defeat.

**REVENUE.** The revenue of France was formerly computed at about 30,000,000*l.* sterling ; from which, after deducting the expence of collection, and the payment of the interest on the national debt, there remained clear about 18,000,000 ; but any attempt to calculate the present state of the revenue must be vague and inconclusive : One half of it, perhaps, is wrung from allies and neutrals, the United States not excepted.

The common current money of France has been computed at 90,000,000*l.* sterling, while that of Great Britain has been estimated at 40,000,000*l.* The late conquests have enriched France, and especially Paris, with the rapine of many provinces ; and the generals vie with the Romans in wealth and luxury : in a coarse imitation of their worst vices.

**POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS.** The political importance and relations of France continue to be vast ; nor was the prodigious power of this state ever so completely felt and acknowledged, as after a revolution and a war which threatened her very existence. When expected to fall an easy prey, she suddenly arose the aggressor, and has astonished Europe by the rapidity and extent of her victories. The rivalry of many centuries between France and England sunk into a petty dispute, when compared with this mighty contest, which will be felt and deplored by distant posterity. Yet, by the protection of all-ruling providence, the British empire has risen superior to the struggles, and remained free from those scenes of carnage and devastation, which attended the French progress into other countries ; and the French

navy being reduced to so insignificant a force, Great Britain has less to apprehend from France, than at any former period. The other powers of Europe, except Russia and the northern states, are either victims or associates of the ambitious projects of their common enemy.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** The manners and customs of the French have been often delineated, but with great deviation from the true likeness. The most pleasing parts of the portrait are vivacity, gaiety, politeness, and a singular disposition towards social enjoyments. On the other hand ancient and recent events conspire to affix a sanguinary stain and a rapacity on the national character, which are hardly reconcilable to so much gaiety, and seeming benevolence.

The ancient and rooted enmity between England and France nourished many prejudices against the French character, which have since disappeared in the reports of more candid authors. Yet, with travellers accustomed to the elegance of English life, many of the French manners and customs cannot be reconciled to ideas of physical purity; and the looseness of morals, in regard to the sex, has become proverbial. The republican form of government has only spread the contagion wider, nor has the liberty of divorce proved any bond of chastity.

**LANGUAGE.** The French language is the most universally diffused of any in the courts of Europe; and the consequence is felt in the variety and extent of their intrigues. In variety, clearness, and precision, and idioms adapted to life, business, and pleasure, it yields to no modern speech: but it wants force and dignity, and yet more, sublimity. The French language is a well known corruption of the Roman, mingled with Celtic and Gothic words and idioms. But while the Italian remains the same from the days of Danté and Petrarca, through a lapse of 500 years, the epoch of classical purity of the French language commences with the reign of Louis XIV. The recent revolution has introduced such exuberance of new words and phrases, that a neological dictionary is required to explain them.

**PUBLIC SCHOOLS.** The state of education in all the Catholic countries was very defective till the Jesuits gave great attention to this important department; to

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which, if their exertions had been solely directed they would have proved a most useful body of men.

At the time when this religious order was suppressed, France boasted of twenty-one universities; in the north, Douay, Caën, Paris, Rheims, Nanci, Strasburg; in the middle provinces, Nantes, Angers, Poitiers, Orléans, Bourges, Dijon, Besancon; and in the south, Bourdeaux, Pau, Perpignan, Toulouse, Montpellier, Aix, Orange, Valence. Of these the Sorbonne of Paris was the most celebrated; but it shewed an irremediable tendency to prolong the reign of scholastic theology. The academies and literary societies were computed at thirty-nine. Those of Paris, in particular, have been long known to the learned world, by elegant and profound volumes of dissertations on the sciences, and on the Belles Lettres. Nor have public institutions of this kind been foreign to the consideration of the new government.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** The ample extent of this country displays a corresponding number of important cities and towns, of which we shall notice a few of the principal. Paris, the capital, rises on both sides the river Seine, in a pleasant and healthy situation, with delightful environs. It is divided into three parts; the town, *ville*, on the north, the city in the middle, and that part called the university on the south. It is mentioned by Cæsar as being restricted in his time to an island in the midst of the Seine. An intelligent traveller supposes Paris to be one-third smaller than London; and the inhabitants probably amount to between 5 and 600,000. The houses are chiefly built with free stone, from quarries like catacombs, which run in various directions under the streets; so that an earthquake would be peculiarly destructive, and might completely bury the city. The banks of the Seine present noble quays; and the public buildings are not only elegant in themselves, but are placed in open and commanding situations. The Louvre is arranged among the best specimens of modern architecture; and the church of St. Genevieve, now the Pantheon, is also deservedly admired; nor must the Thuilleries, the Palais Royale, and Hospital of Invalids be forgotten. Paris, no doubt, exceeds London in magnificence, but yields greatly in cleanliness and convenience; and the streets generally without accommodation for foot passengers, loudly bespeak the inattention of the govern-



ment to the middle and lower classes of men. The revolution and its consequent rapine have enlarged and adorned the public collections; and, by enriching numerous individuals, has enabled them to increase their favourite city with new and beautiful streets and squares.

Next to Paris in extent and population was the noble city of Lyons, which was supposed to contain about 100,000 souls. As the chief manufactures were articles of luxury, silk, cloths of gold, and silver, &c. it was natural that this venerable town should be firmly attached to the ancient aristocracy, though with consequences incalculably fatal to its prosperity. During the infatuated reign of the jacobins it was besieged, captured, and, after the wildest and basest massacres, was doomed to final demolition. But as there are bounds even to rage and folly, this decree was only executed in part. Though Lyons will probably never recover its ancient extent and opulence.

The third and fourth cities of France are Marseilles and Bourdeaux; each peopled by about 80,000 souls. The foundation of Marseilles has been already mentioned, and the city remains worthy of its ancient fame, the port being at the same time one of the best and most frequented in the whole Mediterranean. The exchange is a noble building, and the new parts of the city are beautiful.

Bourdeaux was a prosperous city, but the trade must have suffered great injury. The port is ample and commodious, with extensive quays. The chief exports are wine and brandy, particularly the vin de Bourdeaux, which we term claret, because it is of a clear and transparent red, while tent and some other wines are opake.

**EDIFICES.** Several of the most noble edifices of France are in Paris, and its vicinity. To those already mentioned must be added, the palace of Versailles, rather remarkable, however, for the profusion of expence, than for the skill of the architect; the parts being small and unharmonious, and the general effect rather idle pomp than true grandeur. The bridge of Neuille is esteemed the most beautiful in Europe, consisting of five wide arches of equal size. The ancient cathedrals and castles are numerous, but the latter are by no means conspicuous for their elegance or taste.

**INLAND NAVIGATION.** The inland navigation of France has been promoted by several capital exertions.

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The canal of Briare, otherwise styled that of Burgundy, opens a communication between the Loire and the Seine, or in other words between Paris and the western provinces. Passing by Montargis it joins the canal of Orleans, and falls into the Seine near Fontainebleau.

The canal of Picardy extends from the Somme to the Oise, beginning at St. Quintin, and forming a convenient intercourse to the provinces in the N. E.

But the chief work of this description is the celebrated canal of Languedoc, commenced and completed in the reign of Louis XIV. under the auspices of that able minister Colbert. Fifteen years of labour were employed, from 1666 to 1681. This noble canal begins in the bay of Languedoc; and at St. Ferriol is a reservoir of 595 acres of water; it enters the Garonne about a quarter of a mile below the city of Toulouse. The breadth, including the towing paths, is 144 feet; the depth six feet; the length 64 French leagues, or about 180 miles. The expence was about half a million sterling.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** The articles of commerce in France, are its wines, brandy, vinegar, fruits, as prunes, prunellos, dried grapes, pears, apples, oranges, and olives; drugs, oils, and chymical preparations; silks, embroidery, tapestry, cambrics, lawns, laces, brocades, and woollens, in imitation of the English; paper, parchment, and toys.

From this detail some idea may be formed of the commerce of France. By the account of 1784, which did not include Lorain or Alsace, nor the West India trade,

Total Exports were 307,151,700 livres.

Imports 271,365,000

Balance .....  
35,786,700, or 1,565,668*l.* sterling.

The trade with the West Indies gave a large balance against France.

In the year 1788, the average	}	12,500,000 <i>l.</i> sterling
Imports of France were about		
Exports, nearly,		15,000,000
In the same year	}	18,000,000
Imports of Great Britain were		
Exports, ditto.		17,500,000

Since the beginning of the French revolution the commerce of England has been constantly increasing—while that of her envious rival has been almost annihilated.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The climate of so extensive a country as France, may be expected to be various. In general it is far more clear and serene than that of England; but the northern provinces are exposed to heavy rains, which however produce beautiful verdure and rich pastures. France may be divided into three climates, the northern, the central, and the southern. The first yields no wines; the second no maize; the third produces wines, maize and olives. These divisions proceed in an oblique line from the S. W. to the N. E. so as to demonstrate “that the eastern part of the kingdom is two and a half degrees of latitude hotter than the western, or if not hotter more favourable to vegetation.”

**SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.** The variations of the soil are very considerable. The N. E. part from Flanders to Orleans is a rich loam. Further to the W. the land is poor and stony; Brittany gravel, or gravelly sand, with low ridges of granite. The chalk runs through the centre of the kingdom, from Germany by Champagne to Saintonge; and on the N. of the mountainous tract is a large extent of gravel, but even the mountainous region of the south is generally fertile, though the large province formerly called Gascony presents many level heaths.

The defects of French agriculture, consist in frequent fallows, while the English farmer obtains even superior crops of corn, by substituting turnips and other green crops to the fallows; besides the clear profit from his clover, turnips or tares.

In some of the provinces, however, the plans of agriculture correspond with the natural fertility of the soil; and others display a most laudable industry. There is a remarkable instance exhibited in the barren mountains of the Cevennes. As the waters which run down the sides carry considerable quantities of earth into the ravines, walls of loose stones are erected which permit the waters to pass when they are clear; but when turbid their load of earth is gradually deposited against the wall, and affords a space of fertile soil. Successive ramparts are thus erected to the very top of the mountain; and the water, having no longer a violent fall, only serves to nourish the crops, which are

moreover protected by planting fruit trees at certain intervals, so as to lend security and consistence to the new acquisition.

**RIVERS.** Among the rivers of France four are most eminent; the Seine, the Loire, the Rhone, and the Garonne. The first is one of the most beautiful streams of France: rising in the department of Côte D'Or, it pursues its course to the N. W. till it enters the English channel at Havre de Grace, after a course of about 250 English miles.

The Loire derives its source from Mont Gerbier in the N. of ancient Languedoc; and after a northern course turns to the west, entering the ocean a considerable way beyond Nantes, after a course of about 500 miles.

The Rhone springs from the Glacier of Furca, near the mountain of Grimsel in Swisserland; and after passing the beautiful vales of the Vallais, and the lake of Geneva, bends its course towards the south, and enters the Mediterranean. The comparative course 400 miles.

The Garonne rises in the vale of Arau in the Pyrenees. The course of this river is generally N. W. It extends to about 250 miles. After its junction with the Dordogne, it assumes the name of the Gironde, which gave its distinctive appellation to a faction that fell under the axe of Robespierre.

The principal mountains of France are in its southern departments.

Mount Jura, a vanguard of the Alps, forms a boundary between France and Swisserland. If Mont Blanc be admitted among the French mountains, the other Alps cannot rival its supreme elevation. The ancient province of Dauphiné displays several Alpine branches, which also extend through great part of Provence.

The grand chain of the Cevennes seems to run from N. to S. and to send out branches towards the E. and W. The northern part of the chain is styled the Puy de Dome, while the southern is called that of Cantal. The Monts D'Or form the centre, and are the highest mountains in France. The chief elevation is that of the Puy de Sanfi, capped with perpetual snow, which rises about 6,300 feet above the level of the sea, while the Puy de Dome is about 5000, and the Plomb du Cantal, the highest of that part, is about 6,200 feet. On the 23d of June, 1727, Fradines, a village on the slope of one of these mountains, was totally

overwhelmed, the whole mountain with its basaltic columns, rolling into the valley. The inhabitants were fortunately engaged in the celebration of midsummer eve, around a bonfire at some distance from the mountain.

The Pyrenees remain to be described. To the surprise of naturalists, they have been found to present calcareous appearances, and even shells and skeletons of animals, near or upon their highest summits, which are in the centre of the chain. Mont Perdu is considered as the highest elevation of the Pyrenees, ascending above the sea 1751 French toises, or about 11,000 feet English. The Pyrenean chain appears at a distance like a shaggy ridge, presenting the segment of a circle fronting France, and descending at each extremity till it disappears in the ocean and Mediterranean.

Perdu is of very difficult access, as the calcareous rock often assumes the form of perpendicular walls, from 100 to 600 feet in height; and the snows, ice, and glaciers, encrease the difficulty. Near the summit is a considerable lake, more than 9000 feet above the level of the sea, which throws its waters to the east into the Spanish valley of Beoussa.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** So great indeed is the extent and so various the climate of France that probably more than half the European species of plants may be found within its boundaries. That country which produces in full and equal perfection wheat and apples, maize, and grapes, oranges and olives, the oak and the myrtle, must doubtless exceed all other European countries of equal extent in the variety and richness of its vegetable treasures; but a bare enumeration of them would occupy more room than can be allotted to them in a work like the present.

The horses of France do not appear to have been celebrated at any period; and it is well known that the ancient monarchs were drawn to the national assemblies by oxen. Many English horses are in times of peace imported for the coach and the saddle. The best native horses for draught, are those of Normandy; for the saddle, those of the Limoçin, which have been recently improved by crossing the breed with the Arabian, Turkish, and English. But the greater number of horses in France consists of Biddets, small animals of little show, but great utility. The

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cattle of Limoges, and some other provinces, are of a beautiful cream colour. The sheep are ill managed, having in winter only straw, instead of green food as in England. The consequences are poor fleeces, and rarity of sheep, so that the poor are forced to eat bread only, and large quantities of wool are imported. Of ferocious animals the most remarkable are the wild boar and the wolf; the ibex and chamois, are found on the Pyrenees and the Alps.

**MINERALS.** Gold mines anciently existed in the S. of France, and some of the rivulets still roll down particles of that metal. France can also boast of the silver mines at St. Marie-aux-Mines in Alsace, and elsewhere. The same as well as other districts contain mines of copper. The Duchy of Deux Ponts, one of the fraternized acquisitions of France on the west of the Rhine, is celebrated for mines of quicksilver. The annual product of these mines may be estimated at 67,200 pounds of mercury. Two-thirds of the lead of France are from Bretagne, particularly the mines of Poullaouen and Huelgoet.

Iron, that most important and universal of metals, is found in abundance, particularly in some of the northern departments. In 1798 it was computed that there were 2000 furnaces, forges, &c. for the working of iron and steel.

The coal mines of France were at the same time estimated at 400, constantly wrought; and 200 more capable of being wrought. Nearly allied to coal is jet, an article formerly of great consumption, chiefly in Spain, where it was made into rosaries, crosses, buttons for black dresses, &c.

**NATURAL CURIOSITIES.** Among the natural curiosities of France, the most worthy of notice is the plain of La Crau, which lies in Provence, not far from the mouth of the Rhone. This is the most singular stony desert that is to be found in France, or perhaps in Europe. The diameter is about five leagues, and the contents from 20 to 25 square leagues, or about 150,000 English acres.

**FRENCH ISLES.** The isles around France are so small, and unimportant, that they would scarcely be deserving of notice, were it not for events that have taken place during the late war. The isle of Corsica must however be excepted, as it gave birth to Napoleon Bonaparte, a military adventurer, and now emperor of France.

The isles called Hyeres, near Toulon, have at present a barren and naked appearance, and only present some melancholy pines. They however contain some botanic riches, and may claim the fame of being Homer's isle of Calypso.

On the western coast first occurs the isle of Oleron, about fourteen miles long, by two broad, celebrated for a code of maritime laws issued by Richard I. king of England. To the N. is the isle of Ré, opposite Rochelle, noted for an expedition of the English in the seventeenth century. Bellisle has been repeatedly attacked by the English: it is about nine miles long and three broad, surrounded by steep rocks, which, with the fortifications, render the conquest difficult. The isle of Ushant, or Ouessant, is remarkable as the furthest headland of France, towards the west, being about twelve miles from the continent, and about nine in circumference, with several hamlets, and about 600 inhabitants. And St. Marcou, held by the British during the last war, in defiance of all the power of the great nation, although it is only seven miles from their shores.

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## NETHERLANDS.

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THOSE provinces of the Netherlands which were formerly subject to the house of Austria, have been recently annexed to the French dominions; and this fertile territory may probably continue to be united to France, as to acquire it was one reason why the French murdered their king and queen, and established a republic.

**NAMES.** The Netherlands in general were anciently known by the name of Belgic Gaul, and therefore the French, in their new-fangled vocabulary, call them *re-united* departments.

**EXTENT.** The length of the Austrian Netherlands, computed from the eastern limit of Luxembourg to Ostend on the ocean, may be about 180 British miles; and about 120 in breadth, from the northern boundary of Austrian Brabant to the most southern limit of Hainaut. The extent is computed at 7,520 square miles, with a population of 1,900,000.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The original population was Celtic succeeded by the Belgæ, and afterwards vanquished by the Franks.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** 1. The events while the Romans held Gaul.

2. Under the Merovingian race of French kings.

3. The ancient earls of Flanders, and Hainaut, and other potentates who shared these territories.

4. The dukes of Burgundy. During these two epochs the Netherlands became the great mart of commerce in



the west of Europe, and were distinguished by opulence and the arts.

5. The Austrian domination, accompanied with repeated unsuccessful struggles for freedom. The seven United Provinces having, however, established their liberty, the commerce, and prosperity of the southern regions passed quickly to their northern neighbours.

6. Their conquest by the French and annexation to the territory of the republic.

**RELIGION, &c.** The religion of the Netherlands is the Roman Catholic; and till the French revolution, the inhabitants were noted for their bigotry. The metropolitan see was the archbishopric of Mechlin, or Malines. The bishoprics were those of Bruges, Aptwerp, Ghent, &c. in number nine or ten. The government and laws had many features of freedom. The *Joyeuse Entree* was the magna charta of the Netherlands, a constitutional bond of national privileges, which the inhabitants foolishly exchanged for French fraternity.

**POPULATION, &c.** The population being computed at 1,900,000, and the square extent at 7,520 miles; there will be 252 inhabitants to the square mile, while France yields only 174. Under the Austrian power, the revenue of the Netherlands scarcely defrayed the expences of government, and the various extorions of the French rulers cannot afford any sufficient data to compute an equitable and lasting revenue.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** The manners and customs of the Netherlands partake of those of their neighbours, the Dutch and French, but principally of the latter, which, together with the common use of the French language, paved the way for their subjugation.

**P. SCHOOLS.** The education was neglected as in most Catholic countries. The universities, which in no country are of equal importance with the schools, were, however, numerous; considering the extent of the country. Exclusive of Tournay, (Dornick) which has been long subject to the French, there were others at Douay, and St. Omer, much frequented by the English Catholics; and one of still greater celebrity at Louvain, founded in 1425.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** The three chief cities in what were called the Austrian Netherlands, are Brussels, Ghent, and Antwerp. The capital city of Brussels still

contains about 80,000 inhabitants, and is beautified by a noble square, one side of which is occupied with a vast guildhall; and by numerous churches and fountains. The imperial palace, the wonted residence of the governor of the Netherlands, displays considerable taste and magnificence.

Ghent contains about 60,000 souls, and the circumference of the walls is computed at 15 miles, as it is built on a number of little islands formed by four rivers, and many canals, and includes gardens, and even fields.

The inhabitants of Antwerp are computed at 50,000, the sad remains of great population and prosperity. The streets, houses, and churches, are worthy of the ancient fame of the city. The exchange is said to have afforded the pattern for that of London. In 1568 the trade is supposed to have been at its greatest height; and the number of inhabitants was computed at 200,000.

**EDIFICES.** In general it may be observed, that even at the present day, every traveller is impressed with surprise, not only at the number, but the great extent of the Flemish cities, towns, and even villages; in which respect the Netherlands exceed every country in Europe, only excepting the United Provinces. The chief edifices are the cathedrals, churches and monasteries; together with a few castles belonging to ancient families, or rich merchants.

**INLAND NAVIGATION.** Idle would be the attempt even to enumerate the canals which intersect these provinces in all directions. Some of them date even from the tenth century, and the canal from Brussels to the Scheld is of the sixteenth. Other important canals extend from Ghent, Antwerp, Ostend, and other cities and towns, especially in the western districts.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** The manufactures and commerce of the Netherlands, for a long period superior to any in the west of Europe, have suffered a radical decline, owing partly to the other powers entering into competition; and partly to the establishment of freedom in the United Provinces, whence Amsterdam arose upon the ruins of Antwerp. What little commerce remains is chiefly inland to Germany, the external employing very few native vessels. The chief manufactures are of fine linen, and laces, at Mechlin, Brussels, Ghent, Ant-

werp, Louvain, which still enrich the country around, and induce the farmers to cultivate flax, even on the poorest soils.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS, &c.** The climate of the Netherlands considerably resembles that of the south of England, and is more remarkable for moisture than for warmth; yet the duchy of Luxembourg produces some wine. The soil is in general rich sandy loam, sometimes interspersed with fields of clay, but more often with large spaces of sand. Such has been, even in distant ages, the state of agriculture that the Netherlands were long esteemed the very garden of Europe, a praise which they still share with Lombardy and England. The repeated crops of excellent clover, the cole, the turnips, the clean crops of flax, barley, and oats, deservedly attract attention.

**RIVERS.** The Netherlands are watered by so many rivers and canals, that it will be sufficient to mention only a few of the chief streams. The chief river is the Scheld, which receives two other streams, the Lys, and the Scalpe, the latter near Mortagne, the former near Ghent. All these rivers arise in the county of Artois, from no considerable elevation; and the whole course of the Scheld, or French Escaut, cannot be comparatively estimated at above 120 miles. Most of the other rivers yield in importance to the canals, and it would indeed be difficult in many instances to determine whether their course be the work of nature or art.

**MOUNTAINS, &c.** Though there be little ridges of hills in the counties of Namur and Luxembourg, the traveller must proceed to the distant banks of the Rhine before he meets with any elevation that can deserve the name even of a small mountain.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** The vegetable productions of the Catholic Netherlands differ in no respect from those of Holland, and almost all the plants that are natives of this country may be met with in the sandy and marshy districts of the south-east coast of England.

The breed of horses and cattle is esteemed for size and strength.

**MINERALS.** So plain a country cannot be supposed to supply many minerals: yet coal, perhaps the most precious of them all, is found in several districts, and the

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ingenuity of the French has been exerted in an improvement of the operations. In the county of Namur are also found lead and copper; and Hainaut affords iron and slate. From its iron works Luxembourg derives its chief wealth; and the forest of Ardennes is still renowned for the metal of war. Marble and alabaster are also found in the eastern districts.

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## RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

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**EXTENT.** By the final partition of Poland, European Russia now extends from the river Dniester to the Uralian mountains, that grand chain which naturally divides Europe from Asia; a length of about 1600 miles, and in breadth above 1000 English miles, being from 47° to 72° north latitude, and 23° to 65° east longitude. The extent is computed at about 1,200,000 square miles, with 17 inhabitants to each.

Even the European part of the Russian empire embraces many ancient kingdoms and states; but the chief name, that of Russia, shall only be considered.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The grand population of the European part of the Russian empire is well known to be Slavonic. The Slavons, form an extensive original race of mankind, radically distinct from the Goths on the one hand, who, as possessing the countries more to the west, must have preceded the Slavons in their passage from Asia into Europe; and equally distinguishable in language, person, and manners, from the Tatars, and other nations on the east. They are the Sarmatæ of the ancients, and were ever remarkable for personal elegance and strength.

**CIVIL DIVISIONS.** The principal sub-divisions of European Russia are into military governments; which, though they are often changing, and are seldom mentioned by any except native geographers, it has not been thought right entirely to omit.

To the North is the extensive government of Archangel, stretching from the borders of Sweden to the confines of Asia. South of this, along the Asiatic frontier are the governments of Vologda, Perm, Viatka, Kazan, Simbirsk, Saratov, and the territory of the Don-Kozaks, each succeeding the other in a regular progress to the sea of Azof. The government of Ecaterinoslav, with the kingdom of Taurida, is the southernmost province, and contains Little Tatar, with the recent conquests from the Turks. On the west extend the acquisitions by the division of Poland. The governments of Riga, Revel, Petersburg, and Viborg, are situated along the Gulfs of Riga and Finland; and the government of Olonetz on the Swedish frontier completes the circuit. The midland provinces are the following; Novgorod, Tver, Kostroma, and Yaroslavl, for the most part to the North and east of the Volga; Polotsk, Pskov, Smolensk, Mosqua, Vladimir, Nizney-Novgorod, Moghilev, Calouga, Toula, Riazan, Tambov, Penza, Simbirsk, Orel, Sieverskov, Tchernigov, Koursk, Kiev, Charokov, Voronetz, principally to the west of the Volga.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** The following appear to be the chief historical epochs of this mighty empire:

1. The foundation of the kingdom by Ruric, a Scandinavian chief, A. D. 862. His descendants held the sceptre above 700 years.
2. The naval expeditions of the Russians against Constantinople, in the tenth century.
3. In the same century the baptism of Olga the queen, and the subsequent conversion of the Russians to Christianity.
4. The invasion of the Tatars under Batu Khan in 1236, and the subsequent vassalage of Russia.
5. The abolition of the power of the Tatars by Ivan III. who died in 1505.
6. The reign of Ivan IV. surnamed Basilowitz, known to western historians by the style of the tyrant John Basilides.
7. The death of the Czar Feodor in 1588, with whom expired the long progeny of Ruric. Several impostors afterwards appeared, under the name of Demetrius, the murdered brother of this sovereign.
8. The accession of the dynasty of Romanow, 1613, in the person of Michael Feodorowitz, sprung in the female

line from Ivan IV. He was followed by his son Alexis, father of Peter the Great.

9. The reign of Peter I. has been justly considered as a most important epoch in Russian history; but on reading the annals of the preceding reigns from that of Ivan IV. it will be perceived that a part of our admiration for Peter arises from our inattention to his predecessors, and that the light which he diffused was far from being so sudden and grand as is commonly imagined.

10. The late reign of Catharine II. deserves to be commemorated among the most brilliant epochs in the Russian annals; nor must her personal crimes exclude her from the list of great and able sovereigns.

**ANTIQUITIES.** Of ancient monuments Russia cannot be supposed to afford great variety. Sometimes the tombs of their pagan ancestors are discovered, containing weapons and ornaments. The catacombs at Kiow were perhaps formed in the Pagan period, though they be now replete with marks of Christianity. They are labyrinths of considerable extent, dug through a mass of hardened clay, but they do not seem to contain the bodies of the monarchs.

**RELIGION.** The religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, of which, since the fall of the Byzantine empire, this state may be considered as the chief source and power.

**GOVERNMENT.** The government of Russia appears to have been always despotic, there being no legislative power distinct from that of the sovereign. What is called the senate is only the supreme court of judicature. The whole frame of the government may be pronounced to be military; and nobility itself is only virtually estimated by rank in the army. The first Russian code dates from the reign of Ivan IV. and the late empress had the merit of drawing up a new code with her own hands.

**POPULATION.** The population of Russia is so diffuse, and spread over so wide an extent of territory, that very opposite opinions have been entertained concerning it.

The following account, according to Mr. Tooke, presents the whole population of the empire in 1799:

By the revision of 1783 there were in the governments, computing the female sex as } 25,677,000  
equal to the male, of registered persons,

The amount of the Kozaks of the Don and the Euxine,	}	220,000
For the numbered tribes and classes, at the time of the fourth revision,		1,500,000
Consequently the Russian empire, in the year 1783, might have inhabitants amounting altogether to	}	27,397,000
Natural increase since 1783,		3,000,000
The new acquisitions since the year 1783, contain, according to a legitimated statement	}	5,755,000
Consequently we may admit, by the most moderate estimate, the population of the Russian empire at present to be		36,755,000

Of this population Mr. Tooke assigns only about three millions and a half to Siberia, or Asiatic Russia, so that we might, perhaps, allow even 33,000,000 for the population of European Russia.

**ARMY.** Mr. Tooke estimates the whole amount of the Russian troops at 600,000: of which 500,000 may be esteemed effective.

**NAVY.** The Russian navy consists of several detached fleets. The chief fleet is that of the Baltic, which consists of about thirty-six ships of the line. That in the Euxine, or Black sea, at the harbours of Sevastopol and Kherson was computed at twelve ships of the line, but not of a high rate, as the Euxine affords no great depth of water: but there are many frigates, gallies, chebecks, and gun-boats. The fleet of gallies in the Baltic, in 1789, was estimated at 110.

**REVENUES.** The revenues of Russia are supposed to amount to about 50,000,000 of rubles; which, valuing the ruble at four shillings, will be equal to 10,000,000*l.* sterling. The national debt is supposed to amount to little or nothing.

**POLITICAL IMPORTANCE, &c.** With all these advantages it is no wonder that the political importance and relations of Russia are so preponderant in Europe and Asia. In Europe her recent acquisitions have contributed to render her more and more formidable. Poland has been devoured; Denmark and Sweden may be considered as subject-allies; and if the whole force of Russia were bent against either Austria or Prussia, it is hardly to be conceived that the shock could be withstood; but it



would be more usefully employed against the ambitious strides of France. Her friendship is of peculiar importance to the British empire, in peace, as well as war.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** As the Russian empire comprises so many distinct races of men, the manners of course must be very various.

The Slavonic Russians, who constitute the chief mass and soul of this empire, are generally middle sized and vigorous: the tallness and grace of the Polish Slavons seem to arise from superior climate and soil. The general physiognomy consists of a small mouth, thin lips, white teeth, small eyes, a low forehead, the nose commonly small, and turned upwards, beard very bushy, hair generally reddish. The expression of the countenance is gravity, with good nature, or sagacity; the gait and gestures lively and impassioned. The Russian is extremely patient of hunger and thirst; and his cure for all diseases is the warm bath, or rather vapour bath, in which the heat is above 100° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. When a marriage is proposed, the lover, accompanied by a friend, goes to the house of the bride, and says to her mother, "shew us your merchandize, we have got money," an expression which is thought to refer to the ancient custom of buying a wife. The Russians shew great attention to their nurses, and are so hospitable that they offer to every stranger the *Khleh da sol*, or bread and salt, the symbol of food, lodging, and protection. In several instances the Russians form a curious junction of European and Asiatic manners; many of their ceremonies partake of Asiatic splendour; the great are fond of dwarfs; and some opulent ladies maintain female tellers of tales, whose occupation is to lull their mistresses asleep, by stories resembling those of the Arabian Nights.

**LANGUAGE.** The Russian language is extremely difficult to pronounce, and not less difficult to acquire, as it abounds with extraordinary sounds, and anomalies of every kind. The characters amount to no less than thirty-six; and the common sounds are sometimes expressed in the Greek characters, sometimes in characters quite unlike those of any other language. Among other singularities there is one letter to express the *sch*, and another the *ssch*, the latter a sound hardly pronounceable by any human mouth.

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**PUBLIC SCHOOLS.** Education is little known or diffused in Russia, though the court have instituted academies for the instruction of officers and artists.

The university of Petersburg, founded by the late empress Catharine II. is a noble instance of munificence, and it is hoped will escape the fate of the colleges, founded at Moscow, by Peter the Great, which do not seem to have met with the deserved success.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** In considering the chief cities and towns of Russia, Moscow, the ancient capital, attracts the first attention. This city dates from the year 1300, and prior to the pestilence of 1771, the houses in Moscow were computed at 12,538, and the population at not less than 200,000. Moscow is built in the Asiatic manner, in which cities cover a vast space of ground. Petersburg, the imperial residence, is said to contain 170,000 inhabitants; and is the well known, but surprising erection of the last century. It stands in a marshy situation on the river Neva, the houses being chiefly of wood. The stone buildings are few; and Petersburg is more distinguished by its fame, than by its appearance or opulence. The noblest public works are the quays built of perpetual granite.

Astracan is supposed to stand next to Petersburg in population. This city, near the mouth of the vast river Volga, was the capital of the Tatar kingdom of Capshak; but the churches are chiefly of brick, and the houses of wood. The population is computed at 70,000. Cronstadt, and Kolonna, are supposed each to contain about 60,000 inhabitants. Cherson, and Caffa, are said each to contain 20,000; while 50,000 are ascribed to Tula, and 27,000 to Riga, a city of considerable trade and consequence.

**INLAND NAVIGATION.** The inland navigation of Russia deserves more attention. Among other laudable improvements, Peter the Great formed the design of establishing an intercourse by water between Petersburg and Persia, by the Caspian sea, the Volga, the Mesta, and the lake of Novgorod, &c. but this scheme failed by the ignorance of the engineers. During the long reign of the late empress many canals were accomplished, or at least received such improvements that the chief honour must be ascribed to her administration. The celebrated canal of Vishnei Voloshok was in some shape completed by Peter, so as to form a communication between Astracan and Pe-

tersburg. The navigation is performed according to the season of the year, in from a fortnight to a month, and it is supposed that near 4000 vessels pass annually.

The canal of Ladoga, extends from the river Volk to the Neva, a space of  $67\frac{1}{2}$  miles, and communicates with the former canal. By these two important canals constant intercourse is maintained between the northern and southern extremities of the empire. Another canal leads from Moscow to the river Don, forming a communication with the Euxine; and the canal of Cronstradt forms a fourth.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** By these means the inland trade of Russia has attained considerable prosperity: and the value of her exports and imports have been long upon the increase. Several manufactures are conducted with considerable spirit. That of isinglass, and kaviar are in a flourishing state. The manufactories of oil and soap are also considerable; and Petersburg exports great quantities of candles, besides tallow, which abounds in an empire so well replenished with pasturage. Salt-petre is an imperial traffic, and some sugar is refined at Petersburg. There are several manufactures of paper and tobacco, linen, cotton, and silk: leather has long been a staple commodity.

Russia produces vast quantities of wax. Iron founderies abound; and in the northern government of Olonetz is a grand foundery of cannon.

Russia is supposed to export by the Baltic grain annually to the value of 170,000*l.* and hemp and flax, raw, and manufactured to the amount of a million and a half sterling.

The Commerce of the Caspian sea is computed at 1,000,000 of rubles, or 200,000*l.* That of the Euxine is not above one-third of this value. That with China about 2,000,000 of rubles. Russia exchanges her precious Siberian furs for tea, silk, and porcelain; and her internal commerce is very considerable.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The climate of Russia in Europe, as may be expected in such a diversity of latitudes, presents almost every variety from that of Lapland, to that of Italy: for the newly acquired province of Taurida may be compared with Italy in climate and soil.

**SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.** The soil is of course also extremely diverse. The most fertile is that between the Don and the Volga, from Voronez to Simbirsk, consisting of a black mould, strongly impregnated with salt-

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petre ; that is, a soil formed from successive layers of vegetable remains. In Livonia and Esthonia the medial returns of harvest are eight or ten fold ; and the latter is generally the produce of the rich plains near the Don, where the fields are never manured, but on the contrary are apt to swell the corn into too much luxuriance. Pasturage is so abundant that the meadows are little regarded, and the artificial production of grasses is scarcely known.

In general however agriculture is treated with great negligence, yet the harvests are abundant. In the north rye is most generally cultivated ; but in the middle and the southern regions wheat ; in the government of Ekatarinoslav the Arnautan wheat is beautiful, the flour yellowish, the return commonly fifteen fold ; nor is Turkish wheat or maize, unknown in Taurida. Barley is a general produce, and is converted into meal, as well as oats, of which a kind of porridge is composed. Millet is also widely diffused. Rice succeeds well in the vicinity of Kislear. Hemp and flax form great objects of agriculture. Tobacco also has been produced since the year 1763, chiefly from Turkish and Persian seed.

**RIVERS.** In enumerating the chief rivers of European Russia the first attention is due to the majestic Volga, which forms through a long space, the boundary between Asia and Europe. Its comparative course may be computed at about 1700 miles. This noble river having no cataracts, and few shoals, is navigable even to Twer.

Next to the Volga, on the west, is the Don, or Tanais, which rises from a lake in the government of Tulan, and falls into the sea of Azof, after a course of about 800 miles.

The Neiper, or ancient Borysthenes, rises in the government of Smolensk, about 150 miles to the south of the source of the Volga, and about 100 to the S. E. of that of the Duna, or Duina, which flows into the Baltic, by Riga ; and after a course of about 1000 miles through rich and fertile provinces, falls into the Euxine.

The Niester, or ancient Tyras, now forms the boundary between European Turkey and Russia, deriving its source from the north side of the Carpathian mountains, and falling into the Euxine at Akerman, after a course of about 600 miles.

The Dwina falls into the gulph of Archangel, after a considerable course of about 500 miles. The Onega closes the list of the chief rivers that flow into the Arctic ocean; for those of Olonetz, and of Russian Lapland, are of little consequence.

**LAKES.** The chief lakes of European Russia are situated in the N. W. division of the empire. There is a considerable lake in Russian Lapland, that of Imandra; to the south of which is the large lake of Onega, which is about 50 miles in length, by a medial breadth of about 30. To the west is the Ladoga, about 130 miles in length, by 70 in breadth, being one of the largest lakes in Europe. As it has many shoals, and is liable to sudden and violent tempests, Peter the Great opened a canal along its shores, from the Volk to the Neva.

On the S. W. we find the lake of Peypus, about 60 miles in length by 30 in breadth: and to the east is the lake Ilmen, on which stands the ancient city of Novgorod. The Beilo, or White lake, is so called from its bottom of white clay.

**MOUNTAINS.** European Russia is rather a plain country, though some parts of it be greatly elevated, such as that which sends forth the three rivers of Duna, Volga, and Nieper. This region which is passed in travelling from Petersburg to Moscow, is by some called the mountains of Valday; but it seems to be rather a high table land, surmounted with large sand hills, and interspersed with masses of red and grey granite.

The most important chains of mountains in European Russia are those of Olonetz in the furthest N. and those of Ural which separate Europe from Asia. The chain of Olonetz runs in a direction almost due N. for the space of 15° or about 900 G. miles. The most arctic part retains perpetual snow from the altitude of the climate.

The immense Uralian chain extends from about the 50th to near the 67th degree of N. latitude, or about 1000 G. miles in length, and has by the Russians been called *Semenoi Poias*, or the girdle of the world, an extravagant appellation, when we consider that the chain of the Andes extends near 5000 miles. Pauda, one of the highest mountains of the Uralian chain, is reported by Gmelin to be about 4512 feet above the level of the sea, an inconsiderable height when compared with Mont Blanc or Mont Rosa.

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**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** The vegetable kingdom of Russia has been but imperfectly explored. The Russian provinces N. of the Baltic, contain the same plants as those of Swedish and Norwegian Lapland, which will be hereafter described. Such an extent between the 50th and 60th deg. lat. abound principally in the common vegetables of the north of France and Germany. The trees of most use, and in greatest abundance are, the fir; the Scotch pine; the yew-leaved fir; and the larch; all of which mingled together, form the vast impenetrable forests, whence the rest of Europe is principally supplied with masts, deals, pitch, and tar. The other forest trees are, the elm, the lime, of the inner bark of which the Russian mats are made, and from whose blossoms the immense swarms of wild bees collect the chief part of their honey; the birch, the alder, the aspen, the greater maple, and sycamore; of the shrubs and humbler plants, those of most importance are the cloud-berry, the cran-berry, the bear-berry, the stone bramble; the fruit of all which, for want of better, is highly esteemed, and is either eaten fresh, or is preserved in snow during the winter. The Taurida abounds in the oak, both the common kind and the species with prickly cups; the black and the white poplars of unusual size, skirt along the margins of the streams; the ash, the horn beam, the nettle tree, occupy the upland pastures; and the elegant beech crowns the summits of the lime-stone ridges. Of the fruit-bearing shrubs and trees, besides the gooseberry, the red, the white, and black currant, which are dispersed in abundance through the woods, there are the almond and peach; the apricot and crab-cherry; the medlar; the walnut; the Tatarian, the black, and the white mulberry; the olive; the Chio turpentine tree; the hazle nut; the fig; the vine and the pomegranate.

The more peculiar animals of Russia are the white bear of Novaya Zemlia, and the souslik of the S. In the more northern parts are found the wolf, the lynx, the elk; nor is the camel unknown in the lower latitudes. The animals in the centre seem common to the rest of Europe. Among the more useful animals the horse has met with deserve attention, and the breed in many parts of the empire is large, strong, and beautiful.

In Taurida it is said that common Tatars may possess about 1000 sheep, while an opulent flock is computed at 50,000; those of the whole peninsula were supposed to amount to 7,000,000: nor is the rein-deer unknown in the furthest N. so that the empire may be said to extend from the latitude of the rein-deer to that of the camel.

**MINERALOGY.** The chief mines belonging to Russia are in the Asiatic part of the empire, but a few are situated in the European, in the mountains of Olonetz; and there was formerly a gold mine in that region near the river Vyg.

### .RUSSIAN ISLES.

The small isle of Cronstadt, in the gulph of Finland, was formerly called Retusavi, and is only remarkable for an excellent haven, strongly fortified, the chief station of the Russian fleet. In the Baltic, Russia also possesses the islands of Oesel and Dago.

Novaya Zemlia, or the New Land, uninhabited, is said to consist of five isles, but the channels between them are always filled with ice. Seals, walruses, arctic foxes, white bears, and a few rein-deer, constitute the zoology of this desert.

The remote and dreary islands of Spitzbergen having been taken possession of by the Russians, they may be here briefly described. The main land of Spitzbergen extends about 300 miles from the south cape, lat.  $76^{\circ} 30'$  to Verlegan Hook, lat.  $80^{\circ} 7'$ . It is supposed to have been first discovered by the Dutch navigator Barentz in 1596. About the first of November the sun sets, and appears no more till the beginning of February; and after the beginning it never sets till August. The only shrubby plant that is seen is the Lapland willow, which rises to the height of two inches. Here are found polar bears, foxes, rein-deer, with walruses and seals.

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## AUSTRIAN DOMINIONS.

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THE dominions subject to the house of Austria embrace many ancient kingdoms and states, which, for the sake of perspicuity, are here brought under one point of view. The hereditary domains alone of this powerful house entitle it to rank among the chief European powers, being of wide extent, and great importance, and boasting a population of not less than 20,000,000.

In describing a sovereignty, thus composed of many ancient states, it may seem proper to pay the first and chief attention to that part which was the earliest important inheritance of the ruling family. On this plan the provinces that will here require particular observation are the arch-duchy of Austria; the kingdoms of Hungary, and Bohemia; the grand-duchy of Transylvania; the dominion towards the Adriatic, with the acquisitions of Venice and Dalmatia; and lastly that part of Poland which has fallen under the Austrian sceptre.

**NAMES.** The arch-duchy of Austria may be considered as belonging, in part to ancient Pannonia, the Vindobona of the Romans being the modern Vienna. But that half of Austria, which lies north of the Danube, was occupied by the ancient Quadi. The German name and division of Osterich, or the eastern kingdom, arose after Charlemagne had established the western empire, being a remnant of the sovereignty of what was called Eastern France: and after the failure of the Francic line became a marquisate



feudatory to the dukes of Bavaria, till the emperor Frederic Barbarosa, in 1156, constituted it a duchy held immediately of the empire. Hungary, a part of which belonged to ancient Dacia, derives its modern appellation from the Ugurs, a nation of Turkomanic or Tataric origin: their language approaches to the Finnic dialect. Bohemia, or the habitation of the Boii, was a central province of Barbaric Germany, afterwards seized by a Slavonic tribe, whose chiefs were originally styled dukes of Bohemia. Transylvania, and the Buckovina are parts of the province of Dacia, founded by Trajan. Venice, as is well known, derives its appellation from the ancient Veneti of the opposite shore.

**EXTENT.** From the frontiers of Swisserland, to the utmost limits of Transylvania, the length of the Austrian dominions may be about 760 British miles; the breadth about 520. The acquisition of Venetian Dalmatia may probably soon be followed by the junction of those Turkish provinces, which divide that province from the Austrian domain. The square contents may be about 184,000 miles. Boetticher estimates the inhabitants at 108 to a square mile.

The principal sub-divisions of the Austrian dominions are,

1. The Circle of Austria. 2. The kingdom of Bohemia. 3. Moravia. 4. Part of Silesia. 5. Part of Bavaria. 6. Part of Swabia. 7. Hungary. 8. Transylvania. 9. Dalmatia. 10. Part of Poland. 11. The Venetian territories E. of the Adige, and the city of Venice.

Towards the E. the Austrian dominions border on those of Russia and Turkey, and to the N. on those of Prussia, Upper Saxony, Bavaria; and Swabia. On the utmost W. are Swisserland and the Italian states.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The original population of these extensive regions is various, but chiefly Gothic and Slavonic. The Venetians, and adjacent Italians, may be considered as genuine descendants of the Cisalpine Gauls, and of the Roman colonies established among them. In ancient descent no genealogy can vie with that of several Venetian families, which can be traced by history and record to the eighth century.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** 1. The house of Austria is well known to have sprung from the humble counts of

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Hapsburg. On a lofty eminence, crowned with beech, in the Canton of Berne, stands an ancient tower, the first seat of the house of Austria. In 1273, Rodolph of Hapsburg was called to the imperial throne, being at this time lord of the greater part of Swisserland; by the extinction of the powerful houses of Zaeringen, and Kyburg.

2. Another emperor of the house of Austria appeared in Albert, A. D. 1298; from whom the Swiss made their signal revolt in 1307. His son Frederic was obliged to yield the empire to Louis of Bavaria.

3. Albert II. duke of Austria, A. D. 1438, succeeded to three crowns, on the death of his father-in-law the emperor Sigismond; those of Hungary and Bohemia by inheritance, and that of the empire by unanimous election.

4. Maximilian having married the heiress of Burgundy, the Netherlands became subject to the house of Austria in 1477.

5. The noted bigotry of the house of Austria was not confined to the Spanish branch; for though Maximilian II. about 1570, had granted liberty of conscience even to the Protestants of Austria, yet those of Bohemia, and other parts, were afterwards so much oppressed, that the Protestant princes of Germany called in Gustaff Adolf, the celebrated Swedish monarch, to their assistance, and the war continued till 1648, when the famous treaty of Westphalia was signed, which has served as a basis for other diplomatic transactions.

6. The war with France was often re-kindled during the long reign of Leopold I. 1658, to 1705; and in 1683 the Turks were so successful as to lay siege to Vienna.

7. His son Joseph I. joined the allies against France, and shared in their success. He married the daughter of John Frederic duke of Hanover.

8. By the death of the emperor Charles VI. on the 20th October, 1740, without male issue, the house of Austria became extinct. The elector of Bavaria seized the kingdom of Bohemia, and was elected emperor in 1742, but died in 1745.

9. Francis of Lorrain, son of Leopold duke of Lorrain, having married Maria Theresa, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. succeeded to the Austrian dominions, which continued to be held by his descendants.

10. The reign of the emperor Joseph II. a beneficent but impolitic prince.

11. The obdurate and sanguinary contest with France, the events of which have broken the connection between Great Britain and the empire, and destroyed the ancient balance of Europe.

Having thus briefly marked the chief epochs of the Austrian power, the events of the subject kingdoms and states being of less importance, must be omitted.

Of the provinces towards the Adriatic the history is little memorable, except that of Venice, a recent acquisition. This ancient and remarkable city was founded in the fifth century by the Veneti of the opposite shore, who fled from the incursions of the barbarians. At first each isle was governed by a tribune, till the year 697, when the first doge was elected. In the ninth and tenth centuries the government of the doges became nearly hereditary; but in the eleventh the election again became open. Towards the close of the twelfth century the democratic form was succeeded by an election, and administration severely aristocratic, and well known by its singularity and stability. The Venetians having gradually extended their power along the Adriatic, in the year 1204, became masters of several Grecian provinces and islands; and after their contests with the Pisans, and Genoese, became the first commercial and maritime power in Europe, till the end of the fifteenth century, when the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope transferred the oriental traffic to the Portuguese. The authority of Venice declined with its commerce; and the republic, at length fell by trusting to French faith, which was never pledged but to deceive.

**ANTIQUITIES.** Vindobona, (Vienna) and the adjacent parts of Noricum and Pannonia, occasionally display Roman remains; but the ruins of the celebrated bridge of Trajan, over the Danube, belong to Turkey in Europe; it is supposed to have consisted of twenty arches, or rather vast piers of stone, originally supporting a wooden fabric of the length of more than 3,300 English feet. In Hungary, and other parts of the ancient province of Dacia, appear many relics of Roman power, as military roads, ruins, &c. Several castles, churches, and monasteries still remaining, attest the magnificence of the founders. The

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cathedral church of St. Stephen, in Vienna, is a Gothic fabric of singular pomp, and minute decoration.

**RELIGION.** The preponderant religion of the Austrian dominions is the Roman Catholic, but attended with a considerable degree of toleration. Protestants of various sects are found in Bohemia, Moravia, Vienna, Transylvania, and Hungary. Vienna did not become a metropolitan see till the year 1722: the archbishop is a prince of the holy Roman empire.

**GOVERNMENT.** The form of government is an hereditary monarchy, approaching to absolute power. For though Hungary retain its ancient states, or rather an aristocratical senate, yet they cannot withstand the will of the sovereign. Even Austria has its states, consisting of four orders, clergy, peers, knights, burgesses; the assembly for lower Austria being held at Vienna, and that of the upper at Linz. But those local constitutions can little avail against the will of a powerful monarch, supported by a numerous army.

The laws vary according to the different provinces, almost every state having its peculiar code. In general the laws may be regarded as mild and salutary; and the Austrians in particular are a well regulated and contented people, while the Hungarians are often dissatisfied, and retain much of their ancient animosity against the Germans.

**POPULATION.** The general population of the Austrian dominions is computed at about 22,000,000; that of Hungary, Transylvania, and the Buckovina, being estimated at 7,880,000.

Of the other chief provinces, Bohemia is supposed to hold 2,806,000; and Moravia 1,256,000. The whole acquisitions in Poland contain 2,797,000; the Italian dominions probably two millions; while the archduchy of Austria is computed at 1,820,000.

**ARMY.** The army is computed by Boetticher at 365,455 men, in 136 regiments, of which 46 are Germans, and only eleven Hungarian.

**REVENUE.** The revenue is computed at more than 10,000,000*l.* sterling; to which Austria contributes about 3,000,000*l.* and Hungary a little more than a million and a half. This revenue used to exceed the expences.

**POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS.** Setting aside the consideration of his influence, as emperor

over the German states, the monarch may be regarded as an equal rival of France, and only inferior to the preponderance of Russia; and this power has occasioned a determined rivalry between him and France. There are also causes of confirmed jealousy between Austria and Prussia; and it is doubtful if even an invasion from Russia would compel them to unite in a defensive alliance. Amidst so many enmities, and the necessary jealousy of Russian power, it would be difficult to point out any state on the continent with which Austria could enter into a strict and lasting alliance. The most natural and constant may be that with England, whose maritime power might inflict deep wounds upon their common enemy. By cultivating a steady friendship with Great Britain the emperor may more easily extend his commerce and shipping in the Adriatic and Mediterranean which would be a considerable step to becoming a maritime power, long the object of his ambition; and in case of a partition of European Turkey, which may not be very distant, with her aid he may possess himself of the Morea, and the isle of Candy, both of which were formerly under the dominion of Venice. This acquisition would not only operate as a check on the encroachments of Russia, in the Black Sea, but frustrate the designs of France on Egypt and the Levant.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** Various are the manners and customs of the numerous kingdoms and provinces subject to the house of Austria. In Austria proper the people are much at their ease; and the farmers, and even peasantry, little inferior to those of England. Travellers have remarked the abundance of provisions at Vienna, and the consequent daily luxury of food, accompanied with great variety of wines. The Austrian manners are cold, but civil; the women elegant, but devoid of mental accomplishments. The youth of rank are commonly ignorant, and of course haughty. An Austrian nobleman or gentleman is never seen to read, and hence polite literature is almost unknown and uncultivated. In consequence of this ignorance the language remains unpolished; and the Austrian speech is one of the meanest dialects of the German, so that polite people are constrained to use French. The lower orders are, however, little addicted to crimes or vices, and punishments are rare; robberies are seldom committed, and murder little known. When capital punish-

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ment becomes unavoidable, it is administered with great solemnity, and accompanied with public prayers, an example worthy of universal imitation.

The Hungarians remain to be a spirited people, and affect to despise their masters. Their dress is well known to be peculiar, and is copied by the troops called hussars. This dress, consisting of a tight vest, mantle, and furred cap, is graceful; and the whiskers add a military ferocity to the appearance.

**LANGUAGE.** The languages spoken in these dominions are various; the German by the ruling nation, the Slavonic by the Poles, part of the Hungarians, the Dalmatians, the Bohemians, and the Moravians, and lastly the Finnic by the Hungarians in part. The Italian of course prevails in the states of Italy that are subject to Austria: and the Tyrolese, &c. use a mixture of Italian and German.

**PUBLIC SCHOOLS.** The empress Theresa instituted schools for the education of children, but none for the education of teachers. Hence the children are taught metaphysics before they know Latin; and a blind veneration for the monks forms one of the first exertions of nascent reason.

The universities, like those in other catholic countries, little promote the progress of solid knowledge. The sciences taught with the greatest care are precisely those which are of the smallest utility. The university of Vienna has, since the year 1752, been somewhat improved. It was founded in 1237, and that of Prague in 1347; that of Inspruck only dates from 1677, and Gratz from 1585. Hungary chiefly boasts of Buda, though the Jesuits instituted academies at Raab, and Caschau. That of Buda, by the Germans called Offen, possesses an income of about 20,000*l.* sterling, only 4000 of which are applied to pay the salaries of the professors. There is a Calvinist college or university at Debretzen: and the bishop of Erlau has recently established a splendid university at that city.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** Vienna, the chief city of the Austrian dominions, lies on the S. or rather W. side of the Danube, in a fertile plain watered by a branch of that river. The Danube is here very wide, and contains several woody isles: it is founded on the site of the ancient Vindobona; but was of little note till the twelfth century, when it became the residence of the dukes of Austria, and was fortified in the manner of that age. The manufactures are

little remarkable, though some inland commerce be transacted on the noble stream of the Danube. The number of inhabitants is computed at 254,000. The suburbs are far more extensive than the city, standing at a considerable distance from the walls. The houses are generally of brick covered with stucco, in a more durable manner than commonly practised in England; the finest sand being chosen, and the lime, after having been slacked, remaining for a twelvemonth, covered with sand and boards, before it be applied to the intended use. The chief edifices are the metropolitan church of St. Stephen, the imperial palace, library, and arsenal, the house of assembly for the states of lower Austria, the council-house, the university, and some monasteries. Provisions of all kinds abound in Vienna, particularly wild boars, venison, and game; many small birds rejected by us being included among the latter. Livers of geese are esteemed a peculiar delicacy; nor are tortoises, frogs, and snails rejected.

Next in importance to Vienna was Milan, the inhabitants of which were computed at more than 130,000. The loss of Milan will be richly recompensed by the acquisition of Venice, supposed to contain 200,000 souls. The latter celebrated city, singularly situated in the lagunes, or shallows of the Adriatic sea, and secured in a great measure from the fury of the waves by exterior shoals, which form a natural fortification on that side, has been frequently described.

The honour of the third city in the Austrian dominions must be claimed by Prague, the population being estimated at 80,000. This metropolis of Bohemia stands on both sides of the river Mulda, over which there is a noble bridge of stone, founded in 1357. The houses are of stone, and commonly three stories in height; and about a sixth part of the population consists of Jews.

Next, though at a great distance, stands Gratz, the capital of Stiria, supposed to hold 35,000 souls. This city stands on the west side of the river Muehr, joined by a bridge to an extensive suburb on the opposite bank.

Presburg, the capital of Hungary, only contains about 27,000 inhabitants; it is beautifully situated on the Danube, towards the western extremity of Hungary, being only about 35 British miles to the east of Vienna. About one

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quarter of the inhabitants are Lutherans, who are so opulent as to pay about one half the taxes.

Buda, by the Germans called *Offen*, the ancient metropolis of Hungary, with the city of Pesth, which stands on the opposite side of the Danube, over which there is a bridge of boats, may be computed at 34,000. The chief public and private buildings are in Pesth, and within the fortress: the royal palace in particular is a large and stately edifice.

Lastly Trieste, which is reckoned at 18,000 deserves more particular attention, having been for a long time the only sea-port belonging to Austria. It is situated on a gulph of the Adriatic, and rises on an ascent which is crowned by a castle. The shipping is secured by a wall, extending from the Lazaretto to the isle of Zuka; and the harbour was declared free by the empress Theresa. The neighbourhood produces excellent wines.

**EDIFICES.** The chief public edifices are at Vienna, Buda, and Pesth, to which may now be added Venice; but there are many splendid churches and monasteries in the several regions of the Austrian domination. Many of the Hungarian nobility, who have vast estates, possess castles of corresponding magnificence.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** Vienna perhaps equals any other of the Austrian cities in manufactures, which are chiefly of silk, gold and silver lace, cloths, stuffs, stockings, linen, mirrors, porcelain: with silver plate and several articles in brass. Bohemia is celebrated for glass and paper. But the commerce of the Austrian dominions chiefly depends upon their native opulence: Austria proper and the southern provinces producing abundance of horses and cattle, corn, flax, saffron, and various wines, with several metals, particularly quicksilver from the mines of Idria. Bohemia and Moravia are also rich in oxen and sheep, corn, flax, and hemp; in which they are rivalled by the dismembered provinces of Poland. Hungary presents numerous herds of cattle; and the more favoured parts of that country produce corn, rice, the rich wines of Tokay, and tobacco of an exquisite flavour, with great and celebrated mines of various metals and minerals. Till the acquisition of Venice, the chief exports were from the port of Trieste, consisting of quicksilver and other metals, with wines and various native products:



the various produce of the rich kingdom of Hungary, being chiefly conveyed to the other Austrian provinces.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The climate of Austria proper is commonly mild and salubrious, though sometimes exposed to violent winds, and the southern provinces in general enjoy a delightful temperature, if the mountainous parts be excepted. The more northern regions of Bohemia and Moravia, with the late acquisitions in Poland, can likewise boast the maturity of the grape, and of gentle and favourable weather. The numerous lakes and morasses of Hungary, and the prodigious plains, are supposed to render the air damp and unwholesome, the cold of the night rivaling the heat of the day; but the blasts from the Carpathian mountains seem in some measure to remedy these evils, the inhabitants being rather remarkable for health and vigour.

**SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.** The soil is upon the whole extremely fertile and productive, in spite of the neglect of industry, which has permitted many parts of Hungary, and of the Polish provinces, to pass into wide forests and marshes. The state of agriculture in Moravia is superior to the rest, being improved by Flemish farmers.

**RIVERS.** In enumerating the chief rivers which pervade the Austrian dominions, the Danube commands the first attention. This magnificent stream rises in Swabia. Though the course be occasionally impeded by small falls and whirlpools, yet it is navigable through a prodigious extent, and after watering Swabia, Bavaria, Austria proper, Hungary, and Turkey in Europe, it joins the Euxine, or Black sea, after a circuit of about 1300 British miles, about one half of its progress being through the territories of Austria.

Next in consequence is the Tiess, which arising from the Carpathian mountains, and bending towards the west, receives many tributary streams from that Alpine chain; and afterwards turning to the S. falls into the Danube, after a course of about 420 miles. At Belgrade the Danube receives the Sava, or Save, which forms a boundary between Austria and Turkey. That of the Drau or Drave extends to about 350 miles, from its source in the eastern mountains of Tyrol, till it joins the Danube below Esseg.

The Inn rises in the E. of Swisserland, from the mountain of Maloggia in the Grisons, being a point of partition

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dividing the waters which run towards the Black sea, from those which flow into the Adriatic. This powerful river is more gentle near its source, than the other Alpine streams, but soon becomes more precipitous; and joins the Danube at Passau with a weight of water nearly equal to that stream, after a course of about 250 miles.

**LAKES.** The lakes in the Austrian dominions are numerous, and some of them of considerable size. Carinthia contains a large central lake not far from Clagenfurt; and Carniola another, the Cirknitz See. Hungary contains many morasses, and lakes; the most important of the latter being that of Platte, or the Platten See, extending about forty-five British miles in length, by eight in breadth, and abounding with fish. The Neufidler lake, about thirty miles S. E. of Vienna, is about thirteen miles in length by four in breadth.

**MOUNTAINS.** Beginning at the western extremities, the Rhætian or Tyrolese Alps claim our first attention. These chiefly proceed in a direction from the S. W. to the N. E. or from the Valteline to the archbishopric of Salzburg. The Bænner mountains, for such is the modern name of the Rhætian Alps, rival the grand Alps of Swisserland in numerous glaciers; and like other grand chains present exterior barriers, that on the N. being distinguished by the name of Spitz, while that on the S. is termed Vedretta. On leaving Italy there is almost a gradual ascent, from Trent to the highest summit. The greatest elevations arise to the N. of Sterzing, whence streams proceed towards the river Inn on the N. and the Adige on the S. and the Eisac descends, a precipitous torrent, amidst masses of granite, petrosilex, and marble. The glacier most easy of access is that of Stuben; it is 4,692 feet above the level of the sea, and presents the usual phænomena of such scenes, with beautiful pyramids of azure, which in sunshine reflect a blaze of light.

Towards the W. and N. of Inspruck are several detached mountains, covered with constant snow. Near the glaciers are found rock crystals of various colours, and the inferior ranges of the Tyrolese mountains contain mines of silver, copper, lead, mercury, iron, alum, and sulphur.

Upper Austria, or the western part of this province, contains many considerable mountains, the highest of which is in the maps called Priel. There are many other groups

of mountains in the Austrian territories worthy of notice, which it would exceed our limits to describe.

However we must not omit the Carpathian mountains, that grand and extensive chain which bounds Hungary on the N. and E. having been celebrated from all antiquity. By the Germans they are styled the mountains of Krapak, probably the original name, which was softened by the Roman enunciation. This enormous ridge extends in a semicircular form from the mountain of Javornik S. of Silesia towards the N. W. But at the mountain of Trojaska, the most northern summit, it bends to the S. E. to the confines of the Buckovina, where it sends forth two branches, one to the E. another to the W. of Transylvania; which is also divided from Walachia by a branch running S. W. and N. E. The whole circuit may be about 500 miles. The highest summits of these mountains, according to Dr. Townson, do not exceed 8 or 9000 feet, and they are for the most part composed of granite and primitive limestone.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** The forests of Germany have been famous from the earliest antiquity. The Sylva Hercynia which extended from the Rhine to Sarmatia, from Cologne to Poland, are known to every boy who has read the ancient classics. Though by the progress of civilization and improvement many of these forests have been removed, there are still considerable remains in the Black forest of Swabia, and other uncultivated tracts.—The principal native trees are the elm; the wych elm; lime tree; birch, and alder; common and prickly-cupped oak; sumach; walnut; chesnut and beech; horn-beam; black and white poplar and aspen; sycamore and maple; the ash; the pine, the fir, the yew-leaved fir, and the larch. All the common fruit trees of Europe are cultivated in an extensive manner.

The domestic animals in the Austrian dominions are commonly excellent, particularly the cattle. Many of the native horses run wild, and are sold in great numbers at the fairs, before they have suffered any subjection. The breed of cattle is mostly of a singular colour, a slaty blue; and the Hungarian sheep resemble the Walachian in their long erect spiral horns, and pendant hairy fleece. In the western parts of the Austrian sovereignty, the animals do

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not seem to be distinguished from those of other parts of Germany.

The large breed of wild cattle called Urus or Bison, is said to be found in the Carpathian forests, as well as in those of Lithuania and Caucasus. Among the wild quadrupeds, may also be named the bear, the boar, the wolf, the chamois, the marmot, and the beaver. The Danube boasts of some fishes seldom found in other rivers, among which is a small and delicate sort of salmon.

**MINERALS.** The mineralogy of the Austrian dominions is by far the most various and interesting of any in Europe. There is scarcely a province of this extensive territory, which cannot boast of advantages in the mineral kingdom; even the acquisitions in Poland contain one of the most remarkable mines in Europe, the saline excavations of Wielitska. The mines of Bohemia have been celebrated from ancient times. Silver is found at Kuttenberg, and at Joachinsthal, on the western frontiers towards Saxony; and gold has been discovered at Keonstock. One of the most singular products of this province is tin, which is found at Zinwald (that is the tin forest), and other western districts of Bohemia; where is also found, at Dreyhacken, a mine of very pure copper. Lead occurs at Bleystadt, in the same quarter. The garnets of Bohemia are among the most beautiful of the kind. The women wash the clay in which the garnets are found; after which they are sifted and arranged according to size; and sold by the pound weight from about three to ten shillings. The iron of Stiria supplies the finest steel, and great quantities are imported into England: there are considerable lead mines near Pegau on the river Mohr, yielding about 5000 tons yearly. Stiria also affords coal at different places.

The quicksilver mines of Idra are celebrated in natural history, poetry, and romance. They were discovered in the year 1499; and the hill of Vogelberg has annually yielded more than 300,000 pounds weight of mercury.

But the principal mines in the Austrian dominions are situated in the eastern provinces of Hungary and Transylvania. About 40 miles to the S. of the Carpathian hills are the gold mines of Cremnitz: and 20 English miles further to the S. the silver mines of Chemnitz: cities which have arisen solely from these labours, and thence called min-

ing towns. Chemnitz is esteemed the principal. The academy here instituted for the study of mineralogy is highly respectable, and only rivalled by that of Freyberg in Saxony. Hungary contains mines of copper at Schmelnitz and Herregrund; of very rich antimony at Rosenau; and in different parts of coal, salt, and alum. But a mineral peculiar to Hungary, and as yet discovered in no other region of the globe, is the opal, a gem preferred to all others by the oriental nations.

**NATURAL CURIOSITIES.** Among the natural curiosities may be named the grand Alpine scenes of Tyrol, the glaciers and peaks of the Brenner. In Carniola near Adlesburg, is said to be a grotto of prodigious extent displaying spaces sufficient for the erection of villages, and containing natural amphitheatres, bridges, &c. But the chief natural curiosity of Carniola is the lake of Cirknitz, called by Dr. Brown the Zirchnitzer See. That traveller informs us that it is about two German, or more than eight English miles in length, by four of the latter in breadth. In the month of June the water descends under ground, through many apertures in the bottom; and in September it reascends with considerable force; thus yielding rich pasture in summer, while in winter it abounds with fish.

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## PRUSSIA.

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THIS kingdom which only commenced with the eighteenth century, has by gradual accessions, not the most honourable, become so extensive, as to rank among the first powers of Europe.

The name of the country originates, according to some authors, from the Pruzzi, a Slavonic tribe, its ancient inhabitants.

**EXTENT.** Exclusive of small detached territories, the kingdom of Prussia now extends from Hornburg and the river Oker in the country of Halberstadt, the furthest western connected district, to the river Memel, or about 600 miles. The breadth, from the southern limit of Silesia to Dantzick, exceeds 300 miles. On the east and south, Prussia now borders on the dominions of Russia and Austria, and the western limits adjoin to the bishopric of Hildesheim. Before the recent acquisitions in Poland the number of Prussian subjects was only computed at 5,621,500, in a total extent of 56,414 square miles, that is about 99 to the square mile. At present they amount to above eight millions, and the kingdom is divided into 22 provinces.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** As the family which now rules those extensive domains was originally the electoral house of Brandenburg, it will be proper in this place to trace the progress of its power.

1. The emperor Charles IV. in 1373, assigned Brandenburg to his second son Sigismund, who in 1415, being then emperor of Germany, sold th s margraviate and electorate to Frederick burgrave of Nuremberg, for 400,000 ducats. This prince was the ancestor of the present reigning race.

2. Joachin II. elector of Brandenburg, embraced the Lutheran religion in 1539, which has since been the ruling system of the state.

3. John Sigismond becomes duke of Prussia in 1618.

4. Frederic William, surnamed the great elector, succeeded his father in 1640; and in 1656 compelled the king of Poland to declare Prussia an independent state, it having formerly been held of the Polish sovereigns. He was succeeded in 1688, by his son.

5. Frederic III. who, supporting the emperor in the contest for the Spanish succession, was by him declared king of Prussia: under which title he was proclaimed at Königsberg, on the 18th day of January, 1701, he himself placing the crown upon his head.

6. Frederic William II. ascended the throne in 1713. But he was chiefly remarkable as the father of that great prince Frederic II. who ascended the throne in 1740, and died in 1786, after a long and glorious reign; the most memorable and lasting event of which was the acquisition of Silesia from the house of Austria in 1742.

7. The short reign of his nephew is known to every reader. The reign of his son, the present monarch, has hitherto been distinguished by a mysterious coalition with the French republic.

**ANTIQUITIES.** Some Slavonic idols, cast in bronze, constitute almost the only pagan antiquities; and the castles, and churches erected after the introduction of the Christian religion, have few singularities to attract particular attention. The Polish coinage begins about the twelfth century, and is upon the German model.

**RELIGION.** The ruling religion of Prussia is the Protestant, under its two chief divisions of Lutheran and Calvinistic. But after the recent acquisitions in Poland it would seem that the greater number of the inhabitants must be Roman Catholic. The universal toleration which has been wisely embraced by the Prussian monarchs, has had its usual effect of abating theological enmity, and the different sects seem to live in perfect concord.

**GOVERNMENT, &c.** As no vestige of any senate or delegates from the people is known in this kingdom, it must be pronounced an absolute government; but the spirit and good sense of the nation unite with the wisdom and mildness of successive monarchs, to render the sovereignty

as conciliatory, and perhaps more beneficent, than if clogged with a popular senate. The late great monarch reformed many abuses in the laws; but it cannot be disguised that the tenor of his government was too military and despotic.

**ARMY.** The army is supposed to amount to about 237,000, including about 40,000 cavalry. The tactics of the late able sovereign conferred distinguished reputation on the Prussian battalions, but they are now supposed not to exceed the Austrian.

**REVENUES.** Before the addition of Polish territory the revenue was estimated at 3,880,000*l.* sterling; and the expence of the army at 2,275,000*l.* Frederic II. laudably expended about half a million sterling yearly, in the improvement of his dominions. The entire revenue of Poland was not computed to exceed 439,546*l.* sterling. If we even suppose half of this added to the Prussian revenue, the result would not be important; Prussia, however, has no national debt.

**POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS.** The political importance and relations of this kingdom have impressed the European history of this century with new and distinct features. An alliance with Prussia would be indeed of some importance to the Turkish empire; nor can it be the interest of Prussia to permit Russia to extend her aggrandizements.

In regard to the other chief powers of Europe, England, France, Russia and Austria, it cannot be disguised that there is a natural connexion between Prussia and France, as both are, or affect to be jealous of the Austrian power, and both are disposed to dismember Europe. But it would be wisdom in Prussia by uniting with Austria, Denmark and Sweden, to raise a power sufficient at once, to check the colossal strides of France and Russia.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** The manners and customs of a country composed of such various inhabitants, must of course be discordant. The Saxons are a lively and contented people; the Prussians appear dull and gloomy. As to the Poles, they seem full of life and action, but their features and general appearance are rather Asiatic than European. "Men of all ranks generally wear whiskers, and shave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown. The dress of the higher orders, both



men and women, is commonly elegant: That of the gentlemen is a waistcoat with sleeves, over which they wear an upper robe of a different colour, which reaches down below the knee, and is fastened round the waist with a sash or girdle; the sleeves of this upper garment are, in warm weather tied behind their shoulders; a sabre is a necessary part of their dress as a mark of nobility. In summer the robe, &c. is of silk, in winter of cloth, velvet, or stuff edged with fur. They wear fur caps or bonnets, and buskins of yellow leather, the heels of which are plated with iron or steel. The dress of the ladies is a simple polonaise or long robe, edged with fur."

**LANGUAGE.** The ruling language of Prussia is the German, which it is probable may in time supplant the Polish, in those parts which are subject to Prussia and Austria.

**PUBLIC SCHOOLS.** The state of education in this country seems to be equally neglected as in the far greater part of Europe.

There are however several universities, such as that of Frankfurt on the Oder, founded by Joachim elector of Brandenburg in the year 1516. Königsberg, in Prussia was founded in 1544.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** Among the cities of Prussia we can mention only a few of the chief. Berlin, situated on the banks of the river Sprey, is a regularly fortified city. It was founded in the twelfth century, by a colony from the Netherlands, and contains 142,000 inhabitants, being about four miles and a half long and three wide; but within this inclosure are many gardens, and sometimes even fields; the number of houses is 6950. The city is more remarkable for the elegance of the buildings than for its wealth or industry, many beautiful houses being let in stories to mechanics. Next to Berlin may be mentioned Königsberg, of which the population is computed at about 52,000. This city was founded in the thirteenth century, and is well fortified. It maintains a considerable trade by the river Pregel, which flows into the gulph of Dantzick.

Breslaw, the capital of Silesia, has been long celebrated as one of the most beautiful cities in Germany. It is of uncertain antiquity, but was destroyed by the Tatars in the thirteenth century. The population is at least equal to that of Königsberg; and it has several manufactures, the

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linens of Silesia being particularly celebrated. The ruling religion is that of Luther.

Among chief cities of Prussia must not be forgotten Warsaw, the former capital of Poland; and Dantzick, an independent city of ancient fame. Warsaw stands partly in a plain, partly on a gentle ascent rising from the Vistula, but the appearance is melancholy, from the general poverty of Poland under its former unhappy government. The population was computed at 70,000, including the unfortunate suburb of Praga.

Dantzick contains about 36,000 inhabitants, and was known as a commercial town even from the tenth century. It was considered as the chief city of the Hanseatic league, and was enlarged and adorned by the knights of the Teutonic order. It must still be considered as the chief staple for the exportation of the corn and the other products of Poland; but its commerce has been for some time on the decline.

Magdeburg is supposed to hold about 26,000 souls, and is strongly fortified with a citadel on an isle in the Elbe. This city dates its origin from the time of Charlemagne; and can boast of elegant streets and flourishing manufactures. The Imperialists taking it by storm in 1631, a dreadful slaughter ensued, the inhabitants who perished being computed at about 10,000.

**EDIFICES.** Some of the most splendid edifices of this country adorn Berlin the capital, such as the palace and the theatre. The city itself is almost entirely built with brick, though the fronts of the houses are disguised with stucco. The palace at Potsdam deserves superior applause; and on an eminence near the city stands the royal villa of Sans Souci, which however can claim no grandeur of external architecture. In general this kingdom yields even to Russia in respect to public edifices.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** If we except the linens of Silesia, the manufactures of the Prussian dominions are of small importance. Yet they afford for home consumption, glass, iron, brass, paper, and woollen cloth; and Frederic II. introduced a small manufacture of silk. Even the exports of Dantzick consist almost entirely of timber, corn, tallow, and similar articles.

If we except the ancient staple of grain so abundant in the level plains of Poland, the commerce of Prussia is com-

paratively of little consequence. Amber is by nature constituted a monopoly of the country, but fashion has rendered this branch of commerce insignificant. Yet among the considerable exports may be named excellent timber of all kinds, skins, leather, flax, and hemp; nor must the linens of Silesia be passed in silence, many of which are sent into Holland, and sold under the name of Dutch manufacture. In return Prussia receives wine, and other products of more southern and favoured countries.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The climate of the Prussian dominions is, upon the whole, cold and moist. Brandenburg and Pomerania may be regarded as more free from humidity than Prussia proper, which has about eight months of winter, the autumn being often deluged with rain. The northern part of Poland abounds with forests and marshes, which cannot be supposed to render the air salubrious. The lower parts of Silesia are regarded as the most healthy and fertile provinces of the monarchy: but the southern and western parts of the duchy, bordering on elevated mountains, long covered with snow, are exposed even in summer to severe freezing gales.

**SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.** The soil of Brandenburg is meagre, and even the space between Berlin and Potsdam resembles a wilderness; but that of Prussian Poland is loamy and fertile. The northern extremity of Silesia resembles Brandenburg, yet this province is in general extremely productive, and abounds in fruits and culinary vegetables.

Agricultural improvements are little known, and Brandenburg chiefly produces buck wheat and turnips, with scanty crops of rye; but Prussia proper, and the Polish provinces display every kind of grain, and esculent plant, that can flourish under such a latitude; and among the productions of Silesia must be classed maize, and even vines, but the wine is of inferior quality.

**RIVERS.** Among the chief rivers of the Prussian dominions may be first mentioned the Elbe, which rises in the S. of Bohemia, and pervades the duchy of Magdeburg. The Spree which passes by Berlin, falls into the Havel, a tributary of the Elbe. The Oder may be regarded as a river entirely Prussian: it rises in the mountains of Moravia, and after watering Silesia, Brandenburg, and Pomerania, joins the Baltic, after a course of about 350 miles.

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Next appears another noble stream, the Vistula, which rising in the Carpathian mountains, passes Warsaw, and joins the sea near Dantzick, after a circuit of about 450 miles.

**LAKES.** The lakes in the Prussian dominions are numerous, especially in the eastern part, where among others may be mentioned the Spelding See, which, with its creeks, extends more than twenty British miles in every direction. That region contains many other lakes, which supply the sources of the river Pregel. And at their estuaries the rivers Oder, Vistula, and Memel, present singular inland sheets of water, in the German language called *Haffs*.

**MOUNTAINS.** The only mountains in the Prussian dominions are those of Silesia, which may be regarded as a northern branch of the Carpathian chain. This branch extends from Jablunka S. E. to Friedberg in upper Lusatia, N. W. near 200 British miles in length, and is called Sude-tische Gebirge, or the Sudetic mountains. In the north-western parts of Silesia are also detached mountains of considerable height, as the Spitzberg and Gratzberg.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** Among the indigenous vegetables of the Prussian dominions there do not seem to be any which have not already been sufficiently noticed in the preceding accounts of Britain and Austria. Tobacco, originally a native of America, and probably also of the east, having been long cultivated in Prussia, has at length established itself in the soil, and is found in the ploughed fields and hedges, as a common weed.

The breeds of horses and cattle seem not to have impressed travellers with any distinction from those of the adjacent countries; and few parts are calculated for excellent breeds of sheep. The urus, or large and ferocious wild cattle of Lithuania, have also appeared in Prussia proper, but the race seems nearly extinct. One of its chief haunts was the forest of Masavia not far from Warsaw.

**MINERALS.** The sand and plains of Prussia contain but few hidden treasures. There are some mines of copper and lead as well as considerable founderies of iron in Silesia. Agates, jaspers, and rock crystal, are also found in the Silesian mountains. Coal, a more useful mineral,

occurs in various parts of Silesia, and the level districts sometimes offer good peat moors.

But the most distinguished and peculiar mineral production of Prussia is amber, which is chiefly found on the Samland shore of the Baltic. It is found at the depth of about 100 feet, reposing on wood coal, in lumps of various sizes, some five pounds in weight, and is often washed on shore, by tempests. It adds about 5000*l.* yearly to the royal revenue.

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## SPAIN.

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SPAIN appears to have been known to the Phœnicians, who imported from it large quantities of silver, near 1000 years before the birth of Christ. From the noble river Iberus, or Ebro, the country was called Iberia; and from its extreme situation in the west it was also styled Hesperia. The Romans, probably from a native term, have fixed and handed down *Hispania*; which has been variously adapted to the idiom of modern languages.

**EXTENT.** Spain lies between the 36th and 44th degrees of north latitude; and its western extremity is about 9° in longitude W. from London. The greatest length W. to E. is about 600 miles; the breadth N. to S. more than 500; thus forming almost a compact square (if we include Portugal in this general view of the country), and surrounded on all sides by the sea, except where the Pyrenean chain forms a grand natural barrier against France. Spain is supposed to contain about 148,000 square miles; which, estimating the population at 11,000,000, yield 74 persons to the mile square.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The original population of Spain seems to have consisted of Celts from Gaul, and of Moors from Africa; but the latter, a more warlike race, expelled the former, and even passed into Aquitain in France. After the German Gauls had colonized the south of modern France, where they were called Galli Braccati, they began to make expeditions into Spain, and seized the region to the N. E. becoming the Celtiberi of classical geography. It is probable that the African settlers were not a little assisted in the expulsion of the primeval Celts by the Phœnicians, and afterwards by the Carthaginians, whence the latter maintained such sway in distant parts of

this country. Towards the east large colonies of Carthaginians, and afterwards of Romans were introduced. In the fifth century it was conquered by the Vandals; but, being afterwards weakened by their settlements in Africa, they were subdued by the Visigoths, who founded the modern kingdom of Spain, and from whom the more ancient families still pretend to derive their origin. The Mahometan Moors having been expelled, they must not be considered in the estimate, though a few families may be of Arabian extract: and the modern Spaniards may be considered as descended from the African Iberians, the Celtiberians, or German Gauls, the Romans, and the Visigoths.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** The chief historical epochs of Spain are;

1. The original population by the Africans, and German Gauls.

2. The Carthaginian acquisitions in Spain.

3. The conquest by the Romans, who maintained possession for more than five centuries.

4. The subjection of Spain to the Vandals, about the year 415.

5. The conquest of Spain by the Visigoths under Euric, excepting Galicia, held by the Suevi, who had entered with the Vandals. The Galicians have to this day a distinct character of superior industry. In Euric, A. D. 472, commences the modern kingdom and history of Spain.

6. The conquest by the Arabs, or Moors, which began A. D. 709, and soon extended over all Spain, except the mountains of Asturias, where king Pelagius maintained a confined dominion over that district and Biscay. His descendants fixed the royal residence at Oviedo, built in 761, and not only defended their small territory, which was naturally fortified with chains of mountains, but soon regained Galicia, and part of Leon and Castile. In 914, as the territory extended towards the south, the kings began to reside at Leon, and thence derived their title; to which, in the eleventh century, was added that of Castile. But the Moors must be regarded as the chief possessors of Spain till the middle of the thirteenth century.

7. The reign of Alphonso the Wise, which began A. D. 1252, and which rivalled those of the Spanish chalfis in the protection afforded to the arts and sciences.

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8. The conquest of the kingdom of Granada, the last of the Moorish royalties; and the junction of the important crowns of Castile and Arragon, in the persons of Ferdinand and Isabella.

9. The reign of Charles V. son of Philip of Austria, who married the heiress of Arragon and Castile, and established the Spanish monarchy on its present basis. The wealth of America, discovered in the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, now began to impart exuberant supplies, and the power of Spain arrived at its zenith.

10. Acquisition of Portugal by Philip II. A. D. 1580.

11. The revolt of Portugal under Philip IV. A. D. 1640; which has since existed as a separate kingdom, after having been subject to the Spaniards for sixty years.

12. The termination of the Austrian dynasty by the death of Charles II. November 1, 1700; and the accession of the house of Bourbon; since which no epoch of singular consequence has arisen.

**DIVISIONS.** The most recent sub-divisions of Spain are into fourteen provinces, viz:

1. Galicia. 2. Asturias. 3. Biscay. 4. Navarre. 5. Arragon. 6. Catalonia. 7. Valentia. 8. Murcia. 9. Granada. 10. Andalusia. 11. Estremadura. 12. Leon. 13. Old Castile. And 14. New Castile.

**ANTIQUITIES.** The only certain relics of the Carthaginians in Spain, are coins, which have been found in considerable numbers.

The Roman antiquities are, on the contrary, so numerous, that to enter into details on the subject would be prolix, and foreign to the nature of this work. The aqueduct at Segovia is one of the noblest of the Roman edifices. Morviedo, the ancient Saguntum, presents many curious remains of antiquity. Tarragona, the ancient Tarraco, also contains several interesting monuments.

The Visigothic kings have left few relics, except their coins, which are struck in gold; a metal then unknown to the other European mints, and seemingly native.

Numerous and splendid are the monuments of the Moors in Spain, of which we will only describe *Alhambra*, an ancient Moorish palace in Granada:

“ You enter first into an oblong court of 150 feet by 90, with a basin of water in the midst, of 100 feet in length, encompassed by a flower border. At each end is a colon-



nade. From hence you pass into the court of the lions, so called because the fountain in the middle is supported by thirteen lions. It is adorned with a colonnade of 140 marble pillars. The royal bedchamber has two alcoves, adorned with columns, and a fountain between them in the middle of the room. Adjoining to this are two hot baths. The great hall is about 40 feet square, and 60 in height, with eight windows and two doors, all in deep recesses. Between this and the oblong court is a gallery of 90 feet by 16. All these lower apartments have fountains, and are paved either with tiles or marble in checkers. The idea of the ceilings is evidently taken from *stalactites*, or drop-stones, found in the roofs of natural caverns. The ornaments of the friezes are arabesque, and perfectly accord with Arabic inscriptions, which are here suited to the purpose for which each apartment was designed." Above is a suit of elegant apartments for the winter. This edifice was finished A. D. 1336.

**RELIGION.** The religion of Spain is the Roman Catholic, which in this country and Portugal has been carried to a pitch of fanaticism unknown to the Italian states, or even to the papal territory; though the evil has been recently subdued in a considerable degree.

The clergy and religious in Spain, including the various orders of monks and nuns, are very numerous, amounting to 118,625.

The archbishoprics are eight: bishoprics forty-six. The most opulent see is that of Toledo, which is supposed to yield annually about 90,000*l*. The Mozarabic Missal, composed by St. Isidore for the Gothic church, after the conversion from Arianism to the Catholic faith, continued to be used in Spain till the Moors were subdued, when the Roman form was introduced.

**GOVERNMENT.** The government of Spain is well known to be despotic, the states or cortes having hardly been assembled since the time of Charles V. But the despotism of the monarchy is here balanced by the power of the church, to which the nobles are submissive devotees. It is also tempered by many councils, who are responsible for any unwise or unsuccessful measures, and the subject is less oppressed by the power of the crown, than in some other states where there is a greater appearance of liberty.

The laws of Spain are contained in several ancient codes; and recourse is also had to the civil and canon law. The *Escrivanos* are numerous, and instead of explaining the codes, often impede the administration of justice. Mistaken mercy frequently retains criminals in long durance, so that when they are executed their offence is forgotten, and the example of punishment becomes inefficacious.

**POPULATION.** The population of this kingdom is computed at 11,000,000, or 74 to a square mile; while the kingdom of Naples is computed at 201. This striking defect of population has been attributed to the expulsion of the Jews after the conquest of Granada; that of the Moors by Philip III. the contagious fevers frequent in the southern provinces; the incessant intestine wars, for seven centuries carried on against the Moors; the emigrations to America, and the vast numbers of unmarried clergy and monks.

In the year 1787, the population of Spain was thus arranged:

Males unmarried,	. . . . .	2,926,229
Females ditto,	. . . . .	2,753,224
Married Men,	. . . . .	1,947,165
Married Women,	. . . . .	1,943,496
Widows,	. . . . .	462,258
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		10,032,372

**ARMY AND NAVY.** The Spanish armies, instead of carrying terror even into the bravest countries of Europe, as they did two centuries ago, are now neither distinguished by number, nor by discipline. They are computed at about 60,000. Of late Spain has paid considerable attention to her navy, which has however been crippled in the recent warfare with England. The ships of the line can scarcely now be computed at less than fifty.

**REVENUES.** The revenue of Spain may be calculated, as is believed, at five millions and a half sterling money; so that each person pays ten shillings to government for protection. In France, under the old government, each person paid near twenty shillings; in England at present sixty shillings. The expenditure now equals, or exceeds the income; but the national debt is a mere trifle.

**POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS.** The political importance and relations of Spain were formerly deeply impressed on most regions of the globe. But this fertile kingdom has become almost a cypher in European policy. Setting aside Portugal, the position of Spain secures her from any invasion, except on the side of France; and it becomes therefore the insuperable interest of this exhausted state to cultivate amity with her powerful neighbour, which must maintain an unavoidable and supreme ascendant, from geographical position and relative force. What a spirited and popular monarch might do to shake off this servile dependance, can only be guessed at.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** In speaking of the religion of Spain, one of the most striking of the national customs and manners is the common practice of adultery under the mask of religion.

Exclusive of this vice, the Spanish character is highly respectable for integrity and a long train of virtues. Conscious of an upright and noble mind, the respect which a Spaniard would pay to those qualities in others, is often centered in himself, as he is intimately sensible that he possesses them. This self-respect is nearly allied to pride; but it is the pride of virtue, which certainly ought not to humble itself before vice and folly. Temperance is a virtue which the Spaniard shares in common with other southern nations. In these countries the body is so much exhausted by the influence of heat, that the siesta, or short sleep in the middle of the day, becomes a necessary resource of nature, and is by habit continued even in the winter.

The chief defect in the character of the Spanish nobility and gentry is, their aversion to agriculture and commerce. Instead of those beautiful villas, and opulent farms which enrich the whole extent of England, the Spanish architecture is almost confined to the capital, and a few other cities and towns.

Since the accession of the house of Bourbon, a slight shade of French manners has been blended with the Spanish gravity. But fashions have here little sway; and the prohibition of slouched hats and long cloaks led to a serious insurrection. The houses of the great are large and capacious; but the cottages and inns are, on the contrary, miserable.

The amusements of people of rank chiefly consist in dancing and cards; but the combats with bulls in the amphitheatres have justly been regarded as the most striking feature of Spanish and Portuguese manners. That such spectacles tend to familiarise the people with bloodshed, seems an idle theory, unwarranted by facts. Modern Italy has no gladiators, but numerous assassins; ancient Rome had scarcely one assassin, but whole armies of gladiators.

**LANGUAGE.** The Spanish language is one of the three great southern dialects which spring from the Roman; but many of the words become difficult to the French or Italian student, because they are derived from the Arabic, used by the Moors, who for seven centuries held dominion in this country. The speech is grave, sonorous, and of exquisite melody, containing much of the slow and formal manner of the Orientals, who seem sensible that the power of speech is a privilege.

**PUBLIC SCHOOLS.** The universities, or rather academies, in Spain, are computed at upwards of twenty; of which the most noted is that of Salamanca, founded in the year 1200, by Alphonso IX. king of Leon, and afterwards regulated by Alphonso the Wise. The students have, at former periods, been computed at 16,000; and even now, the reign of Aristotle in logic and natural philosophy, and of Thomas Aquinas in theology, continues unviolated; so that a student of the year 1800 may aspire to as much ignorance as one of the year 1300. In 1785 the number of students was computed at 1909. The same antiquated teachers are received with implicit faith in the other universities, so that a more liberal education at school must be here obliterated.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** Madrid, the royal residence, while Seville is esteemed the capital of Spain, is of recent fame. Philip II. first established his court at Madrid, and the nobility, in consequence, erecting numerous palaces, this formerly obscure town began to assume an air of grandeur. The central position seems the chief advantage, for the environs can boast of little beauty or variety. The river Mançenares is in winter a torrent, but dry in summer: over it is an elegant bridge, which occasioned a sarcastic remark, that the bridge should be sold in order to purchase water. This metropolis contains 13 parishes, 7,938 houses, 32,745 families, amounting to a population

of 147,543. The convents are 66; and there are fifteen gates of granite, many of which are elegant. The chief is the Puerta de Alcalá, of three arches, the central being 70 feet in height. The churches and monasteries contain many noble paintings, and the royal palaces display considerable magnificence. The new palace presents four fronts of 470 feet in length, and 100 in height, enriched with numerous pillars and pilasters. The foundation was laid in 1737, three years after the ancient palace had fallen a sacrifice to the flames. The audience chamber is deservedly admired, being a double cube of 90 feet, hung with crimson velvet, and adorned with a sumptuous canopy and painted ceiling. The Prado is a spacious course, in which the great display their elegant equipages.

Next Cadiz: the commerce of America formerly centered at Seville, was afterwards removed to this city, which is supposed to contain about 70,000 souls. The two cathedrals are grand; and there is a hospital which will contain 6000 patients. The hospicio, or general workhouse, is an interesting establishment, containing more than 800 poor of all ages, who are here trained to industry.

Malaga is esteemed the second port in the kingdom, and is also celebrated for excellent wines, the rich Malaga, the mountain, so called from the hills which produce the grape, and the tent or tinto, so styled from its deep red tinge. Malaga stands in a valley surrounded with hills, the houses high, the streets narrow and dirty. Inhabitants about 40,000; the cathedral begun in 1528 is not yet finished; the convents are 25, but of small account. The city swarms with thieves and mendicants.

Towards the S. E. is the third most considerable port of Spain, that of Barcelona. The streets are narrow and crooked; the churches rather rich than beautiful. The hospicio contains about 1400 industrious poor, and there is a house of correction which sometimes includes even women of rank, if guilty of drunkenness or other low vices. The inhabitants of Barcelona are computed at more than 100,000; and industry prevails here, being a native virtue of the Catalonians: the chief manufactures are silk, cotton, and wool, excellent fire-arms and cutlery; the chief imports, corn, fish, and woollen goods; exports, wine, brandy, cloth, and leather. During peace it is supposed that 1000

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vessels enter this port ; of which half are Spanish, 120 French, 100 English, and 60 Danes.

In the southern provinces appears Seville, famous till the year 1720, as the mart of American trade. The inhabitants are computed at 80,000 ; and the churches and convents are opulent and beautiful. The chief manufactures are silk, and recently snuffs (a royal monopoly), not only the common Spanish, but rappee, as it was found that the latter was smuggled from France: The tobacco employs 220 manufacturers, who are strictly examined and guarded. Seville is esteemed the chief *city* of Spain. Madrid being only a *town* distinguished by the royal residence.

Granada has been long celebrated as the paradise of Spain, though the southern provinces be in general unhealthy. This city stands in a vale bounded by hills, beyond which to the south is the Sierra Nevada, so called because the mountains are covered with perpetual snow. The inhabitants are supposed to be 80,000 ; the Moorish palace here has been already described ; and adjoining is a palace erected by Charles V. The cathedral and convents contain excellent pictures by Spanish masters. The municipal government is in a *corregidor* and twenty-four *regidores*. There are beautiful public walks, and the environs are delightful and well cultivated.

**EDIFICES.** The most remarkable edifices of Spain are the cathedrals of the several sees, and the churches belonging to opulent convents. The houses of the nobility are confined, with few exceptions, to the capital and other cities, instead of adorning the country at large as in England. The palace and monastery of the Escorial have been described at great length by many travellers. It is seated in a deep recess, at the foot of high mountains ; and was built by that bigot Philip II. in the strange form of a gridiron, the instrument of the martyrdom of St. Lawrence, upon whose anniversary the Spaniards gained the victory of St. Quintin. The convent is 740 feet by 580 ; and the palace forms the handle of this imaginary gridiron. The paintings are excellent and numerous ; and the vault containing the royal tombs is grand and impressive. But the palaces of Aranjuez and St. Ildefonso are greater favourites with the court.

**INLAND NAVIGATION.** The inland navigations of Spain, though commenced upon united principles of gran-

deur and utility, have been permitted to languish through the want of resources, and the slow measures of the court, rather than by any indolence of the superintendants and labourers. The great canal of Arragon seems to remain in a state of imperfection, though we are told that two branches are completed from the Ebro towards Navarre, and have been attended with the most beneficial consequences. Another canal was to begin at Segovia, or about 40 miles N. of Madrid, thence to extend to the bay of Biscay. This is termed the canal of Castile. The canal of Guadarama was conducted with more spirit, and is probably completed. It was to open near the Escorial and proceed south to the Tajo or Tagus.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** The manufactures of Spain are considerably checked by the royal monopolies.

Many manufactures are however conducted in Spain with great spirit and assiduity; and any failure must not be imputed so much to the indolence of the people, as to the prejudices of the great, and the inquisitorial power of the ecclesiastics, which cramps genius and invention of all kinds, and constrains the mind to the same perpetual circle. Spain supplies wines, oil, fruits, silk, leather, broad cloth, and other articles to many European countries; but her chief trade is with her own colonies in America. The soil of Spain is exuberant in the production of saltpetre; and the barilla, used in making glass, has been long celebrated.

In the year 1784, the exports from Spain to America were thus computed in pounds sterling:

Spanish produce 1,958,849*l.* Foreign produce 2,389,229*l.*  
Total 4,348,078*l.*

The duties were computed at 170,800*l.*

The imports from America to Spain were, at the same time, thus estimated in the same money:

Money and jewels 9,291,237*l.* Merchandize 3,343,936*l.*

The duty amounted to more than half a million.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The climate of Spain has been deservedly praised, as equal if not superior to that of any country in Europe; in the south the sea breeze, beginning about nine in the morning and continuing till five in the evening, agreeably diversifies the warmth of the summer; and in the northern provinces the severity of

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winter is allayed by the proximity of the ocean, which generally supplies gales rather humid than frosty.

**SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.** The soil is generally light, and reposes on beds of gypsum or plaster of Paris, itself an excellent manure. "The common course of husbandry about Barcelona begins with wheat; which being ripe in June, is immediately succeeded by Indian corn, hemp, millet, cabbage, kidney-beans, or lettuce. The second year these same crops succeed each other as before, The next year they take barley, beans, or vetches; which, coming off the ground before midsummer, are followed as in the former years, by other crops, only changing them according to the season, so as to have on the same spot the greatest possible variety." The Huerta, or rich vale of Alicant, yields a perpetual succession of crops. Barley is sown in September, reaped in April, succeeded by maize, reaped in September; and a mixed crop of esculents follow. Wheat is sown in November, and reaped in June; flax in September, pulled in May. In the vale of Valencia wheat yields from twenty to forty; barley from eighteen to twenty-four; oats from twenty to thirty; maize one hundred; rice forty. In the more southern provinces the land is almost equally fertile; and the sugar-cane is cultivated with success near Granada. Agriculture is greatly impeded in Spain by the superior attention paid to the large flocks of sheep, which are authorized by a special code, the mesta, to travel from one province to another, as the season presents pasturage in the vales, or on the mountains. The Merino sheep, or flocks, thus privileged, are computed at 5,000,000; and one nobleman has sometimes 40,000. The fleece is esteemed double in value to that of other sheep; but the checks given to agriculture by such privileges, unknown to all other countries, are incalculable.

**RIVERS.** Among the chief rivers of Spain may be named the Ebro, which anciently conferred an appellation on the country. This noble stream rises in the mountains of Asturias, and enters the Mediterranean sea, after having run about 380 G. miles. The other rivers running to the east are of less importance, as the Guadalavir, the Xucar, and the Segura, which enlivens the fertile vales of Murcia. Towards the west occurs the Guadalquivir, the ancient Bætis; which gave name to the province. This river originates in the Sierra Morena, and flows into the gulph of



Cadiz, after a course of near 300 G. miles. But the chief river of Spain and Portugal is the Tajo, or Tagus, which rises in the west of Arragon, near Albarracin, in a spring called Abrega, and holds a course of about 450 G. miles. The Douro springs near the ruins of ancient Numantia ; and its course may be computed at 350 G. miles.

**MOUNTAINS.** The Spanish mountains are arranged by nature in several distinct chains. The most northern is regarded as a continuation of the Pyrenees, passing on the S. of Biscay and the Asturias in Galicia.

The second chain of Spanish mountains extends from near Soria on the N. E. and pursues a S. W. direction towards Portugal. The third is that of Toledo, running nearly parallel with the last. These two central chains seem to contain great quantities of granite.

Next towards the S. is the Sierra Morena, or Brown Mountains, which are followed by the most southern ridge, that of the Sierra Nevada.

On the east there is a considerable chain, which connects the two central ridges, and advances towards the Mediterranean in the north of Valencia.

A remarkable solitary mountain, not far from Barcelona, must not be omitted. At a distance Montserrat appears like a sugar-loaf ; but on a nearer approach seems jagged like a saw, with pyramidal rocks ; it is composed of limestone and gravel, united by calcareous cement ; and is of such a height that from its summit may be discerned the islands of Majorca and Minorca, at the distance of 50 leagues. Not far from Montserrat, near the village of Cardona, is a hill three miles in circumference, which is one mass of rock salt, used in the dry climate of Spain for vases, snuff-boxes, and trinkets, like our Derbyshire spar.

The Spanish side of the Pyrenees has not been accurately examined ; and as the French mineralogists have amply illustrated the part belonging to France, an account of these mountains has been given in the description of that country.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** The soil of Spain was anciently very fruitful in corn ; but there has lately been some scarcity, by the neglect of tillage, through indolence. It produces in many places, almost spontaneously, the richest and most delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy ; oranges, lemons,

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prunes, citrons, almonds, raisins, and figs. The wines of Spain, especially sack and sherry, are in high credit among foreigners. In the district of Malaga, alone there are 14,000 wine presses. The sugar canes thrive in Spain, and it yields saffron, honey, and silk in abundance.

The sheep-walks are for the most part open downs with little shelter, except here and there a grove of chesnut trees, or evergreen oaks; the turf differs essentially from that of the English sheep-walks in containing very few species of grass, being chiefly composed of the smaller papilionaceous plants.

The glory of the Spanish zoology is the horse, which has been famous in all ages, probably originating from the barb, or beautiful and spirited steed from the north of Africa, the immediate offspring of the Arabian. The Spanish mules are also excellent, and the ass is here no ignoble animal, though not equal to that of Arabia. The breed of sheep has been long celebrated as perhaps superior to any in the world, for the delicacy of the mutton, and the beauty of the fleece. The purity of the air, and aromatic pasture, no doubt contribute to both qualities, which it is to be suspected would degenerate on transportation.

**MINERALS.** The mineralogy of Spain was anciently of more importance than in modern times. Pliny, after observing that silver was generally found with galena or lead ore, proceeds to state that the fairest of all silver, was found in Spain, where the pits begun by Hannibal, lasted to his time, being known by the names of their original discoverers. That called Babelo had yielded to Hannibal 300 weight a day, a mountain being pierced for a mile and a half, through which the workmen directed large streams of water: so that the plan pursued seems to have been that called hushing by modern writers. Strabo informs us that the province of the Turditani, modern Andalusia, was the most productive of precious metals; and gold, silver, brass, and iron, were no where found more abundant, nor of better quality; gold was found in the sands of the rivers and torrents, a known attribute of the Tagus. Polybius informs us concerning the mines of silver near Carthage, which occupied a number of workmen, and yielded to the Romans 25,000 drachms daily.

At present almost the only silver mines in Spain are those of Guadalcanal, in the Sierra Morena. At Almaden

in La Mancha are valuable mines of quicksilver, which are chiefly remitted to Spanish America, and employed in refining the more precious metals. Calamine appears near Alcavas; cobalt in the Pyrenees; antimony in La Mancha; copper on the frontiers of Portugal; tin in Galicia; and lead is common in many districts. The iron of Spain is abundant, and still maintains its high character; and coals are found in the district of Villa Franca, in Catalonia, where also occur gold, silver, copper, and lead. Amber and jet (in Spanish Azabache) are found together in the territory of Beloncia in the Asturias.

### SPANISH ISLES.

The chief circumjacent islands belonging to Spain are Majorca, Minorca, and Eviza. Majorca is about 55 English miles in length, by 45 in breadth. The N. W. part is hilly: the rest abounds with cultivated land, vineyards, orchards, and meadow; the air is temperate, and the honey highly esteemed: there is generally a considerable military force in the isle. The capital, seated on a fair bay, is an elegant city, and is supposed to contain 10,000 inhabitants. Majorca was reconquered from the Moors by James I. king of Arragon in 1229.

Majorca is generally in too strong a state of defence to admit of an easy conquest, but Minorca has been repeatedly seized by the English, to whom it presents an advantageous station for the Mediterranean trade. It is about 30 miles in length, by about 12 of medial breadth. The air is moist, and the soil rather barren, being chiefly calcareous with lead, and fine marble. The wine is praised; and the inhabitants retain a share of their ancient reputation as excellent slingers. Cittadella the capital, has a tolerable haven, but the population and fortifications are of little consequence. Port-Mahon on the S. E. has an excellent harbour and received its name from Mago the Carthaginian general. Eviza is the nearest to Spain, about 15 miles long and 12 broad. It is remarkable for its fruits, and abundance of excellent salt.

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## TURKEY IN EUROPE.

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THE Turkish empire, once so formidable to Europe, has lately sunk before the power of Russia. Turkey in Europe is computed to contain 182,560 square miles ; an extent which exceeds that of Spain, or even France under the ancient monarchy.

**CIVIL DIVISIONS.** As European Turkey forms a recent sovereignty, the greater part of which was subjugated in the fifteenth century, after the fall of Constantinople and of the Byzantine empire, there is no ancient appellation for its whole extent. It embraces many ancient kingdoms and republics, which now only afford a melancholy remembrance of classical names and events. 1. Moldavia, part of ancient Dacia. 2. Budzac, or Bessarabia, a country of the Getæ and Peucini. 3. Walachia, a province also of the ancient Dacians. 4. Bulgaria which embraces nearly the two provinces of Mæsia. 5. Romelia, or ancient Thracia, Pæonia, Macedonia, and the northern part of the classical country of Greece. 6. The Morea, equivalent to the ancient Peloponnesus. To the W. of Romelia extends, 7. Albania ; which includes the kingdom of Epirus, Chaonia, and a part of Illyricum. 8. Dalmatia retains its ancient appellation : while, 9. Servia, and 10. Bosnia represent ancient Pannonia. 11. Turkish Croatia, the most western province of the empire, also forms a portion of ancient Pannonia, with perhaps a small district of Noricum.

**EXTENT.** Turkey in Europe extends about 870 miles in length, from the northern boundary of Moldavia, to Cape Matapan in the Morea. The breadth from the river Unna to Constantinople, is about 680 British miles. The eastern and southern boundaries are formed by the

Euxine or Black Sea, the sea of Marmora, the Archipelago, and the Mediterranean. The utmost northern limit is now the river Dniester; but the western often consists of an arbitrary line, and is sometimes supplied by rivers or mountains.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The original population of this empire chiefly sprung from the ancient Scythians on the Euxine, the progenitors of the Dacians, Thracians, &c. and even of the Greeks. These were originally blended, towards the north, with many Sarmatic or Slavonic tribes; and on the fall of the Roman empire the latter spread more and more towards the south, so that nearly one half of the population may now be regarded as Slavonic; but Walachia is supposed to contain many descendants of the ancient Roman settlers in Dacia. The extent of the Turkish empire has contributed to mingle this original population with various Asiatic races, among whom the Turks themselves deserve particular mention. That branch called the Ottomans, which has proved so destructive to Europe, derived their name from the calif Othman, who reigned in the beginning of the fourteenth century, and extended his sway into the plains of Bithynia, in which he conquered Nicomedia and Prusa, and thus approached even to the gates of Constantinople, and at length overthrew the Greek empire,

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** It would be difficult and unsatisfactory minutely to state the historical epochs of this extensive dominion, containing so many ancient kingdoms and states. It shall therefore be only premised, that after the Roman arms had subdued these countries and cities, many of which are celebrated in the most ancient pages of history, they became in the fifth century an important part of the Byzantine empire: and the historical epochs most appropriated to the present design will delineate their gradual subjugation by the Turks.

1. The first dawn of Turkish history preceding the reign of Othman, A. D. 1299.

2. In the reign of his successor, Orkan, the Turks take Gallipoli, and penetrate into Thrace; which province was soon after conquered, and Adrianople was taken A. D. 1360. Two years afterwards the sultan Amurath established the famous military bands called Janizaries, composed of Christian slaves educated in Mahometanism from their infancy.

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3. The reign of Bajazet, who defeats the Hungarians at Nicopoli, in Bulgaria, A. D. 1396. In 1402 the famous battle was fought near Ancyra, between Bajazet and Timur, which for a period checked the Turkish power: yet in 1412 the emperor Sigismund was defeated by the sultan Mousa, with great slaughter.

4. The Turks continue to increase their dominion in Europe, though they received severe checks from the Hungarians under Hunniades, and even from the Albanians commanded by the celebrated George Castriota, called by the Turks Scanderberg.

5. Constantinople taken by the Turks on the 29th of May 1453. In 1456 happened the siege of Belgrade by Mahomet II. Corinth and the Morea became subject to the Crescent A. D. 1458. In 1480 Otranto in Italy was taken by the Turks, an event which diffused great terror throughout Europe.

6. A considerable accession to the Turkish power took place in the conquest of Egypt, A. D. 1517. In 1522 Rhodes submits to the Turks: the knights were afterwards transferred to Malta. In 1526 the noted battle of Mohatz, in which Lewis king of Hungary perished; and the sultan Soliman soon after took Buda. In 1529 he besieges Vienna at the head of 250,000 men, but the city being bravely defended by Frederic, prince palatine, the Turks withdrew with great loss. In 1552 the Turks seized the Bannat of Temeswar; and took Cyprus from the Venetians in 1571.

7. In the same year was the famous naval battle of Lepanto, which delivered Europe from any apprehension of the Turks by sea. They continued however to invade Hungary with various success. But their wars with Persia gradually diverted their arms from Europe. In 1642 the sultan Ibrahim took from the Cossacs the town of Azof at the mouth of the Don. Towards the middle of this century, they seized some Grecian isles, which the naval power of the Venetians had enabled them to retain.

8. Mahomet IV. renews the war against the emperor of Germany; and in 1663 the Austrians were defeated in Hungary. The isle of Candia is taken in 1669 after a long blockade and siege. Wars with Poland. The siege of Vienna, 1683, was raised by John Sobieski king of Poland. Hungary became the scene of repeated Turkish and Austrian conquests, till 1699, the peace of Carlovitz, by which

the Turks yielded Transylvania to the Austrians, the Morea to the Venetians, and Azof to the Russians.

9. In 1736 a successful war was begun with the Russians and Austrians; the Turks by the peace of 1739 resumed Belgrade and Orsova, with some parts of Servia and Wallachia, formerly ceded to Austria; and Russia is constrained to abandon Azof.

10. The more recent wars of the Russians against the Turks, and the subsequent decline of the Ottoman empire.

**ANTIQUITIES.** The ancient monuments of European Turkey are well known to exceed in number and importance those of any other country. The remains of ancient Athens, in particular, formerly the chosen seat of the arts, have attracted the attention of many travellers, and have been repeatedly described. A venerable monument of antiquity, the church dedicated to the divine wisdom, or vulgarly Sancta Sophia, by the emperor Justinian in the sixth century, has been fortunately preserved, by being converted into a mosque. The interior is adorned with a profusion of marble columns, of various beautiful descriptions, the purple Phrygian, the Spartan green, the red and white Carian, the African of a saffron colour, and many other kinds.

**RELIGION.** The religion of the Turks is the Mahometan; but of their subjects, in this division of the empire, it is probable that two-thirds are Greek Christians. The religion of Mahomet has been recently cleared from many erroneous representations; but its pernicious effects are sufficiently visible in the destruction of art and industry, wherever it has made its appearance.

The mufti, or Mahometan pontiff, presides at Constantinople: but his power has seldom interfered with the civil government. Next to him in rank are the moulahs, who, though esteemed dignitaries of the church, are in fact rather doctors of the law, while the Koran is also a code of civil observance. From the moulahs, are selected the inferior muftis or judges through the empire, and the cadilesquiers, or chief justices.

The next class of divines are the imaums, or parish priests, who perform the service of the mosques, while the cadis are judges annually appointed to administer justice in the towns and villages, being themselves to be regarded

as churchmen, who, like the moulahs, have directed their chief attention to the juridical part of the Koran.

The Turks have also their monks, styled dervishes, of four various orders and institutions, dedicated by solemn vows to religious offices, public prayer, and preaching.

The Greeks, along with their faith, retain their priests, bishops, archbishops, and patriarchs; but their church is in the last state of degradation, and its dignities openly sold by the Turks.

**GOVERNMENT.** The sultan is a despotic sovereign; but he is himself strictly subject to the laws of the Koran which, including also the national religion, raise such obstructions to his absolute will, that an intelligent traveller pronounced many Christian sovereignties more despotic. Hence it appears that the power of the monarch is balanced by a religious aristocracy, which together with the munities of the Janizaries and the insurrections of the provincial pachas, has greatly weakened the sovereign authority.

The Turkish laws, as has been already mentioned, are contained in the Koran and its commentaries.

**POPULATION.** Turkey in Europe has been computed to contain 8,000,000 of inhabitants; and the extent being supposed 182,560 square miles, the allotment will be 43 to the mile square. It is probable that this number rather exceeds the truth, when it is considered that these regions are intersected by many mountainous and barren tracts, and that the population even of the best provinces impresses travellers with a striking defect.

**ARMY AND NAVY.** The Turkish army and navy may deserve more particular consideration under the head of Asiatic Turkey, as the chief sources fall under that division. It may here be briefly remarked that there are about 30 ships of the line; while the army, can scarcely exceed 150,000, ill disciplined, and dispirited by successive disasters.

**REVENUES.** The revenues of the whole Turkish empire are computed at about 7,000,000 sterling, while the usual expence does not exceed five. This revenue is partly derived from the capitation tax on unbelievers, and from the *zecchat* or customs; but principally from the tax on land, amounting to about six shillings an acre, and which is called the *jizie*.



**POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS.** The palpable and rapid decline of the Turkish empire has of course greatly impaired its political importance. At the beginning of the sixteenth century, France, being alarmed by the growing power of the house of Austria, entered into an alliance with Turkey, the just subject of murmur among the Christian powers. This long alliance has been recently violated by the perfidious rulers of the French republic, who invaded Egypt in the time of profound peace, and without any offence given by the Porte. Since the peace the French have regained their usual ascendancy, and by their potent interposition, may no doubt, if they choose, considerably modify, and perhaps render null, any future conspiracy of Austria and Russia against the European dominions of Turkey. The Turks are sensible that a strict alliance with Prussia would be of singular advantage to them; that power can have little interest in such a treaty, but must, on the contrary, rather exult to see the power of Russia exerted against Turkey and Asia. Meanwhile the Turks have spared no endeavour to secure the friendship of several European powers, and have appointed resident ambassadors at several courts, who may be regarded as heralds of their fall: for in their prosperity they disdained to send any envoys, and regarded the ambassadors at the Porte as tributary slaves, sent to solicit the protection of the sultan. Amidst the defection of several pachas, in the east as well as in Europe, it is fortunate for the Ottoman empire that the power of Persia is dormant.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** The manners and customs of the Turks are distinguished by the peculiarity of their religion from those of other European nations. On the birth of a child the father himself gives the name, putting at the same time a grain of salt into his mouth. In diet the Turks are extremely moderate, and their meals are dispatched with great haste. Rice is the favourite food, and is chiefly dressed in three ways; the pilau, boiled with mutton or fowl; the lappa, or mere boiled rice; and the tchorba, a kind of broth of the same vegetable. The meal is usually spread on a low wooden table, and the master of the house pronounces a short prayer. The frugal repast is followed by fruits and cold water, which are succeeded by hot coffee and pipes with tobacco. The dress of their women differs little from that of the men, the chief distinction

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being the head-dress ; that of the fair sex consisting of a bonnet, (instead of a turban) like an inverted basket, formed of pasteboard covered with cloth of gold, or other elegant materials, with a veil extending to the eyebrows, while a fine handkerchief conceals the under part of the face. The amusements of the Turks partake of their indolent apathy, if we except hunting and those of a military description. To recline on an elegant carpet, or in the hot season by the side of a stream, and smoke the delicate tobacco of Syria, may be regarded as their chief amusement. With opium they procure what they call a kief, or placid intoxication, during which the fancy forms a thousand agreeable images, but when the dose is too potent these are succeeded by irritation and ferocity.

**LANGUAGE AND SCHOOLS.** The Turkish language is of far inferior reputation to the Persian or Arabic, being a mixture of several dialects, and possessing neither the force, elegance, nor purity of those two celebrated oriental tongues. The design of establishing a printing press at Constantinople, has been opposed by the copyists, who inferred that this art would deprive them of their bread. There are in this capital several public libraries, but none are so elegant as that founded by the grand vizir Raghid, which is wholly built of marble in the midst of a square court, and is filled with books chiefly theological. A librarian constantly attends, and there are convenient seats with carpets and cushions. In the neighbourhood is a school founded by the same vizir, in which about 100 boys are taught to read and write. The market for books is extensive, containing many shops well supplied with oriental manuscripts.

The state of education among the Turks may be conceived to be very low, and ignorance is indeed a chief part of the national character. The only profession which requires a shadow of learning is that of the law, which, as before explained, is intimately connected with their theology. The celebrated doctors have disciples, who are trained up to that department : but there seems nothing that can deserve the name of college or university.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** The chief city of European Turkey, and of the Turkish empire, is Constantinople, built on the site of the ancient Byzantium. The advantages of the situation can hardly be exceeded, and the aspect from the sea is peculiarly grand ; but on a nearer ap-

proach, the wooden hovels and narrow streets disappoint the splendid expectations of the spectator. This capital forms an unequal triangle, being about twelve or fourteen English miles in circumference, inclosed by walls, and on two sides by the sea and the harbour called the Golden Horn. The inhabitants are computed at 400,000, including the four suburbs, Galata, Pera, Tophana, and Scutari. Of these 200,000 are Turks, 100,000 Greeks, and the remainder Jews, Armenians, and Franks. The most celebrated edifices are the Seraglio, which comprises a large space crowded with various buildings of mean architecture; and the mosque of Sancta Sophia. The principal entrance of the Seraglio is styled Capi, or the Porte, an appellation which has passed to the Turkish court.

Next in dignity and extent is the city of Adrianople, formerly the European seat of the Turkish dominion. This city, which stands about 140 British miles to the N. W. of Constantinople was founded by the emperor Hadrian on the site of the ancient Orestias. This second city of European Turkey is of a circular form, and at present unfortified. Many of the houses are respectable, but the streets are narrow and indirect. The Seraglio is in a pleasant situation, separated from the city by the river Arda, and commanding an extensive view of the country, which is fertile, and remarkable for excellent vines. Several of the mosques are of celebrated splendour, and the commerce of the city, by the river, is not inconsiderable.

The city of Sofia, situated in a low country N. W. from Adrianople, is of considerable trade, but meanly built: the inhabitants are computed at 70,000.

Silistria in Bulgaria, on the river Danube, is computed to contain 60,000 souls; and Bucharest, the chief city of Walachia, is estimated at the same number.

Belgrade, the capital of Servia, repeatedly disputed between the Austrians and Turks, is now destitute of fortifications, but is supposed to retain about 25,000 inhabitants.

In the more southern provinces the chief city worth notice is Salonica, computed at 60,000, a city of considerable commerce, seated on a noble gulph of the Archipelago.

**EDIFICES.** All that deserve a place in this work have been already noticed.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** The native manufactures exported from European Turkey are inconsiderable, being chiefly carpets, and a few other articles; but the rude products are far more numerous, as currants, figs, saffron, statuary marble from Paros, silk, and drugs; engrossed chiefly by foreigners.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The extensive regions comprised within the limits of European Turkey enjoy, in general, a delicious climate, pure air, and regular seasons. In Walachia the air is so temperate that vines and melons prosper. In the mountainous parts of the more southern districts the temperature must partake of the cold, universal in such elevated regions; but the products of Macedonia and Greece, rice, vines, and olives, shew that the climate retains its ancient praise.

**SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.** The soil is generally fertile, the northern parts producing wheat and rich pasture, the middle and southern abundance of rice. But agriculture, like every other art and science, is neglected by the Turks; and that soil must be truly fertile, which, under their sway, can support its inhabitants.

**RIVERS.** Among the rivers of European Turkey must first be named the Danube, which from Belgrade to Orsova divides Servia from the Bannat, a space of near 100 miles: and afterwards becomes a Turkish stream for more than 400, being in some places a mile in breadth, and presenting, if possessed by an industrious people, all the advantages of a Mediterranean sea.

Next perhaps in importance, though very inferior, is the Maritz, or ancient Hebrus, which rising in a chain of mountains anciently called Hæmus, and running towards the E. and S. falls into the *Ægean* sea, after a course of about 250 miles. The same sea at the gulph of Salonica receives the Vardari, the ancient Auxias, which rising in Mount Scardus, a western branch of the same chain, pursues a S. E. course of about 200 miles.

**MOUNTAINS.** The chains of mountains are numerous and extensive. To the W. of Moldavia and the Buckovine runs N. and N. W. for about 200 miles part of the grand Carpathian chain, anciently called the Bastarnic Alps.

On the S. of the Danube appears the grand range of the Hæmus. This chain is deservedly celebrated by the an-

cients, being of great elevation and extent, as appears from the numerous and large rivers which devolve from its sides. The chain running to the S. has many classical appellations, as the Acroceraunian, Pindus, &c. The E. and S. of Greece are also crowded with small chains of mountains and solitary hills, such as Olympus, Ossa, Pelius, and others. Mount Athos, a detached summit in the N. E. is of considerable height, but has chiefly attracted observation from its singular form, so much resembling that of Montserrat in Spain: and from the many monasteries and churches on the declivities of its picturesque pinnacle.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** The forests of Greece, the Greek islands, and the provinces bordering the Archipelago to the north, consist of the common and yew-leaved fir, the larch, the cedar, the ilex, the kermes oak, the common oak, the oriental plane-tree, the maple, the sycamore, the walnut, the chesnut, and the bæch. The principal fruit-trees are the olive, considerable forests of which, mixed with the broad-leaved myrtle, adorn the shores of Crete and Attica; the orange, the fig, the vine, the pistachia tree, the mastich tree, the mulberry, and the pomegranate. Of the shrubs and smaller trees the most worthy of notice are the bay-tree, the laurel, two kinds of arbutus, the cypress, the oleander, and the caper bush.

The zoology of European Turkey presents few peculiarities. The jackal, frequent in Africa and Asia, is not unknown in these regions; and among the beasts of burden must be classed the camel. The Turkish horses are celebrated for spirit and form; and those of Walachia deserve particular praise. The breeds or qualities of their cattle have been little explained. The sheep distinguished by the name of Walachian, have spiral horns of singular elegance; but the fineness of the fleece would be a more useful distinction.

**MINERALS.** The mineralogy of these provinces is also a barren field; for the indolence and ignorance of the Turks have generally neglected this branch of opulence; though from the mines in the adjacent regions of Hungary and Transylvania, and from the ancient accounts, there would be room to expect great mineral treasures. The gold mines of Philippi, about 80 miles to the east of Salonica, in the time of Philip of Macedon, produced yearly about 10,000 talents, 2,880,000*l.* sterling; and silver mines were found in Attica, and other quarters.

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## ISLANDS

## BELONGING TO TURKEY IN EUROPE.

THE classical islands of ancient Greece have been so repeatedly described, that little more than an enumeration may suffice. The largest is that of Crete or Candia, which is about 180 British miles in length, by 40 as its greatest breadth. A chain of high mountains, called the White Mountains, from the snow, pervades a great part of its length. The inhabitants are vigorous and robust, and fond of archery. This isle abounds with cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, and game, all excellent; and the wine is balmy and luscious. The siege of Candia by the Turks in the middle of the seventeenth century is remarkable in modern history, as having continued for 24 years, 1646—1670. This island had before flourished under the Venetians.

Next is Negropont, anciently called Eubœa, about 100 British miles in length by 20 in breadth, a large and important island, which also belonged to the Venetians to a late period.

The other isles are generally of a diminutive size, and were divided by the ancients into separate groups, of which the Cyclades were the most memorable; while the Sporades approached the Asiatic shore.

## HOLLAND.

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THE Seven United Provinces were, in ancient times, chiefly possessed by the Batavi, a people highly celebrated by Tacitus: reviving an ancient name, the French have recently styled them the Batavian Republic. They were formerly called the republic of Holland, from the name of the chief province; so called from the German word *Hohl*, corresponding with the English word hollow, and implying a concave or very low country.

**EXTENT.** These provinces extend, from the N. of Groningen to Austrian Flanders and Brabant, about 150 British miles; and in breadth, from what is called the North Sea to the circle of Westphalia, about 100 British miles. The number of square miles is computed at 10,000.

**DIVISIONS.** The ancient division of Holland was into seven provinces, Holland, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Guelderland, Overysse. These have recently been divided into fifteen departments.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The original population appears to have been Celtic: but when the Romans conquered this country, the chief inhabitants were the Batavi, the most northern people of Belgic Gaul, and incontestibly a German or Gothic progeny; who appear to have been secure in their marshes and islands, till the Frisians, the next adjacent people in the north, in the seventh century, extended themselves down to the Scheld. In the eighth century the Frisians were subdued by the Franks under Charles Martel, but the Frisians and Franks may be regarded as mingled in the population with the ancient Batavians.

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In 1421 the estuary of the Meuse, or Maese, suddenly formed a vast lake to the S. E. of Dort, overwhelming 72 large villages, with 100,000 inhabitants, who perished in the deluge.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** Among the chief historical epochs may be numbered;

1. The actions of the Batavi in the Roman period, from the first mention of that nation by Julius Cæsar.

2. The conquest by the Frisians, and afterwards by the Danes, and by the Franks.

3. The countries watered by the Meuse and the Rhine were for a long time divided into small earldoms; but in the year 923 Theodoric or Diedric, brother of Herman duke of Saxony, and of Wickman earl of Ghent, was appointed count of Holland by Charles the Simple, king of France, and the title became hereditary. Zealand and Friesland were included in the donation. The county of Gelderland in the east, was erected by the emperor Henry IV. in 1079, and became a duchy in 1339. Utrecht was subject to its powerful prelates, who had frequent contests with the earls of Holland.

4. Frequent contests appear between the earls of Holland and those of Flanders, concerning the possession of the islands of Zealand. Philipina, daughter of William III. earl of Holland, was married to the prince of Wales afterwards Edward III. of England, a princess worthy of an heroic husband. This king afterwards contested the earldom of Holland with Margaret his sister-in-law. Jacquelin the heiress of Holland in 1417 wedded John IV. duke of Brabant; but her uncle John of Bavaria, who had resigned the bishopric of Liege in the hopes of espousing her, contested the succession. A kind of anarchy following, Jacquelin went to England, where she married, in 1423, Humphry duke of Gloucester; and this marriage being annulled by the pope, she wedded in 1432 Borselen stadtholder of Holland; and next year was forced to resign her states to Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy.

5. Holland, and other large possessions of the house of Burgundy, fell by marriage to the house of Austria.

6. Holland and some inferior provinces revolt from the tyranny of Philip II. in 1566; and in 1579 formed the famous union of Utrecht.



7. By the end of that century the Dutch had established colonies at the Cape of Good Hope, and in the East Indies; and settlements were afterwards gained in S. America. During the seventeenth century they rivalled the English in the empire of the sea; and greatly exceeded them in commercial advantages. Their power began somewhat to decline after the obstinate naval conflicts in the time of Charles II. In 1672 Louis XIV. invades Holland; and Amsterdam is only saved by opening the sluices.

8. William stadtholder of Holland ascends the throne of England 1688; and a stricter intercourse prevails between the countries, Holland becoming the grand channel of the commerce of England with the continent.

9. The stadtholderate declared hereditary 1747. The war in 1756 opening great connections between Holland and France, a French party began to form in the country, which opposed the stadtholder, who was supported by the English. In 1780 a war arose between Great Britain and Holland, which closed in 1784, after exposing to Europe the decline and weakness of the United Provinces, still farther displayed by the entrance of the duke of Brunswick in 1788, who may be said to have subdued them without a blow.

10. The Dutch having joined the coalition against the French, their country fell a prey to the invaders, during the hard frost of the winter of 1794-5; and the stadtholder took refuge in England in 1795. Though a separate government continue, yet the United Provinces must be considered as subject to France, which intends to incorporate the parts S. of the Rhine. The Dutch fleet has since been nearly annihilated by the English, a fate justly merited by ingratitude and cowardice.

**ANTIQUITIES.** The chief remain of the Roman period is the ruined tower near Catwick, about six miles N. W. from Leyden, at the ancient mouth of the Rhine. In the middle of Leyden, upon an artificial hill, stands a round tower, fabled to have been built by Hengist who first led the Saxons to England.

**RELIGION.** The Protestant religion, in the Calvinistic form, prevails through the United Provinces. The states of Holland, in 1583, proposed that no other form of worship should be tolerated; but this resolution was wisely

rejected; and every religion is permitted, on condition that it do not oppose the fundamental laws, or teach any doctrines subversive of the state: yet employments of any consequence can only be filled by Protestants.

The ecclesiastical persons are considered as divided into four ranks, professors at universities, preachers, elders, and deacons: and the government of the church is administered by consistories, classes, and synods.

The Roman Catholics are supposed to have 350 churches, served by 400 priests, exclusive of some in the conquered territory. The chief other sects are the Lutherans, the Remonstrants, or Arminians, Anabaptists and Jews, and a few quakers.

**GOVERNMENT AND LAWS.** On the conquest of Holland by the French in 1795, a convention was called to frame a constitution. The plan that was first projected being disapproved by the people, another was afterwards proposed which was accepted. According to this frame, copied from that of France, the government is vested in a legislative body, consisting of two chambers, and a directory. The presidents of the two chambers are changed every fortnight, and a part of the legislature and directory go out every year. The emperor of France, who does as he pleases among his humble allies, seems to be meditating another change.

Justice is administered according to the local customs and statutes of each province and city, the ordinances of the States-general, and in defect of all these the Roman code.

**POPULATION.** The population of the United Provinces has been recently computed at 2,758,632, and the extent of the territory in square miles being supposed 10,000, there will be 275 for each mile square. The population of Holland, the chief province, is calculated at 980,000.

**COLONIES.** The Dutch, being, for a considerable time, the chief maritime power in Europe, their colonies were numerous; they still retain the Spice Islands, Batavia in the island of Java, the Cape of Good Hope, Surinam, and other considerable establishments.

**ARMY AND NAVY.** The army was computed at about 36,000, but it is now incorporated with that of France. The navy which used to consist of forty ships of the line, has by the events of the last war almost totally disappeared.

**REVENUE.** The revenue was about three millions and a half sterling, but was greatly exceeded by the expenditure; so that the national debt was computed at about 130,000,000*l.* sterling: but 2,800,000*l.* were annually received as the interest of loans to other foreign powers.

**POLITICAL IMPORTANCE, &c.** The political importance and relations of the United Provinces are at present completely immersed in those of France; she is forced to contribute to her own annihilation, and the aggrandizement of her enemies.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** A stranger visiting Holland is surprised at the extreme cleanliness observable in the houses and streets; even hamlets inhabited by poor fishermen displaying a neatness and freshness, which forms a striking contrast with the squalid appearance of the German villages. The air being always moist, and commonly cold, the Dutch dress is calculated for warmth and not for elegance. The people are of a phlegmatic temperament; and their courage at sea is rather obstinacy than ardour. A late amiable traveller observes, that "the infatuation of loving money, not as a mean but as an end, is paramount in the mind of almost every Dutchman, whatever may be his other disposition and qualities; the addiction to it is fervent, inveterate, invincible, and universal from youth to the feeblest old age."

Their dress is little affected by fashion. The opulent merchants delight in their villas, and gardens, in which perhaps one tulip root might cost 50 guineas. In the winter, skating is a favourite amusement, and the canals are crowded with all ranks, from the senator to the milk-maid with her pail, and the peasant with his eggs. They possess some valuable collections of paintings and prints, which also have become an article of commerce and avarice.

**LANGUAGE.** The Dutch language is a dialect of the German.

**PUBLIC SCHOOLS.** The mode of education pursued in these provinces seems to have been greatly inferior to that used in Scotland, a country enjoying an ecclesiastic government somewhat similar. The Dutch youths being chiefly allotted to a seafaring life, there was not indeed opportunity for numerous parochial schools, and consequent diffusion of common knowledge. The most celebrated Latin schools were at Rotterdam, Breda, Middleburg,

Groningen, &c. The universities are five ; Leyden, Utrecht, Harderwyck, Franeker, and Groningen ; with two inferior colleges at Amsterdam and Deventer. There is an academy of sciences at Haarlem.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** Amsterdam, the chief city of Holland, is upon the small river Amstel. The haven is not distinguished by natural advantages, but has been improved and secured by art: and the wide forest of masts impressed every traveller with amazement. The population is computed at about 212,000. The streets are generally narrow, and the canals feculent. The houses have the common air of neatness peculiar to those of the Dutch. The chief edifices are the state-house, founded on piles at an immense expence ; the exchange, and the post-office ; but some streets along the chief canals display houses of uniform grandeur. Some agreeable walks occur in the interior of the city ; but the environs are chiefly visited by water ; yet to the S. there is an agreeable road to Ouder-kirk through pleasant gardens and groves.

Leyden is esteemed the next city in population, containing about 50,000 souls. It is the Lugdunum Batavorum of antiquity, and is distinguished by its university. Here the ancient Rhine almost expires in a number of small channels, which are passed by so many bridges that the number has been computed at more than one hundred. The meadows and gardens around Leyden are remarkably productive, and there is a daily intercourse, by canals, with the other chief cities and provinces. The fair is still much frequented ; but the university has declined.

Next is Rotterdam, with a population of about 48,000 people. There is a noble quay, with houses as handsome as any in the squares of London ; and the great length of the streets is characteristic of Dutch cities, and even towns ; yet they are generally narrow, and the foot pavement is only distinguished by a clean line of bricks. In the market place stands the well-known statue of Erasmus.

Haarlem is computed to contain 40,000 souls ; and, like Leyden, is fortified by old brick walls. The great church is esteemed the largest in the province of Holland ; but the celebrated organ is more remarkable for power than sweetness.

The Hague is only esteemed a village, though the inhabitants be computed at 36,000. The court or pa-

lace, contains several chambers allotted to the different branches of government, besides the apartments of the Stadtholder. The states-general meet in a room which contained twenty-six chairs, for the usual number of the members. The cabinet of natural history has been carried to France, and probably the most curious books and pictures. The Hague is distinguished by its pleasant situation and tranquil grandeur.

**INLAND NAVIGATION.** To enumerate the canals of the United Provinces would be infinite, for they equal the roads in other countries.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** The chief manufactures of Holland are linens; pottery, and painted tiles, especially at Delft; leather, wax, snuff, sugar, starch, paper, besides some of woollen, cotton, and silk. But the most precious branch of commerce consisted in spices and drugs, brought from the settlements in the East Indies. The fishery in the Northern Seas, and even on their own and the English coasts, was also an object of great commercial importance. Latterly perhaps the chief advantage was derived from Holland, being the grand deposit of commerce between Great Britain and the continent, particularly Germany and France. The inland trade with Germany, by the canals and the Rhine, is almost the only branch which has escaped the ravages of war. Of this the most remarkable feature consists in the vast floats of timber brought down the Rhine. The length of these rafts is from 700 to 1000 feet, the breadth from 50 to 90; and 500 labourers direct the floating island, which is crowned with a village of timber huts for their reception.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** Humidity and cold are the chief characteristics of the climate of the United Provinces. The general face of the country is that of a large marsh which has been drained; the canals, and even the sea, looking pale and discoloured by mud. The whole country may be said to display an intimate combination of land and water; and the few elevations commonly consist of barren sand.

**SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.** The agriculture of such provinces cannot be expected to be considerable, the land being mostly under pasturage, except a few crops of madder, and tobacco, which are cultivated with great predilection. The pasturages in the north of Holland, espe-

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cially those of Bemster, and in Friesland, supply such quantities of excellent butter, as to become a staple article of commerce. The cows seem to have been originally from Holstein, and the utmost attention is paid to warmth and cleanliness, so that even in summer the animals appear in the meadows clothed with ludicrous care.

**RIVERS.** The chief rivers of the United Provinces are the Rhine and the Meuse; the latter here receiving at its estuary the Aa, joined with the Domel from the S. and from the N. that great outlet of the Rhine called the Waal: and near 40 British miles farther to the W. the second grand outlet of the Rhine, called the Leck, joins the Meuse, after which but a small stream passes by Leyden to the German ocean. The principal river falling into the Zuyder Zee is the Issel, which rises not far to the S. W. of Munster, and after receiving the canal of Drusus near Duisberg becomes a considerable stream. On the N. of this is the small estuary of Wecht, which rises to the N. of Munster. The rivers of Friesland and Groningen are so diminutive that they are mostly lost in the numerous canals before they join the sea.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** The quantity of grain produced here is not sufficient for home consumption; but by draining their bogs, the Dutch have made excellent meadows, which fatten lean cattle from Germany and Denmark, to a great size; and they make prodigious quantities of excellent butter and cheese. Their country produces turf, tobacco, some fruit and iron. They have a good breed of sheep that is highly valued, and their horses and horned cattle are of a larger size than any in Europe. Their shores abound with fish, particularly turbot and soals.—But their chief fishery is on the coast of England and Scotland.

## DENMARK.

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THE name of Denmark, implying the marches, boundaries, or territories, of the Danes, is derived from the inhabitants who are first mentioned by this appellation in the sixth century, when we begin to acquire a faint idea of Scandinavia from the history of Jornandes. Norway, anciently Norrick, or the Northern kingdom, affords a palpable and precise derivation.

**EXTENT.** From the river Elbe, in the south, to the northern extremity of Danish Lapland, and the wild environs of the river Tana, may be computed, after excluding the entrance of the Baltic, an extent of not less than 1400 British miles in length, by a medial breadth of only 150. Of this great length, Denmark occupies about 260 miles, while the remainder belongs to Norway. To the south the Danish province of Holstein borders on the wide territories of Germany; on the east, west, and north, Denmark is surrounded by the sea. The eastern limits of Norway are chiefly indicated by a long chain of mountains, passing between that country and Sweden.

**DIVISIONS.** The territories subject to the crown of Denmark are divided into thirteen provinces, viz:

Five in Denmark proper, seven in Norway, and one in the Isles of Ferroe.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The original population of Denmark appears to have consisted of Cimbri, or Northern Celts, the ancestors of the Welch; and who in particular held the Cimbric Chersonese, or modern Jutland and Sleswic. On the progress of the Goths from the N. and E. the Cimbri were expelled, and their country was possessed by seven Gothic tribes, among which were the

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Angli, who afterwards invaded and gave appellation to England. The original possessors of Norway appear to have been the Fins and the Laps, who were driven to the northern extremities by the Gothic invasion, allegorically said to have been conducted by Odin the God of war. The population of Norway has since continued pure and unmixed by foreign conquests.

The chief historical epochs of Denmark are the following; those of Norway preceding the union, are too obscure to be noticed.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** 1. The most ancient population of the continental part of Denmark by the Cimbri.

2. The conquest by the Goths, who appear to have proceeded from Scandinavia into the isles and Jutland, as the dialect differs greatly from the German Gothic, while it is a sister of the Swedish and Norwegian.

3. The Roman and Francic accounts of Denmark, from the time of Pliny and Tacitus to that of Charlemagne.

4. The fabulous and traditional history of Denmark, which extends from about the year of Christ 500 to the reign of Heriold, mentioned by the Francic historians in the time of Charlemagne.

5. The conquest of Denmark by Olaf II. king of Sweden, about the year 900.

6. The more certain history commences with Gorm, or Gormo, A. D. 920. Gormo is succeeded by his son Harald Blaataand 945, who is followed by his son Swein 985, well known by his invasion of England, where he in some measure usurped the sovereignty, and died A. D. 1014.

7. The reign of Canute the Great, king of Denmark, England and Norway. The conversion of Denmark to Christianity had commenced in the beginning of the ninth century; but Christianity was far from being universal there till the reign of Canute the Great, when it was followed by its universal consequences, the cessation of piracy and rapine, and the diffusion of industry and civilization.

8. The reign of Waldemar, surnamed the Great, A. D. 1157, who defeats the Wends, or Slavonic inhabitants of the southern shores of the Baltic, in many battles, and subdues the isle of Rugen. Hence followed slowly the conversion of Pomerania, and of the countries on the east. Waldemar is regarded as the parent of the Danish laws.



9. The marriage of Hakon VI. king of Norway, with Margaret daughter of Waldemar III. king of Denmark, A. D. 1363, produced the memorable union of the three crowns of the north. On the death of her young son, Margaret ascended the throne of Denmark and Norway in 1387, and that of Sweden in 1389. Her husband, Eric of Pomerania, reigned about 26 years after her death; and was followed by Christopher of Bavaria, who removed the royal residence from Roskild to Copenhagen.

10. The accession of the house of Oldenburg, in the person of Christiern I. A. D. 1448. The repeated revolts of Sweden were suppressed by his successor John, who was crowned at Stockholin, in 1497.

11. The tyrannical and unhappy reign of Christiern II. when Sweden was emancipated by the efforts of Gustaf Wase.

12. The abolition of the Roman Catholic religion by Christiern III. 1537; but the Lutheran had been already introduced in 1526.

13. The reigns of Christiern IV. and his successor Frederic III. who was constrained to sign a treaty in March, 1660, by which he abandoned to Sweden the valuable province of Scone, and other parts in the south of Scandinavia, which had long remained in the possession of the Danes, together with the fertile island of Rugen.

14. The memorable revolution of the 23d October, 1660, by which the crown was declared absolute and hereditary. The subsequent events have been little memorable.

**ANTIQUITIES.** The ancient monuments of Denmark and Norway are chiefly what are called Runic; though it be not clear at what period the use of the Runic characters extended so far to the north. Circles of upright stones are common in all the Danish dominions; in Iceland their origin is perfectly ascertained, as some were erected even in recent times of the Icelandic republic, being called *Domhring*, or Circles of Judgment. Monuments also occur of the other forms imagined by our antiquaries to be Druidic.

**RELIGION.** The religion of Denmark and Norway is the Lutheran. There is no archbishop; but the bishopricks are twelve, six in Denmark, four in Norway, and two in Iceland. The chief see is that of Zealand, which yields about 1000*l.* a year; the other clerical orders are

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provosts, or archdeacons, parish priests, and chaplains. The parochial clergy are maintained by their glebes, tithes, and surplice fees; but in Jutland some of the livings do not exceed 20*l.* a year.

**GOVERNMENT.** Since the revolution of 1660, the Danish government has been an absolute monarchy. That revolution was produced by the obstinacy of the nobility, and consequent enmity of the clergy and burgesses, who perceived no other means of humbling their adversaries.

The Danish government has however been generally conducted with mildness and moderation; and their regal acts pass through many councils who carefully observe the legal forms. The laws are chiefly comprised in the code of Christiern V. who reigned in the end of the seventeenth century.

**POPULATION.** The population of the Danish dominions is computed at two millions and a half; though there seem little room to infer that it yields to that of Sweden. If we suppose the square contents to be about 180,000 miles, there will only be 12 inhabitants to the square mile. Norway is not supposed to contain more than 700,000 souls, nor Iceland above 50,000, the former only yielding six, the latter one, to the square mile.

**ARMY, &c.** The army of this kingdom is computed at 70,000 men, of which Denmark supplies about 40,000, and Norway the remainder. The navy, prior to the late engagement with the English off Copenhagen, consisted of 33 ships of the line, manned by about 11,000 seamen, and 5000 marines.

**REVENUE.** The annual revenue is computed at about one million and a half sterling, being superior to that of Sweden. Denmark contributes 543,554*l.* Norway 290,000*l.* Sleswic and Holstein 300,000*l.* the West India islands 262,000*l.* the toll levied upon ships passing the Sound 122,554*l.* Altona 3,150*l.* The expences of the state amount annually to about 1,050,000*l.* and it is burthened with a debt of 2,600,000*l.*

**POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS.** A timid policy has long united this monarchy in alliance with Russia, as a mean of security against Sweden; but more wisdom would appear in a firm alliance with Sweden and Prussia against the exorbitant power of the Russian empire.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** The manners and customs of the superior Danes differ little from those of the same classes in other parts of Europe. The peasantry continue in a state of vassalage, except those of the crown. They are of course idle, dirty, and dispirited: on the contrary, the Norwegian peasants are spirited, frank, open, and undaunted, yet not insolent; their usual dress is of a stone colour, with red button holes, and white metal buttons; and the women often appear only dressed in a petticoat and shift, with a close collar round their throat, and a black sash. Their usual bread, like that of the Scottish peasantry, consists of flat cakes of oatmeal; which in times of great scarcity is mingled with the white inner rind of trees.

Laplanders are of a small size, generally about four feet, with short black hair, narrow dark eyes, large heads and high cheek bones, a wide mouth and thick lips, and a swarthy complexion. Towards the shore they build huts; and on the mountains use tents of a flatly conic form, and divided by several rude partitions into apartments for themselves, their servants, and cattle. The sun is here absent for seven weeks; yet from ten in the forenoon to one in the afternoon there is a kind of twilight even in the shortest days, so that one may read without a candle; but the stars are very visible, and the moon, when apparent shines all day. The rivers supply salmon, and other fish, a considerable part of the Laplandic food; but at a festival are seen mutton, or rein deer, and mead. The men wear conic red caps, lined with fur, and a kind of robe of cloth or skin; the poor sometimes using that of salmon, which appears like a white shagreen. Till recent times they were immersed in paganism, regarding particular mountains and rocks as holy.

**LANGUAGE.** If we except the Laponic, the languages spoken in the Danish dominions are all sister dialects of the Gothic. The Icelandic is the most ancient and venerable, being esteemed the most pure dialect of the Gothic.

**EDUCATION.** The silence of travellers and geographers concerning the modes of education pursued in different countries has been more than once regretted in this work; but the materials are not equally deficient concerning Denmark. Each parish is provided with two or three schools, where children are taught to read and write

their native tongue, and the principles of arithmetic: the schoolmasters are allowed about 12*l.* a year, with a house, and some other advantages. There are besides many Latin schools, maintained at the royal expence; 16 in Holstein; 11 in Sleswic; 19 in Denmark proper, or Jutland; and the isles: but only four in the wide extent of Norway; and two in Iceland. There is also a special seminary for the Laplanders at Bergen; and at Soroc, Odensee, and Altona, there are superior academies of education.

The universities are at Copenhagen and Kiel. The royal academy of sciences was founded in 1742, but has been more distinguished in national antiquities, than natural history. In 1746 was founded the society for the improvement of northern history, also styled the royal society of Icelandic literature. There is another respectable institution at Drontheim, styled the royal society of sciences. These foundations confer honour on the Danish government; and will doubtless contribute to diffuse science, and inspire emulation.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** Copenhagen, the chief city of Denmark, stands on the eastern shore of the large and fertile island of Zealand, about 25 British miles to the south of the noted sound, where the vessels that visit the Baltic pay a small tribute to Denmark. It is the best built city in the north; for, though Petersburg present more superb edifices, yet Copenhagen is more uniform; the houses being mostly of brick, but a few of freestone from Germany. The streets are rather narrow but are well paved. It is regularly fortified, the circumference being between four and five miles, and the inhabitants about 90,000. The harbour is spacious and convenient, having on the south the isle of Amak, peopled by the descendants of a colony from East Friesland, to whom the island was granted by Christian II. to supply his queen with vegetables, cheese and butter, a destination still retained.

Next in dignity, though not in population, is Bergen, the capital of Norway, founded in the year 1070. It is seated in the centre of a valley, forming a semicircle round a small gulph of the sea. On the land side it is defended by mountains; and on the other by several fortifications. All the churches and many of the houses are of stone. The castle and cathedral are remarkable edifices. The chief

trade is in fish, hides, timber, &c. The population is computed at 19,000.

The third city of Denmark, and indeed the second in population, is Altona on the Elbe, within a gun-shot of Hamburgh, originally a village of the parish of Ottensen; but in 1640 it became subject to Denmark, and was constituted a city in 1664. In 1713 it was almost entirely reduced to ashes by the Swedes; but its commerce was afterwards so much fostered by the Danish sovereigns, as a diminutive rival of Hamburgh, that it is computed to contain 25,000 inhabitants.

**EDIFICES.** The chief public edifices are in the cities. The castle and palaces of Cronberg, and the two other royal villas in Zealand, do not merit a particular description, the buildings and gardens being generally in an antiquated taste.

**INLAND NAVIGATION.** The chief inland navigation of Denmark is the canal of Kiel, so called from a considerable town in the north of Holstein. This canal is intended to unite the Baltic with the river Eydar, which flows into the German sea. The extent of this important canal is about 20 British miles and a half; the breadth 100 feet at top and 54 at bottom; the least depth is about 10 feet, so as to admit vessels of about 120 tons. It was begun in July 1777, and was finished in 1785.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** At Copenhagen are what are called the royal manufactures, in which Mr. Marshall says that 400 looms were employed, from the finest woollen cloth used at court, to that worn by the soldiery. Other manufactures have also been recently encouraged by the crown, which has paid more attention to commerce and agriculture than to the arts and sciences. The chief exports of Denmark consist of native products. Jutland with the isles, Sleswic, and Holstein, generally export corn to a considerable amount; and the horses and cattle of the latter province furnish a supply to Holland. The chief products of Norway are wood, hides (chiefly those of the goat), with silver, copper, and iron; while Iceland exports dried fish, falcons and hawks, and eider-down. The commerce of this kingdom has been greatly improved since the acquisition of Altona, and the opening of the Kiel navigation. The colonies in the East and West Indies also supply some resources.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The kingdom of Denmark proper, may be considered as possessing a humid and rather temperate climate. Yet the winter is occasionally of extreme severity, and the sea is impeded with ice. Norway, chiefly extending along the west side of the Scandinavian Alps, exposed to the vapours from the Atlantic, is not so cold a region as might be conceived. Finmark indeed feels the utmost rigour of winter; while in Iceland, on the contrary, that season is unexpectedly moderate, so as generally to permit the natives to cut turf even in January.

**SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.** In Holstein and the south of Jutland the agriculture may be compared with that of England; the fields are divided by hedges and ditches in excellent order, and sown with corn and turnips. Farther to the north, cultivation is less perfect. In Norway the portion of arable ground is scanty, and far from sufficient to supply the consumption. That mountainous country is however abundant in pasture and cattle: which, as in Swisserland, are driven to the heights in summer; and a patriotic society has so much encouraged agriculture, that within these fifty years estates have risen near one third in value.

**RIVERS.** In the kingdom of Denmark proper, the rivulets are numerous; but scarcely a river of any note except the Eydar, the ancient boundary between Denmark and Germany.

The chief river of Norway is the Glom or Glomen, which is not navigable, but full of cataracts and shoals; yet about 50,000 trees are annually floated upon it to Frederickstadt. It springs from the lake of Oresund on the north of the Fœmund, and runs nearly south about 300 British miles.

In Finmark the most considerable river is the Tana, which is followed by the Alten; both rising in the mountains to the north of Swedish Lapland, and flowing into the Arctic ocean.

**LAKES.** The lakes in the Danish dominions are numerous, the most extensive being in the south of Norway. The lake of Mioss is about 60 British miles in length, but the breadth is in general little considerable, except towards the centre, where it is from 12 to 18 miles: it contains an island about ten miles in circumference, fertile in corn, pasture, and wood. Next is the lake of Rands

or Rands-Sion, which is near fifty miles in length, but not more than two in breadth. The lake of Tyri is a beautiful piece of water, about fifteen miles in length and breadth, diversified with many bays and creeks: the environs are delightful, consisting of corn-fields, fertile meadows, and hanging forests, backed by lofty mountains towering above each other.

**MOUNTAINS.** Norway is almost wholly an Alpine country; the southern part of the Scandinavian chain running nearly N. and S. and terminating at the province of Romsdal, is called **LANGFIALL**, or the Long Mountains. Hence the part called **DOFRAFIALL** extends towards the east, ending above the lake of Aursund or Oresund; where it again proceeds almost due north. Here also a considerable branch proceeds by Swucku, &c. towards Sweden. The third part of the range, from the north of Oresund and the vicinity of the copper mines of Roras, is called the chain of **KOLEN**, extending between Norway and Swedish Lapland, and afterwards bending in the form of a horse-shoe, on the south of Finmark.

The height of these mountains has been extremely exaggerated. The following have been measured to their bases, or to the next adjacent waters; Areskutan, a solitary mountain of Jæmtland, about four or five Swedish miles from the highest Alps which separate Norway and Sweden, is said to be 6162 English feet above the nearest rivers; Swuckustoet within the borders of Norway, 4658 above Lake Fæmund, and that lake is thought to be 2 or 3000 above the sea; and finally Sylfællen, on the borders of Jæmtland, is 3132 feet perpendicular from the height to the base.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** The botany of Denmark proper does not materially differ from that of the northern provinces of the German empire, which has already been slightly sketched in the account of Prussia. That of Norway will be incorporated with the vegetables of the rest of Scandinavia, under the article Sweden.

There is a great diversity in the animal productions of the Danish dominions. The horses of Norway and Iceland are as remarkable for diminutive size, as those of Holstein are for the contrary quality. Among the more peculiar animals may be first named the rein-deer, com-

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mon in Finmark and throughout Lapland. This animal resembles a stag, but is stronger; and the deep division of his hoofs is adapted to tread on the snow, being suited by Providence to a cold climate, as the camel is to the hot desert. The elk is a more southern animal, and sometimes appears in Norway, which is infested by the bear, the wolf, and the lynx. The lemming, or Norwegian mouse, proceeds from the ridge of Kolen, and sometimes spreads desolation like the locust. These animals appear in vast numbers, proceeding from the mountains towards the sea, and devouring every product of the soil: it would seem that after consuming every thing eatable in their course, they at last devour each other. This singular creature is of a reddish colour, and about five inches in length. Norway also boasts of eagles, and its falcons are reckoned the boldest and most spirited of any in Europe. The salmon supplies a considerable part of the Laplander's food; and vast numbers are transported on rein-deer from the shores of the Tana. Hares are also common in that remote region, as well as the bear, lynx, and fox; nor are the glutton and the beaver unknown. About Roras in Norway the latter animal is sometimes found white.

**MINERALS.** About the year 1645 some gold ore was found near Arindal, of which ducats were struck. The mines of Kongsberg, about 40 British miles to the S. W. of Christiana, having been long reputed the richest in Europe; and one mass of native silver in the royal cabinet weighs 409 marks, being worth 3000 rix-dollars, or 600*l*. The veins of metal are from half an inch to more than two feet in thickness. These mines were discovered in 1623 by two peasants. They are worked by 36 shafts, and used to yield about 70,000*l*. annually, when 4000 men were employed; but recently 2400 have removed to the cobalt mines at Fossum, 20 miles to the north, and it is supposed that the produce barely defrays the expence.

The important copper mines of Roras, about 68 British miles S. E. of Drontheim, were discovered in 1644. The veins are from six inches to six ells in thickness; and the ore of a pale yellow. In general the mines of Roras are very productive, and a source of considerable revenue.

The mines of cobalt at Fossum are a recent discovery. This metal yields smalt, or powder blue, used in painting pottery and porcelain, and in colouring starch; and the



mine is supposed to produce a clear annual revenue to the crown of about 15,000*l*.

But the iron mines of Norway are esteemed the most profitable. Lead appears in the vicinity of Kongsberg; and there are alum works near Christiana.

**NATURAL CURIOSITIES.** The northern provinces of Norway afford many singular features. The Malstrom, is a remarkable whirlpool off the shore of Norland, which will involve boats, and even ships; nay the bellowing struggles of the whale have not always redeemed him from the danger; the bottom is full of craggy spires, and the noise truly tremendous. The volcanoes of Iceland may also be classed among the grandest features of nature. Among these, Mount Hekla is the most remarkable; it rises to the height of about 5000 feet above the sea. The summit is covered with snow, except some spots where the heat predominates. The craters are numerous, but the eruptions rare; there having only been ten from the year 1104 to 1693, after which it remained quiet till 1765, when it emitted flames and lava. The boiling springs of Iceland present a singular phenomenon; that of Geyser to the north of Skallholdt is the most remarkable, rising from an aperture 19 feet in diameter, and springing at intervals to the height of 50 or even 90 feet.

### DANISH ISLANDS.

THE prime seat of the Danish monarchy having ever been in the isles of Zeeland, Funen, Laland, Falster, and the others of that group, they have been considered in the general description of the monarchy. In the east, the farthest isle belonging to Denmark is that of Bornholm, a small but fertile spot.

Off the west coast of Jutland are the isles of Nordstrand, Fora, Sylt, Rom, Fanoe, and others.

The Norwegian coast presents one continued series of small and unimportant islands, most of them indeed uninhabited.

The Norwegian isles are in general mountainous or craggy, like the corresponding coast, with precipitous rocks and a sea from 100 to 300 fathoms deep washing their bases.

The Ferroe isles are an appanage of the Danish crown : they are seventeen in number, and not unfertile, producing some barley, and abundant pasturage for sheep. Small junipers, stunted willows, and birches, alone bear a diminutive image of trees. They were discovered prior to Iceland, in the ninth century ; and export feathers, eider-down, caps, stockings, salted mutton, and tallow. The inhabitants do not exceed 5000.

The large and celebrated island of Iceland may be regarded as 260 British miles in length from the most western cape to the most eastern, and about 200 in breadth from N. to S. but the inhabitants do not exceed 50,000. The government was an aristocratic republic for about 387 years, till in 1261 it submitted to Norway. In the middle of the fourteenth century this isle was greatly depopulated by a pestilence called the Black Death. A volcanic island recently arose to the south of Iceland, but afterwards disappeared. From Iceland a colony passed to Greenland, a short course of about 200 miles ; but the Danish colony in Greenland has been long explored in vain, the eastern coast on which it was settled being since blocked up by ice.

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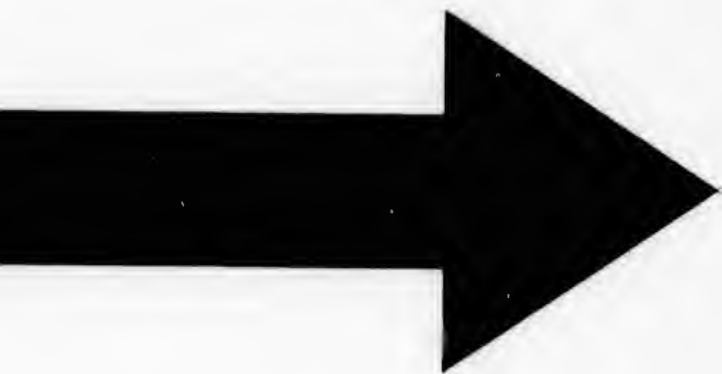
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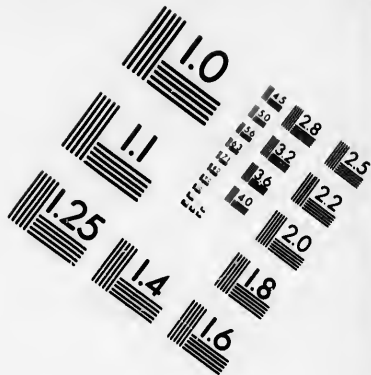
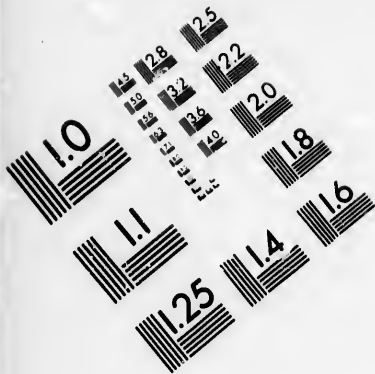
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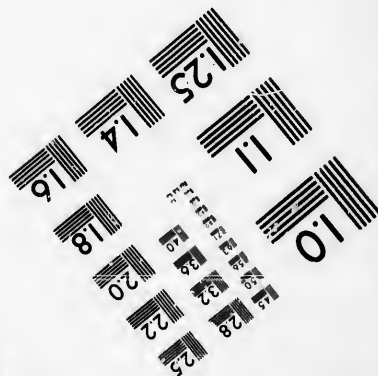
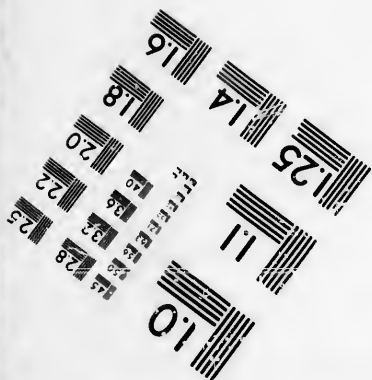
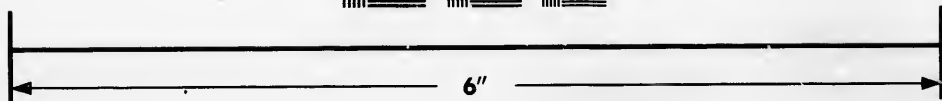
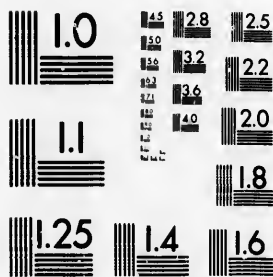
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## SWEDEN.

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SWEDEN, in the native language *Suitheod*, and more modernly *Sweirige*, appears to be a very ancient appellation, and is said, by the northern antiquaries, to imply a country whose woods had been burned or destroyed.

**EXTENT.** The kingdom of Sweden is of very considerable extent, being from the most southern promontory of *Scone* to the northern extremity of *Swedish Lapland*, not less than 1150 British miles in length, and in breadth, from the *Norwegian Alps* to the limits of *Russia*, about 600. The contents in square miles have been computed at 208,912; and the inhabitants being some years ago supposed 2,977,345, there will be 14 to the square mile, including *Swedish Pomerania*, computed at 1440 square miles, and 103,345 inhabitants.

**DIVISIONS.** The provinces of the Swedish monarchy are 28 in number, and may be arranged in the following manner:

Five in *Sweden proper*: three in *W. E. and S. Gothland*; six in *West Norland*; one in *West Bothnia*; six in *Swedish Lapland*; two in *East Bothnia*; four in *Finland*; one in *Swedish Pomerania*.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** As there is no evidence that the *Celts* ever penetrated to *Scandinavia*, the first population appears to have consisted of *Fins*, who, perhaps seven or eight centuries before the *Christian æra*, were supplanted by the *Goths*, mythologically represented as having been conducted by *Odin*, or the god of war. No foreign conquest having since extended hither, the population continues purely Gothic in the southern parts; while in the north there are remains of the *Fins*; and above them

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the Laplanders, a native diminutive race resembling the Samoieds of the north of Asia ; from whence they seem to have originated.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** The following seem to constitute the chief historical epochs of Sweden :

1. The early population by the Fins and Laplanders.
2. The conquest by the Goths.
3. What little knowledge the ancients possessed concerning the south of Scandinavia.
4. The fabulous and traditional history, which begins about the year of Christ 520, and includes the conquest of Sweden by Ivar Vidfatme king of Denmark, about A. D. 760. Hence there is an obscure period till the reign of Biorn I. A. D. 829, commemorated, with his immediate successors, by Adam of Bremen.
5. The conquest of Denmark by Olaf II. about the year 900.
6. The partial conversion of Sweden to Christianity in the reign of Olaf III. A. D. 1000 ; but more than half a century elapsed before Paganism can be considered as finally abandoned, in the reign of Ingi the Pious. A. D. 1066.
7. The accession of the Folkungian branch, about the middle of the thirteenth century.
8. The Swedes discontented with their king Albert of Mecklenburg, in 1388 elected as their sovereign, Margaret heiress of Denmark and Norway. Thus ended the Folkungian race : and by the celebrated treaty of Calmar, A. D. 1397, the three kingdoms of the north were supposed to be united for ever. But after the death of Margaret in 1412, the Swedes began to struggle for their liberty : and in 1449 Karl or Charles VIII. was elected king of Sweden.
9. The struggles between Denmark and Sweden, till the cruel and tyrannic reign of Christiern II. king of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.
10. Tyrants are the fathers of freedom. Gustaf Wase, whom we style Gustavus Vasa, delivers his country from the Danish yoke, after a contest which forms one of the most interesting portions of modern history. The revolt may be considered as having commenced when Gustaf appears at Mora in Dalecarlia, A. D. 1520, and completed three years afterwards, when he entered Stockholm in triumph. Dissatisfied with the power of the clergy, which



had repeatedly subjugated the kingdom of Denmark, this great prince, in 1527, introduced the reformed religion, and died in his seventieth year, September 1560, after a glorious reign of thirty-seven years.

11. The reign of Gustaf Adolph, or Gustavus Adolphus, A. D. 1611—1631. Austria, Spain, and the other Catholic kingdoms, having conspired to extirpate the Protestant religion in Germany, this king was invited to assist the reformed; and carried his victorious arms to the Rhine and the Danube.

12. The reign of Charles XI. 1660—1697, when the arts and sciences began to flourish, and the power of the kingdom was carried to its utmost height. This reign of solid beneficence was followed by the calamitous sway of that madman Charles XII.

13. After the frantic reign of Charles XII. Sweden sunk into political humiliation; at one time awed by Russia, and at another cajoled by France.

**ANTIQUITIES.** The ancient monuments of Sweden consist chiefly of judicial circles, and other erections of unhewn stone, followed by the monuments inscribed with Runic characters, none of which can safely be dated more anciently than the eleventh century.

**RELIGION.** The religion of Sweden is the Lutheran, and this kingdom has retained an archbishopric with thirteen prelacies. The parishes amount to 2,537. The priests are computed at 1378; with 134 vicars, and 192 prepositi, or inspectors. Some of the parishes are very extensive, as that of eastern Bothnia, which is about 150 miles in length by 48 in breadth; and another parish in Lapland is still larger.

**GOVERNMENT.** By the act of union, 1789, the constitution of Sweden became an absolute monarchy; the monarch having arrogated not only the rights of peace and war, and the administration of justice, but the imposition of taxes, without the consent of the diet, which cannot deliberate on any subject till it be proposed by the sovereign. The diet consists of nobles, and landed gentlemen, clergy, burgesses, or deputies of towns, and those of the peasantry. Each of the four states has a speaker; the archbishop of Upsal being always the speaker of the clergy, while the king nominates the others.

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**POPULATION.** When the great extent of the Swedish territory is considered, the population will appear comparatively small; a circumstance arising in part from the mountainous nature of the country, and in part from the severe climate of the northern districts; Swedish Lapland being supposed not to contain more than 7000 inhabitants. Yet at present the population of the kingdom is thought to exceed 3,000,000. The nobility are so numerous as to be computed at about 2,500 families; while the peasants, the most numerous class, amount to about 2,000,000.

**ARMY.** The Swedish army consists of national troops, and of foreign infantry, the latter being computed at about 12,000. The total amount of the army may be 40,000; and the soldiers are of distinguished valour and hardihood, and elated with the former fame of the Swedish arms.

**NAVY.** So fatal were the naval operations of 1792, that the Swedish fleet, which consisted of 30 ships of the line, cannot now display above half that number. In the Baltic, which is full of low coasts and shoals, galleys of a flat construction are found more serviceable than ships of war, and of course great attention is paid to their equipment by Sweden as well as Russia.

**REVENUE.** The revenue of Sweden is computed at about a million and a half sterling, which is equalled by the expences of the government. The national debt cannot be much less than 10,000,000*l.* sterling.

**POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS.** The political importance and relations of this kingdom are much diminished since the glorious reign of Gustaf Adolph, and the beneficent sway of Charles XI. Prior to the late revolution in France, Sweden had been the dupe of that crafty cabinet. Of late this alliance seems to be sacrificed to a more useful connexion with Denmark and Prussia, which can alone guard the north of Europe from the progress of the Russian preponderance.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** The manners and customs of the superior classes in Sweden and even of the peasantry have been so Frenchified (a fatal symptom wherever it appears), that they have been styled the French of the north. It has even changed their complexion, which in the northern latitudes is generally fair, but is here much diversified, being in some provinces extremely brown. The

men are commonly robust and well formed, and the women slender and elegant. The natives of the western province of Dalecarlia retain many ancient customs, and have been distinguished for their courage and probity, since the time of Gustaf Wase.

**LANGUAGE.** The language of Sweden is a dialect of the Gothic, being a sister of the Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic. In the south of Sweden, which contains the chief mass of population, some German and French words have been adopted; while the Dalecarlian on the N. W. is esteemed a peculiar dialect, perhaps only because it contains more of the ancient terms and idiom.

**EDUCATION.** The manner of education has, as usual, been neglected by travellers and geographers, though perhaps one of the most important branches in the whole circle of human affairs. Compared with this primary foundation, an enumeration of universities is of small consequence. That of Upsal is the most ancient and renowned, containing about 500 students; while that of Lund presents about 300. A third is at Abo in Finland, frequented even by students from Russia; and the whole number is computed as equalling that of Upsal. There are besides twelve literary academies, most of which publish memoirs of their transactions. The library at Upsal is richly furnished with books remitted by Gustaf Adolph, when his victorious arms penetrated deeply into Germany; Sweden having thus acquired by war the first materials of her literary fame.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, stands in a singular situation, between a creek, or inlet of the Baltic sea, and the lake Mæler. It occupies seven small rocky islands, and the scenery is truly singular and romantic. "A variety of contrasted and enchanting views is formed by numberless rocks of granite, rising boldly from the surface of the water, partly bare and craggy, partly dotted with houses or feathered with wood." Most of the houses are of stone or brick, covered with white stucco: except in the suburbs, where several are of wood painted red, as usual in the country of Sweden. This city was founded about the middle of the thirteenth century; and in the seventeenth century, the royal residence was transferred hither from Upsal. The entrance to the harbour is through a narrow streight, of somewhat diffi-

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cult access, especially as there are no tides: and for four months in the year is frozen. It is however deep and capable of receiving a great number of vessels. The royal palace stands in a central and high situation: and there are a castle, an arsenal, and several academies. The manufactures are few, of glass, china, woollen, silk, linen, &c. By the latest accounts the population of Stockholm may be estimated at 80,000.

Next in dignity is Upsal, the only archbishopric, and formerly esteemed the chief city of the kingdom; but at present the inhabitants, exclusive of the students, do not exceed 3000.

Gotheborg, or Gothenburg, in the province of West Gothland, is esteemed the second city in Sweden, having a population of 20,000, though it was only founded by Charles IX. or rather by Gustaf Adolph. Besides considerable commerce, the herring fishery contributes to enrich Gothenburg. The streets are uniform; and the circumference is computed at near three miles.

**EDIFICES.** Even including the royal palaces, Sweden cannot boast of many splendid edifices. The roads are in general far superior to those of Denmark and Norway, which seem unaccountably neglected, good roads being the very stamina of national improvement.

**INLAND NAVIGATION.** Of late a laudable attention has been paid to inland navigation; and the chief effort has been to form a canal between Stockholm and Gothenburg. The intention was to conduct an inland route from the Meler Lake to that of Hielmer, and thence to that of Wener; and by the river Gotha, an outlet of the latter, to the Skager Rack and German sea. This grand design is already in some measure completed.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** The Swedish manufactures are far from being numerous, consisting chiefly of those of iron and steel; with cloths, hats, watches, and sail cloth. The manufactures of copper and brass, and the construction of ships, also occupy many hands. In 1785, it was computed that 14,000 were employed in those of wool, silk, and cotton. Of native products exported, iron is the most considerable; and it is said that the miners in the kingdom are about 25,600.

The commerce of Sweden rests chiefly on the export of their native products, iron, timber, pitch, tar, hemp and

copper. Herrings also form a considerable article. The chief import is corn of various kinds, particularly rye, Sweden rarely affording a sufficiency for her own consumption; with hemp, tobacco, sugar, coffee, drugs, silk, wines, &c. Mr. Coxe has published a table of the Swedish commerce, whence it appears that the exports then amounted to 1,368,830*l.* 13*s.* 5*d.* and the imports to 1,008,392*l.* 12*s.* 4½*d.* so that the balance in favour of Sweden was about 360,000*l.*

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The different parts of Sweden present considerable varieties of temperature. The gulph of Bothnia becomes one field of ice; and travellers pass on it from Finland by the isles of Aland. In the most southern provinces, the climate may be compared to that of Scotland, which lies under the same parallel; but the western gales from the Atlantic, which deluge the Scottish Highlands with perpetual rain, and form the chief obstacle to improvement, are little felt. In the north the summer is hot, by the reflection of the numerous mountains, and the extreme length of the days; for at Tornea, in Swedish Lapland, the sun is for some weeks visible at midnight; and the winter in return presents many weeks of complete darkness.

**FACE OF THE COUNTRY. SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.** No country can be diversified in a more picturesque manner, with extensive lakes, large transparent rivers, winding streams, wild cataracts, gloomy forests, verdant vales, stupendous rocks, and cultivated fields. The soil is not the most propitious; but agriculture is conducted with skill and industry, so as much to exceed that of Germany and Denmark. Even Finland presents many rich pastures, and not a few fields of rye, oats, and barley.

**RIVERS.** Sweden is intersected by numerous rivers, the largest of which are in the native language called Elbs, or Elfs. The most considerable flow from the lakes, without any great length of course; such as the Gotha, the only outlet of the vast lake of Wener, but impeded by many rocks and cataracts. The most important is the river Dahl, consisting of two conjunct streams, which rise in the Norwegian Alps, give name to the province of Dalarn, or Dalecarlia, and, after a course of about 260 British miles, enter the Bothnic gulph; not far from its mouth is a cataract, esteemed little inferior to that of the Rhine at Schaff-

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hausen, the perpendicular height being between 30 and 40 feet. The surrounding scenery also assists the effect, which is truly sublime.

Farther to the north, and in Swedish Lapland, are many considerable rivers, which also arise from the Norwegian Alps, and flow into the gulph of Bothnia, after circuits of about 200 miles.

**LAKES.** Few countries can rival Sweden in the extent and number of lakes, which appear in almost every province. Of these the most important is the Wener, which is about 80 British miles in length by about 50 in breadth, in great part surrounded with forests, and rocks of red granite. It receives 24 rivers, abounds with fish, and contains many romantic isles.

Next is the Weter, a lake of equal length but inferior in breadth, which seldom exceeds twelve miles. This lake being surrounded with mountains is particularly subject to storms in the stillest weather, whence arise many popular tales and superstitions.

The lake Meler, at the conflux of which with the Baltic is founded the city of Stockholm, is about sixty British miles in length by eighteen in breadth, and is sprinkled with picturesque isles. And to the S. W. is the lake of Hielmar, more remarkable for its proposed utility in the inland navigation than for its extent.

**MOUNTAINS.** Sweden may be in general regarded as a mountainous country; in which respect it is strongly contrasted with Denmark proper, or Jutland, and the isles. The chief mountains are in that elevated chain which divides Sweden and Swedish Lapland from Norway; from which successive branches run in a S. E. direction.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** Under the direction of the colleges established for the improvement of agriculture, the peasants have, at length, in a great measure, corrected the natural sterility of their country; and, in favourable seasons, they now raise grain enough to supply the wants of the inhabitants. The fields in summer are covered with a beautiful verdure, enameled with flowers, and produce great quantities of currants, raspberries, strawberries, and other small fruit. Ostrogothia bears large crops of rye, wheat, barley, oats, beans and peas.

Of timber trees there are but few species; the most common, and those which constitute the wealth of Scan-

dinavia, are the Norway pine, and the fir: of these there are immense forests spread over the rocky mountains, and deepening with their sullen hue the whole horizon; thousands of giant growth are every winter overthrown by the storms, and allowed to perish where they fall from the impossibility of transporting them to the sea; others in more accessible situations, are converted to various human uses; the wood from its lightness and straightness is excellent for masts and yards, and various domestic purposes; the juice, as tar, turpentine, and pitch, is almost of equal value with the wood; and the inner bark, mixed with rye meal, furnishes a coarse bread in time of scarcity. The mountain ash, the alder, the birch, and dwarf birch, and several kinds of willow, are found in the whole peninsula; the lime, the elm, the ash, and the oak, though growing with freedom in the southern parts, are incapable of withstanding the rigours of a Lapland winter.

The Swedish horses are commonly small but spirited; and are preserved, by lying without litter, from some of the numerous diseases to which this noble animal is subject. The cattle and sheep do not seem to present any thing remarkable. Among the wild animals may be named the bear, the lynx, the wolf, the beaver, the otter, the glutton, the flying squirrel, &c. The rein-deer of Lapland is briefly described in the account of the Danish monarchy. Sweden also presents one or two singular kinds of falcons, and an infinite variety of game.

**MINERALS.** Sweden has some gold and silver mines, though they are not highly valued. Its copper mines are rich: the chief are in the province of Dalecarlia. On the east of the town of Fahlun is a great copper mine supposed to have been worked for near a thousand years. The metal is not found in veins, but in large masses; and the mouth of the mine presents an immense chasm, nearly three quarters of an English mile in circumference, the perpendicular depth being about 1020 feet. About 1200 miners are employed. Copper is also wrought in Jemtland; and at Ryddarhytte is found iron. Nor is Sweden deficient in lead: but iron forms the principal product, and the mine of Danamora is particularly celebrated for the superiority of the metal, which in England is called Oregrund iron, because it is exported from Oregrund an adjacent port, where the Bothnic gulph joins the Baltic. Berg-

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man describes the iron mine of Taberg in Smoland, as consisting of beds of ore, of a blackish brown, separated by beds of mould without any stone. This enormous mineral pile is rivalled by an entire mountain of iron ore near Tornea, in Lapland; and at Luleo the mountain of Gellivar forms a mass of rich iron ore, of a blackish blue, extending like an irregular vein for more than a mile, and in thickness from 300 to 400 fathoms.

### SWEDISH ISLANDS.

Sweden possesses many islands, scattered in the Baltic sea and gulph of Bothnia. Rugen, the most southerly, affords as it were a passage to the Swedish possessions in Pomerania. It was annexed to Sweden by the treaty of Westphalia, and it is not a little productive in grain and cattle. Farther to the north east is the long island of Oland, or Oeland, in length about seventy miles, in breadth about six. The horses are small but strong, and the forests abound with deer, nor is the wild boar unknown. Next occurs the island of Gothland, about seventy miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth; a fertile district remarkable for an excellent breed of sheep. The isles of Aland mark the entrance of the Bothnic gulph, deriving their name from the largest, which is about forty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth, containing about 9000 inhabitants, who speak the Swedish language, though included in the government of Finland.



# PORTUGAL.

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THE ancient name of this country was Lusitania; that of Portugal is of recent origin. In the Roman period there was a town called *Calle*, now Oporto, near the mouth of the river Douro; and, this having been eminently distinguished, acquired the name of *Porto Calle*; which, as the country was gradually recovered from the Moors, was improperly extended to the whole kingdom.

**EXTENT.** Portugal extends about 360 British miles in length by 120 in breadth; and is supposed to contain about 27,280 square miles, which, with a population of 1,838,879, will yield 67 inhabitants to the mile square.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The original population of Portugal may be traced in that of Spain, and has undergone the same revolutions.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** The historical epochs of so recent a state cannot be numerous; nor is it necessary to recur to those ancient events, which more properly belong to the general history of Spain.

1. The kings of Asturias subdue some of the Moorish chiefs of the north of Portugal. In 1054 Ferdinand king of Castile extends his conquests to Coimbra; and on sharing his dominions among his sons, Don Garcia, along with Galicia, had a part of Portugal, whence he is styled on his tomb, A. D. 1090, *Rex Portugaliæ et Galliciæ*.

2. Alphonso VI. brother of Garcia, and king of Castile, having favourably admitted several French princes to his court, among them was Henry, whom he nominated count of Portugal, adding his natural daughter Theresa in marriage. The count signalized himself by many victories

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over the Moors, and died in 1112, leaving a son Alphonso I. of Portugal, who in the year 1139 gains an illustrious victory over five Moorish princes, and is acclaimed king by his troops upon the field of battle.

3. Alphonso III. about the year 1254, completes the conquest of Algarve.—Portugal continued to be fortunate in a succession of great princes; but the wars against the Moors were unhappily followed by those against the kings of Castile.

4. Portugal was to attract the admiration of Europe by her commercial discoveries. In 1415 John the Great, king of Portugal, carrying his arms into Africa, and taking the city of Ceuta, an impulse was given to the national spirit; and in 1420 we find the Portuguese in possession of Madeira. The Portuguese discoveries in Africa proceeded under John's successors, Edward, and Alphonso V. and the auspices of Prince Henry, till, in the reign of John II. they extended to the Cape of Good Hope; and in that of Emanuel, Vasco de Gama opened the East Indies.

5. John III. admits the inquisition, A. D. 1526; since which event the Portuguese monarchy has rapidly declined.

6. Sebastian king of Portugal leads a powerful army on an idle expedition into Africa, and is slain in battle. He is succeeded by his uncle Cardinal Henry; who dying two years afterwards, Portugal was seized by Philip II. king of Spain, 1580.

7. The revolution of 1640, which placed the house of Braganza on the throne of Portugal. Little of consequence has since arisen, except the earthquake at Lisbon in 1755, and the recent intermarriages with Spain, which promise, at no remote period, to unite the kingdoms.

**ANTIQUITIES.** The antiquities of Portugal consist chiefly of Roman monuments, with a few Moorish remains. In the farthest north is an extensive series of arches, formerly a Roman aqueduct. Among the antiquities of the middle ages may be named the noble monastery of Batalha, in Portuguese Estramadura, about 60 miles to the north of Lisbon, founded by John I. at the close of the fourteenth century, in consequence of the great victory over the king of Castile, one of the most noble monuments of what is called the Gothic style of architecture.

**RELIGION.** The religion of Portugal is the Roman Catholic; and a strict observance of its duties forms one

of the national characteristics. There are two archbishops, and ten episcopal sees : and there is besides a patriarch. The number of parishes approaches four thousand.

**GOVERNMENT, &c.** The constitution of Portugal is a monarchy, absolute and hereditary ; yet in case of the king's demise without male issue, he is succeeded by his next brother ; whose sons have however no right to the throne till confirmed by the states. The chief articles of the constitution are contained in the statutes of Lamego, issued by Alphonso I. in 1145. The laws have few particularities : they are lenient in cases of theft, which must be repeated four times before death be the punishment.

**DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.** Portugal is divided into six provinces. Two being on the north of the kingdom, two in the middle, and two in the south. The population of the whole is, according to Boetticher, 1,838,879 ; but by Murphy's statement, 2,588,470.

**ARMY, &c.** The army is only computed at about 24,000 ; and the militia might perhaps amount to as great a number. The naval power, once considerable, is reduced to thirteen sail of the line, and fifteen frigates.

**REVENUES.** The revenue is calculated at 2,000,000*l.* sterling, and the gold of Brasil mostly passes to England in return for articles of industry.

**POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS.** Portugal retains small influence in the political scale of Europe. Her commerce is almost wholly dependent on England ; but by land she is exposed to no danger except from Spain, or by the consent of Spain. The union of the two countries would doubtless be advantageous to both ; but might prove detrimental to English commerce, and the weight of England in the Portuguese councils would infallibly subside.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** The manners and customs of the Portuguese are discriminated into those of the northern and southern provinces, the former being more industrious and sincere, the latter more polite and indolent. In general the Portuguese are an elegant race, with regular features embrowned by the sun, and dark expressive eyes. The prejudices of nobility are as common and pernicious in Portugal as in Spain ; nor is that general intercourse found which imparts knowledge and vigour to society. Ladies of rank still imitate the industry of their

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ancestors in spinning flax from the distaff: and the oriental manner of sitting on cushions on the floor is often practised. The dress resembles the Spanish. The peasantry remain miserable vassals of the Fidalgos, or gentlemen.

**LANGUAGE.** The Portuguese language is more remote from that of Castile than might be expected from the circumstances. As the royal race was of French extract, it is supposed that many of the words are derived from the Limosin and other dialects of the S. of France. It is a grave and solemn speech.

**PUBLIC SCHOOLS.** Education seems greatly neglected in Portugal, though the university of Coimbra be of ancient date. That of Evora was founded in 1553; and a college at Masra in 1772. The royal academy is of recent erection, and the design aspires to considerable public utility.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** Lisbon, the capital city of Portugal, was called by the ancients Ulyssippo, and the foundation fabulously ascribed to Ulysses. The situation is grand, on the north side of the mouth of the Tago, and is sheltered on the N. W. by a ridge of hills. The haven is capacious and excellent. The population is computed at about 200,000. The earthquake of 1755, a dreadful and memorable epoch among the inhabitants, has contributed to the improvement of the city, the new streets being broad and well paved, resembling those in the west end of London. The patriarchal church is singularly magnificent; and the revenue is computed at 114,000*l.* The English have an open burial ground. The royal monastery of Belem, founded by king Emanuel in 1499, stands about five miles S. W. of Lisbon; and to the north is a noble modern aqueduct completed in 1732.

The next considerable and only town we shall notice is Oporto; seated on the N. side of the river Douro, about five miles from the sea, upon the declivity of a hill, so that the houses rise like an amphitheatre. The streets are however narrow, and the houses ill constructed. The churches are of little note: the British factory is a large and neat building. The chief exports are wine, oranges, lemons, &c. and linen cloth to the American colonies in Brasil.

**EDIFICES.** The chief edifices of Lisbon are the cathedral, and monasteries, formerly mentioned. The no-

bility, as in Spain, crowd to the capital, whence the country is little decorated with villas. Under this head may be also classed a noble aqueduct of two leagues, which conveys water from the rock of Liquor for the use of the city. Under the grand arch of this beautiful edifice, a frigate might pass in full sail.

**INLAND NAVIGATION.** Portugal seems to have paid no attention whatever to the construction of canals; nor perhaps are they found necessary, in a country abounding with rivers, and bordered with an ample extent of sea coast.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** The Portuguese manufactures are few and unimportant; hats and paper have been lately fabricated at Lisbon; but the chief manufactories are those of woollen cloth at Covilham, Portalegre, and Azeitaon.

A considerable commercial intercourse subsists with England; but the balance in favour of the latter appears to be about 400,000*l.* sterling: and Ireland gains by her exports about 63,000*l.* annually. The Falmouth packets bring frequent remittances of bullion, coin, diamonds, and other precious stones; and for a considerable time the Portuguese gold money was current in England. Besides woollens and hardware, England transmits to Portugal large cargoes of salted and dried fish, the last article to the annual amount of about 200,000*l.* The exports of Portugal are chiefly wine, oil, oranges, lemons, figs, sugar, cotton, cork, drugs, and tobacco. Portugal also maintains a considerable trade with her flourishing colony in Brasil, the inhabitants of which are computed at 900,000. The articles exported to America are chiefly woollens, linens, stuffs, gold and silver lace, fish dried in Portugal, hams, sausages, &c. with glass manufactured at Marinha. Brasil returns gold, silver, pearls, precious stones of various descriptions, rice, wheat, maize, sugar, molasses, ornamental timber, and many other articles rather curious than important. The drugs, spices, and articles used in dyeing must not however be omitted. The trade with the East Indies is inconsiderable; and that with the other European nations scarcely deserving notice. Some trade is also carried on with the American states.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The climate of Portugal is familiarly known to be most excellent and salutary. At

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Lisbon the days of fair weather are computed to amount to 200 in the year; and those of settled rain seldom exceed 80. The medial heat is generally about 60°.

**RIVERS.** The chief rivers and mountains of Portugal have been already enumerated in the description of Spain.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** The vegetable and animal productions of Portugal may be regarded as the same with that of Spain. The horses are however much inferior. The sheep are also neglected, and far from numerous; but swine abound, and are fed with excellent acorns, so that the Portuguese hams are deservedly esteemed.

**MINERALS.** The mineralogy of Portugal has been almost as much neglected as the agriculture. In the two northern provinces are seen immense mines, supposed to have been worked by the Romans. The mouth of the largest, cut through the solid rock, is a mile and a half in circumference, and upwards of 500 feet deep; at the bottom it measures 2,400 feet by 1,400. Many subterranean passages pierce the mountain like a labyrinth, and the whole works are on the grandest scale. Small veins of gold have been observed in the mountains of Goes and Estralla; and it is still found in the sand of some streams. Under the domination of the Spaniards, a mine of silver was worked, not far from Braganza, so late as the year 1628. Tin was also found in various parts of the northern provinces. There are lead mines at Mursa, Lamego, and Cogo; copper is found near Elvis and in other districts. The iron mines are neglected, from a deficiency of fuel; though coal be found in different parts of the kingdom, and that of Buarcos supply the royal foundery at Lisbon. Emery is found near the Douro; and many beautiful marbles abound in this kingdom. Fullers earth occurs near Guimerans. Portugal also boasts of antimony, manganese, bismuth, and arsenic; and near Castello-Branco are mines of quicksilver. Rubies have been discovered in Algarve; jacinths in the rivers Cavado and Bellas; beryl or aquamarine in the mountain of Estralla.

**NATURAL CURIOSITIES.** On the north bank of the river Douro is a high massy cliff, with engraved letters or hieroglyphics, stained with vermilion and blue: beneath which is a grotto supposed to abound with bitumen.

## SWISSERLAND.

THE provinces now known by the collective name of Swisserland, were in ancient times distinguished by several appellations. By the Romans they were regarded as a part of Gaul; and the chief possessors were the Helvetii on the west, and the Rhæti on the east; the chief city of the Helvetians being Aventicum, now Avenche. On its emancipation, in the beginning of the fourteenth century, from the house of Austria, first appeared the modern denomination of Swisserland, either derived from the canton of Schweitz, distinguished in that revolution, or from the general name of Schweitzers, given by the Austrians to this alpine people.

**EXTENT.** In length from east to west, Swisserland extends about 200 British miles; and in breadth, from north to south, about 130. The contents in square miles have been estimated at 14,960; but the greater part is lost to human industry, consisting of vast rocks, partly covered with eternal ice and snow. Even of this country, the boundaries are rather arbitrary than natural; though on the west mount Jura forms a grand division from France; and on the south the Pennine Alps, a partial barrier from Italy. On the east lies the Austrian territory of Tyrol, and on the north is Swabia, containing, as it were an excrescence of Swisserland on the other side of the Rhine, the small canton of Schaffhausen.

**DIVISIONS.** The Swiss league, before the French invasion, consisted of thirteen independent confederated cantons, together with their subjects and allies. Six of the cantons are Protestant, and seven Roman Catholic.

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**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The original population is thought to have been Celtic; yet it would be difficult, either from history or from ancient appellations, to trace the residence of the Celts in Swisserland; and there is every reason on the contrary to believe that the Helvetians were a Gothic race, a very ancient colony of Germans.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** The chief historical epochs may be arranged in the following order:

1. The wars with the Romans; the subjugation of the Helvetii and Rhæti, and the subsequent events till the decline of the Roman empire in the west.

2. The irruption of the Alemanni in the beginning of the fourth century, who are by some supposed to have extirpated the ancient Helvetians.

3. The subjugation of the western part of Swisserland as far as the river Reuss by the Franks, who annexed that portion of Burgundy. The Grisons on the east were subject to Theodoric, and other kings of Italy.

4. The conversion of the country to Christianity by the Irish monk Columbanus, Gallus, and others, in the beginning of the seventh century.

5. The invasion of Alemanni by the Huns in the year 909; and the subsequent contests with these barbarians till the middle of that century.

6. About the year 1030 the provinces which now constitute Swisserland began to be regarded as a part of the empire of Germany; and in the course of two centuries they gradually became subject to the house of Hapsburg.

7. The commencement of the Swiss emancipation, A. D. 1307; and the subsequent struggles with the house of Austria.

8. The gradual increase of the confederacy, the Burgundian and Swabian wars; and the contests with the French in Italy.

9. The history of the reformation in Swisserland.

10. The insurrection of the peasants of Bern, in the middle of the seventeenth century.

11. The dissolution of the confederacy by the French invasion, A. D. 1798, and its complete subjection, in 1803, to the dominion of France.

**ANTIQUITIES.** The ancient monuments of Swisserland are not numerous, consisting chiefly of a few remains of the Romans, at Aventicum and Vindernissa, and



at Baden, of the ancient *Thermæ Helveticæ*. Of the middle ages are many castles, churches, and monasteries; among the latter that of the abbey of St. Gal, the library of which supplied the manuscripts of three or four classical authors, no where else to be found.

**RELIGION.** The religion of the Swiss countries is in some, the Roman Catholic, in others, the Reformed. Of the former persuasion are Uri, Schweitz, Underwalden, cantons which founded the liberty of the country, with Zug, Lucerne, Friburg, Solothurn, part of Glarus, and Appenzel. In these are found six bishoprics, and one metropolitan see. The reformed cantons are of the Calvinistic or Presbyterian persuasion, being the rich and extensive canton of Bern, with Zurich, Basel, Schaffhausen, the greatest part of Glarus, and some portions of Appenzel. The country of the Grisons is chiefly Protestant; and Valais, an ally of the thirteen cantons, has been the scene of atrocious persecutions on account of its disaffection from the Catholic faith; but in general the two persuasions live in the most amiable unity and moderation.

**GOVERNMENT.** The government of Swisserland has been a fertile theme of discussion. The most powerful cantons of Bern, Zurich, Lucerne, and Friburg, had retained much of the feudal aristocratic form. The other cantons were more democratic; but the recent subversion of the government by the French has for some time reduced Swisserland to a dependent province, with new divisions and arrangements. The laws of course partook of the nature of the government of each canton; and under the aristocracies were sufficiently jealous and severe. Yet Swisserland was one of the happiest countries in Europe, and recommended itself to the most intelligent observers equally by moral and by physical grandeur and beauty.

**POPULATION.** The population of this interesting country is generally computed at 2,000,000, or about 130 to the square mile. But so large a portion is uninhabitable, that on a subtraction of such parts the number might be about 200 to the square mile.

**ARMY.** The military force was reckoned at about 20,000; but in the late struggle with France this force appears to have been divided, and little effectual. The Swiss regiments in foreign service, mostly that of France, were

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computed at 29 ; but they returned weakened in frame and morals, and seldom proved serviceable to the state.

**REVENUE.** The ruinous effects of French extortion cannot be divined, but the revenue of Swisserland was formerly computed at somewhat more than a million sterling, arising from moderate taxation, from tolls, national domains, and foreign subsidies.

**POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS.** The political importance and relations of Swisserland are immersed in those of the French republic. Should the Swiss emancipate their country, their chief object would be protection against the power of France ; and in this view nothing could be so serviceable as a strict alliance with Austria. Their proximity to France introduced the language, the manners, and intrigues of that country, and these, united with their jealousy of Austria, were the cause of their ruin.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** Amidst the general corruption of manners, those of the Swiss have long excited applause, from their moral uniformity and frank independence. The houses are generally constructed of wood, in the most simple form, with staircases on the outside ; yet their appearance singularly coincides with the picturesque character of the country. The dress of the lower ranks is little subject to the laws of fashion, and in many cantons there are regulations to prevent idle ornament. Among the superior classes the manners may be considered as partly German and partly French : but the latter have too much preponderated. In general the Swiss are remarkable for an intense attachment to their native country ; and there are few who do not return there to terminate their existence. This impression is almost irresistible, and liable to be awakened by the most minute circumstances. Hence in the French armies the tune called the Rances des Vaches, often sung by the Swiss milkmaids when they went to the pastures, was carefully interdicted, because it melted the rough Swiss soldier into tears, and seldom failed to produce desertion.

**LANGUAGE.** The language of Swisserland is a dialect of the German ; but the French is much diffused, and is often employed by their best authors. In the most southern parts, bordering on Italy, the Italian is the common tongue.

**EDUCATION.** The important subject of education has been little illustrated by the travellers into Swisserland; but as they testify their surprise at the knowledge generally prevalent among the peasantry, there is reason to infer that this useful province is not neglected. There is an university of some reputation at Geneva, and another at Basel; with colleges at Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** In enumerating the chief cities and towns of Swisserland, according to the comparative standard of population, Basel will engage the first attention, being supposed to contain 14,000 souls. This city stands in a pleasant situation upon the banks of the Rhine, here broad, deep, and rapid. It crowns both banks, and is united by a bridge. The cathedral is an ancient Gothic edifice, containing the tomb of the great Erasmus; and the university has produced many illustrious men.

Berne claims the next rank to Basel, possessing a population of about 13,000. This city is of singular neatness and beauty, the streets being broad and long, and the houses of grey stone, resting on arcades. There are several streams and fountains; and the river Aar almost surrounds the city. Berne contains several libraries and collections of natural curiosities.

Zurich is the third in rank among the Swiss cities, situated on a large lake, amidst a populous and fertile country, which produces abundance of wine for domestic consumption. The college and plans of education are respectable; and the public library contains some curious manuscripts.

Lausanne contains about 9000 inhabitants and is deservedly celebrated for the beauty of its situation, though in some spots deep and rugged. The church is a magnificent Gothic building, having been a cathedral, while the Pays du Vaud was subject to the house of Savoy.

**EDIFICES.** The chief edifices of Swisserland are in the cities, and have been already noticed.

**COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.** Commerce and manufactures do not much flourish in this inland region. Cattle constitute the chief produce of the country; and some of the cheese forms an export of luxury. The chief linen manufactures were at St. Gal. Printed cottons, and watches also form considerable articles of sale, nor are silk manufactures unknown in Swisserland.

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**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The climate of Swisserland is deservedly celebrated as salubrious and delightful. From its southern position considerable heat might be expected; but this, though sufficient to mature the grape, is attempered by the cold gales from the Alps and glaciers. When the sun descends beyond Mount Jura, on a summer evening, the Alpine summits long reflect its splendour, and the lakes for near an hour assume the appearance of burnished gold. The winter is however in some parts extremely severe; and the summer heat in the deep vales sometimes oppressive.

**RIVERS.** The rivers of Swisserland are numerous; and among the most sublime scenes of this country must be classed the sources of the Rhine and Rhone, two of the most important streams in Europe.

The Rhine rises in the country of the Grisons, from a glacier upon the summit of mount Badur, at the head of a valley, called the Rhinewald. From its source the Rhine pervades or borders Swisserland, for about the space of 200 British miles, running N. E. to the lake of Constance, whence it bends W. to Basel; where it begins its long northern course.

The Aar arises in the Alp called the Grimsel, bending its course to the N. W. till it arrives near Arberg, it afterwards turns N. E. receives the Reuss and the Limmat, and joins the Rhine opposite to Waldshut, after a course of about 150 British miles.

The Reuss, which divides Swisserland into two almost equal parts, eastern and western, springs from the lake of Lucendro on the N. W. of St. Gothard. The Reuss joins the Aar, after a course of about 80 British miles.

The Rhone, a noble stream, can only be regarded as a Swiss river prior to its entering the lake of Geneva, after a course of about 90 British miles through that extensive vale called the Vallais. This river rises in mount Furca, the source being rather warm, and about 5400 feet above the sea.

**LAKES.** The lakes of Swisserland are numerous and interesting. The most considerable are those of Constance on the N. E. and Geneva on the S. W. The former is about 45 British miles in length, and in some places 15 in breadth.

The lake of Geneva extends in the form of a crescent, about 40 British miles in length, and nine at its greatest breadth. The beauties of this lake have been celebrated by Rousseau, but would be considerably increased if it were sprinkled with islands. Next to these are the lakes Maggiore, and Lugano. The lakes of Neufchatel and Zurich and some others of inferior note.

**MOUNTAINS.** The mountains of Swisserland are the most celebrated in Europe; and are supposed to yield in height to none, except those of South America. In a general point of view the Alps extend, in a kind of semi-circular form, from the gulph of Genoa through Swisserland, which contains their centre and highest parts; and terminate in the Carnic Alps on the N. of the Adriatic sea. This chain has been divided into different portions, known by distinct appellations. The maritime Alps are those which arise from the gulph of Genoa. Mont Genevre, whence springs the river Durance, was anciently named the Alpis Cottia, from Cottius a prince who resided at Suza. Farther to the N. were the Alpes Graiæ, now the little St. Bernard. The Alpes Penninæ consisted of the great St. Bernard, Mont Blanc, and the grand chain extending on the S. of the Rhone, to the N. of modern Piedmont: the eastern part being also styled the Lepontine Alps, from a people who inhabited that region which gives origin to the Rhone and Tesino. The Rhætian Alps extended through the Grisons and Tyrol, terminating in the Carnic, or Julian Alps. That chain which pervades Swisserland, from mount Santez in the S. W. towards the sources of the Irm on the N. E. was known by the appellation of the Helvetic Alps. Some writers admit of more minute divisions, as the Tridentine Alps above Trent; and the Noric Alps above the source of the river Tagliamento. The extent of this vast course of mountains may be computed at about 550 British miles. Of all these stupendous works of nature Mont Blanc is the highest, being 15,662 feet above the level of the sea.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** In no country, of which so great a proportion consists of lakes and mountains, can agriculture be carried to a great extent. But there is no want of industry, and the grain seems sufficient for domestic consumption. Barley is cultivated even to the edge of the glaciers; oats in regions a little

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warmer; rye in those still more sheltered; and spelt in the warmest parts. Yet in general the produce does not exceed five for one; and it has been found necessary to support public granaries, in case of any deficiency. The country being fitted by nature for pasturage, the chief dependence of the Swiss is on his cattle. A considerable quantity of flax is also cultivated, and tobacco has been lately introduced. Vines are cultivated in some of the districts. There is also abundance of fruit, apples, pears, plums, cherries, filberts; together with mulberries, peaches, and other products of a warmer climate. In the Alpine valleys, and along the course of the torrents, vegetation assumes a stately appearance; the juniper, the savine, the stone-pine, and alder, broken by nature into irregular thickets, diversify the scene.

On the declivities of the mountains, commence the forests of larch, of pine, and fir, intermixed here and there with the yew, the mountain ash, and the birch.

Where the firwoods cease, the subalpine regions begin, diversified with meadows and corn fields, and forests of deciduous trees. The oak, the elm, the beech, the ash, the lime, and the hornbeam are the most prevalent, and the borders of the streams are shaded by poplars and willows. The plants are chiefly those which occur in the north and midland parts of France and Germany.

The horses of Swisserland are esteemed for vigour and spirit: and the cattle attain great size. Among the animals peculiar to the Alps may be first named the ibex, or rock goat. This animal resembles the common goat; but the horns of the male are extremely long and thick. The hair is long, and ash coloured, with a black list along the back. The ibex will mount a perpendicular rock of fifteen feet, at three springs, bounding like an elastic body struck against a hard substance.

Another singular animal is the chamois, which is commonly seen in herds of twenty or thirty with a centinel who alarms them by a snrill cry. The colour is yellowish brown; but they sometimes occur speckled. The food is the lichen with shoots of pine or fir. The marmot is common in the Swiss mountains. In summer they feed on alpine plants, and live in societies, digging dwellings in the ground for summer, and others for winter. About the beginning of October, having provided hay, they retreat to their holes,

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where they remain torpid till the spring. The size is between that of the rabbit and the hare. Among Alpine birds may be named the vulture, called also the golden or bearded vulture. It inhabits the highest Alps, forming its nest in inaccessible rocks, and preying on the chamois, white hare, marmot, and sometimes on kids and lambs.

**MINERALS.** The mineralogy of this interesting country is not so important as we might be led to infer from its mountainous nature. Gold, copper and lead have been found in small quantities; but the chief mines are those of iron in the country of Sargans. In the canton of Bern, there are valuable quarries of rock salt: and it is said that coal and native sulphur are not unknown. Rock crystal forms perhaps the chief export of Swisserland, being sometimes found in such large pieces as to weigh seven or eight hundred weight.

**NATURAL CURIOSITIES.** To enumerate the natural curiosities of Swisserland would be to describe the country. The Alps, the glaciers, the vast precipices, the descending torrents, the sources of the rivers, the beautiful lakes and cataracts, are all natural curiosities of the greatest singularity, and most sublime description. Of late the glaciers have attracted particular attention; but those seas of ice, intersected with numerous deep fissures, owing to sudden cracks which resound like thunder, must yield in sublimity to those stupendous summits clothed with ice and snow, the latter often descending in what are called avalanches, or prodigious balls, which, gathering as they roll, sometimes overwhelm travellers and even villages.

On the north of Swisserland the Rhine, near the village of Nauhasen, descends in a cataract of 40 feet amidst black and horrid rocks. Among the milder charms of the country may be named the lakes; and the small lake of Kandel Steig bears at one extremity the charms of summer, while the other presents the glaciers and pomp of winter. Numerous rills, which descend from the mountains, often fall in cascades of great beauty, among which that of Fichtelbach is computed at 900 feet, over a rock as perpendicular as a wall.

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## GERMAN STATES.

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IN describing an extensive country, subdivided into many states; it becomes indispensable to give a general idea of the whole, before the respective territories are delineated. The geography of Germany is the most perplexed of any region on the globe, the great divisions, or *circles*, being now interwoven, and almost antiquated, while no modern and more rational distribution has yet appeared.

**EXTENT.** Germany, considered in its modern limits, extends about 600 British miles in length, from the isle of Rugen in the north, to the southern limits of the circle of Austria. The modern breadth, from the Rhine to the eastern boundary of Silesia, is about 500 British miles: anciently the breadth extended beyond the Vistula, about 200 miles more to the east.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** This country appears to have been full of extensive forests, even in the Roman period, and of course to have been in many parts thinly peopled. The Cimbri, or modern Celts, possessed several tracts in the south, as they certainly occupied a large portion of the N. W. The N. E. of Germany was held by the Finnish nations; but both were obliged to yield to the invasion of the Scythians or Goths who migrated westward from their original seats on the Euxine, long before the Roman interference in the affairs of those countries.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** Some of the grand historical epochs have already been mentioned, in describing those large portions of Germany, the Austrian and Prussian dominions; and some of the others may be briefly hinted in the account of the respective states. Suffice it here to mention: 1. The ancient period, chiefly resting on



the account of the Roman and Francic historians. 2. The middle period. In the end of the eighth century, Charlemagne, having subdued the Saxons and other parts of Germany and Italy, was in the year 800 proclaimed emperor of the West. His successor Louis le Debonnaire held the empire with France; but his son Lothaire I. was restricted to Germany. After many intestine commotions Henry duke of Saxony was chosen emperor in 918, and this line failing 1024, was followed by that of Franconia. In the twelfth century arose the factions of the Guelphs and Gibelins, and, after long contests, the sceptre was at length assigned to the house of Austria in 1273; and after some deviations continued to remain in that family. 3. The modern period, which may be traced from Charles V. or from his grandfather Maximilian.

**ANTIQUITIES.** The antiquities of Germany consist chiefly of a few Roman remains in the S. and W. It would be endless to enumerate the churches founded by Charlemagne; or the numerous castles erected by powerful princes and barons.

**RELIGION.** The religion of the greater part of Germany may be pronounced to be the Reformed, first introduced into Saxony by Luther. Yet the south continues firmly attached to the Roman Catholic faith, now chiefly supported by the house of Austria.

**GOVERNMENT.** The government is that of an aristocracy, which elects a monarch, who may be of any family, Catholic, Lutheran, or Calvinist. To consider the constitution at length, which has been called by a German writer "a confusion supported by providence," would be foreign to the nature of this work.

**POPULATION, &c.** The population of Germany in general is computed at little more than 25,000,000. It was supposed that the empire could, if united, send forth a contingent army of 400,000; but such calculations are visionary in the present state of affairs. The revenues, political importance and relations, are now detached, and have already been in a great part considered under the articles of Prussia and Austria. The manners, customs, and dialects vary according to the different states. The Saxon is accounted the purest and most classical idiom of the German tongue; and the southern dialects of Swabia, Bavaria, and Austria, the most uncouth.

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In the descriptions of the Austrian and Prussian dominions are contained many of the eastern provinces of Germany. The part which remains is the western half, naturally divided into two portions by the river Mayn.

**RIVERS.** Both portions are watered by numerous and important rivers. In the north the Elbe is the most distinguished stream, rising in the Sudetic mountains of Silesia, and entering the sea near Cuxhaven, after a comparative course of more than 500 British miles. The chief cities on the banks of the Elbe are Dresden, Meissen, Wittenberg, Magdeburg, from which it runs almost a solitary stream to Hamburg.

Not far to the west is the mouth of the Weser, which first receives that name when its two sources, the Werra and the Fulda join. Including the Werra, its chief branch, it flows about 270 British miles. The principal towns on this river are Bevern, Minden, and Bremen.

The sources and mouths of the Rhine have been already described. This noble river forms the grand ancient barrier between France and Germany; and its course may be computed at about 600 British miles. The Rhinegau is not only celebrated for its wines, but for the romantic appearance of the country, the river running through wild rocks crowned with majestic castles.

In the southern part of Germany the most important river is the Danube, which according to the common opinion rises near the little town of Donausingen in Swabia, or a little farther to the north. This noble river becomes navigable a little above Ulm, where it receives the Iler. The next tributary stream of consequence is the Lech, which comes from Tyrol, a stream distinguished in the seat of the recent war; as is the Iser, proceeding from Upper Bavaria. The Danube runs about 250 miles through this part of Germany, passing by Ulm, Ratisbon, and Passau. To Orsova it may be considered as an Austrian river for about 550 miles; thence it is Turkish for about 480 to the Euxine.

The Necker is a tributary stream of the Rhine, rising in the Black Forest, and running about 150 British miles through a country variegated with vineyards. Another and grander tributary stream of the Rhine is the Mayn, which after receiving the Rednitz and other considerable streams,

joins the Rhine to the S. of Mentz. The Mayn is a muddy stream, but abounds with trout, carp, and other fish.

**LAKES.** Germany presents few lakes, the largest being in the duchy of Mecklenberg, where the lake of Plau extends under various names about 25 British miles, in length, by 6 in breadth.

**MOUNTAINS.** The most northern mountains in Germany are those of the Hartz, called the Brocken or Blocksberg. The highest about 3021 feet.

The Hessian territories may be regarded as generally mountainous, especially towards the north. Thence S. W. towards the Rhine are several considerable hills, among which may be mentioned those in the west of Wetterau, and the seven hills near the Rhine almost opposite to Andernach; with the ridge of Heyrich which protects the vines of Rhinegau.

But the most celebrated mountains, in that part of Germany which lies to the N. of the Mayn, are the Erzgebirg, or Metallic Mountains, which rise to the N. E. of the Fichtelberg, running between Bohemia and Saxony, but supplying both countries with silver, tin, and other metals.

Among the German mountains to the S. of the Mayn may first be named the Bergstrass, a ridge passing from near Mannheim to the vicinity of Frankfort. The mountains of the Black Forest, in German Schwartzwald, extend from near Neuenburg, in the territories of Wurtemberg south to the four forest towns on the Rhine. The southern part is called the High, and the northern the Lower forest: the length being about 80 and the breadth 20 British miles.

The south east of this portion of Germany is bounded by the high mountains of P. varia and Salzia or Salzburg; being branches or continuations of the Swiss or Tyrolese Alps, but without general appellations. The Alps of Salzburg exceed in height the Carpathian chain or the Pyrenees, and only yield to the Swiss and Tyrolese Alps, the highest summits being computed at more than 10,000 feet above the sea.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** As Spain is distinguished by its groves of cork trees and ilex, and Scandinavia by its fir woods, so is Germany remarkable for its deep and almost impenetrable forests of oak: not indeed, that this is the invariable characteristic of the country, for

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in an empire of such great extent, and of so varied a surface, it must needs happen that the native vegetable productions on the shore of the German ocean should differ considerably from those in the Black Forest or on the frontiers of Tyrol. There is however on the whole more uniformity than might be expected, and though perhaps few plants are absolutely peculiar to Germany, yet the abundance of some species, and the absence of others, forms a striking feature in the natural history of the empire, of which more particular notice hereafter.

The zoology of this western half of Germany corresponds so much with that of the Austrian and Prussian dominions, that little need be added. The German horses are generally more remarkable for weight than spirit. The German wild boar is of superior size; and those of Westphalia are in particular estimation. In the N. of Germany the lynx is sometimes seen; and the wolf is common in the south.

#### THE CHIEF GERMAN STATES ON THE NORTH OF THE MAYN.

*Saxony.—Brunswick.—Lunenbourg.—Hessia.—Mecklenburg. Duchy of Brunswick.—City of Hamburg.—Smaller States. Ecclesiastic Powers.*

IN this division of Germany the elector of Saxony must be regarded as the chief potentate, his territories being computed at 11,680 square miles, the inhabitants at 2,104,000, and the revenue at 1,300,000*l.* sterling. The name is derived from the ancient nation of the Saxons, who in the middle ages held the greatest part of the N. and W. of Germany.

The countries comprised in the electorate of Saxony are, the duchy so called, Voigtland, Lusatia, and part of Thuringia, with part of Misnia and Heneberg; being in length from E. to W. about 220 British miles, and in breadth from N. to S. about 130.

The religion is the Protestant, which was here introduced by Luther; and there are two bishoprics, Merseberg and Naumburg. The government is, as usual among

the German princes, nearly absolute, but conducted with moderation through different councils. Yet there are states general of nobles, clergy, and burgesses, commonly assembled every sixth year to regulate the taxation; and the sovereign can issue no laws without their consent. The army is about 32,000, and the political weight of Saxony in this part of Germany is next to that of Prussia.

The language and literature of Saxony are the most distinguished in all Germany, most of the writers who have refined the language having been born, or having resided in this country. There are many schools, colleges and academies; among the latter, the mineralogic academy of Freyberg, instituted in 1765, is esteemed the leading school of that science. The chief city is Dresden on the Elbe, of celebrated neatness; and about 50,000 inhabitants. The manufactures of Saxony are thread, linen, laces, ribbons, velvets, carpets, paper, colours derived from various minerals, glass, and porcelain of remarkable beauty, and various works in serpentine stone. The country is also rich in native products, both agricultural and mineral, and beautiful pearls are found in the Elster in shells about six inches long. With such advantages Saxony maintains a considerable inland commerce; and Leipsig is esteemed one of the chief trading towns of Germany.

The climate is so favourable that wine is made in Misnia. The face of the country, especially towards the south, is beautifully diversified with hill and dale; and its richness between Meissen and Dresden is esteemed to rival that of the north of Italy. The land is well cultivated; the products, all kinds of grain and vegetables, with hops, flax, hemp, tobacco, saffron, madder, &c. Chief rivers, the Elbe, the Saal or Sala, the Mulda, the Pleisse, the Elster, with the Spree of Lusatia. Few countries can boast of such fossil opulence as Saxony. The mines of Johngeorgenstadt, produce silver, tin, bismuth, manganese, cobalt, wolfram, &c. At Schneckenstein, near Averbach in the Voigtland, appears the topaz rock, unique in its kind. The tin of Saxony is not only a rare product, but is excellent. Jet is also found; and abundance of fine porcelain clay, with fullers' earth, marble, slate, serpentine, agates, and jasper.

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ate of Hanover, containing about 8224 square miles, with 850,000 inhabitants, and the computed revenue 962,500*l.* sterling, while the military force is estimated at 25,970. It is situated in the circle of Lower Saxony. The countries comprised in the electorate of Hanover are chiefly the duchy of Luneburg, Bremen, and Verden, and Saxe-Lauenburg adjacent to Holstein; with the countries of Calenburg and Grubenhagen in the south, and those of Diepholtz and Hoya in the west, and that of Danneberg in the east. It may be computed that the compact part of the Hanoverian dominions extends in length, east to west, about 180 miles: and in breadth N. to S. about 100 miles; while the detached duchy of Grubenhagen, with southern Calenburg or the country of Gottingen, is about 80 miles in length by 30 in its greatest breadth.

The religion is the Lutheran. The government is now conducted by a council of regency, and there are provincial states, though rarely summoned. The literature of this country has deserved considerable applause, since the institution of the university of Gottingen by George II. It was founded in 1734, and solemnly opened 1737. The chief city is Hanover, situated on the river Leine, amidst numerous gardens and villas. It is slightly fortified, and contains about 15,500 inhabitants. In the new city, on the left of the Leine, is a library, particularly rich in books of history and politics. The manufactures and commerce of this electorate are pretty considerable, in metals from the Hartz, linen, cotton, some broad cloths, &c. The silver fabrics of Zell are celebrated in Germany. The chief exports are metals, coarse linens, timber, peat, with some cattle and grain.

The agricultural products are wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, haricots, and pot-herbs of all kinds; with abundance of potatoes, good fruits, flax, hemp, tobacco, madder, &c. Wood abounds both for fuel and architecture, and affords considerable quantities of tar and pitch. Bees are particularly attended to. Horses, cattle, and sheep are numerous. The chief river is the Elbe towards the north; and the Weser and Leine on the west; with the Aller and Ilmenau in the centre. The mineralogy is rich, consisting of silver, copper, lead, iron, cobalt, zinc; with marble, slate, coal, turf, and limestone, the last particularly from the hill of Kalkberg near Luneburg. Two curious mineral

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substances, boracite, and staurolite, are found, the former in the Kalkberg, the latter at Andreasberg. in the Hartz : which region likewise presents several singular features of nature, as the cavern of Blackenburg, the termination of which has never been explored, and the cave of Hamelen.

The bishopric of Osnabruck in Westphalia may be considered as an appanage of Hanover, adjoining to the county of Diepholtz. Its inhabitants about 120,000 : revenue 26,250*l*.

Having thus described, at some length, the two chief and leading principalities on the north of the Mayn, a few others, the next in power, may be briefly mentioned.

In this secondary view of the north of Germany the first place must be assigned to Hussia, a country of no mean extent nor fame. Some districts, as usual, being assigned to princes of the family, the ruling state is denominated Hesse Cassel, so called from the capital. This territory is about 80 British miles in length, and nearly the same in breadth : miles square, 2760, with 700,000 inhabitants, military force 12,000. This country is generally mountainous ; but there are many pleasant vales, sometimes containing vineyards, and fields fertile in corn and pasturage. It abounds in game and fish, and there are many fossils and minerals : the sands of the Eder contain particles of gold ; and there was formerly a mine of that metal, but of small account, near Frankenberg. There are also found silver, copper, lead, coal, fine clays, with veins of marble and alabaster, and some medicinal waters. There are states of three orders, nobles, clergy, and burghesses from Cassel, Marburg, and other towns. The religion is the reformed with two or three superintendants. The universities are those of Marburg and Rinteln, and that of Gissen belonging to Hesse Darmstadt, ruled by another branch of the family. There is some trade from the natural products, and a few manufactures of linen, cloth, hats, stockings, &c. The chief city is Cassel, which contains about 22,000 inhabitants, and is pleasing, though often injured by war. Hanau is also a considerable place ; and the country so called is supposed to contain 100,000 souls.

The duchy of Mecklenburg is supposed to contain 4,800 square miles, with 375,000 inhabitants, or by Hoeck's account 300,000. It is divided into two parts, known by the additions of Schwerin and Guströ, full of lakes, heaths and

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marshes ; and the soil being sandy, produces little but rye and oats. The states, consisting of nobility and burgesses, are assembled yearly to regulate the taxation. The religion is the Lutheran, with six superintendants ; and an university at Rostock. The manufactures are wool and tobacco : the exports, partly by Lubec, partly by Hamburg, are grain, flax, hemp, hops, wax, honey, cattle, butter, cheese, fruits, feathers, dried geese, tallow, linseed, wool, and timber.

The duke of Brunswick possesses a territory of 1472 square miles, with 170,000 inhabitants ; the chief city being Brunswick, which contains about 22,000 : but his territory is called the principality of Wolfenbittel, from a town of far less importance. The face of the country resembles the electorate of Hanover. Here is a rich convent of nuns at Gandersheim of the Lutheran persuasion, the abbess being generally a princess of the family. There are several small manufactures ; and the strong beer of Brunswick, called *mum*, is exported from Hamburg.

Nor must the city of Hamburg be omitted, being after Vienna and Berlin, the third city in Germany, and supposed to contain 100,000 inhabitants, or by Hoeck's account 95,000 : while no other, except Dresden and Frankfort on the Mayn, contain more than 30,000. The Elbe is here, including the islands, near a mile broad. The houses are rather commodious than elegant and there are few fine streets, the population being overerowed on account of the fortifications built in the old Dutch taste, with spacious ramparts planted with trees. It is ruled by a senate of 37 persons, the form being aristocratic. The religion is Lutheran. There are considerable breweries and works for refining sugar, with some manufactures of cloth. Formerly the trade chiefly consisted of linens, woollens, wine, sugar, coffee, spiceries, metals, tobacco, timber, leather, corn, dried fish, furs, &c. but at present it is the great mart of the commerce of the British isles with the continent. The bank was founded in 1619 ; and the numerous libraries do honour to the taste of the inhabitants. Its chief dependencies are the river of Alster, the bailliage of Ham, some isles and lowlands on the Elbe ; and, besides some districts acquired from Holstein, the bailliage of Ritzebittel, on the north of the duchy of Bremen, including the port of Cuxhaven, and the isle called Neuwerk, situated opposite to that port.



In this northern half of Germany there are six or seven other smaller principalities, containing together about half a million of people ; besides the three ecclesiastical electorates of Mentz, Treves and Cologne, which contain about 300,000 inhabitants, each, and six or seven bishoprics of from 70,000 to 200,000 each : but some of these have been partitioned between France and Prussia.

#### THE GERMAN STATES ON THE SOUTH OF THE MAYN.

*Electorate of Bavaria conjoined with the Palatinate.—Duchy of Wurtemberg.—Anspach.—Salzia.—Smaller States.—Ecclesiastic Power.*

IN the southern division, Austria excepted, the elector of Bavaria and the Palatinate is the chief of all the secondary powers, his dominions being computed at 16,176 miles square, with 1,934,000 inhabitants. The French having seized more than half of the Palatinate on the left bank of the Rhine, the remaining part, on the right bank of the river, is about twenty-four British miles in length, by the same at its utmost breadth ; but contains the best part of the principality, pervaded by the river Neckar, producing excellent wines, and enriched by the cities of Mannheim and Heidelberg. In 1693 the Palatinate was rendered almost a desert by the Vandalic ravages of the French. In the last war, after mangling the carcass, they claimed it as their own.

The duchy of Bavaria is divided into Upper and Lower, and what is called the Higher Palatinate (or that of Bayaria). The length from N. to S. is somewhat interrupted, but may be about 150 British miles, and the breadth about 120. Upper Bavaria is, in a great degree, mountainous, and covered with forests, interspersed with large and small lakes. Lower Bavaria is more plain and fertile. The chief mineral riches of Bavaria consist in the salt springs at Traunstein, which occupy many people in productive industry. The religion is the Roman Catholic, which, as usual, damps the spirit of industry ; and the manufactures are of small account, the chief exports being corn and cattle. The revenue is computed at 1,166,600*l.* and the military

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force at 12,000. The chief city is Munich, esteemed the most elegant in Germany, with 38,000 inhabitants; in Lower Bavaria are Landshut and Strauben.

The next potentate in the south is the duke of Wurtemberg, whose dominions are computed at 3,200 square miles, with 600,000 inhabitants. His revenue is computed at 245,000*l.* his military force at 6,000. This duchy forms the most considerable and fertile part of the circle of Swabia; and is, indeed, after Saxony, one of the best in the empire. The chief grain is spelt, and some barley and wheat, with flax, &c. and the fertility suffices even for export. The wines of the Necker are not so abundant as to supersede the use of cyder. The chief river is the Necker, which, with the Nagold, and its other tributary streams, enlivens and fertilizes the duchy. The states consist of fourteen superior clergy, and the deputies of sixty-eight towns and bailliages. The religion is the Lutheran, with some Calvinists, and some colonies of the Vaudois. There are manufactures of pottery, glass, woollen, linen, and silk; which, with the natural products of the country, supply a considerable export: the imports are by Frankfort on the Mayn. The chief city is Stutgard, agreeably situated on a rivulet which flows into the Necker, and the ducal residence since the year 1321.

Among the secondary powers, in this southern division of Germany, must first be named Anspach, or Onolsbach, which, near Weurth, maintains a population of 320,000 on 2,300 square miles. These regions are mountainous and sandy; but the Mayn yield good wines. The chief mines are iron, the others being neglected.

The country of Salz, also called Salzia, and the archbishopric of Salzburg, is a compact and interesting region, about 100 English miles in length, and 60 at its greatest breadth; computed at 2,880 square miles, and a population of 250,000; by Hoeck's account, only 200,000. The archbishop is primate of all Germany, the see being founded by St. Rupert, an Englishman, in 716. Salzburg has an university, with about 20,000 inhabitants. The Roman Catholic system has banished many industrious inhabitants, who have chiefly taken refuge in the Prussian dominions. The salt works at Hallen, about twelve miles S of Salzburg, are very lucrative.

This grand southern division of Germany also contains the territories of the Margrave of Baden, 832 square miles, with 200,000 inhabitants; the lands of Hesse Darmstadt, belonging to another reigning branch of the house of Hesse, the imperial city of Nuremberg which has considerably declined, but still contains about 30,000 souls, while Ulm has not above half the number. To enumerate other small secular principalities would only obstruct the intention of this description, which is to impress on the memory the more important.

But as the intention of secularizing the numerous ecclesiastical territories in Germany seems to be the politics of the day, it may be proper to add here, the names at least of the chief sees to the south of the Mayn. 1. The archbishopric of Salzburg, which has been already described. 2. The large bishopric of Wurtzburg, being chiefly on the north of the Mayn, has been mentioned before. 3. Bamberg. 4. The bishopric of Speyr, or, as the French call it, Spire, one half of which is now subject to France. 5. The bishopric of Aichstett, in the southern extremity of Franconia. 6. The large and opulent bishopric of Augsburg. 7. Of Constance, whose territories also extend into Swisserland. 8. A great part of the bishopric of Strasburg. 9. The large abbatial territories of Kempten, Buchan, and Lindau; with the priory of Ellwangen in the north. 10. The bishopric of Passau. 11. That of Freysingen, with the county of Werdenfels. And 12. The bishopric of Ratisbon, which is of small extent. The lion and other beasts agreed to hunt in partnership; it would be wise in some of the small partitioners of the ecclesiastical territory to recollect the result of the fable.

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# ITALIAN STATES.

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## GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF ITALY.

*Divisions.—Boundaries.—Extent.—Original Population.—  
Present Population.—Face of the Country.—Rivers.—  
Lakes.—Mountains.—Botany.—Zoology.*

THE classical and interesting country of Italy has been so repeatedly described, that it has become familiar even to the common reader. This description shall therefore be restricted to very narrow limits; and will also of necessity be somewhat abridged by the present unsettled state of the country. We shall delineate only those lasting features of nature which no political change can influence.

**DIVISIONS.** Italy may be regarded as having been, in all ages of history, divided into three parts, the southern, the central, and the northern. The southern part having received many Greek colonies was honoured with the ancient appellation of Magna Græcia: the centre was the seat of Roman and Etrurian power; while the northern was the Cisalpine Gaul.

**BOUNDARIES, &c.** The boundaries of this renowned country are deeply impressed by the hand of nature, in the Adriatic and Mediterranean seas, and the grand barrier of the Alps, which divide it from France, Swisserland, and Germany. The length of Italy from mount Rosa, the highest summit of the Italian Alps, to the Cape de Leuca, is about 670 British miles; while the medial breadth between the Adriatic and Mediterranean is about 100; but from the Adige, the recent limit of Austrian power, to the eastern frontiers of the new French departments of Liman

and Mont Blanc (formerly Savoy), the breadth is about 200 miles. The original population of the south consisted of Pelasgi from the Peloponnesus; the northern part of Illyrians, who were succeeded by German Gauls; and the Etruscans of the centre are said to have been of Lydian extract. The Romans seem to derive their origin from the early Greek colonies; and their language was regarded as an Æolic dialect of the Greek. It is almost superfluous to add, that the religion is the Roman Catholic. The present population of Italy, with the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, cannot be estimated at more than 13,000,000. The kingdom of Naples and Sicily contains about 6,000,000; the central part about 3,000,000; and the northern about four. The manners, customs, and dialects are various and discordant, though the general language be the Italian, esteemed the purest in Tuscany, while the enunciation is most perfect at Rome.

**FACE OF THE COUNTRY.** Italy presents a variety of scenery, decorated with noble architecture, as villas, venerable remains of ancient art, amidst a climate generally serene, though liable to violent rains. In the north the sublime scenery of the Alps is contrasted with fertile plains. In the centre there are many marshes and standing waters, which occasion a pernicious distemperature of the air. A great part of the kingdom of Naples is mountainous; but the country generally beautiful; yet in addition to the fiery eruptions of Vesuvius and Etna, it is exposed to the terrible effect of frequent earthquakes, and the enervating sirocco.

**RIVERS.** Italy is intersected with rivers in almost every direction, of which the Po is by far the most large and extensive. This noble river, called by the ancients Padus and Eridanus, rises on the very confines of France and Italy. Thus descending from the centre of the western Alps, it passes to the N. E. of Saluzzo, to Turin; receiving even in this short space many rivers, as the Varitta, Maira, and Grana from the S. and from the N. the Felice, Sagon, and others. After leaving the walls of Turin, the Po receives innumerable rivers and rivulets from the Alps in the N. and the Apennines in the S. Among the former may be named the Doria, the Tesino, the Adda, the Oglio, the Mincio. From the south the Po first receives the copious Alpine river Tanaro, itself swel-

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led by the Belba, Bormida, and other streams. The course of the Po may be comparatively estimated at about 300 British miles. The numerous tributary rivers, from the Alps and Apennines, bring down so much sand and gravel, that the bed of the Po has in modern times been considerably raised, so that in many places banks of thirty feet in height are necessary to preserve the country from inundation. Hence hydraulics have been much studied in the north of Italy; and the numerous canals of irrigation delight and instruct the traveller.

The other rivers of the north of Italy, as the Adige, the Brenta, the Piavi, and the Tagliamento, must now rather be regarded as Austrian streams.

In the centre first appears the Arno, which rises in the Apennines, and flows by Florence and Pisa into the gulph of Genoa. The Tiber, an immortal stream, is by far the most considerable in the middle, or south of Italy, rising near the source of the Arno, S. E. of St. Marino, and passing by Perugia, and Rome, to the Mediterranean, which it joins after a course of about 150 British miles.

**LAKES.** Italy contains many beautiful lakes, particularly in the northern division. The Lago Maggiore, is about twenty-seven British miles in length, by three of medial breadth. This lake formerly adjoined to the Milanese territory, and contains the beautiful Boromean isles, celebrated by many travellers. Still farther to the east is the lake of Como, which is about thirty-two British miles in length, but the medial breadth not above two and a half. Yet farther to the east is the noble Lago di Garda, an expanse of about thirty British miles in length by eight in breadth. There are few other lakes in Italy, but they are of smaller dimensions.

**MOUNTAINS.** The most important mountains of Italy are the Alps, already in a great measure described, under the article of Switzerland. The maritime Alps rise from the sea to the west of Oneglia, and are succeeded by other denominations, extending due north to mont Blanc, the ancient boundary of Savoy. The most remarkable passage through the maritime Alps is the Col de Tende, and mount Cenis is a noted passage to Turin. In general the western Alps rise, in successive elevation, from the sea to Mont Blanc. From Mont Blanc the grand chain of the Italian Alps bends N. E. presenting the high summits

of the great St. Bernard, mount Maudit, and mount Rosa, the last nearly approaching Mont Blanc itself in height.

From mount Rosa this grand chain continues its progress N. E. by Simplon, &c. through the country of the Grisons to the glaciers of Tyrol, terminating in the Salzian Alps.

The next grand chain of Italian mountains is that of the Apennines, which are at first a branch of the Alps, separating the plains of Piedmont from the sea. They begin near Ormea, in that high ridge which now forms the boundary of the French department of the maritime Alps, and stretch without any interruption along both sides of the gulph of Genoa, at no great distance from the sea. In the south of the territory of Modena, they proceed almost due east to the centre of Italy; thence S. E. to its extremities, generally approaching nearer to the Adriatic than to the Mediterranean.

Having thus briefly considered the chief ridges of Italian mountains, those sublime features of the country the volcanoes must not be omitted. Vesuvius is a conic detached mountain, about 3,600 feet high. The terrors of an eruption, the subterranean thunders, the thickening smoke, the ruddy flames, the stony showers ejected to a prodigious height, amidst the coruscations of native lightning, the throes of the mountain, the eruption of the lava, descending in a horrid and copious stream of destruction, have exercised the power of many writers, but far exceed the utmost energy of description.

Yet Vesuvius, placed by the side of Etna, would seem a small ejected hill, the whole circuit of its base not exceeding 30 miles, while Etna covers a space of 180, and its height above the sea is computed at about 11,000 feet. This enormous mass is surrounded by smaller mountains, some of which equal Vesuvius in size; and while the lava of the latter may devolve its stream for seven miles, Etna will emit a liquid fire thirty miles in length. The crater of Vesuvius never exceeds half a mile in circumference, while that of Etna is commonly three, and sometimes six miles. Such is the height of Etna that the eruptions rarely attain the summit, but more usually break out at the sides. Near the crater begins the region of perpetual snow and ice; which is followed by the woody region; consisting of oaks, beeches, firs, and pines, while the upper is almost destitute of vegetation.

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**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** Among the trees, besides the common ones of Britain, we find the olive, the date plum, the storax tree, the bead tree, the almond, the pomegranate, the azarole plum, the pyracantha, the carob tree, the ilex, the pistachia, the manna-tree, the cypress, the date palm, the lémon, the orange, the fig, and the vine.

In the southern parts, cotton, rice, and the sugar cane indicate the fertility of the soil, and the warmth of the climate; and the fields, and pastures, as far as they have been examined, bear a striking resemblance in their native products to those which have been already mentioned, as enlivening the southern provinces of Spain.

The Italian horses are of little reputation. The cows of the Lodezan, where the noted cheese is now made, which was formerly produced near Parma, are described by Mr. Young as generally of a blood-red colour, long, lank, and ill made. The buffalo is in Europe almost peculiar to Italy; an animal, though tame, of ferocious aspect, and as different from the bull, as the ass is from the horse. In manners he somewhat resembles the hog, being fond of wallowing in mud, his flesh is coarse, and his hide, though light, is so firm as to have supplied the buff coat, or armour of the seventeenth century. Originally as is supposed from Africa, he is little adapted to any cold climate. The marmot, and the ibex are also reckoned among the animals of the Apennines; and the crested porcupine is esteemed peculiar to the south of Italy.

### THE SOUTHERN PART OF ITALY.

*Naples and Sicily, with the adjacent Isles.*

**NAPLES AND SICILY.** THIS division comprises the kingdom of Naples and Sicily; being divided from the central part chiefly by an arbitrary line; nor has nature indeed marked any precise distinction, except some rivers were assumed as boundaries, towards the Mediterranean and Adriatic. Sicily is about 170 British miles in length, by 70 of medial breadth: while this part of Italy exceeds 300



miles in length by 100 in breadth. Square miles 29,824, with six millions of inhabitants.

Though the religion be the Roman Catholic, the Inquisition has been carefully excluded. Few men of distinguished genius have recently appeared in this portion of Italy, which is overrun with priests and lawyers: but among the latter Giannone has distinguished himself by his spirited history of his country. There are no less than 20 archbishoprics, and 125 episcopal sees; but no university of any reputation. The ecclesiastics are computed at 200,000; and it is supposed that about one-half of the lands is in their possession. The government is nearly despotic. The laws are contained in the Codex Carolinus published in 1754. The political importance is inconsiderable.

The chief city is Naples, esteemed, after Constantinople, the most beautiful capital in the world: the inhabitants are computed at 380,000. Palermo in Sicily is supposed to contain 130,000. Messina was nearly destroyed by an earthquake, 1783; but Bari is said to contain 30,000 souls, and Catania 26,000. Besides excellent wines, oranges, olives, rice and flax, this kingdom abounds in cattle; and some parts are celebrated for the produce of manna and saffron. The manufactures, particularly those of silk and woollen, date from the reign of Ferdinand I. of Arragon; and these, with the native products, constitute the chief articles of trade. Iron manufactures have been recently instituted near Naples, but the mines and the agriculture are alike neglected; and Sicily, anciently so fertile in grain, is now of little account. The revenue is computed at 1,400,000*l.* sterling; and the army at 40,000. There are about four ships of the line, and four frigates. The mountains have been already mentioned in the general description of Italy, and the rivers are inconsiderable. The natural curiosities of these regions are numerous and interesting, independent of the grand volcanic appearances. About six miles from Girgenti, and very remote from Etna, there is a singular volcano, which in 1777 darted forth a high column of potter's earth of which there are continual ebullitions from about sixty small apertures. Spallanzani has explained the noted wonders of Scylla and Charybdis; the former being a lofty rock on the Calabrian shore, with some caverns at the bottom, which by the agitation of the waves emit sounds resembling the barking of dogs. The only danger

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is when the current and winds are in opposition, so that vessels are impelled towards the rock. Charybdis is not a whirlpool, or involving vortex, but a spot where the waves are greatly agitated by pointed rocks, and the depth does not exceed 500 feet. The chief islands in the neighbourhood of Italy are the isles of Lipari, the small isles off the gulph of the ancient Caprea, the isle of Ischia, Italian Pentadaria, the small isle of San Stephano, and the three Ponzian isles. The isles of Malta and Gozo are of far more consequence. They are rocky and barren, not producing grain sufficient for half the consumption of a thin population; but may in the hands of the English prove a valuable acquisition. Malta is about 50 British miles in circumference, and is supposed to contain 60,000 inhabitants. The isle of Gozo is about half the extent, and is rather fertile, the population being computed at 3000.

These two islands are possessed by the British, and are of so much importance to the nation, that the minister who surrenders them, while France has a port on the Mediterranean, will deserve to loose his head.

#### THE CENTRAL PART OF ITALY.

*Dominions of the Church.—Tuscany.—Lucca.—St. Marino.  
Fiombino, and the Isle of Elba.*

THIS portion comprehends the dominions of the Church, and the grand duchy, now kingdom of Tuscany; with a few diminutive states, as the republics of Lucca and St. Marino, the principality of Piombino, and the small portion of territory around Orbitello belonging to the kingdom of Naples.

The territory belonging to the Pope reaches from near Pesaro to beyond Terracina. By the treaty of Campo Formio in 1797, confirmed by that of Luneville in 1801, the provinces of Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna were ceded to the Cisalpine republic, a state lately erected by, and dependent on France. The pontiff is elected by the cardinals, a kind of chapter consisting nominally of priests and deacons, but in effect of opulent ecclesiastics, who are elevated to this dignity by their services to the church, by family connections, or by princely recommendation.

Rome is supposed to contain 162,800 inhabitants: and Ancona 20,000. The revenue arising from the papal territory was computed at about 350,000*l.* sterling; but by exactions in foreign countries was raised to about 800,000*l.* Yet there was a large debt, bearing eight per cent. interest, a sure proof of the want of industry and prosperity.

The grand duchy, now kingdom of Tuscany, has long been celebrated for the arts; and Florence is regarded as the Athens of modern Italy. This principality is about 120 British miles in length by 90 in breadth; but on 7,040 square miles contains a population of about 1,250,000. This charming country has been granted to a prince of Spain, who wields his tributary sceptre of Etruria under the protection of the French republic. The revenue is computed at about half a million sterling, but the forces do not exceed 6 or 8,000. Tuscany is one of the most beautiful and fertile regions of Italy, with a temperate and healthy climate. It abounds in corn and cattle, and produces excellent wines and fruit. Florence contains about 80,000 inhabitants, and Livorno (corrupted by our mariners to Leghorn) 45,000. The manufactures of silk and velvet were formerly celebrated, and still maintain reputation.

The small republic of *Lucca* is supposed to contain 120,000 people, on 288 square miles; of which *Lucca* holds about 40,000. It assumed independence in 1370, and in the recent revolutions of Italy this state adopted a constitution similar to the French. The *Lucanese* are the most industrious people of Italy, and no spot of ground is neglected, the hills being covered with vines, olives, chesnut, and mulberry trees, while the meadows near the coast nourish numerous cattle. Oil and silk are the chief exports of *Lucca*. The diminutive republic of *St. Marino* has been celebrated by many able writers. The inhabitants of the village and mountain are computed at 5000. It is surrounded by the dominions of the Pope, and claims his protection.

The principality of *Piombino*, consisting of a small portion of the Italian shore, and the opposite isle of *Elba*, has recently been yielded to the French republic. *Piombino* is a small neglected town, the princes having generally resided at Rome. The isle of *Elba* is about nine miles in length, and three in breadth; and has been remarkable from early antiquity for its metallic productions, particu-

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Ragusa, another small commercial republic, though situated on the eastern shore of the Adriatic, is often considered as an Italian state. It has a population of about 56,000, on 352 square miles. The religion is the Catholic, and the speech the Slavonic, but most of the inhabitants speak Italian. It is an archbishopric, with six suffragans, and its commerce is considerable, as it supplies the Turks with several kinds of merchandize and ammunition.

### THE NORTHERN PART OF ITALY.

*Piedmont.---Milan.---Mantua.---Parma and Placentia.---Modena.---Genoa.*

THIS largest division formerly comprised the extensive territories subject to Venice, and the king of Sardinia, with Milan and Mantua, appanages of the house of Austria, the principalities of Parma and Modena, and the long mountainous strip belonging to the Genoese. But the Venetian possessions to the river Adige, have now become subject to Austria; France has seized on the greatest part of Piedmont and Savoy, with the county of Nice, and the small principality of Monaco. Parma and Placentia were consigned to a Spanish prince, but are now under the direction of French commissioners. The state of Genoa with some of the Imperial fiefs, constitute the new Ligurian republic, under the influence of France; and the remainder together with the provinces ceded by the Pope, constitute the Cisalpine republic, also at the disposal of France.

The most extensive province of this division is Piedmont, about 150 English miles in length by 100 of medial breadth. While the revenue of Sardinia was estimated at 1,085,000*l.* Piedmont contributed 953,750*l.* Savoy 87,500*l.* and Sardinia only 43,750*l.* This delightful province enjoys a mild and pure air, and distinguished fertility of soil, the plains producing wheat, maize, rice, with some olives and wine, and the pasturages abound with cattle. Around Turin and through a great part of the province, artificial irrigation, or the watering of meadows, is practised with great assiduity and success. The copper mines in the duchy of Aosta are

numerous; and in some places this metal is accompanied with antimony, arsenic, and zinc.

The chief city of Piedmont is Turin, supposed to contain more than 80,000 inhabitants, with an university founded in 1405 by Amadeo duke of Savoy, this city having been subject to the family since A. D. 1097. Vercelli is said to contain 20,000; and Alessandria 12,000. The king of Sardinia used to maintain an army of about 40,000. The exports consist of silk which was chiefly manufactured at Lyons, some hemp, and large flocks of cattle.

The island of Sardinia used to be considered as an appendage of Piedmont. It has been shamefully neglected by the government; but being now the sole remnant of the possessions formerly annexed to the Sardinian crown, will no doubt be benefited by the presence of its sovereign.

The Cisalpine republic is little else than a province of France. It comprises the provinces of Romagna, Bologna, and Ferrara as far as the Po, the duchy of Modena and Massa Carrara, the Imperial fiefs of Villa-franca, Ulla, and Fosdi Nuovo; the duchies of Milan and Mantua, the Lunelline, Upper and Lower Navarese, and Val de Sesia; the Valteline and all the former Venetian territory W. of the Adige, including the Bergamese, Brescian, and part of the Veronese. We will give a sketch of the principal divisions.

Of these the most important is the fertile duchy of Milan, said to contain, on 2,432 square miles, a population of 1,116,850. Of the chief city of Milan the inhabitants are computed at about 120,000. The revenues of this duchy are computed at about 300,000*l.* At Pavia is an university of great repute, the professors having much distinguished themselves in natural history. It is regarded as the first in Italy. There are manufactures of wool and silk, but the latter is inferior to that of Piedmont: there are also numerous workmen in gold, silver, embroidery, steel, and in crystal, agate, aventurine, and other stones, so that the country swarms with artizans. The irrigation of the Milanese Mr. Young represents as a stupendous effort of industry, and the canals for this purpose are mentioned as early as the eleventh century; some of them being more than 30 miles long, and near 50 feet wide. The price of land is near 100*l.* the acre, and yields about three per cent. in-

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The small duchy of Mantua had been subject to Austria since the year 1707, and was ruled by the governor-general of the Milanese. The capital stands on a lake formed by the Mincio, and was formerly supposed to contain 50,000 inhabitants, now reduced to about 12,000; the position and fortifications render it a place of great strength.

The duchy of Modena is a remnant of the power of the celebrated family of Este, who also possessed the adjacent country of Ferrara. It contains about 320,000 souls, and the city of Modena 30,000; the revenue was 140,000*l*. The soil resembles that of the duchy of Parma. The breed of sheep is neglected. It is remarkable that in digging wells near Modena, at a certain depth, a particular stratum is found, which being passed, the water gushes up as from a subterranean lake or river.

The territories of Parma and Placentia have been conjoined for many ages; and have lately been occupied by the French. The population is computed at 300,000; revenue 175,000*l*. Parma is a considerable city with some manufactures, and an academy of painting. Both Parma and Placentia have universities. The soil is a rich sandy or gravelly loam, with fine pastures; and the Parmesan cheese now made at Lodi in the Milanese, has been celebrated for many centuries.

The Imperial fiefs, and smaller states in this part of Italy, would little merit description, especially in the present uncertainty with regard to their final destination. This account shall therefore close with the republic of Genoa, consisting of a long mountainous tract, formerly noted for the acuteness and treachery of the Ligurians its inhabitants. The papal power is here little venerated, the people being immersed in business, and receiving monied heretics with open arms. The population of the territory is computed at 400,000; of the city at 80,000. The troops, including the country militia, may amount to 30,000; but the once powerful fleets have sunk to a few galleys. The air is pure and salubrious, and there are excellent fruits and vegetables; but the grain is not sufficient for the consumption. The manufactures are chiefly of silk and velvet.

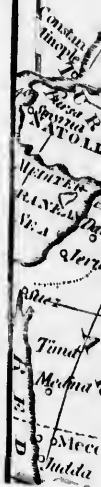
# ASIA.

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**EXTENT.** THIS great division of the earth extends in length from the Hellespont to what is called the East Cape; that is from about the  $26^{\circ}$  of longitude, east from London, into the other hemisphere to near  $190$  degrees of east longitude, or  $170^{\circ}$  west from London; being no less than  $164^{\circ}$ , or (taking the degree at a medial latitude) more than  $6500$  geographical miles. From the southern cape of Malacca to the cape of Cevero Vostochnoi, which braves the ice of the Arctic ocean, the breadth extends from about  $2^{\circ}$  of northern latitude to about  $77^{\circ}$ , or nearly  $4500$  geographical miles. If, for the sake of a rude and merely comparative calculation, one-sixth part be added for the difference between the statute and geographical mile, the length of Asia in British miles would be about  $7583$ , and the breadth  $5250$ .

It is now well known that Asia is limited, on the east, by a strait which divides it from America, of about  $40$  miles, and which, in honour of the discoverer, is called Beering's Strait. The northern and southern boundaries are the Arctic and Indian oceans, in which last many large islands, particularly that of New Holland, now more classically styled by some *Australasia*, affords a vast additional extent to this quarter of the globe. The western limits of Asia are marked by the eastern limits of Europe.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The population of Asia is by all authors allowed to be wholly primitive and original; if we except that of the Techuks or Tchuktchi, who, by the Russian travellers and Mr. Tooke, are supposed to have passed from the opposite coast of America. With



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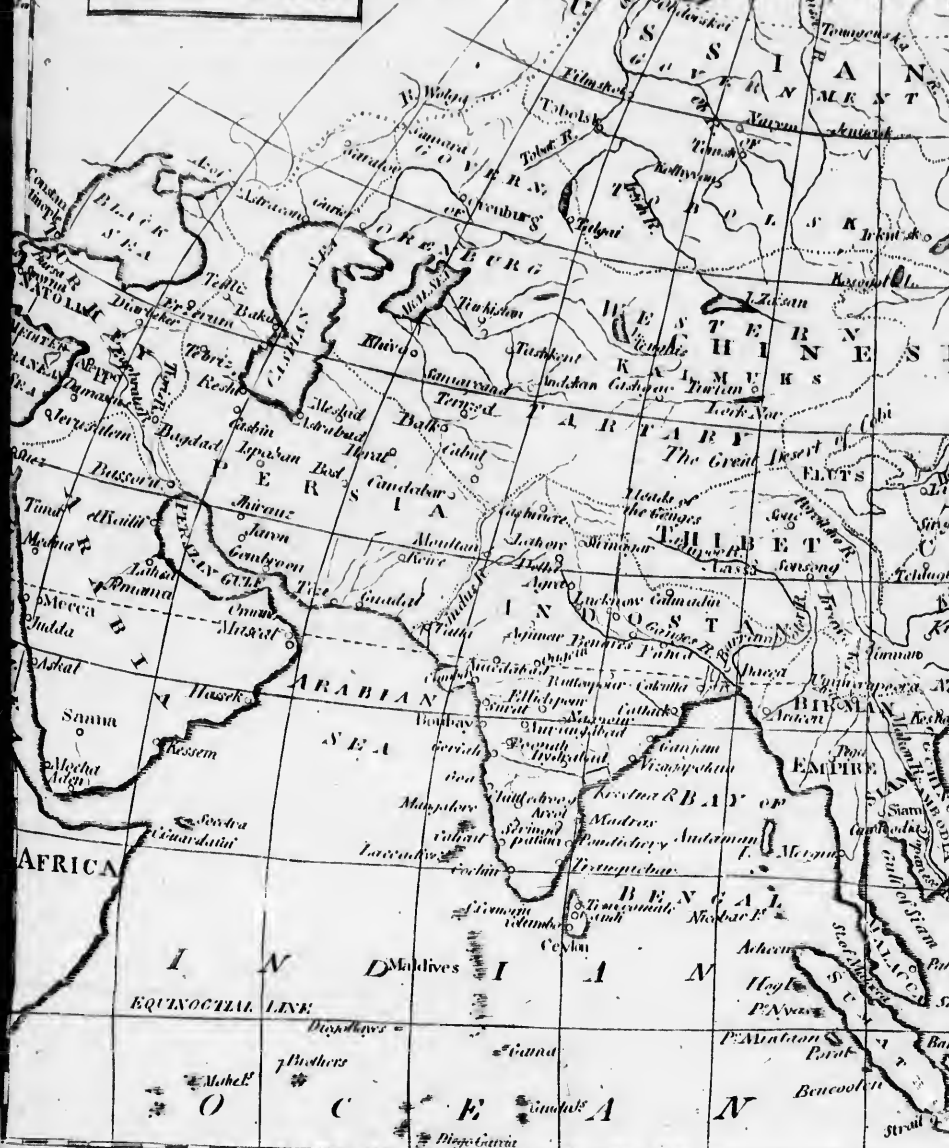


II. Fins (chief god Yummala.)

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Asia is by all authors allowed to be wholly primitive and original; if we except that of the Tschuks or Tchuktchi, who, by the Russian travellers and Mr. Tooke, are supposed to have passed from the opposite coast of America. With

a few trifling exceptions Asia presents a prodigious original population, as may be judged from the following table, which will be found more clear than any prolix discussion on the subject.

LINNEAN TABLE OF THE NATIONS AND LANGUAGES IN ASIA.

	<i>Ordo.</i>	<i>Genus.</i>	<i>Species.</i>
I.	Assyrians.	{ Assyrians. Arabians. Egyptians.	Chaldee. Hebrew, &c.
II.	Scythians.	{ Persians. Scythians, intra et extra Imaum, &c.	Armenians. The Persi and Zend are cognate with the Gothic, Greek, & Latin, according to Sir W. Jones.
III.	Sarmats.	{ Medes. Parthians.	Georgians. Circassians.
IV.	{ Seres. Indi.	Hindoos.	Northern & South- ern, &c.
V.	Sinæ.	{ Chinese. Japanese.	These have a Tata- ric form or face.

The great share of population which Europe has received from Asia will appear from the following little table.

PRIMEVAL INHABITANTS.

	<i>Ordo.</i>	<i>Genus.</i>	<i>Species.</i>
I.	Celts.	{ Irish. Welch. Armorican.	Erse, Manks. Cornish.
II.	Fins (chief god Yummala.)	{ Finlanders. Esthonians: Laplanners. Hungarians.	Permians or Biarmians. Livonians? Votiacs & Chermisses. Voguls & Ostiacs.

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## COLONIES FROM ASIA.

<i>Ordo.</i>	<i>Genus.</i>	<i>Species.</i>
III. Scythians or Goths ( <i>Odin.</i> )	}	Icelanders, Norwegians.
		Swedens, Danes.
		Germans.      Swiss, Frisic.
IV. Sarmats or Slavons ( <i>Perun.</i> )	}	English.      Flemish, Dutch.
		Poles.      Heruli.
		Russians.      Vendi.
		Kossacs.      Lettes.

The inhabitants of France, Italy, and Spain are also of Asiatic origin; and speak corrupted Roman, which, like the Greek, is a polished dialect of the Gothic, according to Sir William Jones and other able antiquaries. The Heruli, Wends, and Lettes, used mixed and imperfect dialects of the Slavonic. *Critical Review*, vol. xxvii. p. 129.

**SEAS.** Though Asia cannot vie with Europe in the advantages of inland seas, yet, in addition to a share of the Mediterranean, it possesses the Red Sea, the Arabian Sea, and gulph of Persia; the bays of Bengal and Nankin; and other gulphs, which diversify the coasts much more than those of Africa or America, and have doubtless contributed greatly to the early civilization of this celebrated division of the earth.

The Red Sea, or the Arabian gulph of antiquity, constitutes the grand natural division between Asia and Africa; but its advantages have chiefly been felt by the latter, which is entirely destitute of other inland seas; Egypt and Abyssinia, two of the most civilized countries in that division, having derived great benefits from this celebrated gulph, which from the straits of Babelmandel to Suez extends about 21°, or 1470 British miles; terminating not in two equal branches, as delineated in old maps, but in an extensive western branch, while the eastern ascends little beyond the parallel of Mount Sinai.

The Persian gulph is another noted inland sea, about half the length of the former, being the grand receptacle of those celebrated rivers the Euphrates and the Tigris.

The other gulphs do not afford such strong features of what are properly termed inland seas; if the Euxine be excepted, which has already been briefly described in the general survey of Europe. But the vast extent of Asia

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contains seas totally detached, and of a different description from any that occur in Europe, or other quarters of the globe. Such is the Caspian sea, extending about  $10^{\circ}$ , or 700 miles in length, and from 100 to 200 in breadth. Besides herrings, salmon, and other fish, with porpoises and seals, this sea produces sterlet, and great numbers of excellent sturgeon, which last in particular ascend the Volga, and supply kaviar and other articles of exportation. The best haven in the Caspian is that of Baku: that of Derbent is rocky; and that of Ensili, or Sinsili, not commodious, though one of the chief ports of trade.

About 100 miles to the east of the Caspian is the sea or lake of Aral, which is about 200 miles in length, and 70 miles in breadth. This sea being surrounded with sandy deserts, has been little explored; but it is salt like the Caspian, and there are many small saline lakes in the vicinity.

Another remarkable detached sea is that of Baikal in Siberia, or Asiatic Russia, extending from about the fifty-first to the fifty-fifth degree of north latitude, being about 350 British miles in length, but its greatest breadth not above 35. The water is fresh and transparent, yet of a green or sea tinge, commonly frozen in the latter end of December, and clear of ice in May. The Baikal is, at particular periods, subject to violent and unaccountable storms, whence, as terror is the parent of superstition, probably springs the Russian name of Svetoie Morè, or the Holy Sea.

The religions, governments, rivers, mountains, &c. of this quarter of the globe will be illustrated in the accounts of the several countries into which it is divided.

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## TURKEY IN ASIA.

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**EXTENT.** THIS region extends from the shores of the Egean sea, or Archipelago, to the confines of Persia; a space of about 1050 British miles. The boundaries towards Persia are rather ideal than natural, though somewhat marked by the mountains of Ararat and Elwend. In the north the Turkish territories are now divided from the Russian by the river Cuban, and the chain of Caucasus; in the south they extend to the junction of the Tigris and the Euphrates, which last river, for a considerable space, divides the Turkish possessions from those of the Arabs. From the river Cuban to the junction of the Tigris and Euphrates, may be about 1100 British miles.

**DIVISIONS.** This extensive territory, which in itself would constitute an empire, could it resume its pristine population, is divided into nine or ten provinces, viz. Natolia, Caraminia, Eyraco Arabic, or Chaldea, Diarbec, or Mesopotamia, Turcomania or Armenia, Cürdistan or Assyria. Georgia, including Mingrelia, Imaretta, and part of Circassia, Amasia, Aladulia, Syria with Palestine.

These provinces are subdivided into governments arbitrarily administered by pashas.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The original population of these regions consisted chiefly of Scythic nations, mingled with a few Assyrians, from the south. At present the ruling language is the Turkish, next to which may be placed the modern Greek; but the Arabic, Syrian, Persian, and Armenian; with various dialects used by the tribes on the Black sea, indicate the diversity of population.

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**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** The chief epochs of Turkish history have already been mentioned, in describing their European possessions.

**ANTIQUITIES.** The antiquities of Asiatic Turkey, once the chosen seat of the arts, are numerous and important, but have been so repeatedly described as to have become trivial themes, even to the general reader. The most splendid ruins are those of Palmyra, or Tadmor, in the desert, about 150 miles to the S. E. of Aleppo, at the northern extremity of the sandy wastes of Arabia.

Balbec, the ancient Heliopolis, is about 50 miles to the N. W. of Damascus, the most remarkable ruin being that of a temple, supposed to have been dedicated to the sun.

Recent investigation has disclosed another remarkable scene of antiquity, in the site and celebrated plain of Troy. The tombs of remote antiquity having been constructed like the large barrows of our ancestors, in the lasting form of small hills, they withstood the assaults of time, or avarice; and late travellers indicate, with some plausibility, that of Hector, behind the site of Troy; those of Achilles, and Patroclus on the shore; and a few others of the Homeric heroes.

**POPULATION.** The Turkish empire in Asia is estimated at 470,400 square miles; and the population at ten millions; which, allowing eight for the European part, will render the total 18,000,000.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** In general the most striking feature of manners and customs, in the Turkish empire, is that half the people may be considered as somewhat civilized, while the other half are pastoral wanderers, ranging over extensive wastes. This laxity of government renders travelling very unsafe, and has proved a great impediment to any exact geographical knowledge of these regions. Under a wise and energetic government industry and the arts might again visit this classical territory.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** The capital of the Turkish empire has been already described. Next in dignity and importance is the city of Haleb, or Aleppo, supposed to contain about 250,000 inhabitants. This city is constructed with some elegance, and the tall cypress trees, contrasted with the white minarets of numerous mosques, give it a picturesque appearance. The buildings and population seem to have been on the increase, but the adjacent villages



are deserted. The chief languages are the Syrian and Arabic. The manufactures of silk and cotton are in a flourishing condition, and large caravans frequently arrive from Bagdad and Bassora, charged with the products of Persia and India; Consuls from various European powers reside here, to attend the interests of the respective nations.

Damascus is supposed to contain about 180,000 souls. It was formerly celebrated for the manufacture of sabres which seem to have been constructed by a method now lost, of alternate thin layers of iron and steel, so as to bend even to the hilt without breaking, while the edge would divide the firmest mail. The manufactures now consist of silk and cotton, and excellent soap. From the Mediterranean are imported metals and broad cloths; and the caravans of Bagdad bring Persian and Indian articles. This city also increases, the Pashalik of Damascus is esteemed the first in Asia.

Smyrna may be regarded as the third city in Asiatic Turkey, containing about 120,000 souls. This flourishing seat of European commerce is the chief mart of the Levant trade, but the frequent visits of the pestilence greatly impede its prosperity.

Prusa is a beautiful city, in a romantic situation at the northern bottom of mount Olympus. By Tournefort's computation of families, the inhabitants may be about 60,000.

Angora may contain 80,000 inhabitants. The trade is chiefly in yarn, of which our shalloons are made; and in their own manufacture of Angora stuffs, made chiefly of the fine hair of a particular breed of goats.

Tokat is also a flourishing place. The inhabitants are computed at 60,000. The situation is singular, amidst rugged and perpendicular rocks of marble; and the streets are paved, which is a rare circumstance in the Levant. Silk and leather are manufactures of Tokat; but the chief is that of copper utensils, which are sent to Constantinople, and even to Egypt.

Basra, or Bassora, on the estuary of the Euphrates and Tigris, contains 50,000 inhabitants, and is of great commercial consequence, being frequented by numerous vessels from Europe and Asia, and the seat of an English consul.

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The great and romantic Bagdad, the seat of the Califs, and the scene of many eastern fictions, has now dwindled into a town of about 20,000 inhabitants. Not far to the south are some ruins of the celebrated Babylon, which have been ably illustrated in a recent work of Major Rennell.

Many an important city of antiquity has sunk into a village, and even the village often into a mass of rubbish, under the destructive domination of the Turks. The ancient and celebrated city of Jerusalem is reduced to a mean town, chiefly existing by the piety of pilgrims.

**MANUFACTURES.** The chief manufactures of Asiatic Turkey have been already incidentally mentioned. These with rhubarb, and several other drugs, may be regarded as the chief articles of commerce.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The climate of Asia Minor has always been considered as excellent. There is a peculiar softness and serenity in the air, not perceivable on the European side of the Archipelago. The heat of the summer is considerably tempered by the numerous chains of high mountains, some of which are said to be covered with perpetual snow.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** The general appearance of Asiatic Turkey may be regarded as mountainous; but intermingled with large and beautiful plains, which, instead of being covered with rich crops of grain, are pastured by the numerous flocks and herds of the Turcomans. The soil, as may be expected, is extremely various; but that of Asia Minor is chiefly a deep clay; and wheat, barley, and durra, form the chief products of agriculture. But excellent grapes and olives abound; and the southern provinces are fertile in dates. In Syria the agriculture is in the most deplorable condition.

**RIVERS.** The principal river of Asiatic Turkey is, beyond all comparison, the Euphrates, which rises from the mountains of Armenia, a few miles to the N. E. of Erzeron; and chiefly pursues a S. W. direction to Semisat, where it would fall into the Mediterranean, if not prevented by a high ridge of mountains. In this part of its course the Euphrates is joined by the Morad from the east, a stream almost doubling in length that of Euphrates; so that the latter river might more justly be said to spring from mount Ararat, about 160 British miles to the east of

the imputed source. At Semisat, the ancient Samosata, this noble river assumes a southerly direction; then runs an extensive course to the S. E. and after receiving the Tigris, falls by two or three mouths into the gulph of Persia. The comparative course of the Euphrates may be estimated at about 1400 British miles.

Next in importance is the Tigris, which rises to the north of the Medan, about 150 miles south from the sources of the Euphrates, and pursues nearly a regular direction S. E. till it join the Euphrates below Korna, about 60 miles to the north of Bassora; after a comparative course of about 800 miles. The Euphrates and the Tigris are both navigable for a considerable distance from the sea.

The third river in Asiatic Turkey is that called by the Turks Kizil Irmak, the celebrated Halys of antiquity, rising in mount Taurus not far from Erekli, but by other accounts more to the east, and pursuing a winding course to the north, nearly across the whole of Asia Minor, till it join the Euxine sea on the west of the gulph of Sansoun. The river Sacaria, the ancient Sangarius, or Sangaris, rises about 50 miles to the south of Angora, and running to the N. W. joins the Euxine, about 70 miles to the east of Constantinople.

In the next rank may be placed the classical river of Mæander, rising to the north of the ancient city of Apamia; and running, in a winding stream, about 250 British miles. It is called by the Turks Boyue Minder, or the great Mæander, to distinguish it from a small tributary stream, which resembles it in mazes. The Minder, not far from its mouth, is about 100 feet broad; with a swift, muddy, and extremely deep current, having received a considerable accession of waters from the lake of Myus.

The Sarabat, or ancient Hermus, renowned for its golden sands, joins the Archipelago about 90 British miles to the north of the Minder, after a course of similar length.

The other rivers of Asia Minor are far more inconsiderable, though many of them be celebrated in classical history and poetry.

The chief river of Syria is the Orontes, now called Oron or Osi, rising about 80 miles to the N. of Damascus, and running nearly due north till it suddenly turns S. E. near Antioch, after which it soon joins the Mediterranean.

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**LAKES.** Asiatic Turkey also contains numerous lakes. That of Van in the north of Kurdistan, is the most remarkable, being about 80 British miles in length from N. E. to S. W. and about 40 in breadth: it is said to abound with fish.

In Syria, what is called the Dead Sea, may be regarded as a lake of about 50 miles in length, and 12 or 13 in breadth. The lake of Rackama, to the south of Hilla and the ancient Babylon, is about 30 miles in length, and flows into the Euphrates.

Towards the centre of Asia Minor there is a remarkable saline lake, about 70 miles in length, and a mile or two in breadth, being the Tatta or Palus Salsa of D'Anville's ancient geography.

Numerous other small lakes appear in Natolia, among which may be particularly mentioned that of Ulubad, anciently styled the lake of Apollonia, which according to Tournefort is about 25 miles in circumference, and in some places seven or eight miles wide, sprinkled with several isles and some peninsulas, being a grand receptacle of the waters from mount Olympus. The largest isle is about three miles in circuit, and is called Abouillona, probably from the ancient name of the city which stood on it. About 50 miles to the N. E. was the lake called Ascanius by the ancients, now that of Isnik.

**MOUNTAINS.** Many of the mountains of Asiatic Turkey deserve particular attention, from their ancient celebrity. The first rank is due to the Taurian chain of antiquity, which was considered as extending from the neighbourhood of the Archipelago to the sources of the Ganges, and the extremities of Asia so far as discovered by the ancients. But this notion little accords with the descriptions of modern travellers, or the researches of recent geography; and we might perhaps with equal justice infer that the Carpathian mountains, the Alps, and the Pyrenees constitute one chain. Science is equally impeded by joining what ought to be divided, as by dividing what ought to be joined. The Caucasian mountains have been well delineated by the Russian travellers, as forming a range from the mouth of the river Cuban, in the N. W. to where the river Kur enters the Caspian, in the S. E. The remaining intelligence is dubious and defective; but it would seem that a chain extends from Caucasus S. W. to

near the bay of Scanderoon. This ridge seems the Anti-Taurus of antiquity : but various parts of it were known by different names. At the other extremity of the Caucasus other chains branch out into Persia ; which they pervade from N. W. to S. E. but they may all be justly considered as terminating in the deserts of the southeastern part of Persia ; or as having so imperfect a connection with the mountains of Hindoo Koh, which supply the western sources of the Indus, that it would be mere theory to regard them as a continued chain. The chain of Taurus, now called Kurun, perhaps from the old Greek name Ceraunus, extends from about 600 miles E. and W. from the Euphrates to near the shores of the Archipelago. A recent traveller found the ascent and descent, between Aintab and Bostan, to occupy three days ; and the heights abound with cedars, savines, and junipers.

Towards the east of Armenia is Ararat. It is a detached mountain, with two summits ; the highest being covered with eternal snow. In one of the flanks is an abyss, or precipice, of prodigious depth, the sides being perpendicular, and of a rough black appearance, as if tinged with smoke. This mountain belongs to Persia, but is here mentioned on account of connexion.

Beyond Ararat are branches of the Caucasian chain ; to which, as is probable, belong the mountains of Cleved, which seem to be the Niphates of antiquity.

In Syria the most celebrated mountain is that of Lebanon, or Libanus, running in the southerly and northerly direction of the Mediterranean shore, and generally at the distance of about 30 or 40 miles. The Anti-Libanus is a short detached chain, running nearly parallel on the east. These mountains are of considerable height, the summits being often covered with snow ; and they seem to be calcareous, the granite not appearing till the neighbourhood of mount Sinai and the Arabian gulph.

The eastern side of the Archipelago presents many mountains of great height and classical fame, chiefly in ranges extending from N. to S. Of these Olympus (now Keshik Dag) is one of the most celebrated, and is described by Tournefort as a vast range covered with perpetual snow. Many small streams spring from Olympus, and the large lake of Ullabad is another receptacle of its waters.

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About 140 miles to the west of Olympus rises mount Ida, of great though not equal height. The summit of Ida was by the ancients called Garganus; from which extend western prominences reaching to the Hellespont, and amidst them stood the celebrated city of Troy: Garganus, or the summit of Ida, being about 30 miles from the shore; and giving source to the Granicus, the Simois, and other noted streams, most of which run to the north. To the south of the Minder, or Mæander, the Taurus detaches a chain, called Cadmus and Grius, bending towards the isle of Cos and the Cyclades.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** The mountains in Asiatic Turkey are often clothed with immense forests of pines, oaks, beeches, elms, and other trees.

Among the indigenous trees may be distinguished, the olive tree abounding throughout the whole Archipelago and the shores of the Levant; the weeping willow graceful with its slender pendent branches, which has adorned the banks of the Euphrates from time immemorial; the wild olive, bearing a small sweet esculent fruit; the white mulberry; the storax tree, from which exudes the fragrant gum resin of the same name, the pomegranate; almond tree, and peach tree; the cherry, a native of Pontus, whence it was brought to Rome by Lucullus; the lemon and orange; the myrtle, growing plentifully by the side of running streams; the plantain tree; the vine, in a perfectly wild state climbing up the highest trees, and forming verdant grottos among its ample festoons; the mastich, Chio turpentine, and pistachia nut tree; the cypress, the cedar; a few large trees of which still remain on Mount Lebanon, the venerable relics of its sacred forests. The fig tree, and sycamore fig, abounding in Palestine and other parts of Syria; the date tree, the prickly cupped oak, from which are procured the finest Aleppo galls; the oriental plane tree, highly esteemed for its shady tent-like canopy of foliage; and menispermum cocculus, the berries of which, commonly called cocculus indicus, are much used by the natives for taking fish, on account of their narcotic qualities.

Several dying drugs and articles of the materia medica are imported from the Levant, among which may be particularized madder, jalap, scammony, sebesten, croton tinctorium; ricinus communis, the seed of which yields by ex-

pression the castor oil ; squirting cucumber, colocintida ; opium poppy, and spikenard.

The best horses in Asiatic Turkey are of Arabian extract, and are sparingly fed with a little barley and minced straw, to accustom them to abstinence and fatigue ; but mules and asses are in more general use ; beef is scarce and bad. The mutton is superior ; and the kid is a favourite repast.

In Asiatic Turkey appears that king of ferocious animals the lion, yet he rarely roams to the west of the Euphrates : large tygers seem to be restricted to the wastes of Hindostan. The hyæna, and the wild boar, are known animals of Asia Minor, together with troops of jackals, which raise dreadful cries in the night.

The ibex, or rock goat, appears on the summits of Caucasus. The goats of Angora have been already mentioned. The common antelope is also an inhabitant of Asia Minor, with numerous deer and hares.

**MINERALS.** The mineralogy of those extensive and mountainous provinces remains in a deplorable state of imperfection. Ancient Lydia was famous for the production of gold ; but in modern times no mines seem to be indicated, except those of copper which supply Tokat ; lead, and copper ore, with rock crystals, have been observed in the island of Cyprus.

#### ISLANDS BELONGING TO ASIATIC TURKEY.

THE chief islands in the Archipelago, considered as belonging to Asia, are Mytilene, Scio, Samos, Cos, and Rhodes.

Mytilene, the ancient Lesbos, is the most northerly and largest of these isles, being about 40 British miles in length, by 24 at its greatest breadth. The climate is exquisite : and it was anciently noted for wines, and the beauty of the women.

Scio, the ancient Chios, is about 36 British miles in length, but only about 13 in medial breadth. The Chian wine celebrated by Horace, retains its ancient fame. The Greeks here enjoy considerable freedom and ease ; and display such industry that the country resembles a garden. This particular favour arises from the cultivation of the

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mastic tree, or rather shrubs, which supply the gum, so acceptable to the ladies of the sultan's seraglio. Tournefort observed here tame partridges, kept like poultry; and Chandler saw numerous groves of lemons, oranges, and citrons, perfuming the air with the odour of their blossoms, and delighting the eye with their golden fruit. The inhabitants are supposed to be about 60,000.

Samos is about 30 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. Tournefort computes the inhabitants at 12,000, all Greeks. The pottery of Samos was anciently excellent; but at present most branches of industry are neglected. Pitch is prepared from the pine trees in the north part of the island, and the silk, honey, and wax are esteemed.

Cos is about 24 miles in length, by three or four in breadth. It is covered with groves of lemon trees, and there is an oriental plane tree of vast size, and the chief trade is in oranges and lemons.

Rhodes is about 36 British miles in length, by 15 in breadth. It is fertile in wheat, though the soil be of a sandy nature. The population is computed at about 30,000. The city of the same name, in which no Christian is now permitted to dwell, was anciently noted for a colossus in bronze, about 130 feet high. This isle was for two centuries possessed by the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, thence styled of Rhodes, till 1523, when they were expelled by the Turks.

Along the southern shore of Asia Minor, there are some small isles; but they are of no moment when compared with the large and celebrated island of Cyprus, which is about 160 British miles in length, and about 70 at its greatest breadth. In the fifteenth century this isle was possessed by the Venetians; but in 1570 it was seized by the Turks. The soil is fertile, yet agriculture is in a neglected state. The chief products are silk, cotton, wines, turpentine, and timber. The wine of Cyprus is deservedly celebrated. The oranges are excellent; and the mountains are covered with hyacinths and anemonies, and other beautiful flowers. The Cypriots are a tall and elegant race; but the chief beauty of the women consists in their sparkling eyes. To the disgrace of the Turkish government the population of this extensive island is computed at 50,000 souls. So populous was it under the reign of Trajan, that the Jews invaded the island and slew 240,000 of its



inhabitants, since which a Jew is not suffered to enter the island, and so rich as to tempt the avarice of the Romans, who sent thither, to fleece the inhabitants, Cato : he raised a contribution of 7000 talents equal to 2,100,000 crowns. In order to convey this vast sum safely to Rome, he divided it into small portions, which he put up in several boxes, of about two and a half talents each ; and to each box he fastened a long rope with a piece of cork at the end of it ; by which, in case of shipwreck, the treasure might be seen again.

There is not one river in the island, that continues its course in the summer ; but there are many ponds, lakes, and fens, producing a damp and malignant air. The chief cities are Nicosia, the capital and residence of the governor, and Famagusta.

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## RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN ASIA.

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**EXTENT.** THIS large portion of the habitable globe, extends almost the whole length of Asia, from about the 57th degree of longitude east of London to more than 190°, or 133 of western longitude. As the northern latitude is very high, the degree shall only be assumed at 30 miles, and the length may thus be computed at about 4000 geographical miles. The greatest breadth from the cape of Cevero Vostochnoi, called in some maps Taimura, to the Altaian chain of mountains on the south of the sea of Baikal, may be 28° or 1680 geographical miles, an extent which will be found to exceed that of Europe.

**BOUNDARIES.** The farthest eastern boundary is that of Asia, and the seas of Kamchatka and Ochotsk ; while the northern is the Arctic ocean. On the west the frontiers correspond with those between Asia and Europe. The river Cuban, part of the Caucasian chain, and an ideal line, divide the Russian territory from Turkey and Persia on the south. The boundary then ascends through the desert of Issim, till it meets the vast empire of China ; the limits between Russia and Chinese Tatory being partly an ideal line ; and partly the river Argoon, which joined with the Onon constitutes the great river Amur.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The population of Asiatic Russia may be regarded as wholly primitive, except a few Russian colonies recently planted, and the Techuks in the part opposite to America, who have been supposed to have proceeded from that continent, because their persons and customs are different from those of the other Asiatic tribes. The radically distinct languages

amount to seven, independent of many dialects and mixtures.

When the Russians began the conquest of the country, being unconscious of its extent, the name of Sibir, or Siberia which belonged only to a western province was gradually diffused over the whole, comprising half of Asia.

The boundary between China and Russia is the most extensive on the globe, reaching from about the 65th to the 145th degree of longitude; eighty degrees (latitude fifty) computed at 39 geographical miles, will yield the result of 3120 miles. Its history therefore becomes singular and interesting.

**ANTIQUITIES.** The most curious antiquities seem to be the stone tombs which abound in some steppes, particularly near the river Yenesei, representing in rude sculpture human faces, camels, horsemen with lances, and other objects. Here are found besides human bones those of horses and oxen, with fragments of pottery and ornaments of dress.

**RELIGION.** The Grecian system of the Christian faith, which is embraced by the Russians, has made considerable progress in their Asiatic possessions. Many of the Tatar tribes in the S. W. are Mahometans; others follow the superstition of the Dalai Lama, and the more eastern Tatars are generally addicted to the Shaman religion, a system chiefly founded on the self-existence of matter, a spiritual world, and the general restitution of all things. This system is intimately connected with that of the Dalai Lama, and is so widely diffused, that some have asserted Shamanism to be the most prevalent system on the globe.

The archiepiscopal see of Tobolsk is the metropolitan of Russian Asia in the north, and that of Astracan in the south. There is another see, that of Irkutsk and Nershink, and perhaps a few others of recent foundation.

**GOVERNMENT.** Siberia is divided into two great governments, that of Tobolsk in the west, and Irkutsk in the east. In the S. W. is the government of Caucasus, with one or two other divisions, intermingling Europe and Asia. At a distance from the capital the government becomes proportionably lax, and tribute is the chief mark of subjection.

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**POPULATION.** The population of Siberia cannot be computed at above three millions and a half; so that Europe can in future have little to apprehend from the Tataric swarms. Small Russian colonies have been established in several of the distant provinces and isles. The political importance and relations of this part of the Russian empire chiefly relate to China and Japan.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** The manners and customs of Asiatic Russia vary with the numerous tribes by whom that extensive region is peopled.

The manners of the Tatars, who are the most numerous, and the same people with the Huns of antiquity, are minutely described by those authors who have delineated the fall of the Roman empire, prior to which period they seem to have been absolutely unknown to the ancients. The Monguls are wholly Nomadic, their herds consisting of horses, camels, oxen, sheep and goats. The women tan leather, dig the culinary roots, prepare the winter provisions, dried or salted, and distil the koumiss, or spirit of mare's milk. The men hunt the numerous beasts and game that roam through the vast wilds. Their tents are formed of a kind of felt, and in some parts they erect little temples, and the priests have also wooden hovels around the temples. The Kalmuks are divided into three ranks; the nobility, whom they call white bones; the common people, who are bondmen, and termed black bones; and the clergy, descending from both, who are free. The power of the *Taidsha*, or chief prince, consists solely in the number and opulence of his subjects, territory being of no estimation in so wide a region. These subjects form an *Oluss*, divided into *Imaks*, from 150 to 300 families, each Imak being commanded by a *Saissan*, or noble. The tribute is about a tenth part of the cattle and other property; but on the first summons every man must appear on horseback before the prince, who dismisses those who are unfit for the fatigues of war. The weapons are bows, lances, and sabres, and sometimes fire-arms; and the rich warriors are clothed in mail of interwoven rings, like that used in Europe till the fifteenth century.

The Monguls are rather short in stature, with a flat visage, small oblique eyes, thick lips, and a short chin, with a scanty beard; the hair black, and the complexion of a reddish or yellowish brown; but that of the women is clear,

and of a healthy white and red. They have surprising quickness of sight and apprehension, and are docile, hospitable, beneficent, active, and voluptuous. Industry is a virtue entirely female, yet great, and accompanied with perpetual cheerfulness. Their religious books are in the dialect of Tangut, or Tibet, and there is a schoolmaster in every imak, who imparts more knowledge to the boys than would be expected. Animal food is abundant, and sometimes mixed with vegetable, while the general drink is water; but they sometimes indulge in sour milk, prepared after the Tatarian manner, butter milk, and koumiss; but mead and brandy are now greater favourites. When pasturage begins to fail, the whole tribes strike their tents, generally from ten to fifteen times in the year, proceeding in the summer to the northern, and in the winter to the southern wilds.

Such, with some slight shades of difference, are also the manners of the Tatars and Mandshurs.

The three distinct barbaric nations of Tatars, Monguls, and Tunguses, or Mandshurs, are by far the most interesting in these middle regions of Asia, as their ancestors have overturned the greatest empires, and repeatedly influenced the destiny of half the globe.

**LANGUAGE.** The languages of all these original nations are radically different; and among the Tunguses, Monguls, and Tatars, there are some slight traces of literature; and not a few manuscripts in their several languages. In the Mongul language there are also many books, written in the various countries to which their wide conquests extended.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** In Asiatic Russia the principal city is Astracan, at the mouth of the Volga, which is supposed to contain 70,000 inhabitants. The wooden houses have exposed it to frequent conflagrations, and attempts have been vainly made to enforce the use of brick. There are twenty-five Russian churches, and two convents. The Armenians, Lutherans, and Papists, have also their places of worship; and even the Hindoos have been permitted to erect a temple. The chief trade of Astracan is in salt and fish, particularly sturgeon and kaviar from the Volga; and it also attracts some portion of oriental commerce.

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The chief place after Astracan is Orenburg, founded in the year 1740, to protect the acquisitions in these parts, and promote their commerce. Nor have these views failed, for Orenburg is the seat of a considerable trade with the tribes on the east of the Caspian.

On passing the Uralian chain, first occurs the city of Tobolsk, which only contains about 15,000 souls, but is esteemed the capital of Siberia. Tobolsk is more distinguished as the residence of the governor and archbishop, than for the importance of its commerce.

On the river Angara, which issues from the sea of Baikal stands Irkutsk, supposed to contain 12,000 inhabitants. There are several churches and other edifices of stone, and the wooden houses are large and convenient. Irkutsk is the chief mart of the commerce between Russia and China, the see of an archbishop, and the seat of supreme jurisdiction over eastern Siberia.

On the wide and frozen Lena stands Yakutsk, with some stone churches, but the houses are mostly of wood. The Lena is here about two leagues in width, (though about 700 miles from its mouth,) but is greatly impeded with ice.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** There are some manufactures, particularly in leather, at Astracan. Isinglass is chiefly manufactured on the shores of the Caspian, from the sounds or air bladder of the sturgeon, and the beluga. Kaviar is the salted roe of large fish. There is a considerable fabric of nitre, about 40 miles to the north of Astracan. Near the Uralian mountains are several manufactures in iron and copper.

The chief commerce of this part of the Russian empire consists in sables, and other valuable furs, which are eagerly bought by the Chinese, who return tea, silk, and porcelain; that with the Kirguses is carried on by exchanging Russian woollen cloths, iron, and household articles, for horses, cattle, sheep, and beautiful sheep-skins. On the Black Sea there is some commerce with Turkey, the exports being furs, kaviar, iron, linen, &c. and the imports wine, fruit, coffee, silks, rice. In the trade on the Caspian the exports are the same, but the return chiefly silk.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** In Asiatic Russia the climate extends from 50° to 73 N. from the vine at the bottom of Caucasus, to the solitary lichen on the rocks of the Arctic ocean. The general climate may more justly be

regarded as frigid than temperate. The finest climate in the eastern parts seems to be that of Daouria, or the province around Nershinsk; and the numerous towns on the Amur evince the great superiority of what is called Chinese Tatory, which is comparatively a fertile and temperate region.

**SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.** Many parts of Siberia are totally incapable of agriculture; but in the southern and western districts the soil is of remarkable fertility. Toward the north of Kolyvan barley generally yields more than twelve fold, and oats commonly twenty fold. Buckwheat, in this black light mould, is apt to run into stalk, but sown in the poorest spots yields from twelve to fifteen fold. Exclusive of winter wheat, most of the usual European grains prosper in southern Siberia. The best rhubarb abounds on the banks of the Ural, or Jaik in the southern districts.

**RIVERS.** Some of the largest rivers of Asia belong to the Russian empire. The Ob, including its wide estuary, may be said to hold a comparative course of 1,900 British miles, while that of the Yenesei is about 1750, and that of the Lena 1570.

The Ob is navigable almost to its source, that is, to the lake of Altyn, and abounds with fish, but the sturgeon of the Irtish are the most esteemed. After it has been frozen for some time, the water becomes foul and fetid, but is purified in the spring by the melting of the snow.

Next is the Yenesei, which is considered as deriving its source from the mountains to the S. W. of the Baikal, in the river called Siskit; but the name Yenesei is not imparted till many streams have joined, when it holds its course almost due north to the Arctic ocean. This river has some rapids, but is navigable for a great way.

The last of these large rivers is the Lena, which rises to the west of the sea of Baikal, and, till near Yakutsk, pursues a course from the S. W. to the N. E. a direction of considerable utility, as affording navigation to the remote regions. From Yakutsk the course is nearly due north; the channel being of great breadth and full of islands. Such are the three largest rivers of Asiatic Russia; others though of considerable magnitude we must omit.

**LAKES.** In the north of Siberia the most considerable lake is that of Piazinsko. In the south the sea of

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Baikal is fresh, but, the extent far exceeding that of any other lake. Between the river Ob and the Irtysh is a large lake, about half the length of the Baikal, or 170 miles in length, divided by an island into two parts, called the lakes of Tchany and Soumi. In this quarter there are many smaller lakes, and others to the north of the Caspian, some of which are salt, particularly that of Bogdo, near the small mountain so called.

**MOUNTAINS.** The Uralian mountains have been already described in the account of European Russia. The grandest chain in Siberia is that called the mountains of Altai, which, according to Pallas, crossing the head of the Irtysh, presents precipitous and snowy summits between that river and the sources of the Ob. Thence it winds in various courses, and under different names, to the eastern extremity of Asia.

According to Dr. Pallas, Bogdo Tolu, or Bogdo Alim, the Almighty mountain, rears its pointed summits with striking sublimity, on the limit between the Soongarian and Mongolian deserts, while the chain passes south, and is supposed to join those of Tibet.

The western part of the Altaian chain is chiefly argillaceous, with granitic heights, but many parts are calcareous. Sinnaia-Sopka, or the blue mountain, the chief summit in the government of Kolyvan, does not exceed 3000 feet above the sea.

That space of the Altaian chain which runs between the Ob and the Yenesei has been little explored; but affords granite, porphyry, jasper, primitive and secondary limestone, with serpentine, petrosilex, slate, mountain crystal, carnelian, and calcedony: one of the highest summits is the Sabin, near the source of the Abakan. In general they are bare, the chief forests being in the bottoms near the rivers.

The mountains of Nershink, or Russian Daouria, send branches towards the Selinga, and the Amur. Among the products may be named granite, porphyry, jasper, calcedony, carnelian, onyx, large smoaky topazes, beryl, or aqua-marine, the real topaz, and the jacinth. In this opulent district are also salt lakes, and warm springs with vitriolic pyrites, ores of alum, native sulphur, and coal. The metals are zinc, iron, copper, and many mines of lead ore, containing silver and gold.



The classical range of Caucasus forms a partial limit between the Russian empire, and those of Turkey and Persia. Between the Euxine and the Caspian the Caucasian chain extends for about 400 British miles. The summits are covered with eternal ice and snow; and consist as usual of granite, succeeded by slate and limestone. In ancient times they produced gold; and there are still vestiges of silver, lead, and copper; and it is supposed of lapis lazuli. The vales abound with excellent forest trees.

Although Asiatic Russia is so abundant in forests that particular names have not been assigned to so vast an extent, yet the northern and eastern parts of Siberia are bare of wood; the Norway fir not being found farther north than latitude 60°. In Europe, on the contrary, the Norway fir extends to the arctic circle.

**STEPS.** After the forests, may be considered the extensive level plains, almost peculiar to Asia, and some parts of European Russia: but somewhat similar to the sandy deserts of Africa. The stepps are not so barren of vegetation, being mostly only sandy, with scattered patches of thin grass, and at wide intervals a stunted thicket.

On the eastern side of the Volga begins an extensive stepp, formerly called that of the Kalmuks, from tribes who used to roam there, till they withdrew from the Russian dominions in 1771. This vast desert extends about 700 British miles from E. to W. and including Issim, nearly as far from N. to S. but on the N. of the Caspian the breadth does not exceed 220.

The stepp of Barabin, N. W. of Omsk, is about 400 miles in length, and 300 in breadth, containing a few salt lakes, but in general of a good black soil, interspersed with forests of birch. That of Issim aspires but rarely to the same quality: and in both are found many tombs, inclosing the remains of pastoral chiefs, Tatar or Mongul.

The vast space between the Ob, and the Yenesei, from the north of Tomsk to the Arctic ocean, is regarded as one stepp, being a prodigious level with no appearance of a mountain, and scarcely of a hill.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** Russia in Asia, with regard to its vegetable production, is divided by nature into two unequal portions: The smaller of these is bounded on the west by the Don, and Wolga, on the east by the Uralian mountains, and on the south by

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the Caspian sea, and the Turkish, and Persian frontiers. The climate of this district is delicious, and the soil fertile, it slopes towards the south, and is protected from the northern blasts by lofty mountainous ridges; the cedar, the cypress, the savine, red juniper, beech, and oak, clothe the sides of the mountains; the almond, the peach, and the fig abound in the warm recesses of the rocks; the quince, the apricot, the willow-leaved pear, and the vine are of frequent occurrence in the thickets, and on the edges of the forests. The olive, the stately wide-spreading eastern plane tree, the laurel, the bay, and laurustinus, grow in abundance on the shores of the sea of Azof, and the Caspian; and the romantic vales of the Caucasus are perfumed and enlivened with the syringa, the jasmine, the lilach, and the Caucasian rose.

By far the larger part of the Russian dominions in Asia is the wide expanse of Siberia, sloping towards the north, and shut up on the south by the snowy summits of the Altaian, and other mountainous chains. As the winters are of great length and severity throughout the whole of this tract, none but the hardiest vegetables are found to inhabit it. Even the common heath, and bog myrtle, which cover the lower parts of Lapland, venture but a very little way eastward of the Uralian mountains. We are not however hence to conclude that the mighty rivers of Siberia pour their everlasting streams through a barren waste of perpetual snow; on the contrary they are bordered with inexhaustible forests of birch, of alder, of lime, of Tatarian maple, of black and white poplar, and aspen, besides millions of noble trees of the pine species, such as the fir, the Scotch pine, the larch, the stone pine, the yew-leaved fir.

In the greater part of Asiatic Russia the rein deer, which extends to the farther-east, performs the office of the horse, the cow, and the sheep; if we except Kamchatka, where dogs are used for carriage. But the south may perhaps be considered as the native country of that noble animal, the horse, being there found wild, as well as a species of the ass. The terrible urus or bison is yet found in the Caucasian mountains; and the argali, or wild sheep, is hunted in Siberia. The ibex or rock goat is frequent on the Caucasian precipices: and large stags occur in the mountains near the Baikal, with the musk animal; the wild boar, wolves, foxes, and bears, of various names and

descriptions, are also found. That kind of weazel called the sable affords a valuable traffic by its furs. Some kinds of hares appear, little known in other regions; and the castor or beaver is an inmate of the Yenesel.

The horses of the Monguls are of singular beauty, some being ribbed like the tiger, and others spotted like the leopard. The nostrils of the foals are commonly slitted, that they may inhale more air in the course. The three great Nomadic nations of the centre of Asia, the Tatars, Monguls, and Mandshurs, have no aversion to horse flesh, which is in their opinion superior to beef; but it is never eaten raw, as fabled, though they sometimes dry it in the sun and air, when it will keep for a long time, and is eaten without farther preparation. The *adon*, or stud of a noble Mongul, may contain between three and four thousand horses and mares. The cattle are of a middling size, and pass the winter in the steppes or deserts. As these nations use the milk of mares, so they employ the cow for draught, a string being passed through a hole made in their nostril. Mr. Bell met a beautiful Tatar girl astride on a cow, attended by two male servants.

**MINERALS.** The mineralogy of Siberia is equally fertile. Peter the Great, who directed his attention to every object of utility, was the first who ordered these remote mines to be explored.

The chief gold mines of Siberia are those of Catherinburg or Ekatheringburg, on the east of the Uralian mountains, about latitude  $57^{\circ}$ , where an office for the management of the mines was instituted in 1719. The mines of various sorts extend to a considerable distance on the N. and S. of Catherinburg, and the founderies, chiefly for copper and iron, are computed at 125. But the gold mines of Beresof, in this vicinity, were of little consequence till the reign of Elizabeth. The mines of Nershinsk, discovered in 1704, are principally of lead mixed with silver and gold; and those of Kolyvan, chiefly in the Schlangenberg, or mountain of serpents, so called by the German miners, began to be worked for the crown in 1748.

But the iron mines of Russia are of the most solid and lasting importance, particularly those which supply the numerous founderies of the Uralian mountains.

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sal-ammoniac, vitriol, nitre, and natron, are found in abundance.

Nor must the gems of Siberia be omitted, of which there is a great variety. Common topazes are found in Adunshollo, in quadrangular prisms, as is also the jacint. The beryl or aqua-marine is found in what are called the gem mines of Moursintsky near Catherinburg, along with the chrysolite. Red garnets abound near the sea of Baikal; and a yellowish white kind was discovered by Laxman. The green felspar of Siberia is a beautiful stone, by the Russians carved into various ornaments. The Daourin mountains between the Onon and the Argoon also produce elegant onyx; and several other rare and beautiful stones are found in other places.

#### ISLES BELONGING TO ASIATIC RUSSIA.

THESE were formerly divided into the Aleutian, Andrenovian, and Kurilian groups, with the Fox isles, which extend to the promontory of Alaska in North America. Of the Aleutian isles, on the east of Kamchatka, there are only two worth notice, Beering's isle and Cooper isle. The Andrenovian isles may be regarded as the same with the Fox islands, being the western part of the same range; and form a group of six or more isles, about 500 miles to the S. E. of Beering's.

The Kurilian isles extend from the southern promontory of Kamchatka towards the land of Jesso and Japan, being supposed to be about 20 in number, of which the largest are Poro Muschir, and Mokanturu. Several of these isles are volcanic; and some contain forests of birch, alder, and pine. Most of them swarm with foxes of various colours. The inhabitants of the Kurilian isles seem to be of similar origin with the Kamchadals.

## THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

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IN the last century the Chinese emperors, of the Mandshur race, extended this wide empire over many western countries, inhabited by wandering hordes of Monguls, Mandshurs, and Tatars; and established such firm influence over Tibet, that the Chinese empire may now be considered as extending from those parts of the Pacific ocean called the Chinese and Japonic seas, to the rivers Sarason and Sikon in the west, a space of  $81^{\circ}$ , which, taking the medial latitude of  $30^{\circ}$ , will amount to nearly 4,200 geographical, or 4,900 British miles. From N. to S. this vast empire may be computed from the Uralian mountains, lat.  $50^{\circ}$ , to the southern part of China about lat.  $21^{\circ}$ , being 29 degrees of latitude, 1740 geographical, or nearly 2,030 British miles. It may be divided into three parts, viz. China proper, the territory of the Monguls and Mandshurs, and the interior country of Tibet.

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## CHINA PROPER.

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THIS distinguished region is, by the natives, styled Tchou-Koue, which signifies the centre of the earth, as they proudly regard other countries as mere skirts and appendages to their own. After the conquest of the northern part by the descendants of Zingis, it was styled Cathay, while the southern part was known by the appellation of Mangi. The origin of the name of China, or Tsin, seems uncertain; but the connexion between this word and the Sinæ of the ancients appears imaginary, the country of the Sinæ being shown by Gossellin to be much farther to the west. The Mahometan travellers of the ninth century, published by Renaudot, call this country Sin, but the Persians pronounce it Tchou.

China Proper extends from the great wall in the north to the Chinese sea in the south, about 1140 geographical, or 1330 British miles. The breadth from the shores of the Pacific to the frontiers of Tibet may be computed at 884 geographical, or nearly 1030 British miles. In square miles the contents have been estimated at 1,297,999. On the east and south the boundaries are maritime, and to the north they are marked by the great wall and the desert of Shamo; the confines with Tibet on the west seem to be chiefly indicated by an ideal line, though occasionally more strongly marked by mountains and rivers.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The population of China seems wholly aboriginal, but the form of the features appears to imply intimate affinity with the Tatars, Monguls and Mandshurs; yet the Chinese probably constitute a fourth grand division, not strictly derived from either of these barbaric races.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** The Chinese history is said to commence, in a clear and constant narration, about 2500 years before the birth of Christ. The founder of the monarchy is Fo-Hi; but the regular history begins with Yao. The dynasties or families who have successively held the throne amount to 22, from the first named Hia, to the present house of T'sing. Sometimes the monarchy is divided into that of the south, which is esteemed the ruling and superior inheritance; and that of the north. The Mandshurs to the north of China repeatedly influenced the succession to the empire; but the Monguls under Zingis and his successors seized the five northern provinces. Hoaitsing, who began to reign A. D. 1627, was the last prince of the Chinese dynasties. Some unsuccessful wars against the Mandshurs, had rendered this emperor melancholy and cruel; and insurrections arose, the most formidable being conducted by two chiefs Li and Techang. The former besieged Peking, which was surrendered by the general discontent, and the emperor, retiring to his garden, first slew his daughter with his sabre, and afterwards hanged himself on a tree, having only lived 36 years. The usurper seemed firmly seated on the throne, when a prince of the royal family invited the Mandshurs, who advanced under their king Tson Te. The Mandshur monarch had scarcely entered China when he died; and his son of six years of age was declared emperor, the regency being entrusted to his uncle. The young prince named Chun Tchig, was the first emperor of the present dynasty, and has been followed by four princes of the same Mandshur family.

**ANTIQUITIES.** The chief remain of ancient art in China is that stupendous wall, extending across the northern boundary. This work, which is deservedly esteemed among the grandest labours of art, is conducted over the summits of high mountains, some of which rise to the height of 5225 feet, across the deepest vales, over wide rivers by means of arches; and in many parts is doubled or trebled to command important passes and at the distance of almost every hundred yards is a tower or massy bastion. The extent is computed at 1500 miles; but in some parts of smaller danger it is not equally strong nor complete, and towards the N. W. is only a rampart of earth. Near Keopeko the wall is 25 feet in height, and at the top about 15

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feet thick: some of the towers which are square, are 48 feet high and about 50 feet wide.

When this stupendous wall was erected is uncertain; some authors say it has been standing 2000 years, and others only 600.

**RELIGION.** According to Du Halde the ancient Chinese worshipped a supreme being, whom they styled Chang Ti, or Tien. They also worshipped subaltern spirits who presided over kingdoms, provinces, cities, rivers, and mountains. Under this system sacrifices were offered on the summits of hills.

About A. D. 65, the sect of Fo was introduced into China from Hindostan, and the chief tenets are those of the Hindoos, among which is the metempsychosis, or transmigration of souls from one animal to another. The priests are denominated Bonzes, and Fo is supposed to be gratified by the favour shewn to his servants.

Since the fifteenth century many Chinese literati have embraced a new system, which acknowledges an universal principle, under the name of Taiki, seeming to correspond with the soul of the world of some ancient philosophers. The Chinese believe also in petty demons who delight in minute acts of evil, or good. They admit of monasteries; and the Chinese temples are always open, nor is there any subdivision of the month known in the country.

**GOVERNMENT.** The government of China is well known to be patriarchal. The emperor is indeed absolute; but the examples of tyranny are rare, as he is taught to regard his people as his children, and not as his slaves. All the officers of government pass through a regular education, and a progress of rank, which are held indispensable. Of these officers, who have been called mandarins, there are nine classes, from the judge of the village to the prime minister. The profession requiring a long and severe course of study, the practice of government remains, like that of medicine, unshaken by exterior events; and while the imperial throne is subject to accident and force, the remainder of the machine pursues its usual circle.

The governors of the provinces have great and absolute power, yet rebellions are not unfrequent. Bribery is also an universal vice; and the Chinese government, like many others, is more fair in the theory than in the practice. Yet the amazing population, and the general ease and happi-



ness of the people, evince that the administration of the government must be more beneficent than any yet known among mankind.

Agreeably to a table published by Sir G. Staunton there are in China Proper 18 provinces, 1,297,999 square miles, and 333,000,000 of inhabitants.

The army has been computed at 1,000,000 of infantry, and 800,000 cavalry; and the revenues at about thirty-six millions and a half of Tahels, or ounces of silver, or about nine millions sterling; but as rice and other grain are also paid in kind, it may be difficult to estimate the precise amount or relative value compared with European money.

Sir G. Staunton, estimates the revenue at 200,000,000 of silver, which, he says, is equal to 66,000,000*l.* sterling; but valuing the ounce of silver at five shillings, the amount is 50,000,000*l.*

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** The Chinese being a people in the highest state of civilization, their manners and customs might require a long description; the limits of this work will only admit a few hints. In the sea ports there is an appearance of fraud and dishonesty; but it is to be supposed that this is not the general character. The indolence of the upper classes, who are even fed by their servants, and the nastiness of the lower, who eat almost every kind of animal, in whatever way it may have died, are also striking defects, occasioned, perhaps, by dire necessity in so populous a country. To the same cause may be imputed the exposition of the infants. On the other hand the character of the Chinese is mild and tranquil, and universal affability is very rarely interrupted by the slightest tincture of harshness or passion. The general drink is tea, of which a large vessel is prepared in the morning for the occasional use of the family during the day. Marriages are conducted solely by the will of the parents, and polygamy is allowed. The bride is purchased by a present to her parents, and is never seen by her husband till after the ceremony. It is not permitted to bury in cities or towns, and the sepulchres are commonly on barren hills and mountains, where there is no chance that agriculture will disturb the dead. The colour of mourning is white, that personal neglect or forgetfulness may appear in its squalor. The walls of the houses are sometimes of brick, or of hardened clay, but more commonly of wood; and they generally

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consist only of a ground floor, though in those of merchants there be sometimes a second story, which forms the warehouse. The dress is long with large sleeves, and a flowing girdle of silk. The shirt and drawers vary according to the seasons, and in winter the use of furs is general from the skin of the sheep to that of the ermine. The head is covered with a small hat in the form of a funnel, but this varies among the superior classes, whose rank is distinguished by a large bead on the top, diversified in colour according to the quality.

**LANGUAGE.** The language is esteemed the most singular on the face of the globe. Almost every syllable constitutes a word and there are scarcely 1500 distinct sounds; yet in the written language there are at least 80,000 characters, or different forms of letters, so that every sound may have about 50 senses. The leading characters are denominated keys, which are not of difficult acquisition. The language seems originally to have been hieroglyphical; but afterwards the sound alone was considered.

**EDUCATION.** The schools of education are numerous, but the children of the poor are chiefly taught to follow the business of their fathers. In a Chinese treatise of education published by Du Halde, the following are recommended as the chief topics. 1. The six virtues, namely, prudence, piety, wisdom, equity, fidelity, concord. 2. The six laudable actions, to wit, obedience to parents, love to brothers, harmony with relations, affection for neighbours, sincerity with friends, and mercy with regard to the poor and unhappy. 3. The six essential points of knowledge, that of religious rites, music, archery, horsemanship, writing, and accounts. Such a plan seems well calculated to make good citizens.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** The chief cities of China are Pekin and Nankin, or the northern and southern courts. Pekin occupies a large space of ground; but the streets are wide, and the houses seldom exceed one story. The length of what is called the Tatar city is about four miles, and the suburbs are considerable. By the best information which the recent embassy could procure, the population was computed at 3,000,000. The houses indeed are neither large nor numerous; but it is common to find three generations with all their wives and children under one

roof, as they eat in common, and one room contains many beds. The walls of this capital are of considerable strength and thickness; and the nine gates of no inelegant architecture. Strict police and vigilance are observed, and the streets are crowded with passengers and carriages. The grandest edifice is the imperial palace, which consists of many picturesque buildings, dispersed over a wide and greatly diversified space of ground, so as to present the appearance of enchantment.

Nankin, which was the residence of the court till the fifteenth century, is a yet more extensive city than Pekin, and is reputed the largest in the empire. The walls are said to be about seventeen British miles in circumference.

The chief edifices are the gates with a few temples; and a celebrated tower clothed with porcelain, about 200 feet in height, which seems to have been chiefly erected as a memorial, or an ornament, like the Grecian and Roman columns.

To the American reader one of the most interesting cities is Canton, which is said to contain a million and a half of inhabitants; numerous families residing in barks on the river. The chief export is that of tea, of which it is said that about 13,000,000 of pounds weight are consumed by Great Britain and her dependencies, about 5,000,000 by the rest of Europe, and above 2,000,000 by the United States. The imports from England, chiefly woollens, with lead, tin, furs, and other articles, are supposed to exceed a million; and the exports a million and a half, besides the trade between China and their possessions in Hindostan. Other nations carry to Canton the value of about 200,000*l.* and return with articles to the value of about 600,000*l.* So that the balance in favour of China may be computed at a million sterling.

The other large cities of China are almost innumerable; and many of the villages are of a surprising size.

**EDIFICES.** The most striking and peculiar edifices in China are the pagodas or towers, which sometimes rise to the height of nine stories, of more than twenty feet each. The temples, on the contrary, are commonly low buildings, always open to the devout worshippers of polytheism.

**ROADS.** The roads are generally kept in excellent order, with convenient bridges. That near the capital is thus described by Sir George Staunton: "This road forms

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a magnificent avenue to Peking for persons and commodities bound for that capital, from the east and from the south: It is perfectly level; the centre, to the width of about 20 feet, is paved with flags of granite, brought from a considerable distance, and of a size from six to sixteen feet in length, and about four feet broad. On each side of this granite pavement is a road unpaved, wide enough for carriages to cross upon it. The road was bordered in many places with trees."

**INLAND NAVIGATION.** The canals of China have long excited the envy and wonder of other nations. The imperial canal which, in utility and labour, exceeds the enormous wall, is said to have been begun in the tenth century of the Christian era, 30,000 men having been employed for 43 years in its completion.

"The ground which intervened between the bed of this artificial river, and that of the Eu-ho, was cut down to the depth of about 30 feet, in order to permit the waters of the former to flow with a gentle current into the latter. Their descent is afterwards checked occasionally by flood-gates thrown across the canal, wherever they were judged to be necessary. They consist merely of a few planks let down separately one upon another, by grooves cut into the sides of the two solid abutments or piers of stone, that project one from each bank, leaving a space in the middle wide enough to admit a passage for the largest vessels employed upon the canal. As few parts of it are entirely level, the use of these flood-gates assisted by others cut through its banks, is to regulate the quantity of water in the canal.

"Light bridges of timber are thrown across those piers, which are easily withdrawn whenever vessels are about to pass underneath."

The same author describes this canal as beginning at Lin-sin-choo, where it joins the river Eu-ho, and extending to Han-choo-foo, in an irregular line of about 500 miles. Where it joins the Hoan-ho, or Yellow River, it is about three quarters of a mile in breadth.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** The manufactures of China are so multifarious as to embrace almost every article of industry. The most noted manufacture is that of porcelain, and is followed in trade by those of silk, cotton, paper, &c.

The internal commerce of China is immense, but the external trade unimportant, considering the vastness of the empire; a scanty intercourse exists with Russia and Japan: but the chief export is that of tea, which is sent to England to the value of about one million yearly.

... **CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The European intercourse with China, being chiefly confined to the southern part of the empire, the climate is generally considered as hot, whereas at Pekin in the north the average degree of the thermometer is under 20° in the night during the winter months; and even in the day it is considerably below the freezing point.

**FACE OF THE COUNTRY.** The face of the country is infinitely diversified; and though in a general view it be flat and fertile, and intersected with numerous large rivers and canals, yet there are chains of mountains and other districts of a wild and savage nature.

The soil is various, and agriculture by the account of all travellers is carried to the utmost degree of perfection.

"Where the face of the hill or mountain is not nearly perpendicular to the level surface of the earth, the slope is converted into a number of terraces, one above another, each of which is supported by mounds of stone. By this management it is not uncommon to see the whole face of a mountain completely cultivated to the summit. Pulse, grain, yams, sweet potatoes, onions, carrots, turnips, and a variety of other culinary plants are produced upon them. A reservoir is sunk in the top of the mountain. The rain-water collected in it is conveyed by channels successively to the different terraces, placed upon the mountain's sides.

"The collection of manure is an object of so much attention with the Chinese, that a prodigious number of old men and women, as well as of children, incapable of much other labour, are constantly employed about the streets, public roads, banks of canals, and rivers, with baskets tied before them, and holding in their hands small wooden rakes to pick up the dung of animals and offals of any kind that may answer the purpose of manure; but above all others, except the dung of fowls, the Chinese farmers prefer night soil. This manure is mixed sparingly with a portion of stiff loamy earth, and formed into cakes dried afterwards in the sun. In this state it sometimes becomes an

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object of commerce, and is sold to farmers, who never employ it in a compact state.

"The quantity of manure thus collected must however be still inadequate to that of the cultured ground, which bears so vast a proportion to the whole surface of the country. It is reserved therefore in the first instance, for the purpose of procuring a quick succession of culinary, vegetables, and for forcing the production of flowers and fruit.

"The great object of Chinese agriculture, the production of grain, is generally obtained with little manure, and without letting the land lie fallow. Irrigation is practised to a very great extent. The husbandry is singularly neat, and not a weed is to be seen."

**RIVERS.** In describing the rivers of this great empire, two are well known to deserve particular attention, namely, the Hoan-ho and the Kian-ku. The sources of the first, also called the Yellow River, from the quantity of mud which it devolves, are two lakes, situated about the 35th° of north latitude, and about 97th° east from Greenwich. This prodigious river is extremely winding and devious in its course, and discharges itself into the Yellow Sea. Its comparative course may be estimated at about 1800 British miles: and its velocity equals seven or eight miles in the hour.

The Kian-ku rises in the vicinity of the sources of the Hoan-ho, and winds nearly as far to the south as the Hoan-ho does to the north. After washing the walls of Nankin it enters the sea about 100 miles to the south of Hoan-ho. Its length is estimated at about 2200 English miles. These two rivers may be considered as the longest on the face of the globe; they certainly equal if they do not exceed, the famous river of the Amazons in South America.

**LAKES.** Nor is China destitute of noble and extensive lakes. Du Halde informs us that the lake of Tong-tint-hou, in the province of Hou-quang, is more than 80 leagues in circumference. That of Poyang-hou, in the province of Kiang-si, is about 30 leagues in circumference. Upon a lake near the imperial canal were observed thousands of small boats and rafts, constructed for a singular species of fishery. "On each boat or raft are ten or a dozen birds, which, at a signal from the owner, plunge into the water; and it is astonishing to see the enormous size

of fish with which they return grasped within their bills, without swallowing any portion of their prey, except what the master was pleased to return to them for encouragement and food."

**MOUNTAINS.** Concerning the extensive ranges of Chinese mountains, no general and accurate information has yet been given. From Mr. Arrowsmith's recent map of Asia it appears that a considerable branch extends from those in central Asia, running south to the river Hoan-ho. Two grand ranges running E. and W. intersect the centre of the empire, seemingly continuations of the enormous chains of Tibet. In the southern part of China the principal ridges appear to run from north to south.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** Among the trees and larger shrubs we find particularized the *thuya orientalis*, an elegant evergreen; the camphor tree, whose wood makes an excellent and durable timber, and from the roots of which that fragrant substance camphor is procured by distillation; the oleander-leaved euphorbia, a large shrub used as a material for hedges; the tallow tree, from the fruit of which a green wax is procured that is manufactured into candles; the spreading banyan tree, growing among loose rocks; the weeping willow; Spanish chesnut, and the larch. Of the fruit trees the following are the principal: China orange; the plantain tree; the tamarind; the white and paper mulberry tree; the former of these is principally cultivated for the use of its leaves, on which the silk worms are fed; and of the bark of the latter, paper, and a kind of cloth are made. Nor must the two species of the tea tree be left unnoticed, whose leaves constitute so large a proportion of the European trade with China.

There are few animals peculiar to the Chinese territory. Du Halde asserts that the lion is a stranger to this country, but there are tigers, buffaloes, wild boars, bears, rhinoceroses, camels, deer, &c. The musk deer is a singular animal of China as well as Tibet. Among the birds many are remarkable for their beautiful forms and colours, in which they are rivalled by a variety of moths and butterflies.

**MINERALS.** Among the metals lead and tin seem to be the rarest. China possesses mines of gold, silver, iron, white copper, common copper and mercury, together with

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In many of the northern provinces coal is found in abundance. The common people generally use it pounded with water, and dried in the form of cakes.

Pekin is supplied from high mountains in the vicinity, and the mines seem inexhaustible, though the coal be in general use.

Tutenag, which is a native mixture of zinc and iron, seems to be a peculiar product of China, and in the province of Houquang there was a mine which yielded many hundred weight in the course of a few days.

### CHINESE ISLANDS.

Numerous isles are scattered along the southern and eastern coast of China, the largest being those of Taiwan, also called Formosa, and that of Hainan. Formosa is a recent acquisition of the Chinese in the latter end of the seventeenth century; the natives being, by the Chinese accounts, little better than savages.

The southern part of Hainan is mountainous, but the northern more level and productive of rice. In the centre there are mines of gold; and on the shores are found small blue fishes, which the Chinese esteem more than those which we call gold and silver fish.

The isles of Leoo-keoo, between Formosa and Japan, constitute a little civilized kingdom tributary to China. These isles were discovered by the Chinese in the seventh century; but it was not till the fourteenth that they became tributary to China.



## CHINESE TATARY.

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THIS extensive region might more properly be called Mongolia, as the greater number of tribes are Monguls; or the western part might be styled Tatory, the middle Mongolia, and the eastern Mandshuria. The two latter are the objects of the present description; as that of Independent Tatory will be found after the account of Persia with which it has (as now limited) in all ages been connected.

**EXTENT.** This wide and interesting portion of Asia, which has repeatedly sent forth its swarms to deluge the arts and civilization of Europe, extends from the 72<sup>d</sup> of longitude east from Greenwich to the 145<sup>th</sup>, a space of not less than 73<sup>o</sup> of longitude, which at the medial latitude of 45<sup>o</sup>, will yield about 3100 geographical miles. The breadth from the northern frontier of Tibet to the Russian confines is about 18<sup>o</sup>, or 1080 geographical miles.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The original population of this part of Asia appears to have been indigenal, so far as the most ancient records extend. Part of the west was held by the Scythæ of antiquity, seemingly a Gothic race, who were subdued or expelled by the Tatars or Huns from the east, pressed on the other side by the Monguls. Beyond the latter were the Mandshurs, who, though inferior to the Monguls in power, yet retained their ancient possessions, and in the seventeenth century conquered China.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** The chief historical epochs of the region we now contemplate may perhaps be more certainly traced in the Chinese annals, than in any other documents. The first appearance of the Huns or Tatars may be observed in the pages of Roman history. The annals of the Monguls, the most important nation, faintly

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illuminate the pages of Abulgasi, whence it would appear that prior to Zingis there was only one celebrated chan named Oguz, who seems to have flourished about the 130th year of the Christian æra. The reigns of Zingis and Timur are sufficiently known in general history; but the divisions of their conquests, and the dissensions of their successors, have now almost annihilated the power of the Monguls, and the terror of their arms.

**RELIGION.** The religion most universally diffused in this part of Asia is what has been called Shamanism, or the belief in a supreme author of nature, who governs the universe by the agency of numerous inferior spirits of great power.

**GOVERNMENT.** The government at present is conducted by princes who pay homage to the Chinese empire, and receive Chinese titles of honour; but many of the ancient forms are yet retained. Though writing be not unknown among the Monguls, yet the laws appear to be chiefly traditional.

**POPULATION:** Of the population of these regions it is difficult to form any precise ideas; but perhaps it does not exceed six millions.

**DIVISIONS.** The country of the Mandshurs is by the Chinese divided into three great governments. 1. That of Chinyang: the chief town is Chinyang, still a considerable place, with a mausoleum of Kunchi, regarded as the conqueror of China, and the founder of the reigning family. 2. The government of Kiren-Oula, which extends far to the N. E. Kirem the capital stands on the river Songari, and was the residence of the Mandshur general who acted as viceroy. 3. The government of Tsitchicar, so called from a town recently founded on the Nonni Oula where a Chinese garrison is stationed.

In this division may also be mentioned Corea, which has for many centuries acknowledged the authority of China, and which boasts a considerable population.

To the west are various tribes of Monguls, whose country may be considered under three divisions. 1. That part called Gete which some regard as the country of the ancient Massagetæ. 2. Little Bucharia, so called to distinguish it from the Greater Bucharia; the people of Little Bucharia are an industrious race of a distinct origin, who are little mingled with their Kalmuk or Mongul lords. 3.

The countries of Turfan to the north of the lake called Lok Nor, and that of Chamil or Hami to the east, regions little known, and surrounded with wide deserts.

**ARMY.** A numerous horde of barbarians, unskilled in modern tactics.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.** The manners and customs, language and literature of the Monguls have been already briefly described in the account of Asiatic Russia.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** This extensive portion of Asia contains several cities and towns, generally constructed of wood, and of little antiquity or duration. They are mostly inconsiderable, and too uninteresting to an American reader to be enumerated.

**TRADE.** The principal trade of the Mandshur country consists in ginseng and pearls, found in many rivers which fall into the Amur. Excellent horses may also be classed among the exports. Cashgar was formerly celebrated for musk and gold. Corea also produces gold, silver, iron, beautiful yellow varnish, and white paper, ginseng, with small horses about three feet high, furs, and fossil salt. The other towns are rather stations for merchants than seats of commerce.

**CLIMATE, &c.** Though the parallel of central Asia correspond with that of France, and part of Spain, yet the heights and snows of the mountainous ridges occasion a degree and continuance of cold little to be expected from other circumstances.

**FACE OF THE COUNTRY.** The appearance of this extensive region is diversified with all the grand features of nature, extensive chains of mountains, large rivers, and lakes. But the most singular feature is that vast elevated plain, supported like a table, by surrounding mountains. This prodigious plain, the most elevated continuous region on the globe, is intersected by some chains of mountains, and by the vast desert of Cobi or Shamo. Destitute of plants and water, it is dangerous for horses, but is safely passed with camels. This desert extends from about the 80th° of E. longitude from Greenwich to about the 110th°, being 30° of longitude, which in the latitude of 40°, may be 1380 geographical miles.

**AGRICULTURE.** Among the southern Mandshurs, and the people of Little Bucharia, agriculture is not wholly

neglected so extensively, and infinitely sand.

**RIVERS.** pervade the country by the H. among the mountains, and miles.

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**ANIMALS.** the globe view of the Alps, and the wild animals like swine, The wild horses with long

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**ISLANDS.**

Till this navigator L. Vol. I.

neglected, nor is wheat an unknown harvest. The soil of so extensive a portion of the earth may be supposed to be infinitely various; but the predominating substance is black sand.

**RIVERS.** There are many considerable rivers that pervade central Asia, but the most important is that called by the Russians the Amur, which is deservedly classed among the largest rivers; rising near the Yablonoi mountains, and pursuing an easterly course of about 1850 British miles.

**LAKES.** Some of the lakes are of great extent, as those of Balkash or Tengis, and Zaizan, each about 150 miles in length. Next is the Koko Nor, by some called Hoho Nor, or the blue lake, which gives name to a tribe of the Monguls.

**MOUNTAINS.** On the west the great chain called Imaus by the ancients, the Belur Tag, or Dark Mountains of the natives, runs from north to south.

In the eastern country of the Mandshurs the ridges of mountains are laid down in the same direction.

Of the northern mountains of Tibet, and the sources of the Ganges, our knowledge remains imperfect. Still fainter light falls on the ridges which run in an easterly and westerly direction to the north of the great desert.

There are some forests near the rivers; but in general the extreme elevation and sandy soil of central Asia render trees almost as rare as in the deserts of Africa.

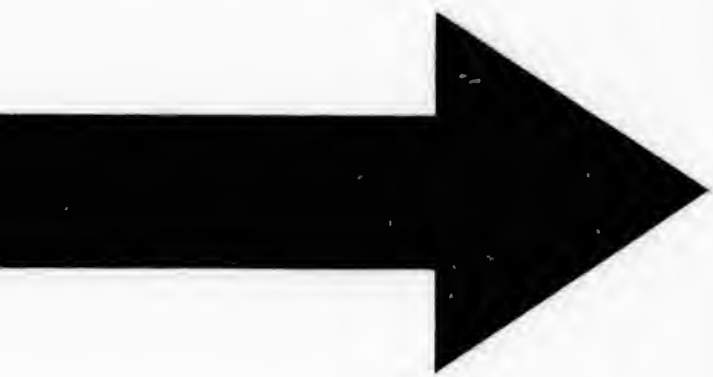
**ANIMALS.** The zoology of this wide portion of the globe would supply an infinite theme, in which the camel of the desert might appear with the rock goat of the Alps, and the tiger with the ermine. The wild horse, and the wild ass, and a peculiar species of cattle which grunt like swine, are among the most remarkable singularities. The wild horse is generally of a mouse colour, and small, with long sharp ears.

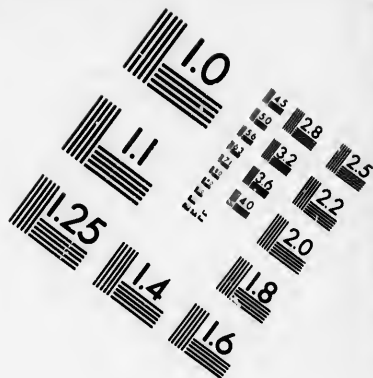
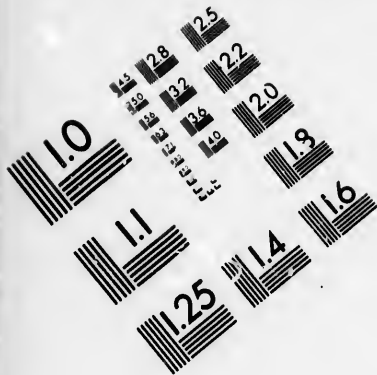
**MINERALS.** The mineralogy of central Asia has been little explored.

### ISLAND OF SAGALIAN, OR TCHOKA.

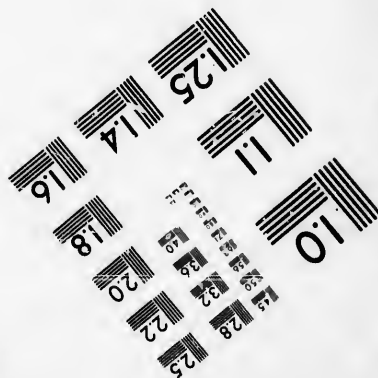
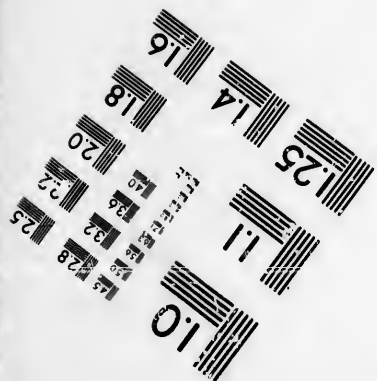
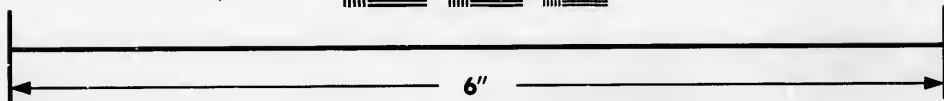
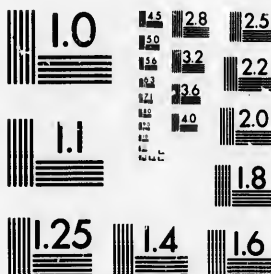
Till this large island was explored by the unfortunate navigator La Perouse, it was supposed to be only a small







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isle at the mouth of the Amur. It is now found to extend from the 46th° of latitude to the 54th°, or not less than 480 geographical miles in length, by about 80 of medial breadth, and is the most important portion of that navigator's voyage. The natives seem to approach to the Tataric form; their dress is a loose robe of skins, or quilted nankeen, with a girdle. Their huts, or cabins, are of timber, thatched with grass, with a fireplace in the centre. The people are highly praised by La Perouse as a mild and intelligent race.

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## TIBET.

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THE name of *Tibet*, which is probably Hindoo or Persian, is in the country itself, and in Bengal, pronounced *Tibbet* or *Tibt*. But the native appellation is *Puë* or *Puë Koachim*, said to be derived from *Puë*, signifying northern, and *Koachim*, snow, that is the snowy region of the north.

**EXTENT.** According to the most recent maps, Tibet extends from about the 75th to the 101st degree of longitude, which in the latitude of 30° may be about 1350 geographical miles. The breadth may be regarded as extending from the 27th to the 35th degree of latitude, or about 480 geographical miles. The original population has not been accurately examined; but it may perhaps be concluded that they are derived from the Bootanese, a race of men which approaches the Tataric, though they cannot be regarded as Mandshurs, Monguls, or Tatars proper.

**PROVINCES.** Tibet is divided into three parts, Upper, Middle, and Lower. Upper Tibet chiefly comprises the province of Nagari, full of horrible rocks, and mountains covered with eternal snow. Middle Tibet contains the provinces of Shang, Ou, and Kiang: while the provinces of Lower Tibet are Takbo, Congbo, and Kahang.

To these must be added the wide region of Amdoa, if it be not the same with Kahang, but it seems more probably to embrace the confines towards China, as the natives are remarkably ingenious, and speak the Chinese language. The N. E. part was, with the Chinese province of Shensi, before the great wall was extended in this quarter, the celebrated Tangut of oriental history and geography. On the western side, high mountains, covered with perpetual snow, and with all the terrible avalanches, and other features of the Swiss Alps, have in all ages prevented the Per-

sians and the conquerors of Bucharia from invading this country, and have also prevented travellers from penetrating into that quarter of the globe.

About 1715 the emperor of China being desirous to obtain a map of Tibet, two Lamas were sent who had studied geometry in a mathematical academy. These lamas drew a map from Sining, in the province of Shensi, to the sources of the Ganges; which was afterwards examined by the Jesuits, and improved by them, so far as their materials would admit.

But the geography of Asia cannot be said to be complete till we have new and correct maps of the central parts, particularly of Tibet, which may be called the heart of Asia. The sources of the Ganges and Indus, the Sampoo, and all the prodigious and fertile streams of exterior India, and of China, belong to this interesting region.

**RELIGION.** The religion of Tibet seems to be the schismatical offspring of that of the Hindoos. It bears a very close affinity with the religion of Brahma in many important particulars, but differs materially in its ritual, or ceremonial worship. Tibetans assemble in chapels, and unite together in prodigious numbers to perform their religious service, which they chaunt in alternate recitative and chorus, accompanied by an extensive band of loud and powerful instruments.

**GOVERNMENT.** The ruling government is the spiritual, though the lama was accustomed to appoint a *tifa*, or secular regent, a right which has probably passed to the Chinese emperor. The laws must, like the religion, bear some affinity to that of the Hindoos.

**POPULATION.** No estimate of the population of Tibet seems to have been attempted; but as the country may be said to be wholly mountainous, and the climate excessively cold, even under the 27th degree of latitude, (the influence of mountains being far superior to that of imaginary zones,) the people are thinly scattered, and the number of males far exceeds that of females, and of course the latter are indulged in a plurality of husbands. There is every reason to suppose the population is inconsiderable.

**REVENUES.** The revenues of the lama, and of the secular princes, seem to be trifling; nor can Tibet ever aspire to any political importance. In a commercial point of view, friendship and free intercourse with Tibet might

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open new advantages to the British settlements in Bengal; and in this design repeated envoys to the lama were sent by Mr. Hastings, a governor who possessed the most enlarged and enlightened mind, and an active attention to the interests of his country.

**CHARACTER, &c.**

Mr. Turner represents the character of the Tibetans as extremely gentle and amiable. The men are generally stout, with something of the Tataric features, and the women of a ruddy brown complexion, heightened like the fruits by the proximity of the sun, while the mountain breezes bestow health and vigour.

“The ceremonies of marriage are neither tedious nor intricate in Tibet. Their courtships are carried on with little art, and quickly brought to a conclusion. The priests of Tibet, who shun the society of women, have no share in these ceremonies, or in ratifying the obligation between the parties, which, it seems, is formed indissolubly for life.”

Such is the respect paid to the lama, that his body is preserved entire in a shrine; while those of the inferior priests are burnt, and their ashes preserved in little hollow images of metal. But in general the dead bodies are exposed to the beasts and birds of prey, in walled areas; and an annual festival is held, as in Bengal and China, in honour of the dead.

**LANGUAGE.** The origins of the Tibetan speech have not been properly investigated. The literature is chiefly of the religious kind, the books being sometimes printed with blocks of wood, on narrow slips of thin paper, fabricated from the fibrous root of a small shrub. In this practice they resemble the Chinese; while the Hindoos engrave their works with a steel stylus upon the recent leaves of the palmyra tree, (*borassus flabelliformis*,) affording a fibrous substance, which seems indestructible by vermin. The writing runs from the left to the right, as in the languages of Europe.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** Of the cities and towns of Tibet little is known. The capital is Lassa.

This capital is situated in a spacious plain, being a small city, but the houses are of stone, and are spacious and lofty. The noted mountain of Putela, on which stands the palace of the Lama, is about seven miles to the east of the city.

**EDIFICES.** Among the edifices, the monasteries may be first mentioned. Mr. Turner describes that of Teshoo Loomboo, as containing three or four hundred houses, inhabited by monks, besides temples, mausoleums, and the palace of the sovereign pontiff. The buildings are all of stone, none less than two stories in height, with flat roofs, and parapets composed of heath and brushwood. Some of the palaces and fortresses are described and delineated by Mr. Turner; and the architecture seems respectable. The roads amidst the rocky mountains resemble those of Switzerland, and are particularly dangerous after rain.

**MANUFACTURES, &c.** The chief manufactures of Tibet seem to be shawls, and some woollen cloths; but there is a general want of industry; and the fine undermost hair of the goats, from which shawls are manufactured, is chiefly sent to Cashmir. The principal exports are to China, consisting of gold dust, diamonds, pearls, lamb skins, some musk, and woollen cloths. Many of the Chinese imports are manufactured articles. To Nipal, Tibet sends rock salt, tincal, or crude borax, and gold dust; receiving in return base silver coin, copper, rice, and coarse cotton cloths. Through Nipal is also carried on the chief trade with Bengal, in gold dust, tincal, and musk. The returns are broad cloth, spices, trinkets, emeralds, sapphires, lazulite, jet, amber, &c.

**CLIMATE.** "In the temperature of the seasons in Tibet a remarkable uniformity prevails, as well as in their periodical duration and return. The spring is marked, from March to May, by a variable atmosphere; by heat, thunder storms, and occasionally with refreshing showers. From June to September is the season of humidity, when heavy and continued rains fill the rivers to their brim, which run off from hence with rapidity to assist in inundating Bengal. From October to March a clear and uniform sky succeeds, seldom obscured either by fogs or clouds. For three months of this season a degree of cold is felt, far greater perhaps than is known to prevail in Europe."

**SOIL AND CULTIVATION.** From the same intelligent traveller we learn that Bootan, with all its confused and shapeless mountains, is covered with eternal verdure, and abounds in forests of large and lofty trees. The sides of the mountains are improved by the hand of industry,

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and crowned with orchards, fields, and villages. Tibet Proper, on the contrary, exhibits only low, rocky hills, without any visible vegetation, or extensive arid plains of an aspect equally stern. Yet Tibet produces great abundance and variety of wild fowl and game; with numerous flocks of sheep and goats, and herds of cattle, and is infested by many beasts of prey.

The nature of the soil here prohibits the progress of agriculture. The vales are commonly laid under water on the approach of winter: in the spring they are ploughed and sown, while frequent showers, and a powerful sun, contribute speedily to mature the crops. The autumn being clear and tranquil, the harvest is long left to dry on the ground, and when sufficiently hardened is trod out by cattle. The course of cultivation is wheat, peas, and barley; rice being confined to a more southern soil.

**RIVERS.** The chief river of Tibet is, beyond all comparison, the Sampoo or Berhanpootar, which rising in the western region, from the same lofty mountains that give source to the Ganges, proceeds first in an E. and S. E. direction; then it bends S. W. and flows into the estuary of the Ganges, after a farther course of about 400 British miles.

Many other considerable rivers are believed to derive their sources from the mountains of Tibet, which may be styled the Alps of Asia.

**LAKES.** These Alpine regions contain, as usual, many lakes, the most considerable being represented under the name of Terkiri, about 80 British miles in length, and 25 broad. So great is the severity of the cold, that even the smaller lakes in the south of Tibet Proper are in the winter frozen to a great depth.

**MOUNTAINS.** The vast ranges of Tibetan mountains have already been repeatedly mentioned; but there is no accurate geographical delineation of their course and extent.

From these great ranges many branches extend N. and S. as in the Alps, and their names may perhaps be traced, but with little accuracy, in the general map of Tibet, and atlas of the provinces.

**ANIMALS.** In Bootan few wild animals are observable, except monkeys; but Tibet abounds with game of various descriptions. The horses are of a small size, but

spirited. The cattle are also diminutive. The flocks of sheep are numerous, commonly small, with black heads and legs; the wool soft, and the mutton excellent. It is a peculiarity of the country that the latter food is generally eaten raw. When dried in the frosty air it is not disagreeable in this state, to an European palate.

The goats are numerous and celebrated for producing a fine hair, which is manufactured into shawls, and which lies beneath the exterior coarse coat. Nor must the singular breed of cattle be forgotten, called Yak by the Tatars, covered with thick long hair; the tail being peculiarly flowing and glossy, and an article of luxury in the east, where it is used to drive away the flies, and sometimes dried for ornaments.

The musk deer delights in intense cold. The musk, which is only found in the male, is formed in a little tumour at the navel; and is the genuine and authentic article so styled, being commonly black, and divided by thin cuticles.

**MINERALS.** The mineralogy is best known from the account appended to Mr. Turner's Journey in 1783, from which it appears that Bootan does not probably contain any metal except iron, and a small portion of copper; while Tibet Proper, on the contrary, seems to abound with rich minerals. Gold is found in great quantities, sometimes in the form of dust, in the beds of rivers, sometimes in large masses and irregular veins. There is a lead mine, two days journey from Teshoo Lumboo. Cinnabar, rich in quicksilver, is also found; and there are strong indications of copper.

The most peculiar product of Tibet is tincal, or crude borax, found in a lake about fifteen days journey from Teshoo Lumboo. The tincal is deposited or formed in the bed of the lake; and those who go to collect it dig it up in large masses, which they afterwards break into small pieces for the convenience of carriage, exposing it to the air to dry. It is used in Tibet for soldering, and to promote the fusion of gold and silver. Rock salt is universally used for all domestic purposes in Tibet, Bootan and Nipal.

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## JAPAN.

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THE kingdom, or, as it is by some styled, the empire of Japan, has, by most geographers, been classed among the Asiatic isles, and may in some measure be compared with Great Britain and Ireland, forming a grand insular power near the eastern extremity of Asia, like that of the British isles near the western extremity of Europe.

Marco Polo, the father of modern Asiatic geography, mentions Japan by the name of Zipangri or Zipangu. The inhabitants themselves call it Nipon or Nifon, and the Chinese Sippon and Jepuen.

**EXTENT.** This empire extends from the 30th to the 41st degree of N. latitude; and according to the most recent maps, from the 131st to the 142d degree of E. longitude from Greenwich. We shall pass over many smaller isles, as by far the most important is that of Nipon. The grand isle of Nipon is in length from S. W. to N. E. not less than 750 British miles; but is so narrow in proportion, that the medial breadth cannot be assumed above 80, though in two projecting parts it may double that number. These islands are divided into provinces and districts, as usual in the most civilized countries.

To the N. of Nipon is another large isle, that of Jesso, or Chicha, which having received some Japanese colonies, is generally regarded as subject to Japan; but being inhabited by a savage people, is rather considered as a foreign conquest than as a part of this civilized empire.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The Japanese seem to be a kindred race with the Chinese, though, according to Kämpfer, the languages be radically distinct. But if com-



pared with that of Corea, the nearest land, and the latter with the Chinese, perhaps a gradation might be observable.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** The history of their own country is universally studied by the Japanese; and Kämpfer has produced an elaborate abstract, divided into three epochs, the fabulous, the doubtful, and the certain. Passing by the two first, we shall take notice of the last period.

The third, or certain period, begins with the hereditary succession of the ecclesiastical emperors, styled Dire, from the year 660 before the Christian era, to the year of Christ, 1585, during which 107 princes of the same lineage governed Japan. At the last period the secular princes assumed the supreme authority. In general the reigns are pacific; though at very distant intervals the Mandshurs and Coreans occasionally invaded Japan, but were always defeated by the valour of the inhabitants. In 1585 the generals of the crown, or secular emperors, who were also hereditary, assumed the supreme power; the Dairis being afterwards confined, and strictly guarded, that they might not reassume their ancient authority.

**ANTIQUITIES.** The Europeans have not explored this country enough to be acquainted with its antiquities, if it really possesses any worthy of notice.

**RELIGION.** The established religion of Japan is a polytheism, joined with the acknowledgment of a supreme creator. There are two principal sects, that of Sinto and that of Budso. The first acknowledge a supreme being, far superior to the little claims and worship of man, whence they adore the inferior deities as mediators, the idea of a mediator being interwoven in almost every form of religion. They abstain from animal food, detest bloodshed, and will not touch any dead body.

The priests are either secular or monastic; the latter alone being entrusted with the mysteries. The festivals and modes of worship are cheerful, and even gay; for they regard the gods as beings who solely delight in dispensing happiness. Besides the first day of the year, and the three or four other grand festivals, the first day of the month is always kept as a holiday. There are several orders of monks and nuns, as in the Roman Catholic system.

They believe in the metempsychosis or transmigration of souls, the wicked being supposed to migrate into the bodies of animals, till they have undergone a due purgation.

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Soon after the discovery of this country by the Portuguese, jesuitic missionaries arrived in 1549; and their successors continued to diffuse their doctrine till 1638, when 37,000 Christians were massacred. Not contented with their station, that intriguing order endeavoured to introduce themselves into the governing councils of the nation. Since that memorable epoch Christianity has been held in supreme detestation; and the cross, with its other symbols, are annually trampled under foot; but it is a fable that the Dutch are constrained to join in this ceremony.

**GOVERNMENT.** The Kubo, or secular emperor, is now hereditary and sole monarch of the country. Yet occasionally his authority has been controverted; and Japan has been ravaged by many civil wars. The ecclesiastical dignities were of six orders, some belonging to particular offices, others merely honorary. The secular prince is accustomed to confer, with the consent of the dairi, two honorary ranks, equivalent to our noblemen and knights. The ecclesiastical court is chiefly occupied with literary pursuits, the dairi residing at Miaco; and his court remains though not in its former splendour.

The government of each province is intrusted to a resident prince, who is strictly responsible for his administration, his family remaining at the emperor's court as hostages; and he is himself obliged to make an annual appearance, the journey being performed with great pomp, and accompanied with valuable presents. The emperor, as in the feudal times of Europe, derives his chief revenue from his own estate, consisting of five inferior provinces, and some detached towns. Each Prince enjoys the revenues of his fief or government, with which he supports his court and military force, repairs the roads and defrays every civil expense.

The superiority of the laws of Japan over those of Europe, has been loudly proclaimed by Kämpfer. The parties themselves appear, and the case is determined without delay. Thunberg informs us that the laws are few, but rigidly enforced, without regard to persons, partiality, or violence. Most crimes are punished with death; but the sentence must be signed by the privy council at Jedo. Parents and relations are made answerable for the crimes of those whose moral education they ought to have superintended. The police is excellent, there not only being a

chief magistrate of each town, but a commissary of each street, elected by the inhabitants to watch over property and tranquillity. Two inhabitants in their turn nightly patrol the street to guard against fire.

The best proof that the laws are salutary is that few crimes are committed, and few punishments are inflicted. The brief code, according to Thunberg, is posted up in every town and village, in large letters, on a spot surrounded with rails.

**POPULATION.** All travellers agree that the population is surprising, although a great part of the country be mountainous. Thunberg observes that the capital Jedo, is said to be 63 British miles in circumference, and at any rate rivals Pekin in size. Kæmpfer says that the number of people daily travelling on the highways is inconceivable, and the *tokaido*, the chief of the seven great roads, is sometimes more crowded than the most frequented streets of European capitals. Perhaps a pretty safe estimate may be formed of the population of Japan by supposing it to equal that of China; and the former country being about one tenth part the size of the latter, the population will of course be about 30,000,000.

**ARMY, &c.** The army has been estimated by Varenus at more than half a million; and the character of the people is singularly brave and resolute. The navy, like that of the other oriental powers, is beneath notice. The Japanese vessels are open at the stern, so that they cannot bear a boisterous sea.

**REVENUES.** The revenues of this empire are stated by Varenus at 2834 tons of gold, on the Flemish mode of computation; and taking the ton at only 10,000*l.* sterling, the amount would be 28,340,000*l.* sterling, besides the provinces and cities which are immediately subject to the emperor. The emperor besides the large revenues of his provinces, has a considerable treasure in gold and silver, disposed in chests of 1000 taels, or thayls, each being nearly in value to a Dutch rix dollar, or about four shillings and four pence English money.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** "The people of this nation are well made, active, free and easy in their motions, with stout limbs, although their strength is not to be compared to that of the northern inhabitants of Europe. They are of a yellowish colour all over, sometimes bordering on

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brown, and sometimes on white: Ladies of distinction, who seldom go out in the open air without being covered, are perfectly white. It is by their eyes, that, like the Chinese, these people are distinguishable. These organs have not that rotundity which those of other nations exhibit; but are oblong, small, and are sunk deeper in the head, in consequence of which these people have almost the appearance of being pink-eyed. Their heads are in general large, and their necks short; their hair black, thick, and shining, from the use they make of oils. Their noses, though not flat, are yet rather thick and short."

This highly civilized people are supposed to be free from the mean tricks of the maritime Chinese. They use great varieties of food and sauces. The master or mistress of the house is not harassed with the trouble of carving, the meat being previously cut into small pieces, served up in basons of porcelain, or japanned wood. The general drink is sacki, or beer made of rice; which last article also supplies the place of bread. They use many kinds of vegetables and fruits. The use of tea is also universal; but wine and spiritous liquors are unknown. The use of tobacco seems to have been introduced by the Portuguese; and the practice of smoking has become general.

The houses of the Japanese are of wood, coloured white, so as to resemble stone: and though roomy and commodious, never exceed two stories in height, the upper serving for lofts and garrets, and seldom being occupied. Each house forms but one room, which may be divided into apartments at pleasure, by moveable partitions sliding in grooves. They use neither chairs nor tables, sitting on straw mats, the meal being served apart to each on a small square wooden salver.

The dress consists of trowsers: and what we call night gowns, or loose robes of silk or cotton, are universally worn by both sexes. These are fastened by a girdle; the number being increased according to the coldness of the weather. Stockings are not used; and the shoes are commonly of rice straw. The men shave the head from the forehead to the nape, but the hair on the sides is turned up and fastened at the crown of the head: conical hats made of grass are worn on journeys, but the fashion of wearing the hair forms the common economical covering of the head.

**LANGUAGE.** Thunberg has published a curious vocabulary of the Japanese language, which seems indeed to have little connexion with the monosyllabic speech of the Chinese. There are also dictionaries drawn up by the Jesuits.

**LITERATURE.** In the sciences and literature the Japanese yield to few of the oriental nations. This sensible people study house-keeping, or domestic economy, as an indispensable science; and next to this every Japanese is versed in the history of his country. Astronomy is cultivated, but has not arrived at much perfection. They survey with tolerable accuracy; and their maps are as exact as their imperfect instruments will permit. The art of printing is ancient, but they use blocks, not moveable types, and only impress one side of the paper. Some of their arts and manufactures even surpass those of Europe. There are excellent workmen in iron and copper; and to no eastern country do they yield in manufactures of silk and cotton; while in varnishing wood they are well known to have no equals. Glass is also common; and they even form telescopes. The porcelain is deemed superior to that of China. Their swords display incomparable skill; and many varieties of paper are prepared from the bark of a species of mulberry tree.

There are many schools in which the children are taught to read and write; their education being accomplished without the degradation of personal chastisement, while courage is instilled by the repetition of songs in praise of deceased heroes.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** The capital city of the Japanese empire is Jedo, centrally situated on a bay in the S. E. side of the chief island Nipon. The houses never exceed two stories, with numerous shops towards the streets. The harbour is so shallow that an European ship would be obliged to anchor at the distance of five leagues. A fire happened in this city in the year 1772, which is said to have consumed six leagues in length, and three in breadth: and earthquakes are here familiar as in other regions of Japan. The emperor's palace is surrounded with stone walls, and ditches with draw bridges, forming of itself a considerable town, said to be five leagues in circumference.

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Miaco, the spiritual capital, and second city of the empire is placed in an inland situation about 160 miles S. W. from Jedo, on a level plain. Yet it is the first commercial city, and is celebrated for the principal manufactures. It is also the seat of the imperial mint: and the Dairi's court being literary, all books are printed here. Kämpfer informs us, that upon an enumeration taken in 1674, the inhabitants were found to amount to 405,642, of whom were males 182,070; and 223,572 females, without including the numerous attendants of the Dairi.

**EDIFICES.** The imperial palace, like those of the Chinese, consists of many dwellings, occupying an immense space. The saloon of the hundred mats is 600 feet in length by 300 in breadth. There is a high square tower which consists of several stages richly decorated; and most of the roofs are ornamented with golden dragons. The pillars and ceilings are of cedar, camphor, and other precious woods; but the only furniture consists of white mats, fringed with gold. As might be expected among so industrious a people, the roads seem to be maintained in excellent order.

**MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.** The inland commerce is very considerable, being free and exempted from imposts. The harbours are crowded with large and small vessels; the high roads with various goods; and the shops well replenished. Large fairs are also held in different places, to which there is a great concourse of people. The trade with China is the most important, consisting of raw silk, sugar, turpentine, drugs, &c. while the exports are copper in bars, lackered ware, &c. The Japanese coins are of remarkable form, the gold being called Kobangs. The silver called Kodama sometimes represents Daikok, the god of riches, sitting upon two barrels of rice, with a hammer in his right hand, and a sack at his left.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The heat of summer is in Japan extremely violent, and would be insupportable, were not the air cooled by the sea breezes. Equally severe is the cold in winter, when the wind blows from the north or north-east. There are abundant falls of rain, especially in the rainy months, which begin at midsummer, and this is the chief cause of the fertility of Japan.

Thunder is not unfrequent; and tempests, hurricanes, and earthquakes are every common. The greatest degree

of heat, at Nagasaki was  $98^{\circ}$ , in the month of August; and the severest cold in January  $35^{\circ}$ .

**FACE OF THE COUNTRY, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** Though there be some plains of considerable extent, yet the country in general consists of mountains, hills, and valleys, the coast being mostly rocky and precipitous, and invested with a turbulent sea. The soil in itself may be said to be rather barren; but the prolific showers conspire with labour and manure to overcome even this obstacle. Agriculture is a science in the highest estimation with this sensible people, so that except the most barren and untractable mountains, the earth is universally cultivated; and even most of the mountains and hills. If any portion be found uncultivated it may be seized by a more industrious neighbour. Manure is laid upon the plants, when they have attained the height of about six inches, so that they instantly receive the whole benefit, and weeding is carried to the utmost degree of nicety.

Rice is the chief grain; buck-wheat, rye, barley, and wheat being little used. The sweet potatoe is abundant; with several sorts of beans and peas, turnips, cabbages, &c. The rice is sown in April, and gathered in November: in which last month the wheat is sown, and reaped in June. The barley also stands the winter. From the seed of a kind of cabbage lamp-oil is expressed; and several plants are cultivated for dying; there are also cotton shrubs, and mulberry trees, which last feed abundance of silk worms. The varnish and camphor trees, the vine, the cedar, the tea tree, and the bamboo reed, not only grow wild, but are planted for numerous uses.

**RIVERS.** The rivers of Nipon have not been delineated with much care. Among the few named are the Nogafa, the Jedogawa, and the Ojingava; of which we know little more than the names; the last is one of the largest and most dangerous in the country, though not subject, like the others, to swell during rains.

**LAKES.** One of the chief lakes seems to be that of Oitz, which emits two rivers, one towards Miaco, the other towards Osaka, and it is said to be fifty Japanese leagues in length, each about an hour's journey on horseback; but the breadth is inconsiderable.

**MOUNTAINS.** The principal Japanese mountain is that of Fusi, covered with snow almost throughout the

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Near the lake of Oitz is the delightful mountain of Jesan; which is esteemed sacred, and is said to present not less than 3000 temples.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** The ginger, the soy-bean, black pepper, sugar, cotton, and indigo, though perhaps natives of the more southern regions of Asia, are cultivated here with great success, and in vast abundance. The Indian laurel and the camphor tree are found in the high central parts of Japan, as is also the rhus vernix, from the bark of which exudes a gum resin that is supposed to be the basis of the exquisitely beautiful and inimitable black varnish. Besides the common sweet or China orange, another species, the citrus japonica, is found wild. Two kinds of mulberry are met with, both in an indigenous and cultivated state, the one valuable as the favourite food of the silk worm, the other esteemed for the white fibres of its inner bark, which are manufactured into paper. The larch, the cypress, and weeping willow, the opium, poppy, white lily, and jalap, are found here. The trumpet-flower (bignonia catalpa) is common to this part of Asia and Peru; in which circumstance it resembles the vanilla, whose berries form an article of commerce, being largely used in the preparation of chocolate. The tallow tree, the plantain, the cocoa-nut tree, and two other palms, adorn the wood-land tracts, especially near the sea-shore, by the variety of their growth and foliage.

Neither sheep nor goats are found in the whole empire of Japan; the latter being deemed mischievous to cultivation, while the abundance of cotton recompenses the want of wool. Swine are also deemed pernicious to agriculture; and only a few appear in the neighbourhood of Nagasaki. The number of horses in the empire were computed by Thunberg as only equal to those of a single Swedish town. Still fewer cattle are seen; as the Japanese neither use their flesh nor their milk, but employ them only in ploughing or drawing carts. The food consists almost entirely of fish and fowl, with vegetables. Geese and common ducks are domesticated, chiefly on account of their eggs. A few dogs are kept from motives of superstition; and the cats are favourites of the ladies.



There are some wolves and foxes : these last being universally detested, and considered as demons incarnate.

**MINERALS.** "That the precious metals, gold and silver, are to be found in abundance in the empire of Japan has been well known, both to the Portuguese, who formerly exported whole ship loads of them, and to the Dutch in former times. Gold is found in several parts, and perhaps Japan may in this respect contest the palm with the richest country in the world : but in order that this metal may not lose its value, by becoming too plentiful, it is prohibited to dig more than a certain stated quantity ; not to mention that no metallic mine, of any kind whatever, can be opened and wrought without the emperor's express permission.

"Copper is quite common in every part of the empire, and is richly impregnated with gold, constituting the main source of the wealth of many provinces. It was not only formerly exported in amazing quantities, but still continues to be exported, both by the Dutch and Chinese merchants.

"Iron seems to be scarcer than any other metal in this country.

"Brimstone is found in great abundance in Japan. Pit-coal is likewise to be met with in the northern provinces."

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# THE BIRMAN EMPIRE.

COMPRISING THE  
KINGDOMS OF AVA AND PEGU.

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THE Birman empire derives its name from the Birman, who have been long known as a warlike nation in the region formerly styled INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES; the capital city of their kingdom being Ava or Awa. Pegu is by the natives styled Bagoo; being the country situated to the south of the former, and justly inferred to have been the Golden Chersonese of the ancients.

**EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES.** It is difficult to ascertain with precision the boundaries of the Birman empire. Mr. Symes informs us, that "it appears to include the space between the 9th and 26th degree of north latitude, and between the 92d and 107th degree of longitude east of Greenwich; about 1050 geographical miles in length, and 600 in medial breadth.

To the north the Birman empire is divided by mountains from Asam, a country little visited or known; and farther to the east it borders on Tibet and China. On the west a range of mountains and the little river Naaf divide the Birman possessions from the British dominions in Bengal; and the limit is continued by the sea. But the southern and eastern boundaries still remain obscure.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The original population of this region can be only guessed at. It is probably a branch of the great Hindoo family.

**HISTORY.** The Birman, a brave and warlike race formerly subject to the king of Pegu, became afterwards

masters of Ava, and caused a revolution in the former country about the middle of the sixteenth century, when they took Martaban.

They continued to exercise their supremacy over Pegu till about the year 1740, when a civil war arose, during which the Peguese in 1750 and 1751 gained several victories over the Birmans; and in 1752 Ava was besieged and taken.

When Binga Della, king of Pegu, had completed the conquest of Ava, he returned to his own country. All wore the aspect of tranquil submission, when Alompra, a Birman of low extraction, who was only the chief of a small village, with one hundred devoted followers, attacked a band of fifty Peguese, whom he put to the sword: he afterwards defeated a small force sent against him; and about the autumn of 1753, took possession of Ava, while the Peguese government seems to have been lost by mere infatuation. Alompra proceeding in his conquests, founded the town now well known by the name of Rangoon, which signifies "victory achieved." In 1756 he blockaded Syrian, which yielded to his arms; he next advanced against the city of Pegu, situated on an extensive plain, and then surrounded with no mean fortifications, while the stupendous pagoda of Shomadoo served as a citadel. This capital was invested in January 1757, and in about three months became a prey to the Birmans.

Alompra next determined to chastise the Siamese, for the encouragement they had given to his rebellious subjects, and ordered a fleet to sail to Merghi, a sea-port belonging to the Siamese, which was easily taken, and was followed by the conquest of Tanaserim a large and populous city.

The victor next advanced against the capital of Siam; but two days after the siege had commenced, Alompra was seized with a deadly disease, which saved the Siamese from destruction. He died within two days march of Martaban, about the 15th May, 1766, regretted by his people, who at once venerated him as their deliverer, and as a great and victorious monarch.

Shembuen, second son of Alompra, continued the war against Siam; and in 1766 two armies entered that country from the N. and S. and, being united, defeated the Siamese about seven days journey from their capital. After

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a blockade of two months the city capitulated; a Siamese governor being appointed who swore allegiance to the Birman sovereignty, and engaged to pay an annual tribute.

The Chinese, apprehensive of the progress of these conquests, advanced an army from the province of Yunnan, but were completely defeated by the Birmans. The Siamese though vanquished remained unsubdued; and there is an inveterate enmity betwixt the nations, which will prevent either servitude or alliance. A Siamese prince assumed the monarchy, and in 1771, defeated the Birmans, while the arms of Shembuen were employed in the conquest of Cachar. He died at Ava in 1776, and was succeeded by his son Chenguza, whose tyrannical conduct occasioned a conspiracy in 1782, at the head of which was Shembuen Minderagee, the present monarch, younger brother of the deceased Shembuen.

Minderagee determined to pass the mountains of Anoupec, and subdue Aracan. This conquest was commenced in 1783, and was speedily effected.

The Birman arms were now once more turned against Siam, and in 1785 a fleet was sent to subdue the isle of Junkseilon. Meeting with a repulse, the Birman monarch left his capital at the head of 30,000 men, with a train of 20 field pieces; but was defeated by the king of Siam, who in his turn failed in an invasion of the Birman possessions to the south. In 1793 a treaty was ratified between the Birmans and Siamese, by which the latter ceded the western maritime towns as far S. as Merghi inclusive. But with this exception, and that of some northern provinces, the Siamese monarchy retains a considerable portion of its ancient fame. Hence it appears that the Birman empire can scarcely be computed to extend beyond the 102d degree of longitude, and that only in the part to the north of Siam.

**RELIGION.** The Birmans follow the worship of Hindostan. They believe in the transmigration of souls, after which the radically bad will be condemned to lasting punishment, while the good shall enjoy eternal happiness in the mountain Meru.

**LAWS AND GOVERNMENT.** "The Birman system of jurisprudence is replete with sound morality, and is distinguished above any other Hindoo commentary for perspicuity and good sense; it provides specifically for

almost every species of crime that can be committed, and adds a copious chapter of precedents and decisions, to guide the inexperienced in cases where there is doubt and difficulty. Like the immortal Menu, it tells the prince and the magistrate their duties in language austere, manly, and energetic."

Though the form of government be despotic, yet the king consults a council of ancient nobles. There are no hereditary dignities nor employments: on the demise of the possessor, they revert to the crown. Rank is also denoted by chains, with various divisions (3, 6, 9, or 12) and by the form and material of various articles in common use.

**POPULATION.** Colonel Symes states the population of the Birman dominions at 17,000,000, confessedly however the result of a very vague estimate.

**ARMY AND NAVY.** Every man in the empire is liable to military service, but the regular army is very inconsiderable. During war the viceroys raise one recruit from every two, three, or four houses, which otherwise pay a fine of about 40*l.* sterling. The family of the soldier is detained as hostages, and in case of cowardice or desertion suffer death; a truly tyrannic mode of securing allegiance. But the war boats form the chief military establishment, consisting of about 500, formed out of the solid trunk of the teak tree. They carry from 50 to 60 rowers, the prow being solid, with a flat surface, on which a piece of ordnance is mounted. Each rower is provided with a sword and lance, and there are 30 soldiers armed with muskets.

**REVENUES.** The revenue arises from one tenth of all produce, and of foreign goods imported: the amount is uncertain: but it is supposed that the monarch possesses immense treasures.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** The general disposition of the Birmans is as strikingly contrasted with that of the Hindoos, as if they had been situated at the opposite extremities of the globe. The Birmans are a lively inquisitive race, active, irascible, and impatient; the unworthy passion of jealousy, which prompts most nations of the east to immure their women within the walls of an haram, seems to have scarcely any influence over the minds of this extraordinary and more liberal people. Birman wives and daughters are not concealed from the sight of men, and are suffered to have as free intercourse with each

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other, as the rules of European society admit; but in other respects women have just reason to complain of their treatment; they are considered as not belonging to the same scale of the nation as men, and are generally occupied in the labours of the loom. In war the men display the ferocity of savages, while in peace they can boast a considerable degree of gentleness and civilization. They are fond of poetry and music, and among their instruments is the heem, resembling the ancient pipe of Pan, formed of several reeds neatly joined together.

**LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.** The alphabet represents 33 simple sounds, and is written from left to right like the European. The Birman books are more neatly executed than those of the Hindoos, and in every *kioul* or monastery, there is a library or repository of books. Colonel Symes was surprised at the number contained in the royal library, in which the large chests amounted to about 100. The books were regularly classed, and the contents of each chest were written in gold letters on the lid.

**CITIES.** The new capital Ummerapoor, with its spires, turrets, and lofty obelisk, denoting the royal presence, seems to rise like Venice, from the waters, being placed between a lake on the S. E. and a large river with numerous isles on the N. W. The number and singularity of the boats moored in the lake, and the surrounding amphitheatre of lofty hills, conspire to render the scene grand and interesting. The fort is an exact square, with public granaries and store rooms; and there is a gilded temple at each corner, nearly 100 feet in height, but far inferior to others in the vicinity of the capital. In the centre of this fort stands the royal palace, with a wide court in front, beyond which is the Lotoo, or hall of council, supported by 77 pillars, disposed in eleven rows.

Ava, formerly the capital, is in a state of ruin. "The walls are now mouldering into decay, ivy clings to the sides, and bushes suffered to grow at the bottom, undermine the foundation, and have already caused large chasms in the different faces of the fort. The lines of the royal palace, of the Lotoo or grand council hall, the apartments of the women, and the spot on which the piasath or imperial spire had stood, together with all the other buildings exhibit a most striking picture of desolation and ruin.

Pegu, formerly the capital of a kingdom, is also in ruins; having been razed by Alompra, in 1757, the praws

or temples being spared; and of these the vast pyramid of Shomadoo has alone been revered, and kept in repair. It is seated on a double terrace, one side of the lower being 1391 feet, of the upper 684. The building is composed of brick and mortar, octagonal at the base, and spiral at the top, without any cavity or aperture. At the summit is a Tee, or sacred umbrella, of open iron work gilt, 56 feet in circumference; the height of the whole being 361 feet, and above the inner terrace 331 feet. Tradition bears that it was founded about 500 years before Christ.

One of the chief ports of the Birman empire, is Rangoon, which though, like the capital, of recent foundation, is supposed to contain 30,000 souls.

The grand river of Irrawady is bordered with numerous towns and villages. Persain, or Bassien, stands on its western branch. At a considerable distance to the north is Prome, celebrated as the scene of many long sieges and bloody conflicts. The number of inhabitants exceeds that of Rangoon.

**EDIFICES.** The most remarkable edifice is the Shomadoo before described. The Kioums are often of singularly rich and fantastic architecture. Colonel Symes has published a view of the grand hall of audience, perhaps as splendid an edifice as can well be executed in wood. His reception at the "golden feet," such is the term used for the imperial presence, was also remarkably grand, the pomp in some degree corresponding with that of the ancient Byzantine emperors.

**MANUFACTURES.** The Birmans excel in gilding, and several other ornamental manufactures. The edifices and barges are constructed with singular oriental taste and elegance.

A considerable trade is carried on between the capital and Yunan, the nearest province of China, consisting chiefly in cotton, with amber, ivory, precious stones, and betel nut; the returns being raw and wrought silks, velvets, gold leaf, preserves, paper, and some utensils of hard ware. European broad cloth and hard ware, coarse Bengal muslins, China ware, and glass, are imported by foreigners. The Birmans, like the Chinese, have no coin; but silver in bullion, and lead are current.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The vigorous health of the natives attests the salubrity of the climate, the seasons

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being regular, and the extremes of heat and cold little known.

**SOIL AND PRODUCE.** "The soil of the southern provinces of the Birman empire is remarkably fertile, and produces as luxuriant crops of rice as are to be found in the finest parts of Bengal. Farther northward the country becomes irregular and mountainous; but the plains and valleys, particularly near the river, are exceedingly fruitful; they yield good wheat, and the various kinds of small grain which grow in Hindostan; as likewise legumes and most of the esculent vegetables of India. Sugar canes, tobacco of a superior quality, indigo, cotton, and the different tropical fruits in perfection, are all indigenous products of this favoured land."

**RIVERS.** The geography of the rivers is yet imperfect. The chief river is the Irrawady, which probably passes by Moguang to Bamoo, and thence by Ummerra-poora and Prome towards the sea, which it joins by many mouths, after a comparative course of near 1200 British miles.

**MOUNTAINS.** It is probable that the highest range of mountains is on the frontiers of Tibet, of which and the other ranges we have no satisfactory delineations.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** It is in those parts of the torrid zone that abound with water, and where, from the influence of the monsoons, the country is extensively flooded every year, that vegetation assumes a vigour and sublimity wholly inconceivable by the natives of more temperate climates: everlasting verdure, grace, and majesty of form, height and amplitude of growth, are the distinguishing attributes of their trees, compared with which the monarchs of our forests sink into vegetables of an inferior order: the same exuberance of nature is conspicuous in their shrubs and herbaceous plants, in their blossoms and their fruits, whose vivid brilliancy of colour, singularity of shape, aromatic fragrance, and exalted flavour, reduce to relative insignificance the puny produce of European summers.

Here rises in proud magnificence the white sandal tree, whose fragrant wood is in high request through the whole east for the grateful odour of its smoke. The teak tree (*tectona theca*) is at least equal even to British oak as a durable material for ship building: the true jet black ebony



wood is the produce of one of the indigenous trees of Cochinchina. The sycamore fig, the Indian fig, and the banyan tree itself a grove, by the breadth of their leaves and the luxuriance of their foliage, afford a most delicious shelter, impenetrable even by the meridian ardour of an Indian sun.

The ginger and cardamom, two pleasant aromatics, are found wild on the river sides; the turmeric, whose principal use in Europe is as a dying drug, is used by the natives to tinge and flavour their rice and other food: the leaves of the betel pepper, with the fruit of the black and long pepper, are the most favourite of their native spices, to which may also be added three or four kinds of capsicum. The cinnamon laurel grows in abundance, and sometimes accompanied by the nutmeg. The sugar cane, the bamboo, and the spikenard, are found throughout the whole country; as are the sweet potatoe, mad apple and love apple, gourds, melons, water melons, and a profusion of other esculent plants; the plantain, the mango and pine apple, the cocoa nut, and sago palm.

The animals in general correspond with those of Hindostan. Elephants principally abound in Pegu. The horses are small but spirited. A kind of wild fowl called the henza, and by the Hindoos the braminy goose, has been adopted as the symbol of the empire, like the Roman eagle.

**MINERALS.** The mineralogy of this region, the Golden Chersonese of the ancients, is opulent, and some products rather singular. The rivers of Pegu still continue to devolve particles of gold; and their sands must in ancient times have been yet more prolific of that precious metal; as is evinced by the practice of gilding the roofs and spires of temples and palaces, and this splendid appearance might naturally give rise to the classical appellation of the country. Mines of gold, silver, rubies, and sapphires are at present open on a mountain called Woobolootaun, near the river Keen Duem. Amber also, extremely pure and pellucid, is dug up in large quantities.

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## MALAYA, OR MALACCA.

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THE peninsula appended to the Birman territories on the south is styled Malaya or Malacca.

The Portuguese are regarded as the first discoverers of Malacca in 1509; to which they were led by the vain idea of finding the golden Chersonese of the ancients. In 1511 they conquered the peninsula, and held it till 1641, when it was seized by the Dutch.

The modern limits are not strictly defined; but Malacca is about 8<sup>o</sup>, or 560 British miles in length, by about 150 miles of medial breadth, a territory sufficiently ample for a powerful monarchy, had its native productions corresponded with its extent.

**LANGUAGE.** The Malayan language has been called the Italian of the east, from the melody of frequent vowels and liquids.

The Arabic character is made use of. They write on paper, using ink of their own composition, and pens made of the twigs of a tree.

**PRODUCTS.** The indolence of the inhabitants has prevented the country from being explored; but it produces pepper, and other spices, with some precious gums and woods. The wild elephants supply abundance of ivory; but the tin, the only mineral mentioned, may perhaps be the produce of Banka.

The city of Malacca, which seems to have been founded by Mahometans in the thirteenth century, in the last century was supposed to contain 12,000 inhabitants, of which however only 3000 dwelled within the walls. Not above 300 were native Portuguese, the others being a mixed race of Mahometan Malays, accounted among the chief merchants of the east.

In general the Malays are a well made people, though rather below the middle stature, their limbs well shaped, but small, and particularly slender at the wrists and ancles. Their complexion is tawny, their eyes large, their noses seem rather flattened by art than nature; and their hair is very long, black, and shining.

Besides the tiger and elephant, Malacca produces the civet cat described by Sonnerat, who also mentions that wild men are found in this peninsula, perhaps the noted Orang Outangs.

They are restless, fond of navigation, war, plunder, emigrations, colonies, desperate enterprises, adventures, and gallantry. They talk incessantly of their honour and their bravery, whilst they are universally considered by those with whom they have intercourse as the most treacherous ferocious people on the face of the globe; and yet they speak the softest language of Asia. How much are they like a certain well known European nation?

This ferocity is so well known to the European navigators that they universally avoid taking on board any seamen of that nation, except in the greatest distress, and then on no account to exceed two or three.

Opposite to the coast of Malacca, though at a considerable distance, are the islands of Andaman and of Nicobar. The great Andaman is about 140 British miles in length, but not more than 20 in the greatest breadth.—The people of the Andamans are as little civilized as any in the world, and are probably cannibals. They have woolly heads, and perfectly resemble negroes. Their character is truly brutal, insidious, and ferocious, and their canoes of the rudest kind. A British settlement has been recently formed on the Greater Andaman, and some convicts sent thither from Bengal. The natives, about 2000, have already profited by the example of English industry.

The Nicobars are three; the largest being about five leagues in circumference. They produce cocoa and areca trees, with yams and sweet potatoes; and the eatable birds' nests, so highly esteemed in China, abound here as well as in the Andamans. The people are of a copper colour, with small oblique eyes and other Tatar features. In their dress, a small stripe of cloth hangs down behind; and hence the ignorant tales of seamen which led even Linnæus to infer that some kind of men had tails.

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## SIAM.

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**EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES.** THE extent of the Siamese dominions cannot be accurately defined. On the west a chain of mountains seems to divide Siam from Pegu; but the northern province of Yunshan would appear to be in the hands of the Birmans, who here seem to extend to the river Maykang. To the south and east the ancient boundaries are fixed; the ocean, and a chain of mountains, dividing Siam from Laos and Cambodia.

The length of the kingdom may be about ten degrees, or near 700 British miles; but of this about one half is not above 70 miles in medial breadth.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** The Siamese history is imperfect, and abounds with fables. Their epoch is derived from the pretended disparition of their god Sammona Codam (or Boodh): yet by Loubere's account their first king began to reign in the year 1300 of their epoch, or about 756 years after the Christian era. Wars with Pegu, and occasional usurpations of the throne, constitute the hinges of Siamese history since the Portuguese discovery. In 1568 the Peguese king declared war on account of two white elephants which the Siamese refused to surrender, and after prodigious slaughter on both sides Siam became tributary to Pegu. But about 1620 Raja Hapi delivered his crown from this servitude. In 1680 Phalcon, a Greek adventurer, being highly favoured by the king of Siam, opened an intercourse with France, in the view of supporting his ambitious designs; but they were punished by his decapitation in 1689, and the French connexion ceased in consequence. The latter events of Siamese history may partly be traced in that of the Birman empire.

**RELIGION, LAWS AND GOVERNMENT.** The religion of the Siamese, like that of the Birmans, resembles that of the Hindoos; and the transmigration of souls forms an essential part of the doctrine; but they imitate the Chinese in their festival of the dead, and in some other rites of that singular nation.

The government of Siam is despotic; and the sovereign, as among the Birmans, revered with honours almost divine. The succession to the crown is hereditary in the male line.

The laws are represented by all writers on this country as extremely severe, death or mutilation being punishments even of unimportant offences.

**POPULATION.** Concerning the population of Siam there are no adequate documents. Yet Loubere assures us, that from actual enumeration, there are only found of men, women, and children, one million nine hundred thousand.

**ARMY.** The army which may be occasionally raised, has been estimated at 60,000, with not less than 3000 or 4000 elephants.

**NAVY.** The navy is composed of vessels of various sizes, some of which are richly decorated. Hence, as in the Birman history, naval engagements are not uncommon; and the large rivers of exterior India are often reddened with human gore.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** Siam having embraced a branch of Hindoo faith, the manners of the people are assimilated in a great degree.

The women are under few restraints, and are married at an early age. The espousals are concluded by female mediation; and on the third visit the parties are considered as wedded, after the exchange of a few presents, without any farther ceremony civil or sacred. Polygamy is allowed; but rather from ostentation than any other motive.

The Siamese funerals considerably resemble those of the Chinese. The body is inclosed in a wooden bier or varnished coffin; and the monks, called Talapoins, sing hymns in the Bali tongue. After a solemn procession the body is burnt on a funeral pile of precious woods, erected near some temple.

The common nourishment of the Siamese consists in rice and fish, both which articles are abundant. They also eat lizards, rats, and several kinds of insects.

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The houses are small, and constructed of bamboos upon pillars, to guard against inundations so common in this country. Even the palaces only exceed the common habitations by occupying a more extensive space, and being of a greater height, but never exceed one floor.

In person the Siamese are rather small, but well made. The figure of their countenance, both of men and women, has less of the oval than of the lozenge form, being broad, and raised at the top of the cheeks; and the forehead suddenly contracts, and is almost as pointed as the chin, their eyes rising somewhat towards the temples, are small and dull: the mouth is very large, with thick pale lips, and teeth blackened by art. The complexion is coarse, being brown mixed with red, to which the climate greatly contributes.

The dress is extremely slight, the warmth of the climate rendering clothes almost unnecessary.

The Siamese excel in theatrical amusements. They have also races of oxen and those of boats, combats of elephants, cock-fighting, tumbling, wrestling, and rope-dancing, religious processions, and illuminations, and beautiful exhibitions of fire-works.

**LANGUAGE.** In the Siamese language there are thirty seven letters, all consonants; the vowels and diphthongs constituting a distinct alphabet. The words seem mostly monosyllabic, like the Chinese.

**LITERATURE.** In literature the Siamese are far from being deficient. At the age of seven or eight years the children are often placed in the convents of the Talapoin, where they are instructed in reading, writing, and accompts. They are also taught precepts of morality. Books of history are not unknown, and there is an excellent code of laws. Poetry, tales, and mythologic fables, seem to constitute the other departments of Siamese literature.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** The capital city of the kingdom has been called Siam. It is situated in an isle formed by the river Meinam. The walls, in Loubere's time, were extensive; but not above a sixth part was inhabited. Its condition, since it was delivered from the Birman conquest in 1766, has not been described, nor have we any recent accounts of their other towns; but in general they were only

collections of hovels sometimes surrounded with a wooden stockade, and rarely with a brick wall.

**EDIFICES.** Kæmpfer, in 1690, visited Siam; and he minutely describes two remarkable edifices near the capital. The first is the famous pyramid called Puka Thon, erected in memory of a victory there obtained over the king of Pegu. It is a massy but magnificent structure, about 120 feet in height, in a square spot enclosed by a wall. The first stage is square, each side being about 115 paces long. The others vary in form; and there are often galleries ornamented with columns. At the top it terminates in a slender spire.

The second edifice consists of two squares to the east of the city, each surrounded with a fair wall. They contain many temples, convents, chapels, and columns, particularly the temple of Berklam, with a grand gate ornamented with statues and other carvings.

**MANUFACTURES.** Though the Siamese are little skilled in the fabrication of iron or steel; they excel in that of gold, and in miniature painting. The common people are mostly occupied in procuring fish for their daily food, while the superior classes are engaged in a trifling traffic.

**COMMERCE.** The commercial relations are chiefly with Hindostan, China, Japan, and the Dutch.

The productions of the country are prodigious quantities of grain, cotton, benjamin; sandal, aguallo, and sapan woods; antimony, tin, lead, iron, load-stone, gold, and silver; sapphires, emeralds, agates, crystal, marble and tombac.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The two first months of the Siamese year, which correspond with our December and January, form the whole winter of this country; the third, fourth, and fifth belong to what is called their little summer, which is their spring; the seven others to their great summer. Autumn is unknown in their calendar. The winter is dry; the summer moist; the former is distinguished by the course of the wind, which blows almost constantly from the north, refreshed with cold from the snowy mountains of Tibet, and the bleak wastes of Mongolia.

**SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.** This country is a wide vale between two high ridges of mountains, thus somewhat resembling Egypt on a wider scale.

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The soil towards the mountains is parched and unfertile, but on the shore of the river consists, like that of Egypt, of an extremely rich and pure mould, in which it is even difficult to find a pebble, and produces exuberant quantities of rice.

**RIVERS.** The grand river Meinam, a name which signifies the *mother of waters*, reigns supreme among the Siamese streams. It is very deep and rapid, always full, and, according to Kämpfer, larger than the Elbe. The inundations are in September, after the snows have greatly melted in the northern mountains, and the rainy season has commenced. In December the waters decline, and sink by degrees to their former level. The water though muddy, is pleasant and salutary.

**ANIMALS.** The chief animals of Siam are elephants, buffaloes, and deer. Horses seem little known or used, though found wild in Tibet. The elephants of Siam are of distinguished sagacity and beauty; and those of a white colour are treated with a kind of adoration, as the Siamese believe the souls of such are royal. Wild boars, tigers, and monkees, are also numerous. The Meinam is, at distant intervals of time, infested with small poisonous serpents; and the trees on its banks are beautifully illuminated with swarms of fire-flies.

**MINERALS.** There are some mines of gold, and others of copper; but the mines chiefly wrought by the Siamese are of tin and lead.

Near Louvo was a mountain of load-stone: fine agates abounded in the mountains, nor were sapphires unknown.

## THE OTHER STATES OF EXTERIOR INDIA ARE,

1. **LAOS.** Surrounded with forests and deserts, and of difficult access by water. The soil is represented as fertile in rice; productive of the best benzoin and lacca, exquisite musk, with some gold and rubies.

2. **CAMBODIA.** This country, like Siam, is inclosed by mountains on the east and west, and fertilized by the river Maykaung, which begins to inundate the country in June. It is thinly peopled, and the capital called Cambodia, consists only of one street, with a single temple.



The most peculiar product is the substance styled gamboge, or rather camboge gum, yielding a fine yellow tint. Ivory also abounds, with several precious woods: and some add gold.

3. SIAMPA. This small maritime tract is to the S. E. of Cambodia. The people are large, muscular, and well made, the complexion is reddish, the nose rather flat, the hair is black and long, the dress very slight.

4. COCHIN CHINA. This country, presents an extensive range of coast, and has been visited by many navigators. As the shores abound with havens, the canoes and junks are numerous.

The superior ranks are clothed in silk, and display the politeness of Chinese manners. The dress of both sexes is similar, being loose robes with large long sleeves; and cotton tunics and trowsers. A kind of turban covers the head of the men: but no shoes nor slippers are used. The houses are mostly of bamboo, covered with rushes or the straw of rice, and stand in groves of oranges, limes, plantains, and cocoa trees. The rainy season is during September, October, and November; and the three following months are also cold and moist, presenting the semblance of an European winter. The inundations only last two or three days, but happen once a fortnight in the rainy season. March, April, May, form a delicious spring; while the heat of the three following months is rather excessive.

The products of agriculture are rice of different qualities, yams, sweet potatoes, green pumpkins, melons. Sugar also abounds. Gold dust is found in the rivers; and the mines yield ore of singular purity. Silver mines have also been lately discovered. Tigers, elephants, and monkies abound in Cochin China; and those edible birds' nests, esteemed a luxury in China, are chiefly found in this country.

5. TUNQUIN. This country was only divided from the former by a small river, and may at present be considered as incorporated with it by conquest. The inhabitants resemble their neighbours the Chinese, but their manners are not so civilized. The products are numerous, and seem to blend those of China with those of Hindostan. The rivers in the rainy season, from May to September, inundate the adjacent country. Kesho the capital city is

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described by Dampier, as approaching the Chinese form, with a considerable population.

In the gulph of Tunquin and adjacent Chinese sea, the tuffoons, or Typhons are tremendous. "They are preceded by a cloud which appears in the north-east, black near the horizon, edged with copper colour on the upper part fading into a glaring white. It often exhibits a ghastly appearance twelve hours before the typhon bursts, which lasts many hours, blowing from the north-east, attended with dreadful claps of thunder, large and frequent flashes of lightning and excessive hard rains."

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# HINDOSTAN.

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## INTRODUCTION.

*General Observations.—Arrangement.—Natural and Political Divisions.—Plan of this present description.*

**GENERAL GEOGRAPHY.** THE description of this interesting portion of Asia is not a little difficult, from its vast and irregular extent, from the want of grand subdivisions, from the diversity of nations and powers, large foreign settlements, and other causes, so that the first object must be to determine a clear and natural arrangement.

Mr. Pennant, who often excels in geographical delineation, has, in his view of Hindostan, been contented with the vague divisions of Western, Eastern, and Gangetic, or that part which is pervaded by the Ganges, and its tributary streams. Major Rennell, to whom we are indebted for an excellent map and memoir, which have thrown great light on Indian geography, first considers the sea coast and islands; as, in the construction of a map, the outline of the coast is the earliest object. He then describes Hindostan in four other sections: 1. That part occupied by the Ganges and its principal branches: 2. That occupied by the course of the Sindé, Sindeh, or river Indus: 3. The tract situated between the river Kistna, and the two former divisions: 4. The countries to the south of the Kistna, or what is perhaps improperly called the southern peninsula, as no part of Hindostan can be styled a peninsula, in the modern acceptation of being nearly surrounded by the sea.

**GENERAL DIVISIONS.** The general plan adopted by Major Rennell seems the best, not only in itself, as was

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to have been expected from his profound acquaintance with the subject, but as having the advantage of being familiar to the public, from the widely diffused reputation of his work. Amidst the want of important ranges of mountains, rivers alone can be assigned as natural divisions; and as in Hindostan they do not form limits, the countries pervaded by their courses and tributary streams may be considered as detached by the hand of nature. Hence the Gangetic part of Hindostan, to use Mr. Pennant's term, includes the space from the confines of Tibet to the sources of the Chumbul and Sippra, and from the mountains near Agimere and Abugur hills, to the most eastern boundary of Hindostan.

That portion watered by the Sindé or Indus, and its subsidiary streams, may in like manner be termed Sindetic Hindostan; and as a supplement to this division may be considered the country of Sirhind, and other tracts to the west of Gangetic Hindostan.

The southern part is encompassed by the sea, except on the north, where the river Kistna and its subsidiary streams form the boundary. In ancient times this portion was styled Deccan, a native term implying the south. But the Deccan of the Hindoos extended twice as far in a northerly direction, even to the river Nerbudda; so that it would in fact, with the Gangetic and Sindetic divisions, nearly complete the whole of Hindostan. The term Deccan is therefore here used for the portion to the south of Kistna.

A line on the north of the Kistna, reaching to the eastern coast of Hindostan on the north and east, and the Sindetic with its supplementary provinces on the north and west, may be styled Interior or Central Hindostan.

In this arrangement the Gangetic part will include Bengal, Bahar, Allahabad, Oude, Agra, and a part of Delhi and Agimere. The Sindetic contains Kuttore, Cashmir, Cabul, Candahar, Lahore, Moulton, and Sindé.

The central division represents Guzerat, in the west, with Candeish, Berar, Orissa, the Sircars, the chief part of Golconda, Visiapour, Dowlatabad, and Concan.

The southern division includes a small portion of Golconda, Mysore, the extensive region called in modern times the Carnatic, with Madura, and other smaller districts; the western coast being called that of Malabar, and the eastern

that of Coromandel. In this part is naturally included the island of Ceylon.

**POLITICAL DIVISIONS.** The next topic to be considered, in a general view of Hindostan, is its political situation, as divided among various powers. Of these the English is at present preponderant, not only from European tactics, but from an actual extent of territory at least equal to that of any native power. \* To their former wide possessions in Gangetic Hindostan, with a large portion of the eastern coast from below the estuary of the Kistna to the lake of Chilka, and the detached government of Madras, have been recently added extensive regions in the south and west of Mysore, with Seringapatam the capital, not to mention Bombay and other detached establishments. And the large and important island of Ceylon has been wrested from the Dutch.

Next in consequence are the Maratta states, chiefly contained in the central division of Hindostan.

The Nizam, or Soubah of the Deccan, their firm ally, has considerably enlarged his territory in the south at the expense of Tippoo; the central part of whose dominions, except Seringapatam, is subject to the raja of Mysore, a descendant of the race dethroned by Hyder, an usurper.

The British, the Marattas, and the Nizam, may be regarded as the three leading powers, to which may be added on the west, or on the Sindetic division, the Seiks, and Zemaun Shah, or whatever prince holds the eastern division of Persia.

The following table, extracted, with a few alterations, from Major Rennell's memoir, will convey a more complete and satisfactory idea of this important topic.

#### I. BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

1. Bengal and Bahar, with the Zemindary of Benares.
2. Northern Sircars, including Guntoor.
3. Barra-Mahal, and Dindigul.
4. Jaghire in the Carnatic.
5. The Calicut, Palicaud, and Coorga countries.

#### II. BRITISH ALLIES.

1. Azuph Dowlah. Oude.
2. Mahomed Alli. Carnatic.
3. Travancore, and Cochia.

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## III. MARATTA STATES.

## POONA MARATTAS.

1. Malwa.
2. Candeish.
3. Part of Amednagur, or Dowlatabad.
4. Visiapour.
5. Part of Guzerat.
6. — Agra.
7. — Agimere.
8. Allahabad.
9. Shanoor, or Sanore, Bancapour, Darwar, &c. situated in the Dooab, or country between the Kistna and Tombudra rivers.

## TRIBUTARIES.

1. Rajah of Jyenagur.
2. — Joodpour.
3. — Oudipour.
4. — Narwah.
5. — Gohud.
6. Part of Bundelcund.
7. Mahomed Hyat. Bopaltol.
8. Fuddy Sing. Amedabad.
9. Gurry Mundella, &c. &c.

## BERAR MARATTAS.

1. Berar.
2. Orissa.

## TRIBUTARY.

Bembajee.

## IV. NIZAM ALI, SOUBAH OF THE DECCAN.

- |                          |                              |
|--------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Golconda.             | Combam) and Gandicotta       |
| 2. Aurungabad.           | (or Ganjecotta.)             |
| 3. Beder.                | 7. Part of Gooty, Adoni, and |
| 4. Part of Berar.        | Canoul.                      |
| 5. — Adoni, Rachore, and | 8. Part of the Dooab.        |
| Canoul.                  | [9. Other districts acquired |
| 6. Cuddapali. Cummum (or | 1799.]                       |

## V. SEIKS.

Lahore, Moulton, and the western parts of Delhi.

As the other great power chiefly extends over Persia, and may be regarded as foreign, it only remains to mention the small states.

1. Successors of Zabeda Cawn. Sehaurunpour.
2. Jats.
3. Pattan Rohillas. Furruckabad.
4. Adjig Sing. Rewah, &c.
5. Bundelcund, or Bundela.
6. Little Ballogistan.

To which may now be added the Raja of Mysore:

The British possessions prior to the fall of Tippoo, 1799, were supposed to contain 197,496 square British miles, being about 60,000 more than are comprised in the united kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland: the number of inhabitants was computed at ten millions. The acquisition in 1799 probably adds 15,000 square miles, and the population subject to Great Britain is supposed to be 12 or 14,000,000. The net revenue exceeded three millions before the cessions by Tippoo, in 1792, computed at 400,000*l.* while those in 1799 do not appear much to exceed half that sum. This great power and revenue of so distant a country, maintained in the midst of a highly civilized foreign nation, is perhaps unexampled in ancient or modern times.

The Marattas are divided into two states or empires, that of Poona, or the western, and Berar, or the eastern; each ruled by a number of chiefs or princes, who pay a nominal obedience to the paishwa, or sovereign. An account of the Marattas belongs to the central division of Hindostan. The Seiks, a new religious sect, first appeared in the middle of the seventeenth century, and have gradually become formidable to the neighbouring states. The Jats, or Jets, were a tribe of Hindoos, who about a century ago erected a state around the capital Agra. The Afghans, another peculiar people, originated from the mountains between Persia and India.

Before closing these general considerations with regard to this extensive country, it may be proper to observe that the name of Hindostan has been considered as synonymous with the empire of the great Mongul. But the power of the Monguls, which commenced under Baber, 1518, was most eminent in the northern parts, the Deccan, or south, remaining unsubdued till the time of Aurunzeb, 1678, when that region, with what is called the peninsula, a few mountains and inaccessible tracts only excepted, were either vanquished or rendered tributary to the throne of

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Delhi. When Aurunzeb died in 1707, in his 90th year, the Mongul empire had obtained its utmost extent from the 10th to the 35th degree of latitude, (about 1750 British miles,) and about as much in length: the revenue exceeding thirty-two millions sterling, in a country where provisions are about four times as cheap as in England. The number of its subjects may be computed at about sixty millions. But this great power declined so rapidly, that within fifty years after his death, it may be said to have been annihilated, and the empire of the great Mongul has vanished from modern geography.

The plan to be pursued, in the subsequent brief account of Hindostan, has been above indicated as divided into four parts; the region on the Ganges, those on the Indus, the central, and the southern. In three of these divisions the British possessions are powerful, if not predominant; and it is difficult to connect the political with the natural geography. Doubts may justly arise whether the British territories ought not to form a separate and distinct portion in a perspicuous arrangement, this being another of the peculiar difficulties which attend the geography of Hindostan. But the grand mass of the population in these settlements consists of native Hindoos, and the natural geography of the country must not be sacrificed to any extraneous consideration, it still seems preferable to abide by the division already laid down. Hence that form of description must be chosen, which, resting on the perpetual foundations of nature, cannot be injured or obliterated by the destinies of man. •

These considerations being premised, a similar arrangement shall here be followed in describing Hindostan, a labyrinth of eastern geography, with that used in delineating Germany, that labyrinth of European geography. A general view of the whole region shall be followed by a short sketch of each of the above divisions; in which the several states, chief cities, and other geographical topics, shall be briefly illustrated.

**NAME.** The name of this celebrated country in the ancient Sanscrit language is Bharata. That of Hindostan seems to have been imposed by the Persians. It was long known by the name of the empire of the Great Mogul, because it was then subject to Mongul emperors, successors of Timur.



**BOUNDARIES.** This portion of Asia extends from cape Comari, called by navigators Comorin, in the south, to the mountains which form the northern boundary of Cashmir; that is according to the most recent maps, from about the eighth to about the 35th degree of northern latitude, being twenty-seven degrees, or 1620 g. miles. The northern boundary may be yet farther extended to the Hindoo Koh, and mountains running E. and W. on the north of the province of Kuttore.

From the river Araba, on the west of the province of Sindé, to the mountains which divide Bengal from Cassay and the Birman dominions, that is from about the sixty-sixth to the ninety-second degree of east longitude from Greenwich, there are 26° which in the latitude of 25° constitute a breadth of more than 1400 g. miles.

The boundaries are marked on the north by the mountains above mentioned. On the west towards Persia, other ranges and deserts constitute the frontier till the southern separation ends in the river Araba. The other boundaries are supplied by the Indian ocean, and Bay of Bengal, the little river Naaf, and those mountains which divide the British possessions from Aracan, Cassay, and Cashur.

**ORIGINAL POPULATION.** The original population may be generally considered as indigenous; yet amidst the great diversity of climate and situation, the native race presents considerable varieties, as being fairer in the northern parts, and in the southern almost or wholly black, but without the negro wool or features. Still the tinge of the women and superior classes is deep olive; and the Hindoo form and features may be said to approach the Persian or European standard. The Monguls with the Arabs and Persians, who are settled here, are generally called Moors.

**HISTORICAL EPOCHS.** The Hindoos never seem to have boasted of one native historian, and the best materials are derived from the Persian memoirs; from which Ferishta himself, a Persian, compiled his histories of Hindostan towards the beginning of the seventeenth century. In this defect of native records we must be contented with the epochs derived from foreign sources.

1. The invasion by Alexander the Great, who found western India divided among numerous potentates, though he advanced little farther than Lahore.

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2. At a long interval appears the conquest of the north-western part by Mahmoud of Ghizni, A. D. 1000. The founder of the Mahometan empire in Hindostan.

3. The dynasty of the Patan, or Affghan emperors begins with Cuttub, A. D. 1205, and ends with Mahmoud III. 1393.

4. The great Moguls or Mongul emperors begin with Babar, 1525; and continued with a short interruption, by the Patans to Shah Aulum, to 1760.

The invasion by Timur, and, at a distant interval, that by Nadir, also form remarkable epochs in the history of this passive country.—The latter may be said to have virtually dissolved the Mogul empire.—The Portuguese settlements were followed by those of the Dutch.—The French power began to predominate in 1749, but speedily closed in 1761, with the loss of their principal settlement Pondicherry.—As merchants the English had long held small settlements in Hindostan; but the expedition into Tanjore, 1749, was the first enterprise against a native prince. Other contests followed concerning Arcot in the kingdom of Carnada, or what we call the Carnatic.—In 1756 the fort of Calcutta, the chief settlement in Bengal, was taken by the nabob, and many of the inhabitants perished in a shocking manner, from being confined in a small chamber.—The battle of Plassey, fought in June, 1757, laid the foundation of the subsequent power of Britain. Lord Clive, governor of Bengal, 1765, obtained a grant from the nominal Mogul, of Bengal, Bahar, and part of Orissa, on condition of an annual tribute. Soon after the English were engaged in a contest with Hyder Alli, a soldier of fortune, who had dethroned the lineal sovereign of Mysore, and extended his conquests to the adjacent territories. Some conflicts followed on the confines of Carnada and Mysore; but the event was little advantageous to either party.—Hyder, dying in 1783, was succeeded by his son Tippoo, who seems to have been a prince of inferior abilities, and expiated his ill arranged plans by his death, and the partition of his territories, in 1799.

The Bengal provinces have been in possession of the English since 1765; and Benares was added in 1775. This portion might constitute a considerable kingdom, and is sufficiently compact and secure by natural advantages, independently of a formidable force. The Sircars, or de-

tached provinces, partly belong to Golconda, and partly to Orissa, forming a long narrow slip of country from twenty to seventy-five miles wide, but about three hundred and fifty in length. These detached Sircars or countries, being to the north of Madras, on which they are dependent, are commonly styled the northern Sircars. In 1754 they were acquired by the French; and conquered by the English under Colonel Clive in 1759.

The English settled at Madras about the year 1640; and their territory here extends about a hundred and eight British miles along the shore, and forty-seven in breadth, in the centre of the ancient kingdom of Carnada.

The celebrated battle of Panniput was fought in 1761, between the Mahometans under Abdalha king of Candahar, and the Marattas, in which the latter were defeated: the Mahometans were computed at 150,000, and the Marattas at 200,000.

**ANCIENT MONUMENTS.** Some of the most remarkable monuments are excavated temples, statues, relievos, &c. in an island near Bombay. The idols represented seem clearly to belong to the present mythology of Hindostan; but at what period these edifices were modelled, whether three hundred, or three thousand years ago, must be left in the darkness of Hindoo chronology.

**MYTHOLOGY.** Though the mythology of the Hindoos may pretend to great antiquity, yet their present form of religion is supposed to vary considerably from the ancient. The artful Bramins have introduced many innovations in order to increase their own power and influence; but it appears that the fabric rests on that almost universal system of the east, the belief in a supreme Creator too ineffable and sublime for human adoration, which is therefore addressed to inferior, but great and powerful divinities.

**RELIGION.** The religion of the Hindoos is artfully interwoven with the common offices of life; and the different castes are supposed to originate from Brahma, the immediate agent of creation under the supreme power in the following manner:

The *Brahmin* from the mouth (wisdom): To pray, to read, to instruct; which sect has had art enough to raise themselves above all the rest.

The *Cheheree*, from the arms (strength): To draw the bow, to fight, to govern.

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The *Brice*, from the belly or thighs (nourishment): To provide the necessaries of life by agriculture and traffic.

The *Sooder*, from the feet (subjection); To labour, to serve.

**GOVERNMENT.** Hindostan is now divided into many governments, the form of which must be considered in describing the several states. Suffice it here to observe, that though the Bramins be the most dignified cast, yet there do not seem to have been one or more high priests, as in the surrounding countries. The sovereignty was abandoned to the military cast, and the monarch was presumed to be the proprietor of all the lands, except those belonging to the church.

**LAWS.** The laws of the Hindoos are intimately blended with their religion, and the curious reader may consult the code, translated and published by the direction of Mr. Hastings.

**POPULATION.** The population of this extensive part of Asia is supposed to amount to sixty millions, of which the British possessions may now perhaps contain a quarter.

**GENERAL REVENUES.** The general revenues of Hindostan were computed in the time of Aurunzeb, by a precise calculation of those of the several provinces, at thirty-two millions sterling; equal perhaps, considering the comparative price of products, to one hundred and sixty millions sterling in modern England.

**MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.** The manners and customs of the Hindoos are intimately blended with their religion, and are universally similar, with a few exceptions in mountainous and other peculiar districts. One of the most singular begins to expire, that of giving the living widow to the same flames with her husband's corpse.

As soon as a child is born it is carefully registered in its proper cast, and astrologers are consulted concerning its destiny. A Bramin imposes the name. The infant thrives by what we would call neglect; and no where are seen more vigour and elegance of form. The boys are generally taught reading and writing by Bramins, but the girls are confined at home till their twelfth year. Polygamy is practised, but one wife is acknowledged as supreme. The Hindoos are extremely abstemious, and wholly abstain from animal food and intoxicating liquors. The

houses are built of earth or bricks, covered with mortar, and sometimes with excellent cement, with no windows, or only small apertures. There is generally only a ground floor, inclosing a court, with a small gallery supported by slight wooden pillars.

**LANGUAGES.** The general ancient language of Hindostan is believed to have been the Sanscrit, an original and refined speech, compared by Sir William Jones with the Greek and Latin. The more common dialects used in these extensive regions are very various; not fewer than nine or ten.

**LITERATURE.** The literature of Hindostan doubtless contains several valuable and curious monuments; but their epochs are extremely uncertain. Hence little else than confusion and contradiction are to be found in the numerous accounts published of Hindoo literature.

The most important books are the Vedas; there are also some epic poems which pretend to contain fragments of genuine history. It is probable the oldest was not written above seven hundred years ago.—It is a great singularity that the old Hindoo grants of land, many of which have been translated and published, are extremely long, and in a strange poetical or inflated style, some of the compound words consisting of not less than one hundred and fifty syllables! When we compare these singularities with the brevity and clearness of the Greek and Roman inscriptions, we are led to conclude that the Hindoos are the puerile slaves of a capricious imagination.

The Hindoos are ignorant of the Chinese art of printing; they are nevertheless in general highly civilized, and of the most gentle and amiable manners. But perhaps in no art nor science are they equal to the Chinese or Japanese; and in most are confessedly greatly inferior.

The chief university in the north is that of Benares, a most celebrated and ancient school, now included in the English possessions. In the Deccan the academy of Tricium, on the Malabar coast, is also in great repute. "At *Cungiburam*, in *Carnate*, there is still a celebrated Brahman school, which, according to the testimony of Ptolemy, existed in the first century of the Christian era; and its members are certainly equal in celebrity to the Brahmans of *Benares*."

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**MANUFACTURES.** The manufactures of Hindostan have been celebrated from early antiquity, particularly the muslins and other fabrics from cotton. Nor is Hindostan famous at this day for any manufacture, except those of muslins and calicoes, the other exports consisting of diamonds, raw silks, with a few wrought silks, spices, drugs, &c. The shawls of Cashmir are also deservedly esteemed; being there woven from a material chiefly supplied by Tibet. Painting and sculpture are in their infancy; yet the temples are sometimes majestic and solemn. In most trades very few tools are employed. The simple loom is reared in the morning under a tree, and carried home in the evening.

**NATIVE PRODUCTS.** But it is the abundance of native products, which has in all ages rendered Hindostan the centre of great trade. Diamonds, and some other precious stones, are products almost peculiar; as well as many spices, aromatics, drugs, rice, and sugar.

**CLIMATE AND SEASONS.** The climate and seasons are considerably diversified by difference of latitude, and local situation. In Bengal the hot, or dry season begins with March, and continues to the end of May, the thermometer sometimes rising to  $110^{\circ}$ : this intense heat is sometimes interrupted by violent thunder storms from the north-west—The rainy season continues from June to September: the three last months of the year are generally pleasant; but excessive fogs often prevail in January and February. The periodical rains are felt in Sindetic Hindostan, and in the rest of the country they almost deluge it, descending like cataracts from the clouds, and the Ganges and other rivers spread to a wide extent, the inundation ceasing in September. "By the latter end of July all the lower parts of Bengal, contiguous to the Ganges and Burrampooter, are overflowed, and form an inundation of more than a hundred miles in width; nothing appearing but villages and trees, excepting very rarely the top of an elevated spot (the artificial mound of some deserted village) appearing like an island."

In the southern division the chains of the Gauts, or mountains of Malabar and Coromandel, supporting the high table land in the centre, intercept the great mass of clouds; and the alternate S. W. and N. E. winds, called the Monsoons, occasion a rainy season on one side of the

mountains only, that is, on the windward side. The monsoon is from the N. E. from October to April; and from May to September in the opposite direction. In general March, April, May, and June are the dry months.

Excessive rains, or excessive heats, form the chief varieties of the year, and produce luxuriance of vegetation, almost unknown to any other country on the globe.

**SOIL.** The soil in these places is so excellent as to consist of black vegetable mould to the depth of six feet. Rice is the chief grain; and on the dry sandy lands of the coast of Coromandel great industry is displayed in watering it.

Maize and the sugar-cane are also favourite products. The cultivation of cotton is also widely diffused; and this plant particularly thrives on the dry coast of Coromandel.

**RIVERS.** The rivers of Hindostan are large and numerous, but our limits will not permit us to describe many of them.

The Ganges must still be considered as the sacred sovereign of the Hindoo rivers. It receives such a number of important tributary streams, that its magnitude exceeds what might have been expected from the comparative length of its course; which may however be estimated at about fourteen hundred British miles. Tieffenthaler has laid down the latitude of the noted Gangoutra, or Cow's mouth in lat. 33°, being a celebrated cataract where the Ganges is said to pass through a vast cavern in a mountain, falling into a large bason which it has worn in the rock. At about two hundred and eighty miles to the south of this place the Ganges enters the wide plains of Hindostan; and pursues a south-east direction by the cities of Canoge, Allahabad, Benares, Patna, &c. till dividing into many grand and capacious mouths, it forms an extensive delta at its egress into the gulph of Bengal. The extreme mouths of the Ganges are intersected with isles, called the Sunderbunds, overgrown with tall bamboos and other luxuriant vegetation, the impenetrable haunts of the royal tiger and other beasts of prey. On the westernmost outlet of the Ganges, called the Hoogley, or Ugli, stands Calcutta, the capital of British Hindostan. This, and the most eastern which receives the Burrampooter, are the widest and most important branches.

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The noblest tributary stream of the Ganges is the Burrampooter. This river runs for four hundred miles through the British territory; and for the last 60 miles before its junction with the Ganges is from four to five miles wide. On their union below Luckipour; they form a body of running fresh water, resembling a gulph of the sea, interspersed with islands, some of which rival in size and fertility the Isle of Wight. In the mouths of the Ganges and the Megna, the sudden influx of the tide will rise instantaneously to the height of from five to twelve feet.

The course of the Burrampooter is supposed to be nearly equal in length to that of the Ganges. The sources of these great rivers are stated to be very near, yet they separate to the distance of more than a thousand miles, and afterwards join in their termination.

The Indus is by the natives called Sindé, or Sindeh, and is supposed to have its source in the Belur Tag, or cloudy mountains. Its comparative course may be about a thousand British miles, when it forms a delta in the province of Sindé, entering by many mouths into the Indian sea.

There are several tributary rivers which join the Sindé chiefly in the northern half of its course, where they form the Panjab, or country of Five Rivers; but the whole of this part of Hindostan is little known to the moderns; and it is uncertain whether the Caggar, a considerable and distant river to the east, join the Sindé, or fall into the gulph of Cutch.

The Deccan, or most southern part of Hindostan, is considered as bounded and enriched by the Kistna, and its tributary streams. The Kistna, a sacred river, rises at Balisur in the chain of Sukhien, not far to the south of Poona, and forms a delta near Masulipatam, after a comparative course of about five hundred British miles. This river rivals any Indian stream in the fertility diffused by its inundations; and the richest diamond mines in the world are in the neighbouring hills to the north. The chief tributary streams in that quarter are the Beema, passing near the diamond mines of Visiapour; and the Muzi, or Moussi, by those of Golconda. But the most considerable river joins the Kistna from the south, called the Toombudra, on the banks of which have been recently disclosed many populous provinces, and flourishing towns.



**LAKES.** In this extensive portion of Asia the lakes seem to be few, and of small account. The country of Cashmir is supposed to have been originally a large lake, as reported in the native traditions; and a considerable expanse of water still remains in the northern part of this delightful country, called the lake of Ouller or Tal, being about fifty-three British miles in circuit.

**MOUNTAINS.** The mountains chiefly celebrated by the Hindoos may be said to be only visible from their country, being the northern chain of the Tibetan Alps, covered with perpetual snow.

The rest are mostly delineated in Major Rennell's excellent map of Hindostan. The following list contains most of the names there to be found.

The Chaliscuteli hills, between the western desert and the Setlege.

The Alideck mountains, above Gujurat.

The mountains of Gomaun, or Kemaon, called also those of Sewalic.

The mountains of Himmaleh, N. of Tassiudon.

In Bengal are several ridges of hills without names, which is the case even with the chain on the N. W. of the Sircars.

The Lucknow hills, at the source of the Mahanada.

Those of Gondwanah, running parallel with the Nerbudda for a space, and then turning south to Narnalla.

The ridges near the Chumbul are also without names.

The Grenier mountains in Guzerat.

The Shatpoorta hills, between the Nerbudda and the Taptee.

On the other side of the Nerbudda there are also remarkable parallel ridges, giving source to many rivers, but nameless.

The important diamond mountains of Golconda and Visiapour.

A ridge called the Bunde mountains runs parallel to the Godaveri on the south, but at a considerable distance from that river.

The Gauts, peculiarly so called, are ranges which run along the western and eastern coasts of the Deccan. The former is by the natives called the mountains of Sukhien.

These chains rise abruptly on each side, but particularly the west, forming as it were enormous walls, supporting a

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high terrace or table land in the middle. Exclusive of a gap, the mountains of Sukhein extend from Cape Comorin to Surat, at the distance of from forty to seventy miles from the shore.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.** A more fertile soil, and climate better adapted to the most profuse luxuriance of vegetation than the well watered tracts in this vast peninsula, cannot possibly be found in any part of the known world. Double harvests, two crops of fruit from many of the trees, and from most of the rest a copious and regular supply during the greater part of the year, are the basis that support its swarming population, while its timber of every quality, its plants of medicinal virtue, its numerous and exquisite dyeing drugs, and its cottons and other vegetable articles of clothing, offer to its inhabitants the materials of enjoyment and civilization.

The most distinguishing feature in tropical landscapes is the multitude of lofty trees of the palm kind. The cocoa nut tree, perhaps the most widely diffused of any, is found in abundance on the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel. The areca palm, the smaller fan-palm is distinguished for its broad fan-shaped leaves, which are used for writing on, and for thatching. This although a large tree is far inferior to the greater fan-palm which abounds on the lower mountains of the Carnatic; each leaf of this vast tree is capable of covering ten or a dozen men, and two or three of them are sufficient to roof a cottage.

Of the other fruit bearing trees there are, the papaw fig, remarkable for the sweetness and rose flavour of their fruit; the pillaw is a tree of equal singularity and use; from its trunk and larger branches are produced fibrous bags, sometimes of the weight of twenty-five pounds, which are filled with nuts like the chesnut, and resembling the almond in flavour. The mango however is reckoned the most exquisite of the Indian fruits, and is found in considerable abundance, both wild and cultivated through the whole Peninsula.

Of the trees whose produce is used in medicine or the arts, the most worthy of notice are the cassia fistula; the tamarind; the gambogia; the laurus cassia, whose bark is a common substitute for cinnamon; cæsalpina sappan, a red wood used in dyeing; sandal wood, &c. The chief timber trees are the teak, used specially for ship building;

the ebony; and the ferreola, the hardest of all the Indian woods.

A few other trees require notice from the size or beauty, such as the banyan tree and Indian fig; the hibiscus ficulneus is remarkable by its magnitude, and the profusion of its elegant blossoms, and is of peculiar value in the tropical climate, as hardly any insects are found under its shade. The cotton tree rises with a thorny trunk eighteen feet in circumference to the height of fifty feet without a branch, it then throws out numerous boughs, which are adorned in the rainy season with purple blossoms as large as the open hand, and these are succeeded by capsules filled with a fine kind of cotton.

The numerous cavalry which form the armies of the Hindoo princes imply great numbers of horses; and the breeds most celebrated are those of Lahore and Turkistan, but the grandees are supplied from Persia and Arabia.

The cattle of Hindostan are numerous, and often of a large size, with a hunch on the shoulders. The sheep are covered with hair instead of wool, except in the most northern parts,

Antelopes abound, of various beautiful kinds, particularly that called the Nilgau, which is of a considerable size.

The Arabian camel, or that with a single hunch, is not unfrequent about Patna. The elephant has been frequently described; the usual height of this intelligent animal is about ten feet. Apes and monkies abound in various regions of Hindostan; and the orang outang is said to be found in the vast forests on the W. of the Sircars. The dogs are generally of the cur kind, with sharp erect ears, and pointed noses. The other animals are wild boars, bears, wolves, foxes, jackalls, hyenas, leopards, panthers, lynxes: in the north, musk weasels, and many other quadrupeds of inferior size.

The lion seems to have been always unknown in Hindostan. The royal Tiger of Bengal is however a far more terrible animal than the stoutest lion. Such is their size and strength that they are said to carry off bullocks, the height of some being said to be five feet, and the length in proportion. Parties of pleasure on the isles at the mouth of the Ganges have often been shockingly interrupted by the sudden appearance of the tiger, prepared for his fatal spring, which is said to extend a hundred feet, not improbable when

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compared with that of the cat. Wild peacocks abound in Tibet and Ceylon; our common fowl are also found wild in the jungles, whence they are called jungle fowl.

**MINERALS.** The mineralogy of Hindostan may be opened by its most distinguished and peculiar product, celebrated in all ages of the world, that of diamonds, which are indeed also found in Brazil, but of far inferior quality.

The chief and most celebrated diamond mines are those near Visiapour and Golconda, both near streams that flow into the Kistna in the scuthern division of Hindostan, Golconda being in the territory of the Nizam, while Visiapour belongs to the Marattas.

Next in value to the diamond are the sapphire and the ruby which are chiefly found in the Birman territories; but the ruby also occurs in Ceylon, which likewise produces an inferior kind of sapphire, the topaz, and other precious stones.

Among the metals gold is found in the rivers which flow from Tibet into the Ganges and Indus; but no gold mines seem ever to have been known in Hindostan, which has rather been celebrated for attracting this metal in commerce from other countries. Silver seems rare in general throughout the oriental regions, and there is no indication of this mineral through all India.

**NATURAL CURIOSITIES.** Among the singular features of nature may be mentioned the appearance of the provinces on the rivers, during the season of inundation, when access is opened by numerous channels to places before inland. The grand aspect of the northern mountains covered with snow, and the wide desert on the east of the Indus, between 4 and 500 miles in length and from 60 to 150 in breadth, are also grand features; as is the high table land of Mysore, supported by natural buttresses of mountains.

## GANGETIC HINDOSTAN,

OR, THE COUNTRIES ON THE GANGES.

**BRITISH POSSESSIONS.** Bengal, Bahar, with Benares, and some other districts to the west, forming the chief basis and centre of English power in this country, if

is proper first to consider them apart, and then proceed to some account of the other provinces. The British settlements here extend about 550 miles in length by 300 in breadth, in themselves a powerful kingdom. The native population is computed at ten or eleven millions of black subjects, exclusive of the English, whose number seems not authenticated.

**REVENUE.** The revenue of these British provinces is computed at 4,210,000*l.* sterling; the expense of collection, military and civil charges, &c. 2,540,000*l.* so that the clear revenue is 1,670,000*l.* They are well situated in respect to security from foreign invasion; and since they were in possession of the British have enjoyed more tranquillity than any part of Hindostan has known since the reign of Aurungzeb.

**GOVERNMENT.** The government of Bengal and its wide dependencies was first vested in a governor-general and a supreme council, consisting of a president and eleven counsellors; but in 1773 these were restricted to four, with Warren Hastings the governor-general, who were to direct all affairs, civil and military, in the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa; and to control the inferior governments of Madras on the E. and Bombay on the W. with Bencoolen in the island of Sumatra. The court of judicature consists of a chief justice and three other judges, with civil, criminal, naval, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction. The Hindoos are governed by their own laws.

**ARMY.** The military establishment in Bengal is always respectable, but varies according to the situation of affairs. The British troops are supported by the Sepoys, a well trained native militia.

**CITIES AND TOWNS.** The chief city of Bengal, and of all the British possessions in Hindostan, is Calcutta. The latitude is 22° 33' north, and the longitude 88° 28' east from Greenwich.

“Generally speaking, the description of one Indian city is a description of all; they being all built on one plan; with exceedingly narrow, confined, and crooked streets; with an incredible number of reservoirs and ponds, and a great many gardens interspersed. A few of the streets are paved with brick. The houses are variously built, some of brick, others with mud, and a still greater proportion with bamboos and mats; those of the latter kind are invariably

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of one story, and covered with thatch. Those of brick seldom exceed two floors, and have flat terraced roofs and are few in number.

“Calcutta, is, in part, an exception to this rule of building: for there the quarter inhabited by the English is composed entirely of brick buildings, many of which have more the appearance of palaces than of private houses; but the remainder of the city, and by much the greatest part, is built as above described. Calcutta is the emporium of Bengal, and the seat of the Governor General of India. It is a very extensive and populous city, being supposed at present to contain at least 500,000 inhabitants. Calcutta is situated on the western arm of the Ganges, at about one hundred miles from the sea; and the river is navigable up to the town for the largest ships that visit India. It is a modern city, having risen on the site of the village of Govindpour, about nine years ago. The citadel is superior in every point, as to strength and correctness of design, to any fortress in India: but on too extensive a scale to answer the useful purpose intended, that of holding a post in case of extremity.”

In this grand capital of British Asia the mixture of people and manners presents a picturesque and interesting scene. The black Hindoo, the olive-coloured Moor or Mahometan, contrast with the fair and florid countenances of the English; and the charms of the European damsel receive a foil from the dark Hindoo beauties. To the luxuries of the Asiatic are added the elegance and science of the English life. Even the newspapers are drawn up with care, and printed with elegance; and the Asiatic society, instituted by the late admirable Sir William Jones, forms a noble monument of science in a distant country.

The commerce of Calcutta is very great in salt, sugar, opium, silks, and muslins, &c. The fine muslins are chiefly fabricated in the rainy season from May to September, and, with calicoes, form a great part of the exports to Europe.

In the eastern part of the British possessions the most considerable town is Dacca, beyond the principal stream of the Ganges. Dacca is celebrated for manufactures of the most delicate muslins, so much in request in the European market. Hoogley, or Ugli, is a small but ancient city,

about 26 miles above Calcutta, on the grand western branch of the Ganges, which thence receives its name.

Patna is the capital of the province of Bahar, situated about 400 miles N. W. from Calcutta, being tolerably fortified, and a place of considerable trade; most of the saltpetre, in particular, exported to England is made in the province of Bahar.

Benares approaches to the western frontier of the British possessions, the district having been ceded to the East India Company in the year 1775. It is a rich, populous, and compact city, on the northern bank of the Ganges, about 460 miles from Calcutta.

On leaving the British possessions, towards the west, first occurs Allahabad, a city belonging to the nabob of Oude, but of little consequence.

Lucknow is the present capital of Oude, having superseded Fyzabad.

The great and good emperor Acbar constituted Agra the capital of the Mogul empire about A. D. 1566. It has rapidly declined.

To the N. W. of Agra, near the confines of Sindetic Hindostan, stands the celebrated city of Delhi, the Mahometan capital of India. This metropolis may be said to be now in ruins.

Oujein which may be considered as the farthest city in the south of that portion now under view. It is about six miles in circumference, surrounded by a strong wall, with round towers. The houses partly brick, partly wood, covered with lime, tarass, or tiles; the bazar, or market, is spacious, and paved with stone: there are four mosques, and several Hindoo temples, with a new palace built by Sindia.

About 80 miles south of Agra is the noted fort of Gwalior: it stands on an insulated rock about four miles in length, but narrow: the sides are almost perpendicular, from two to three hundred feet above the surrounding plain. On the top there is a town with wells and reservoirs, and some cultivated land. This celebrated fortress, which is about 80 miles to the south of Agra, was taken by surprise by a few English under Major Popham, in 1779

Adjoining to the British settlements in this part of India are the people of Aracan, Mickley, and Sirinagur, rude mountaineers, too unimportant to deserve a place in this epitome.

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## SINDETIK HINDOSTAN ;

OR,

## THE COUNTRIES ON THE RIVER SINDEH OR INDUS.

**EXTENT.** THIS part extends from the northern mountains of Cashmir, and the Hindoo Koh, in the north of Cabul, to the mouth of the Indus, a length of about 900 British miles, and about 350 in medial breadth.

We shall begin with the N. E. and end with the S. W. after mentioning that Agimer, which may be regarded as the most eastern city of this division, is little remarkable, except for a strong fortress on a hill.

**CHIEF CITIES AND TOWNS.** The town of Sirhind is placed by modern maps on the river Caggar, which Major Rennell supposes to follow a detached course into the gulph of Cutch; perhaps it may be lost in the great sandy desert.

Lahore, now the capital of the Seiks, was the residence of the first Mahometan conquerors before they advanced to the more central parts; and, including the suburbs, was supposed to be three leagues in length. From Lahore to Agra, near 500 English miles, there was an avenue of shady trees. The river Rauvee passes by Lahore, being the Reva of the Hindoos.

Almost due north from Lahore, at the supposed distance of about 200 British miles, stands Cashmir, the capital of the delightful province so called. "The city extends about three miles on each side of the river Jalum, over which are four or five wooden bridges, and occupies in some part of its breadth, which is irregular, about two miles. The houses, many of them two and three stories high, are slightly built of brick and mortar, with a large intermixture of timber. On a standing roof of wood is laid a covering of fine earth, which shelters the building from the great quantity of snow that falls in the winter season. In the summer season, the tops of the houses, which are planted with a variety of flowers, exhibit at a distance the spacious view of a beautifully chequered parterre. The streets are narrow, and choaked with the filth of the inhabitants, who are proverbially unclean." The country of Cashmir is a delicious vale, extending in an oval form, about 90 miles



from S. E. to N. W. It was subject to the Zagathai princes till A. D. 1586, when it became subject to the Monguls, and afterwards to the Afgans. Rice is the common product of the plains : while the surrounding hills yield wheat, barley, and other crops. The celebrated shawls are only manufactured here. The price at the loom is from 26s. to 5l. and the revenue is transmitted to the Afgan capital in this fabric. The Cashmirians are stout and well formed, but their features often coarse and broad, even those of the women, who in this northern part of India are of a deeper brown complexion than those of southern France or Spain. The dress is inclegant, but the people gay and lively, and fond of parties of pleasure on their delicious lake.

The wide space from Cashmir to Cabul is more remarkable for numerous streams and mountains than any other circumstance ; but the country is diversified with gentle hills, fertile vales, and stately forests, and besides delicate fruits and flowers is abundant in other productions. Ghizni was the seat of the first Mahometan conquerors, and the ancient capital of the country. The city of Cabul is the capital of the dominions of the Persian Shah, usually styled king of Candahar, whose dominions extend westward beyond the sea of Durrah, including a great part of Corasan, with the large Persian province of Segistan, being about 800 British miles in length by about half that breadth. Cabul is esteemed a considerable city, in a romantic and healthy situation.

Pursuing the course of the Indus towards the south, the small city and fortress of Attock which were only built by Achar, 1581, present themselves : but the vicinity was memorable in ancient times as the general passage from India to the west.

Moultan, the capital of the province so called, is about 170 British miles to the south of Attock, on the river Chunnab. It is a small city, and of little consequence, except for its antiquity and cotton manufacture.

The last remarkable city on the Indus is Tatta, the capital of the province of Sindi, and situated within the Delta, the upper part of which is well cultivated, while the lower presents only low brushwood, swamps, and lakes. At Tatta the heats are so violent, and the winds from the sandy deserts on the E. and N. W. so pernicious, that many pre-

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cautions are used. The manufactures of this city in silk, wool from Kerman, and cotton, have greatly declined.

## CENTRAL HINDOSTAN;

OR,

## THE MIDDLE PROVINCES.

**BOUNDARIES.** THIS division is chiefly bounded by Gangetic Hindostan on the north, and on the west by the sandy desert and the ocean. The southern limit is the river Kistna, with its tributary stream the Beema; while the east is washed by the bay of Bengal. The length E. to W. is little less than 1200 British miles; while the medial breadth is about 400. In it are comprehended the province of Orissa, with part of Golconda, Berar, Dowlatabad, Candeish, and Guzerat, and other districts of inferior name; and on the eastern shore are the British provinces of the Sircars.

**CHIEF CITIES.** In a natural transition from the division of India last described, the province of Guzerat first presents itself, like a large promontory, but the shores seem little adapted to commercial purposes. The chief city of Guzerat, Amedabad, is considerable, and well fortified, taken by the English under general Goddard in 1780, restored to the Marattas in 1783. Cambay, at the distance of more than 50 miles, is a handsome city, and formerly of great trade in spice, ivory, silk, and cotton cloths; but is now little frequented.

Surat was formerly more celebrated as the port whence the Mahometans of India embarked on their pilgrimage to Mecca, than for any other circumstance. The Portuguese seized Surat soon after their arrival in Hindostan; and it was among the first places in this country frequented by the English. It is said to contain 500,000 inhabitants.

Bombay at a considerable distance to the south is a well known English settlement, on a small island about seven miles in length, containing a very strong capacious fortress, a large city, a dock yard, and a marine arsenal. It was ceded to the English in 1662, by the Portuguese, as part of the dower of the queen of Charles II.

On leaving the shore and proceeding towards the east of central Hindostan, first occurs the city of Burhampour, of small note. Ellichpour is of considerable importance, being the chief city of Berar. Nagpour is the capital of the eastern division of the Maratta empire, as Poona is of the western, being a modern city of small size.

Not far to the east of this city begins that extensive and unexplored wilderness, which is pervaded by the great river Bain or Baun Gonga, and terminates in the mountains bounding the English Sircars.

On turning towards the west, few places of note arise, except Aurungabad, a modern city, deriving its name from Aurungzeb, in whose time it was the capital of the Deccan. Near this city is Dowlatabad, which gives name to the province, with a singular fortress on a peaked rock.

This central part of Hindostan was formerly the seat of great power, and the western coasts greatly frequented by foreign merchants of all nations, but its commerce has been transferred to the Ganges.

In later times the southern part of this coast was remarkable upon another account, being the chosen residence of daring pirates. They resembled on a small scale the piratical states of Barbary, and a succession of *Angrias* was continued till 1756, when the British seized Gheriah, the principal fortress.

### THE SOUTHERN DIVISION OF HINDOSTAN.

**BOUNDARIES.** THIS part, which may also be called the Deccan or south, is bounded by the river Kistna, and extends from the latitude of Bombay to the southern point of Cape Comorin, about 830 British miles in length, and about 350 of medial breadth. It contains nearly the whole of the province of Visiapour, and the most important part of that of Golconda, with the central kingdom of Mysore, the long eastern province of the Carnatic, the principalities of Tanjore, Travancore, and the Samorins of Calicut, the pepper coast of Canara, and other districts.

**BRITISH POSSESSIONS.** In addition to the district around Madras, the British power was, in 1792 and 1799, extended over wide provinces in the south and west of Mysore, and Seringapatam the capital is also in their possession.

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**CHIEF CITIES.** In recent times Seringapatam may be regarded as the most important city in this portion of Hindostan. It is situated in an isle, surrounded by the river Caveri, which is even here about five feet deep, and runs over a rocky channel. The length of this isle is about four miles, and the breadth about a mile and a half; the western side being allotted to the fortress, distinguished by regular out-works, magnificent palaces, and lofty mosques. The environs are decorated with noble gardens; and among the means of defence was what is called the *bound hedge*, consisting of every thorny tree or caustic plant of the climate, planted to the breadth of from thirty to fifty feet.

In this central territory the British also possess several considerable towns, Salem and Attore in the east; Dindigul, Coimbetore, Palicaud, on the south; and on the western coast, Paniyan, Ferokabad, Calicut, now nearly deserted, Tellicherri, Mangalore, and Carwar within forty miles of the Portuguese settlement of Goa; while on the south they approach within a like distance of Cochin. In the Carnatic they have long held Madrass, where they settled so early as 1640; but the fortress, which is strong, and includes a regular well built city, is of modern date. Unhappily there is no port, nor is there indeed one haven for large vessels, from the mouth of the Ganges to Trincomali on the eastern side of Ceylon, which renders this last of singular benefit to their commerce.

Not far from the western frontier of the settlement at Madrass stands Arcot, esteemed the capital of the Carnatic. The Navab often resides at Madrass. In his dominions there are several celebrated temples, visited by numerous pilgrims; in general the southern parts of Hindostan display more numerous edifices, and other marks of civilization, than the northern.

Tranquebar is a noted Danish settlement in the kingdom of Tanjore, which embraces the wide Delta of the Caveri. This settlement was formed about 1617, and has been chiefly remarkable on account of the Lutheran missionaries, who resorted hither to convert the Hindoos. Pondicherri was the principal settlement of the French, founded in 1674, and before the war of 1756, was a large and beautiful city.

On the western coast, or that of Malabar, stands Cochin. This city remained subject to the Portuguese till 1660, when it was taken by the Dutch. The surrounding creeks and marshes of this low and unhealthy shore abound with fish and game.

To the north of the British territories first occurs Goa, formerly a capital settlement of the Portuguese, and a noted seat of their Inquisition. This city, once magnificent, stands on a small isle in the midst of a beautiful bay. The harbour is ranked among the first in India, and if in the hands of the English, would probably resume its former consequence.

Porna is the capital of the western empire of the Marattas, but a mean defenceless city; the archives of the government, and in all appearance the chief seat of power, being at Pcorunder, a fortress about eighteen miles to the south-east.

Visiapour in the Maratta territory is a considerable city. In the vicinity are celebrated diamond mines.

Hydrabad is the metropolis of the Nizam's territory, and particularly of the celebrated kingdom or province of Golconda, but seems otherwise little remarkable. Betwixt these two last named cities stands Calberga, formerly the capital of a powerful kingdom, that of the Deccan, under the Bamineah dynasty.

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